Ondokuzmayıs Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

TEACHING VOCABULARY TO YOUNG EFL LEARNERS THROUGH SEMANTIC-MAPPING TECHNIQUE

Hazırlayan:
Ayşegül YILDIZ

Danışman:
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Müfit ŞENEL

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

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KABUL VE ONAY

Ayşegül YILDIZ tarafından hazırlanan "Teaching Vocabulary to Young EFL Learners Through Semantic-Mapping Technique" başlıklı bu çalışma 04/06/2012 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oybirliği/oyçokluğuyla başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Hazırladığım Yüksek Lisans tezinde, proje aşamasından sonuçlanmasına kadarki süreçte bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet ettiğimi, tez içindeki tüm bilgileri bilimsel ahlak ve gelenek çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu çalışmamda doğrudan veya dolaylı olarak yaptığım her alıntıya kaynak gösterdiğimi ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu taahhüt ederim.

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Ayşegül YILDIZ

ÖZET

Öğrencinin Adı Soyadı	**Ayşegül YILDIZ**
Anabilim Dalı	**Yabancı Diller Eğitimi**
Danışmanın Adı	**Yrd.Doç.Dr. Müfit ŞENEL**
Tezin Adı	**Kavramsal Haritalama Tekniğiyle Genç Öğrencilere Kelime Öğretimi**

Bu deneysel çalışma kavramsal haritalama tekniğinin genç öğrencilere kelime öğretimindeki olumlu etkilerini görmek amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Çalışmanın örneklemi Bafra Ticaret Sanayi Odası İlköğretim Okulundaki 2 farklı 6. sınıf öğrencileridir. Bu çalışma her biri 27 öğrenci içeren deney ve kontrol grubuna sahiptir. Elde edilen bulguları değerlendirmek için t-test kullanılmıştır.

Bu çalışmada aşağıdaki sorular cevaplanmaya çalışılmıştır.

Birincisi, kavramsal haritalama tekniği ile kelime öğretilen öğrencilerle öğretilmeyenler arasında anlamlı bir fark var mıdır? Bu aynı zamanda çalışmanın araştırma sorusudur.

İkincisi, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin ön-test ve son-test sonuçları arasında önemli farklar var mıdır? Bu soru deney grubundaki öğrencilerin son-test sonuçlarına t-test uygulandıktan sonra istatistiksel sonuçlara göre cevaplanacaktır.

Üçüncüsü, kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerin ön-test ve son-test sonuçları arasında önemli farklar var mıdır? Bu soru da kontrol grubundaki öğrencilerin son-test sonuçlarına t-test uygulandıktan sonra istatistiksel sonuçlara göre cevaplanacaktır.Sürecin başında deney ve kontrol grupları arasında benzerlik olup olmadığını doğrulamak ve öğrenci seviyesini tespit etmek amacıyla öğrencilere ön-test uygulanmıştır. Öğrencilerin ön-test sonuçları anlamlı sonuçlar vermemiş ve çalışma, özellikle öğretim süreci başlatılmıştır.

Öğretme sürecinin sonunda öğrencilerin ön-test ve son-test sonuçlarında deney grubu lehine istatistiksel olarak önemli farklar bulunamamıştır. Kavramsal haritalama yöntemi önemli düzeyde deney grubu öğrencilerinin kelime bilgilerini yükseltmemiştir. Bu çalışmada geleneksel kelime öğretim tekniği ile kavramsal haritalama tekniği arasındaki farkın anlamlı olmadığı bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kavramsal Haritalama, Hafıza, Kelime Öğretimi, Kısa Süreli Bellek, Dil Öğrenimi

ABSTRACT

Student's Name and Surname	**Ayşegül YILDIZ**
Department's Name	**Foreign Languages Education**
Name of the Supervisor	**Asst. Prof. Dr. Müfit ŞENEL**
The Name of the Thesis	**Teaching Vocabulary through Semantic Mapping Technique to Young EFL Learners**

This experimental study has been conducted in order to see the positive effects of semantic mapping technique in teaching vocabulary to young learners. The sample of the research is the two different classes of 6th grades at Ticaret Sanayi Odası Primary School. This study has an experimental and a control group which consist each of 27 students. In order to evaluate the obtained data, the t-test has been used.

The following questions have been tried to be answered in this study.

First, "Is there a significant difference between the vocabulary knowledge of students who are taught vocabulary through semantic mapping technique and those who are not?" This is the research question of the study.

Second, "Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group?" This question will be answered according to the statistical results after applying t-test to the post-test scores of experimental students.

Third, "Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group?" This question will also be answered according to the statistical results after applying t-test to the post-test scores of students included in control group.

At the beginning of the process, students are applied a pre-test to determine their level and to confirm whether there are similarity between experimental and control groups. The findings on pre-test results of students do not yield meaningful results and the study, especially instruction process of teaching vocabulary has been launched.

As a result of the data analysis, a statistically significant difference has not been found between pre and post-test scores of the students in favour of experimental group. Semantic mapping technique does not raise significantly the vocabulary knowledge of experimental students. Semantic mapping technique in teaching vocabulary does not yield meaningful results compared to traditional vocabulary teaching technique in this study.

Key Words: Semantic Mapping, Memory, Teaching Vocabulary, Short Term Memory, Language Learning

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ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	: English Language Teaching
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ESL	: English as a Second Language
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STM	: Short-Term Memory
LTM	: Long-Term Memory
DOPH	: Depth of Processing Information Hypothesis
ZPD	: Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER 1- INTRODUCTION

In this part, problem, research question, sub-questions, aim of the study, significance of the study, hypotheses, assumptions, definitions and limitations of the study will be given.

1.1. PROBLEM

Learning a foreign language expresses a huge importance in our world today. Our developing and changing world may prerequisite learning at least one foreign language. It is not enough only learning a foreign language, effective use of the language learned is another prerequisite. To be able to be an efficient user, the learners have to gain an utmost dominance over the target language. To achieve this ambition the learner should be equipped with a profound knowledge of grammar and a comprehensive vocabulary repertoire.

Vocabulary forms the core of the foreign language learning for a learner. It is central to language and has a great significance to language learners. When English is considered as a second (hereafter ESL) or foreign language (hereafter EFL), vocabulary teaching has a crucial place since the need to learn vocabulary is agreed by most of the language teachers and learners (Allen, 1983:6). “Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions, ideas without which people cannot convey the intended meaning” (Ghazal, 2007: 84). Extensive and effective vocabulary knowledge is a pathway to reach an elaborative grammar of foreign language.

There are various techniques and approaches to vocabulary teaching but lots of them do not seem to have gained an acceptance. The techniques proposed and exemplified in the literature (e.g. Doff, 1998; Nation, 1983; Haycraft, 1978; Gairns and Redman, 1986) include presentation through demonstration (gestures, action performing), visual aids (pictures, photographs, blackboard drawings, objects, transparencies), semantic mapping technique, verbal explanation (definition, context, translation, word lists and lexical sets).

Semantic-mapping is one of these techniques that can be introduced to learners regardless of their level of proficiency. It involves drawing a diagram of the relationships between words according to their use in a particular text. “Semantic mapping technique has the effect of bringing relationships in a text to consciousness for the purpose of deepening the understanding of a text and creating associative networks for words. It is best introduced as a collaborative effort between the teacher and the class” (Stahl & Vancil, 1986: 64). If students are aware of the process of forming meaningful networks, it is easier and more creative to take an active role by themselves.

Vocabulary is an indispensable element in language and learners have great difficulty in its learning. Learning vocabulary is one of the most important problematic areas in learning foreign language process. Throughout the school life of a student, different foreign language teachers apply different techniques to students while teaching vocabulary in the target language in order to find a solution to this problem. Generally these techniques are limited to Turkish equivalents of a word given by the teacher orally. Although this is a common technique almost seen in every language class, the retention level of these words taught by just equivalent is very low. Semantic mapping, one of the promising technique in vocabulary teaching, is viewed as an efficient way so it is preferred by some language teachers.

In this study it is aimed at showing whether the use of semantic mapping technique will yield meaningful results in vocabulary learning and the instruction period is planned as an eight-week training process.

1.2. RESEARCH QUESTION

Is there a significant difference between the experimental group where content words will be taught through semantic mapping technique and the control group that will be taught with traditional techniques?

1.3. SUB-QUESTIONS

1. Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group?

2. Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group?

1.4. AIM OF THE STUDY

The study aims at whether there will be a significant difference in vocabulary learning between the experimental and control group. The effectiveness of semantic-mapping technique will be compared with traditional techniques in order to determine its effects on vocabulary learning.

1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In learning a foreign language, vocabulary plays an important role. It is one element that links the four skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing altogether (Nguyen & Khuat, 2003: 28). In order to be efficient communicator in a foreign language, learners should acquire an adequate number of words and should be aware of how to use them accurately. According to Harmer "if language structure makes up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (1994: 153). To get a message across the language, one should use the appropriate vocabulary; otherwise, the communication comes to an end.

Having limited vocabulary is also a barrier that prevents students from learning a foreign language. "If learners do not know how to expand their vocabulary, they gradually lose interest in learning"(Barska, 2006, cited in Tavil & İşisağ, 2009: 301). It is obvious that, in order to talk like the native speakers, you have to listen to the things they say and read the things they write. *Whe*n you do so, you learn new words and grammar structures that you can use to express your thoughts. As a result, it becomes

easier and easier for you to build your own sentences in the foreign language and to raise an interest in the target language.

Semantic-mapping technique is an alternative element of teaching vocabulary techniques family. It needs the students' interest and help them visualize their background knowledge creating an enjoyable learning atmosphere out of monotony in the field of ELT.

1.6. HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a significant difference between the word knowledge of the student taught through semantic mapping technique and those who are not.

2. There will be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group.

3.There will also be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group.

1.7. ASSUMPTIONS

1- The levels of English knowledge of both the experimental group and the control group are assumed to be similar.

2- Subjects are assumed to participate in the tasks with their full concentration.

3- Subjects are assumed to attend the pre and post-tests sincerely and with their full concentration.

1.8. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Foreign Language: A language that is learned in addition to one's mother tongue in a classroom environment consciously.

Second Language: Language that is acquired or learned in addition to one's mother tongue subconsciously in an environment or place where it is a native one.

Young Learners: Learner groups between the ages of 7 and 12.

Gender: Fact of being male or female.

Strategy: A plan that is intended to achieve a particular purpose (Hornby, 2000: 1284).

Semantic-mapping: Semantic-mapping is a technique that displays graphically information related to a topic or concept and stimulates meaningful word associations (Stoller, 1994 : 3).

Technique: Any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives (Brown, 2001: 17).

Rote Learning: It is a learning technique which avoids understanding the inner complexities and inferences of the subject that is being learned and instead focuses on memorizing the material in de-contextualized word lists.

Depth of Processing Information Hypothesis (DOPH): A theory of memory that stresses the nature of encoding at the time of acquisition. It argues that deeper levels of processing lead to better retention and retrieval.

Encoding: It stands for the processes of how items are placed into memory.

Retention: It is the storage of information over time.

Retrieval: It refers to the processes through which we recover items from memory by means of recall or recognition.

Recall: It is the measure of memory in which the person must reproduce information learned earlier.

1.9. LIMITATIONS

1- This study is limited to the influence of semantic-mapping use on vocabulary teaching.

2- This study is limited to sixth grade students in the experiment group and in the control group attending the Bafra Ticaret ve Sanayi Odası Primary School in Bafra.

3- The study is limited to an eight-week instruction.

CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In chapter 2, information about vocabulary, vocabulary teaching, its role in foreign language learning and word knowledge will be presented.

2.1. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is of paramount importance to all language learners. Vocabulary is vital to communicating with others and understanding what one is reading, saying and listening. Vocabulary is defined as the total number of words that you know in a particular language in Collins Cobuild Dictionary (1994: 1164) “Language consists of words and vocabulary is the collection of these words that an individual knows” (Linse, 2005: 121).Vocabulary, much more than grammar, is the key to our understanding and to communicating successfully with other people. For this reason it is very important for us building up a large store of words.

As we all know, words of a language are just like bricks of a high building, like a skyscraper. In spite of highly small pieces, they are vital to the great and gorgeous structure. A person's vocabulary is the accumulation of words they are familiar with in a language. A vocabulary is usually born, grows and evolves with age, and serves as a useful and basic tool for communication and acquiring knowledge during lifetime. “Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions, ideas without which people cannot convey the intended meaning” (Ghazal, 2007: 84). Vocabulary as an issue has always been one of the most important one in foreign language learning. Stephen Krashen (cited in Lewis, 1993: n.p.) proposed that learners do not carry grammar books in their pockets, but they carry dictionaries. Similarly, “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (Wilkins 1972: 111). The deficiency or absence of vocabulary in the target language is illustrated by Haycraft (1978: 44). He comments that learning a language without vocabulary is rather like trying to imagine a tree with no trunk and branches-but only leaves. Likewise, Harmer (1994: 153) underlines the vitality and necessity of vocabulary. He proposes that “if language structure make up the skeleton of language,

then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh". Any language student have to learn the lexis of the language to become a proficient user.

In sum, vocabulary is an important ingredient of language and learning vocabulary is an highly essential part of foreign language learning. Any language user or learner needs a wide array of words not only to communicate successfully but also to express himself clearly. Without them, a language is nothing.

2.1.1. The Role of Vocabulary in Foreign Language Learning

Learning vocabulary is a very important part of learning a language. The more words you know, the more you will be able to understand what you hear and read; and the better you will be able to say what you want to while speaking or writing. According to Decarrico (2001: 285) "Vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition, whether the language is first, second or foreign". In order to progress in a foreign language, learners need to be able to understand what they are hearing and reading. That is, the input must be comprehensible in order to be useful and meaningful to the learner for acquisition, but if learners do not understand a large portion of the vocabulary in the language that they are reading or hearing, then this language is not comprehensible and therefore cannot be useful for acquisition.

It is also possible for many foreign language learners after a limited period of time, to pronounce some of the words correctly and to know at least some of the basic structures and grammatical rules of the language. On the other hand, it may be more difficult for them to possess a range of vocabulary, which is wide enough to satisfy their needs in communication. It is a clear fact that foreign language learners always encounter new words, which hinder their comprehension in daily life. A limited vocabulary can prevent learners from developing ideas or arguments effectively in writing.

Many different techniques of vocabulary teaching in foreign language have been investigated and discussed with increasing interest each passing year. Decarrico (2001: 285) proposes that "Although vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language learning, interest in its role in foreign language has grown rapidly in recent years and specialists now emphasize the need for a systematic and principled approach

to vocabulary by both the teacher and the learner". The increasing and exciting interest as an evidence in this issue can be seen in many of the foreign language teaching books and studies and in the headlines such as " how to teach vocabulary ?", "what does knowing a word mean?" etc. A variety of studies have been conducted on teaching vocabulary in recent years.

According to McKeown and Beck (2003) "it is important to use both formal and informal vocabulary instruction that engages students cognitive skills and give opportunities for the learners to actually use the words" (cited in Linse, 2005: 122). Otherwise it will be superfluous to learn or memorize the words haphazardly. Teaching vocabulary is often given a lower priority than teaching grammar in the EFL classroom. One reason for this is that grammatical items can be more easily graded than lexical items so it is believed that if learners are able to internalise these basic patterns, then building a large vocabulary could come later and another reason is that both students and teachers see good grammatical control as the best indicator of level in a foreign language. The reality is that by teaching our students a good range of vocabulary we are providing them with the fundamental building blocks of communication. Without vocabulary there is no communication and because there are so many thousand words in a language, it is vital to start in advance.

Now it is for sure that vocabulary is indispensable with language teaching but it was not the same many years ago. The importance of vocabulary has varied through the years in different language teaching approaches and methods. The importance that we give to vocabulary teaching within the curriculum has changed on a large scale as the years passed. At some time, linguists and teachers gave more importance to grammar rather than vocabulary. During these times vocabulary was viewed as a substitute. For example, Grammar Translation Method underestimates the importance of vocabulary and limits it with the word lists. Like Grammar Translation Method, neither Direct Method nor Audio-Lingual Method gives necessary attention to vocabulary. The audio-lingual method advises that students be taught a language directly, without using the students' native language to explain new words or grammar in the target language. However, unlike the direct method, the audio-lingual method do not focus on teaching vocabulary. Instead, the teacher drills students in the use of grammar. The amount of

vocabulary presented in these two methods is really limited because Direct method supports the idea of importance of vocabulary via oral communication and of course that is a giant step against Grammar Translation Method. With the appearance of Audio-Lingual Method, vocabulary is started to be introduced through dialogues but that is also bordered with drills. When Communicative Language Teaching has come into being, there has been felt a relief in vocabulary teaching because communicative language teaching is based on authentic texts and therefore authentic vocabulary. Vocabulary has been started to be regarded as vital since then.

It is clear that the knowledge about the structures of the language is not enough for efficient communication. Certain amount of vocabulary is essential to everybody learning a second/foreign language since without the knowledge of vocabulary, it would not be possible to speak, read and understand any kind of material. Vocabulary learning is a complex process. This understanding has led to a considerable emphasis on vocabulary. Vocabulary has vital importance in any language classroom whether it is second or foreign and therefore giving attention to vocabulary is unavoidable.

2.1.2. Word Knowledge

Words mostly refer to classes of things, events, properties, not to individuals. Building up a useful vocabulary is crucial to the learning of a foreign language in the early stages of foreign language learning. No matter what the other opinions assume, children have the capacity of learning foreign language words via different methods and techniques.

Vocabulary has gained a huge importance in recent years but alongside this growing importance of vocabulary, the concept of word and its intended meaning should be scrutinized beforehand. Vocabulary development is about learning words but its importance is two-folded because vocabulary development is equal to both knowing a word and knowing about the word. The word is a key unit in building up skills and knowledge because children will ask what a particular word means, or how to say a word in the foreign language (Cameron, 2001: 72).

> "The role of words as language units begin with the early use of nouns for naming objects in first language acquisition, and of use of other words to express the child's wants and needs, e.g. "more!" or "no". Infants go through a period of rapid vocabulary growth as they start to name, as well as interact with, the world around them . There is an interesting coincidence in timing between infants learning to point, and a well documented sudden increase in the rate of acquisition of nouns for naming objects, as if the two reinforce each other by enabling children to get helpful adults to label the world for them" (Cameron, 2001: 73).

In other words, it is clear that it is a parallel process to learn the word automatically and then to know about the word and it occurs almost simultaneously in any kind of vocabulary development. We must be aware of the fact that even though children may use the words as adults do, they may not intend the same meanings for these words. For example is the meaning the same when we say fish (noun) or to fish (verb)?

> "When a baby learns a word, a major part of its task is to find out where the boundaries of the relevant class lie :cat refer to all four –legged creatures, all domestic animals, all felines, all furry things or just the family pet? As small children learn vocabulary ,in fact they are simultaneously learning the world, as it is categorised and described by the culture into which they have been born. To some extent, children seem to have built-in strategies for fitting categories to words-for instance they take it for granted if nouns refer to objects, these will be discrete whole objects. Nonetheless the process involves a good deal of trial and error, and young children especially over-generalize or under-generalize" (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997: 164).

Namely, this generalisation process made by a child will find the light sooner or later because while the child is over-generalising all four –legged animals and call them as the "dog", one day s/he will learn how to separate them from one another. That is why the acquisition of word meanings takes much time than the acquisition of the spoken form of the same words and we can clearly see this in a child's speech. They can easily choose a word but without knowing its intended meaning and this situation makes us to suppose that the child is a proficient language user. Lynne Cameron describes this event with a perfect example. He compares a flower growing in the soil to words. All we see above ground is flower, but that flower is kept alive and growing by roots that spread underneath it. Underneath the flowers of spoken words lie the roots, a connected web of meanings, understandings and links (2001: 74).

Throughout their childhood, children use words only with a slight understanding of the full meaning system, like an iceberg. They use the words but in fact they do not mean what they have uttered but the people around them, seeing the tip of ice, all think that my child is a " proficient language user" and is capable of choosing the best word in every situation but in fact its vice versa. So vocabulary development is about learning words, but learning words is not something stable.

Learning word is an ongoing process of meeting with words, remembering them in later usages and extending them while building blocks of language cyclically. Children meet new words in daily life continually and thus they broaden their horizons while empowering the roots of the flowers as mentioned above. Language learning is limited partly by the way our minds work, and our understanding and vision of language is highly affected by our concept of language, there is a mutual relation between these terms.

On the other hand language use involves much more than the ability to produce sentences. When children learn their first language they begin by linking lexical items together, they acquire basic word order and then syntactical markers come but this seems as a long process. However according to Schmitt and McCarthy (1997: 165) "foreign language learners have one great advantage over infants because they have already learnt how one culture categorises and labels the world".

> "Whatever the differences among human cultures and their perceptions, there is also massive common ground , so we already know a lot about the scope of much second language vocabulary before we learn it. We can take it for granted, for example, that another language will have ways of talking about dogs, babies, pain, drinking ,sleeping, work, heat and cold; if we are told that a particular train is Zug, poyezed or treno, we know the chances are that the foreign word can be applied, more or less, to the whole class of things that we call train in English" (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997: 165).

In other words, during this ongoing learning process, the words that we utter may not be a real indicator of our knowledge of this item, there should be some other knowledge to master a word completely.

These types of knowledge are summarised according to Nation in Table -1 below.

Table 1. Nation's Taxonomy of Word Knowledge

Type of knowledge	**What is involved**
Receptive knowledge	To understand it when it is spoken or written
Memory	To recall it when needed
Conceptual knowledge	To use it with the correct meaning
Knowledge of the spoken form: Phonological knowledge	To hear the word and to pronounce it acceptably, on its own, and in phrases and sentences
Grammatical knowledge	To use it in a grammatically accurate way, to know grammatical connections with other words
Collocational knowledge	To know which other words can be used with it.
Orthographic knowledge	To spell it correctly
Pragmatic knowledge ,knowledge of style and register	To use it in the right situation
Connotational knowledge	To know its positive and negative associations, to know its associations with related words
Meta-linguistic knowledge	To know explicitly about the word

(cited in Cameron, 2001: 77)

In short, knowing about a word starts with knowing about its form and goes on with its meaning, its pronunciation, its accurate usage grammatically, its spelling and its association with other words. Just uttering a word or knowing a word does not signify its real acquisition. Thus, there must be something more to support this utterance in order to say that “I have learned it”.

CHAPTER 3 -CLASSIFICATIONS OF VOCABULARY TEACHING TECHNIQUES

In this part, a classification of vocabulary teaching techniques will be presented. Implicit and explicit vocabulary teaching will be compared as well. Traditional and current trends in vocabulary teaching will be discussed.

3.1. Teaching Vocabulary

It is an undeniable fact that vocabulary is a significant element in language teaching. Due to the important role of the words in expressing our feelings, emotions and ideas, foreign language teachers should weigh on the matter of vocabulary in their own classes. As we all know, communication is a bilateral relationship between the hearer and the speaker. The hearer should comprehend what he hears in the target language but if the hearer does not have the sufficient knowledge of language, he cannot decode the message sent by the speaker. It follows from this that vocabulary is of great importance for real communication.

Scrivener (1994: 73) summarizes all the research findings about the importance of vocabulary with a few sentences:

> "Vocabulary is a powerful carrier of meaning. Beginners often manage to communicate in English by using the accumulative effect of individual words. A student who says Yesterday. *Go disco. And friends. Dancing.* will almost certainly get much of his message over despite completely avoiding grammar – the meaning is conveyed by the vocabulary alone. A good knowledge of grammar, on the other hand, is not such a powerful tool. I *wonder if you could lend me your…* means little without a word to fill the gap, whereas the gapped word- calculator- on its own could possibly communicate the desired message: *Calculator?* " .

In the excerpt above, it is not difficult to see that reduction of word number in a sentence does not hinder the intended meaning. So there is no need to explain what we mean in long-winded way because instead of saying "I wonder if you could lend me your calculator" we can just utter the word "calculator" and easily get it ,and this is the power of word. Thus, vocabulary is an indispensable part of language learning and language teaching process.

As the present day, the use of English language has spread the whole world and the young learners are being included into this group each passing day. Tavil and İşisağ (2009: 300) propose that "While children are trying to learn a foreign language, they apply the skills of their first language acquisition to this new language because they are regarded as 'natural learner', with many vital qualities such as curiosity, energy and spontaneity. This implies that learning activities for children must be suited to their stage of mental development". Today it is widely known that children learn best through discovery and experimentation and being motivated to learn. They tend to pick up language from other children relatively quickly because they want to play and make friends.

Then the stable question about the discrepancy of teaching vocabulary to young learners and adults lies in the fact that children have an innate capacity, enthusiasm, a brain like a sponge and unstoppable curiosity towards learning, therefore it is easier and more enjoyable to teach vocabulary to children than to adults. The common point students, teachers, material writers and researchers all agree that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a foreign language.

Research in this field has shown that vocabulary teaching should be a part of the syllabus, and it should be taught in a well-planned way. According to Lewis (1993: n. p.), vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching due to the fact that 'language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar'. He has highlighted the fact that vocabulary is the basic core element of communication. It is certain that if learners do not recognise the meaning of words they will be unable to participate in the conversation, even if they know the morphology, syntax, or anything else.

3.2. Vocabulary Teaching Techniques

In foreign language teaching to young learners, there are numerous different techniques, and each teacher has its own rules and principles. They are the carriers of vocabulary teaching and it is difficult to determine which one is the best or better. If the class is a student-centred one, the technique will be determined by the students based their unique choices but when we look from a more widened perspective, it is not difficult to

realize the plurality of teacher-centred classrooms and teacher oriented vocabulary teaching methods. There are many ways, techniques and strategies to teach vocabulary. It depends on the teacher, and the vocabulary items about which technique to choose. There is not a "best" one but, all the conditions should be kept in mind to find the most appropriate one. According to Doff (1998: 11) there are some techniques for teaching new words:

- Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
- Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
- Translate the word into the students' own language.
- Ask students to translate the word.
- Draw a picture to show what the word means.
- Give an English example to show how the word is used.
- Ask questions using the new word.

Gairns and Redman (1986: 73) divide the techniques into two main categories : visual techniques and verbal techniques. Visual techniques include "visuals, mime and gesture. Verbal techniques include use of illustrative situations, use of synonym and definition, contrasts and opposites, scales, examples of the type." Gürsoy also (2001) divides the techniques in two categories: "Visual techniques include the use of realia, pictures, body movements, gestures, graphs, diagrams, flashcards, blackboard drawings, plastic replicas, models, etc. whereas verbal techniques include the use of antonyms, synonyms, dictionary, verbal explanations, context, translation, definitions, examples of the type". On the other hand, Haycraft (1978: 47) categorizes the techniques of teaching new vocabulary as below :

- In context
- Creating a context
- Descriptions
- Outside the classroom
- Objects
- Drawing

- Mime
- Opposites
- Synonyms
- Translation
- Flashcards
- Wall charts
- Word games

As is seen different linguists and scholars have made different classifications about vocabulary teaching techniques and it is up to teacher to choose the most proper one for his class.

3.2.1. Visual Technique

It is an undeniable fact that, especially for children, usage of visuals has always been supported and accepted both by teachers and learners. Not only the children but also adults and adolescents are generally voluntary to see, touch and sometimes mime in a learning situation. Through visual techniques, new vocabulary is presented via visuals, flashcards, mime and gesture, wall charts and realia. Teachers may also prefer huge posters, colourful pictures, puppets, toys for children because of their lively and curious nature. Teaching vocabulary may become easier with the use of cards with pictures and diagrams. In this way, words are remembered by their colour or position on a page or their association with other words, pictures or phrases. Images can link to a word; words can also be linked to other words, for example, a student might link the word 'flower' with 'garden' and with 'florist'. The idea of engaging the other sense may also help with developing a kind of semantic map in which words are listed related to each other, which creates a situation where one word reminds the student of another and the chain becomes larger. According to Gairns and Redman (1986: 73) "visuals are extensively used for conveying meaning and are particularly useful for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as food or furniture, and certain areas of vocabulary such as places, professions, descriptions of people, actions and activities". According to Nation (2001: 85); "an advantage of using actions, objects, pictures or diagrams is that learners can see an instance of the meaning and this is likely to be remembered". Sometimes a picture is worth a thousand words, and this is especially true when teaching English as a foreign language. Visual aids can also be used to teach every kind of word. In addition to

instructional advantages, visuals keep lessons interesting for the learners and it makes your job easier and more enjoyable.

3.2.2. Verbal Techniques

According to Gairns and Redman (1986: 74), verbal techniques, as a traditional technique, are divided into five main groups. These techniques are handled below:

a) Usage of illustrative situations :

The usage of illustrative situations works best in abstract situations. In order to be sure that students understand, teachers make use of more than one situation or context. On these situations the teacher creates a scenario and asks students and compels them find the needed word subconsciously. Gairns and Redman (1986: 74) explain this technique with an example as below:

To illustrate the meaning of "I don't mind". The following context may be useful: Ali likes *Dallas* and *Upstairs, Downstairs* equally. Unfortunately they are both on television at the same time. It does not matter to him which programme he watches. How does he answer this question?

Teacher : Do you want to watch *Dallas* or *Upstairs, Downstairs* ?

Ali : I……..

In the example above the very needed word is "I don't mind" and the absence of this word creates a learning atmosphere.

b) Usage of Synonymy and Definition :

As its name suggests, the teacher offers the definitions of the words or gives the synonymous word directly. Synonymy is generally used with lower levels of students and teacher gives an easier word for equivalence. However, as Gairns and Redman (1986: 74) propose that definition alone is often inadequate as a means of conveying meaning since the students may over-generalize the same word to an improper situation. Demirel (1999: 139) mentions the use of synonym as a way of teaching vocabulary in

foreign language. The usage of synonym is the sub-heading of "making explanations in the target language".

c) Contrasts and Opposites :

In this technique, also called as" Antonyms and Synonyms", the teacher has not got an active role because the students ask themselves the same question continually "what is the opposite of…..?" . A new item like "tall" is easily illustrated by contrasting it with "short". Even when the students understand the meaning of a word, if the teacher provides them with the antonyms, they will be learned easily and will be more retained.

"Male χ female
long χ short
beautiful χ ugly
open χ close"
maybe all given together when the students know one of the items.

d) Scales

When the students have learnt two contrasting or gradable items, now it is time to learn the things between those. For example; if they have learned *hot* and *cold,* they may learn freezing, chilly, and warm and these words can be shown on a scale on the blackboard.

e)Examples of the Type/Hyponym

When the meaning of one word is included in the meaning of another, this relationship is described as hyponym. In order to illustrate the umbrella term for a group words this technique is applicable. After writing on the board the names of the vegetables, the teacher may show the whole with an umbrella stating that they are all vegetables. In order to convey the meaning the meaning of "flower", for example, the hyponyms or the types of flowers can be presented as below:

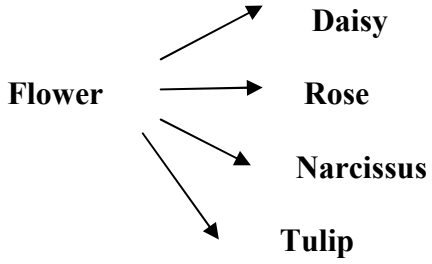


Figure 1. Hyponyms of Flowers

In the example above, the "flower" is the upper/ super-ordinate term/umbrella term but "rose, tulip, narcissus and daisy" are lower terms/hyponyms/types of "flower".

In teaching vocabulary, techniques may vary because the level, the interest and the need of the students differ from one another. The success of all these techniques depends on their consistency with the method and approach preferred. They should be effective and appropriate for the students and classroom atmosphere as well. Therefore, which technique to be chosen and how to apply it effectively must be the real duty for the teacher.

3.3. More Recent Trends in Teaching Vocabulary Items

Vocabulary teaching and learning is central to the theory and practice of ELT. Words have a central place in culture and learning words is seen by many people as the main task and sometimes as an obstacle in learning other language. In order to overcome this obstacle for many years linguists, teachers and scholars have been proposing different strategies, approaches and techniques and have been thinking on to decide which one is the best or better to apply. One of these debates emerging from the studies deals with whether effective vocabulary learning should focus on explicit or implicit vocabulary teaching. In the 1970s and 1980s, the communicative approach led naturally to a focus on implicit, incidental learning. In modern methodology two main tendencies set apart: the methods in which the teacher has the most important role and chooses the items students will learn opposing the one where focus shifts away from the teacher to the students. This makes students more responsible for their own learning and allows to meet individual needs of each student. Another perspective that has gained increasing importance in language teaching was that of the student as a "whole person".

In other words, language teaching is not just about teaching language, it is also about helping students to develop themselves. All of these beliefs compel a number of different teaching methodologies and techniques stressing the humanistic aspects of language learning. In these kinds of methodologies, the development of students' personality and the encouragement of positive feelings are the key elements in learning. According to Decarrico (2001: 290) "Under the light of these methodologies, teachers encouraged students to recognize clues to word meanings in context and to use monolingual dictionaries, and textbooks emphasized inferring word meaning from context". On the other hand, today, although it is accepted that exposure to words is extremely important, it is also viewed as a vocabulary acquisition, that is why a well - structured and balanced program is needed which includes explicit teaching (Decarrico, 2001: 291). Anita Sökmen (1997: 239) states the teaching techniques and activities below as current trends in vocabulary teaching and his classification is also supported by Decarrico .

3.3.1. Explicit Vocabulary Teaching

Explicit vocabulary teaching involves directing student attention toward specific learning in a highly structured environment. It is teaching that is focused on producing specific learning outcomes. Topics and contents are broken down into small meaningful parts and taught individually. It involves explanation, demonstration and practise. Students are provided with guidance and structured frameworks. Topics are taught in a logical order and directed by the teacher. There are numerous ways of presenting the new vocabulary such as through definitions, word lists, word associations, semantic mapping, realia, pictures, enumeration, translation or explanation. Paul Nation (2001: 86) points out that there are some advantages of direct teaching. First, it can raise students' awareness of particular words so that they notice them when they meet them while reading. Second, due to the fact that non-native speakers know very few English words at the beginning, it is practical and feasible to directly teach high frequency words.

Third, direct vocabulary teaching is a way to speed up the second language learning process. In this approach students are directly busy with the words and activities related to these words. Sökmen offers 5 key principles in explicit vocabulary teaching that can

be helpful and a guideline to language teachers. (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 239). These are building a large sight of vocabulary, integrating new words with the old, promoting a deep level of processing, facilitating imaging and concreteness and using mnemonic devices.

3.3.1.1. Building a Large Sight of Vocabulary

Any foreign language learner should develop a large sight of vocabulary and a word treasure in case they can reach the word meaning whenever needed. Learners will want to learn but how should a language teacher decide how many words to teach and how to eliminate the words to be taught? 'Sight vocabulary' is the 'set of words that a person can recognize as wholes without decomposing them into their elements' (Encyclopedia, 2001). Sight vocabulary are usually the most frequently used words. "Usually the 2000-word level has been set as the most suitable limit for high-frequency words" (Nation 2001: 14). According to Nation (2001: 15), about '165 word families' at this level are 'function words such as *a, some, two, because* and *to*' with the rest being 'content words, that is nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs'. These 'high-frequency words are so important that anything that teachers and learners can do to make sure they are learned is worth doing" (Nation, 2001: 16). Sökmen (1997: 239) holds the same view by saying that "learning the 2000 most frequent words in English can be very productive". The commonly referred 2000 word list in the vocabulary studies literature is the 'General Service List'. Example words from the 'List' include *the, be, of, and, a, to, in, he, have, it* (the first ten words on the list) and *whom, homework, electrician, oar, bribery, sweeten, sow, pronunciation, beak, plural* (the last ten words on the list). In general, explicit vocabulary teaching should focus on turning these high-frequency words into the learners' sight vocabulary. Decarrico (2001: 288) points out another very important issue in building a large sight of vocabulary. She highlights the fact that "we can maximize vocabulary considerably by teaching word families instead of individual word forms. A word family is a set of words that includes a base word plus its inflections or derivations". That is why while teaching the sets should be taught together with its inflections such as *watch, watched, watches,* and *watching* since it will be more retained in students' brains and associations among them can be seen easily. Along with high-frequency words, the motivation factor also should be taken into account while building

a large sight of vocabulary (Baddeley, 2006: 240). The more motivated the learner, the better and durable the learning will be. If we take this motto into account, the teacher should prefer the words that students want to learn. The words we will choose may come from students' lives, their environment or their hobbies and interests. No matter what words we choose, high frequency, difficult or student-selected, the key point is to form a large corpus of word knowledge.

3.3.1.2. Integrating New Words with the Old

Sökmen (1997: 241) highlights the fact that "according to lexico-semantic theory, humans acquire words first and then ,as the number of words increases, the mind is forced to set up systems which keep the words well organized for retrieval". That is why the human lexicon is thought to be as a network of associations like a spider-web and this belief is based on schemata theory developed by R. C. Anderson. This learning theory views organized knowledge as an elaborate network of abstract mental structures which represent one's understanding of the world. Linguists, cognitive psychologists, and psycholinguists have used the concept of schema to understand the interaction of key factors affecting the comprehension process. Schema theory states that all knowledge is organized into units. Within these units of knowledge, or schemata, is stored information. A schema, then, is a generalized description or a conceptual system for understanding knowledge, how knowledge is represented and how it is used. According to this theory, schemata represents knowledge about concepts: objects and the relationships they have with other objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions, and sequences of actions. " Then if foreign language learners have the innate capacity of forming semantic relations in their minds, teachers need to help them to establish those links and build up associations" (Sökmen, 1997: 241). There are various ways of organizing knowledge in the brain and then recalling whenever needed; semantic mapping is just one of these techniques which will be handled in next chapter in detail.

According to Nation and Newton "Semantic mapping has the effect of bringing relationships in a text to consciousness for the purposes of deepening understanding of a

text and creating associative networks for words". "Semantic mapping is best introduced as a collaborative effort between the teacher and the class" (1997: 250). Semantic mapping enables students to visualize the relationships and categorize these relationships. Teachers can introduce semantic maps in circles, squares, or ovals with connected lines. To this end, the teacher can write the main idea on the board and ask students to brainstorm about the reading topic; the students can then put the words in circles which connect to the main idea.

3.3.1.3. Promoting a Deep Level of Processing

Once the word is learned by the student now it is time to deepen it in order to ossify it. The reason for this is that learning may also occur in short-term memory as well as in long-term one. So in order to transfer the knowledge from short term to long-term memory deepening process is vitally important otherwise it will not be durable and will fly away sooner or later.

Short-term memory has a very small storage capacity and so holds the information temporarily and this is undesirable for language teachers on behalf of their students. The more our students think about these words, the easier it will be encoded to their minds and the easier it will be to retrieval whenever needed. According to Decarrico (2001: 291) "research indicates that efficient learning of vocabulary is an incremental process, one that requires meaningful recurring encounters with a word over time". Richards proposes that:

> " Knowing a word means knowing how often it occurs, the company it keeps, its appropriateness in different situations, its syntactic behaviour, its underlying form and derivations, its word associations, and its semantic features. It is highly unlikely that an L2 student will be able to grasp even one meaning sense of a word in one encounter, let alone all of the degrees of knowledge inherent in learning a word" (cited in Decarrico, 2001: 291).

So it is easily seen that as the time passes the student will encounter more usages of the already learned words and thus a more accurate understanding of its meaning will develop.

3.3.1.4. Facilitating Imaging and Concreteness

This technique is based on Allan Paivio's *dual-coding theory*. Dual-coding theory has its roots in the practical use of imagery as a memory aid 2500 years ago (Paivio, 1986: 56). This theory proposes that:

> "The memory emphasis evolved into broader applications of imagery aimed at accelerating the acquisition of knowledge. Language was always implicated but became explicitly involved as an educational partner when imagery began to be systematically externalized as pictures. Cognition according to DCT involves the activity of two distinct subsystems, a verbal system specialized for dealing directly with language and a nonverbal (imagery) system specialized for dealing with non-linguistic objects and events. The systems are assumed to be composed of internal representational units, called logogens and imagens that are activated when one recognizes, manipulates, of just thinks about words or things" (Paivio, 1986: 57).

If learners visualize the target vocabulary or material in their minds, the chance of recalling the item later increases. According to Sökmen "since it is hard to memorize random material, arrange vocabulary in units, introduce it in stages and summarize. To build non-verbal representations, make illustrations, show pictures, draw diagrams and list details" (1997: 244).

The dual-coding theory also proposes that learning is aided when material is made concrete. This solidifying process of abstract concepts is feasible by current events, comparing them to real life or giving personal words and memoirs. Thus everything will be more retained and more organized in their brains for an immediate or urgent retrieval.

3.3.1.5. Using Mnemonic Devices

Mnemonic devices are aids to memory and storage and they may be visual, verbal or a combination of both. According to Sökmen (1997: 246), there are different types of mnemonic devices but the most often studied with the most impressive results is a technique which employs both an acoustic and a visual image. It is Atkinson's keyword method.

Mnemonic instruction is an instructional strategy commonly used with students who have disabilities as well as with their non-disabled peers. It is designed to improve

memory of key information. Mnemonic devices are excellent tools for teachers who want to help their students remember important facts. According to Decarrico (2001: 291), the *key word technique*, is one of the mostly debated strategies in the literature. The keyword strategy is based on linking new information to keywords that are already encoded to memory. A teacher might teach a new vocabulary word by first identifying a keyword that sounds similar to the word being taught and easily represented by a picture or drawing. Then the teacher generates a picture that connects the word to be learned with its definition. The keyword method is extremely versatile and has a variety of helpful applications. According to Wyra, Lawson and Hungi (2007: 365) the mnemonic keyword method is an effective technique for vocabulary acquisition. The keyword method facilitates students' recall of definitions and given vocabulary items forming an interactive image. It may also increase comprehension of vocabulary in context.

In Levin *et al*.'s (1992: 164) study, keyword students performed better than students using sentence-context or free study. Levin concludes that "although mnemonic strategies may not be for all students all of the time, the research evidence overwhelmingly suggests that they are for many students". On the other hand, Sternberg (1987) argues that this technique is limited, requiring too much effort for a learner to use over a period of time or independently (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy; 2006: 247). To sum up, it can be said that mnemonic techniques have pros and cons. For less experienced language learners, it can be really exciting to construct different and strange mnemonic devices triggering their imagination and creativity as well.

2.3.2. Implicit Vocabulary Teaching

In this technique, the focus is not on teaching vocabulary items directly but on completing a task and the vocabulary is learnt peripherally. Implicit vocabulary teaching, in other words, incidental vocabulary teaching is a kind of learning when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as on understanding a text or using language for communicative purposes (Decarrico, 2001: 289). The translation of many unknown words is acceptable to some extent and implicit learning is an important alternative. It seems impossible for learners to try to learn all the words in a language explicitly, by memorizing.

Decarrico (2001: 289) proposes that "various researchers have concluded that learners should be given explicit instruction and practice in the first two to three thousand high-frequency words, while beyond this level, most low frequency words will be learned incidentally while reading or listening". These 2000 words are accepted as a threshold for analyzing more complex tasks because anyone who is unaware of these constantly important high-frequency words will have little or no vocabulary knowledge and will not realize incidental vocabulary learning.

In contrast to explicit approaches to vocabulary teaching and learning, the key to an incidental learning approach is to make sure learners get maximum exposure to language. Research shows that incidental learning from reading adds up significantly over time but is relatively slow compared to explicit learning (Horst, 2005: 359). It appears that, on average, it takes 7–10 exposures to a word to learn the initial form-meaning link, which would require a great deal of reading. In fact, one study estimates that L2 learners would have to read more than eight million words of text, or about 420 novels, to increase their vocabulary size by 2,000 words (Schmitt, 2008 : 331).

It is a clear fact that it is best not to rely on incidental learning as the primary and the single source for learning new words. In fact incidental learning seems as an *expanding technique* for already learned words. Exposure to the same words again and again in different reading passages will ossify the word, in other words reading alone may not be the leading factor to learning new words but it enriches and clinches what we have already known via explicit vocabulary teaching approach.

To conclude, it can be said that explicit teaching of vocabulary in initial stages forms a basis for later vocabulary knowledge. High frequency words should be taught in an explicit way whereas low frequency will be learnt incidentally in later stages in anywhere.

3.3.3. Student –Centred Learning Techniques

If we glance at the scala of new vocabulary teaching in a foreign language, the trend towards student-centred strategies is clearly visible. The studies conducted have shifted

the desire of “teacher as a source” into “I am the source as a learner” and this ongoing trend places the learner into the centre of learning process and puts more weight and responsibility onto his shoulders. As, is pointed out by Harmer (1994: 160) , especially at intermediate levels and above, discovery techniques (where students have to work out rules and meanings for themselves rather than being given everything by the teacher)are an appropriate alternative to standard presentation techniques. This is certainly true for vocabulary learning where students will often be asked to discover for themselves what a word means and how and why it is being used.

Gairns and Redman (1986: 76) also assume that, “after elementary level, it becomes increasingly difficult for the teacher to select vocabulary that will be equally useful to all his students.” If we, as teachers, want our students to cope with the unknown words they should be taught a few strategies. Here are some student-centred strategies according to Gairns and Redman :

a-asking others
b-using a dictionary
c-contextual guesswork

a-Asking others

“ Asking others” is a technique generally preferred both by young learners and adults. The students may ask his/her teacher or his desk-mate about the meaning of the word or maybe about its pronunciation. According to Gairns and Redmann (1986: 77) “the best strategy is for the student to make the context sufficiently clear so that the listener can then provide the student with the word he is looking for. For example; my hands are very cold so I want to buy some……. A native speaker listening to this could provide the word *gloves.* Therefore, creating the necessity of wanted word, the students may ask their friends and get it easily.

b-Using Dictionary

Choosing words in order to teach to our learners is a long and challenging process pre-requesting some items but how can a teacher fulfil these requirements and if the teacher cannot what will be the source for the students? It is obvious that the dictionary

provides one of the best resources for students who wish to increase the number of words they understand – or at least for students who wish to understand what a word means when they come across it in a text or in a conversation. Most students in such circumstances consult a bilingual dictionary to find an equivalent in their own language (Harmer, 1994: 161).

Gairns and Redman (1986: 79) proposes that "A learner who makes good use of a dictionary will have the chance to continue learning outside the classroom, and this will give him considerable autonomy about the decisions he makes about his own learning. In the very early stages of learning, even an inadequate bilingual dictionary in a foreign country is better than nothing at all since it can provide important support.

According to Carter and McCarthy (1988: 111) "dictionary is not only best and easiest source of the linguistic knowledge needed to understand and write or speak English accurately, but simply that in addition to other learning strategies, students can and should be encouraged to avail themselves of the substantial information contained in their dictionaries". Dictionary use for a long time has been debated by linguists, psychologists or language teachers. It is strongly recommended that the words should not be taught in isolation, it must be given in a context and in this case dictionaries are blamed for provoking the students to learn the words in isolation but obviously the dictionary provides one of the best resources for students who wish to increase the number of words they understand or at least for students who wish to understand what a word means when they come across it in a text or in a conversation.

c-Contextual Guesswork

Contextual guesswork involves making use of the context in which the word appears to derive an idea of its meaning or in some cases to guess from the word itself. This helps to develop student- autonomy in the class while they are discovering the meaning of the each passing day and fosters self esteem and self confidence.

Nation and Coady argue that "learning vocabulary through context must be the major way of increasing vocabulary knowledge" (cited in Töredi, 1997: 37) . They find out that "good learners can guess a very high proportion of unknown words, perhaps 60 per

cent to 80 percent, providing the density of unknown words is not too high" (Töredi, 1997: 37). Gairns and Redman (1986: 83) propose that " many teachers devise classroom activities to develop the ability to guess from context, one of the most common being the substitution of a nonsense word for a particular item in order to make the students focus on the context to decide exactly what is being substituted ". For example : Can you turn the *zong* on ? It is cold in here. After the students have guessed that a zong is some form of heater, the exercise could be extended to sensitise students to the importance of the grammar of the item.

According to Haycraft (1978: 48) " the only way to teach the meaning of many abstract word is by creating a context or situation from which the students can then deduce the meaning". Beck and McKeown (2003) point out that " in addition to teaching how to use context clues, students also need to be taught that context clues do not always help readers to understand the meanings of unfamiliar words. Children need to be taught that there are times, especially when reading, when they will not be able to figure out the meaning from context clues". However, context clues are words and phrases in a sentence which help you reason out the meaning of an unfamiliar word. Sometimes you can figure out the meanings of new or unfamiliar vocabulary by paying attention to the surrounding language. To do this, you use the hints and clues of the other words and sentences. You will not always be right, but many times you will be. You might not be able to guess the exact meaning of a word, but you may be close enough to get the meaning of the sentence it is in.

Decarrico (2001: 290) offers that making the transition to independent learning can be easier and more efficient if teachers help students learn to recognize clues to guessing word meaning from context. Clarke and Nation (1980) propose a guessing strategy based on such clues. "A beginning step is to get the learner to look closely at the unknown word, next to look at its immediate context, and then to take a much broader view of how the clause containing the word relates to other clauses, sentences or paragraphs" (cited in Decarrico, 2001: 290). In other words, contextual ties and boundaries help the learner to activate schemata and a better understanding. Decarrico exemplifies these ties as inclusion, time, punctuation, summary and dashes (2001: 290).

Factors affecting the probability of making accurate guesses should be of course rich enough to help the learner be more self-confident and more successful.

All in all, in a broad sense, lexical competence has a huge amount of communicative competence and teaching vocabulary is the core element of teaching foreign language. Although some questions still stay unanswered about how to teach, considerable progress has been made about the topics implicit and explicit way of vocabulary teaching, which way to choose and how to teach. As these studies go on to broaden educators' horizons undoubtedly there be more recent improvements in the field of vocabulary teaching.

Traditional and modern vocabulary instruction techniques have been introduced in the past few decades to improve the learners' performance in foreign language learning. Semantic mapping, which entails drawing learners' attention to the interrelationships among lexical items through some graphic organizers, is claimed to enhance vocabulary learning significantly. However, whether this technique suits all learners in different age groups has not been adequately investigated. This study examines the effectiveness of employing semantic mapping versus a traditional technique in vocabulary instruction to young EFL learners.

Consequently, in the light of these techniques and the characteristics of young foreign language learners, the teachers should pay attention to the ages, needs, interests, attention span of them in the classroom. The language teacher should prepare the foreign language vocabulary learning environment by using the appropriate technique effectively in accordance with the learning characteristics of young language learners. If these techniques are used properly, they become crucial supportive tools for both young language learners and language teachers in any EFL setting. Learning vocabulary in a foreign language is one of the most important elements without which neither comprehension nor production of language is possible (Laufer, 1997). From a pedagogic point of view, the vitality of vocabulary learning is a concept on which both instructors and learners agree. Some research findings support explicit instruction of vocabulary while others focus on implicit instruction through using semantic maps, word associations, etc. Meanwhile, learning takes place inside the individual learners'

cognition, and thus groups of different learners may handle different vocabulary instruction techniques in a different way. In order to examine this issue, this study tries to compare the effectiveness of a traditional technique and semantic maps on the comprehension of the young learners.

CHAPTER 4 - MEMORY AND VOCABULARY

In this chapter, memory and vocabulary teaching as well as learning relationship, types of memory, and stages of memory will be handled.

4. 1. Memory and Vocabulary Teaching/Learning Relationship

In psychology, memory is an organism's ability to store, retain, and recall information and experiences. Understanding how our memory works might help us create more effective ways to teach vocabulary and to establish classroom procedures in order to promote a more effective learning atmosphere.

In our native language, we are able to store, recall and use a large amount of words. How do we store all these information and use whenever needed. How can we explain this phenomenon?

4.2. Types of Memory

Many of us must have lived the moment of storing a telephone number in our mind. The number we have heard that we need to dial in a few minutes is repeated by us until the moment of dialling. Once we have dialled in it immediately flies away from our minds and this is highly interesting. This strange event and a lot more is connected with the types of memory whose duties are completely different from each other. There are three types of memory: Sensory memory, short term memory and long term memory.

4.2.1. Sensory Memory

Sensory memory has the capacity to hold conceptions of sensory-related data, but beyond that, the brain is only able to concentrate on one thought at any given time. Sensory memory lasts for a very brief second of time. The sensory memory operates like a digital camera and takes an exact copy of what is seen, heard, or touched. Its capacity is unlimited. It is also described as the part of the memory system which is the initial contact for stimuli. Sensory memory is only capable of retaining information for a very short period of time. This type of memory allows your eye to have a larger field of vision by remembering images that your eye has already focused on. In actuality, your

eyes' field of vision is quite small but because of sensory memory you are able to remember stimulus your eye has already viewed.

4.2.2. Short-term Memory (STM)

This type of memory, also known as active or primary memory, indicates the ability to retain a minimal amount of information for a short amount of time within the mind's active state of consciousness. Twenty seconds is the maximum term for this short-term memory. Since the information that short-term memory (henceforth, STM) stores away is of working condition, it is also known as "working memory". On a temporary basis, information is stored away in the brain. The widely recognized view among psychologists is that the ability to hold information over brief periods demands fairly constant repetition, and any distraction or interruption is likely to impede that ability. Working memory is believed to be the centre of conscious thought, analogous to the "central processing unit" of a computer, where information from long-term memory and the environment is combined to help solve problems. According to Gairns and Redman (1986: 87) "it has been established that our capacity for short term retention is remarkably consistent, and that most people experience some breakdown in retention as soon as the number of items or chunks of information exceeds seven". It is totally different from long-term memory which is our capacity for recall of information for long years.

4.2.3. Long-term Memory (LTM)

This lifelong form of sensory memory keeps extensive amounts of information in the brain up until the point of death. The basis of long-term memory is in short-term memory. It is firmly established in the scientific community that new information is being incorporated into long-term memory through short-term memory. To explain things in simpler terms, this is to say that an assemblage of short-term memory is actually the equivalent to what is called long-term memory.

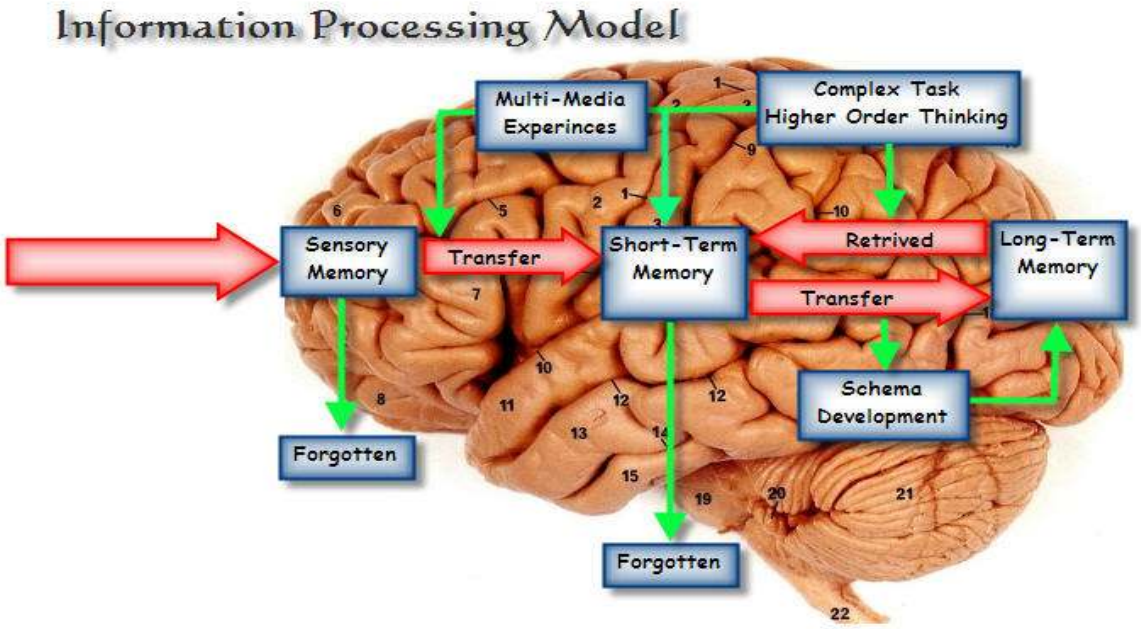
According to Gairns & Redman (1986: 87), unlike short-term memory which is limited in capacity, long-term memory (henceforth, LTM) is seemingly inexhaustible and can accommodate any amount of information. Not surprisingly, this additional information

can only be stored at a price, it is generally acknowledged that we need to work much harder to commit information to long-term memory, and the type of repetition as being essential to short-term retention may not be adequate for long-term retention.

Long-term memory is the stored representation of all that a person knows. The items stored in long-term memory lie dormant until they are called back into the working memory and thus put to use. This process of repetition and retrieval between short-long and sensory memories is called as *information processing model.*

Information processing, as a sub-topic of neuroscience and psychology, is included within the view of cognitive development theory. Cognitive development follows an individual's psychological and intellectual progress from childhood till adulthood and includes such aspects as linguistic skills, information processing model of cognition, conceptual resources, skills of perception, the recalling and thinking process, problem solving skills, etc.

Profounders of the information processing theory have equated the human brain with a computer's information processing unit and have suggested that like a computer, the human brain follows certain fundamental steps in understanding and interpreting the world around it. Information processing model may be illustrated as below in Figure 2:



(http:// jaredmgriffin.wordpress.com)

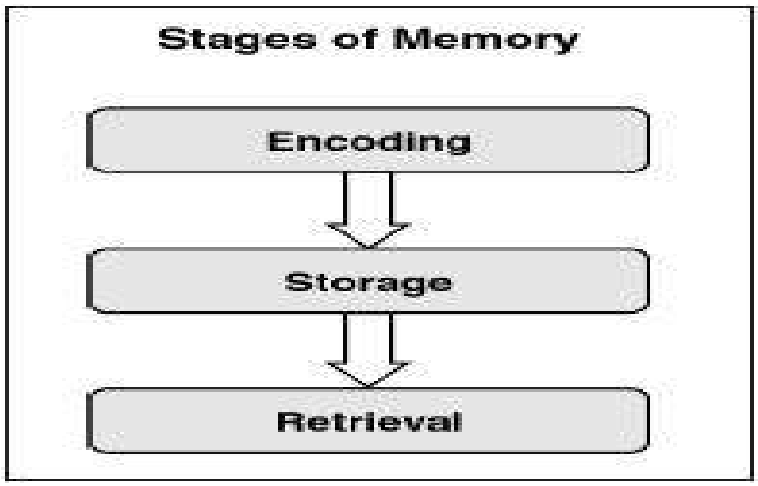
Figure 2. Information Processing Model

As is seen in the figure above, the brain is a complex system and there is continuous relation among three types storages of the brain. Our brain is exposed to countless input during the day but some of these inputs succeed to enter to short and long term memory with the help of repetition and attention. The image or the information firstly comes to sensory memory and then it is transferred to short term memory but of course not all the information is transferred, some of them are immediately forgotten as is seen in the illustration.

4.3. Stages of Memory

In any discussion of the language and the mind, it should never be forgotten that our knowledge of the *mental lexicon* or *the words in our mind* is based on partial understandings. After all, the mind is not a machine that we can easily open up to see how it works. However we can use our observations of how language is used, and how we behave with language, as a means of understanding how words are stored and retrieved (McCarthy, O'Keeffe, Walsh, 2010: 101). The complex unit memory operates

in three different stages to determine the ways in which words are organised in our minds. These three stages are shown in Figure- 3 below:



(http://www.unexplainedstuff.com/Mysteries-of-the-Mind/The-Mechanics-of Memory. html)

Figure 3. Stages of Memory

McCarthy (1990: 34) compares mental lexicon with some terms such as

The mental lexicon is
- a dictionary
- a thesaurus
- an encyclopaedia
- a library
- a computer

Whichever simile you choose and add to your favourite, they have something in common and this is the idea of *Input (*language is written *, storage (*that is held and not lost), and *retrieval (it can be called up when needed).*

Input (encoding) :

This is the very first stage of memory. In this stage the information is processed for storage. Environmental information is translated into and stored as a meaningful entity that the brain can understand. This is similar to converting information like text, pictures and videos into binary language but there are main differences between learning vocabulary in L1 and foreign language learning.

Some of the differences are obvious. For example, when we learn our first language ,we are babies with very little knowledge of the world. Most people learn a foreign language when they are older, with considerable experience of the world. The input foreign language learners receive is clearly very different. Whereas babies only receive spoken input, most foreign language learners receive both spoken and written input (McCarthy, O'Keeffe Walsh, 2010: 102). In fact millions of language learners around the world have learnt and are still learning languages with very little spoken input at all. So words may be perceived by foreign language learners as much in terms of their orthographic shape as their phonological shape.

McCarthy (1990: 35) gives an example of this perception as below :

> "The learner may have a special storage tag which relates oddities between the two, such as silent letters in some English words, for example the orthographic patterning of-ugh words (laugh, tough)or the silent-b words (womb, lamb, comb).The learner in an ideal world should come to recognize verbal input in a flash. How learners might achieve this is clearly not unconnected to how native-speakers do it. For native speakers, the general shape of the incoming word is important. This phenomenon is sometimes known as the bathtub effect, that is, that the front and rear ends of words are prominent but the middle "dips" a bit, so to speak".

In other words, words have a general shape that gives us clues about their form, their meaning and their use. It is like idea of someone lying in a bath of water with only his head and feet visible at either end.

According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), foreign language learning works best when learners are exposed to comprehensible input, or input which is at, or slightly above, the learners' current level of proficiency (i+1) (cited in McCarthy, O'Keeffe, Walsh, 2010: 103). Although this may be a very good idea in theory, it is very difficult to find learners whose input levels are all the same, in other words what is i+1 may be i+15 for another.

When we come in contact with information to remember in later stages our brain develops a "code," which becomes a record of the experience but the memory can be affected at this stage if the information is not coded in a way that makes it easy to recall when needed. So it is our own effort to encode it in our memory with some techniques.

Storage (retention) :

Storage, retention, refers the ways in which we retain the words in our minds. According McCarthy et al. (2010: 104) "if words are to be retrieved and stored easily we presumably have a considerable amount of information about words to facilitate the retrieval process". Using the analogy of dictionary entry, we can learn the following about any one word:

* its spelling
* its pronunciation
* its word class
* its meaning
* its derivations
* references to synonyms and collocations
* its register and any connotations.

As the years go by, there is now huge amount of evidence that words are not stored in isolation but in association with other words. It is a very useful technique to think of words in terms their semantic relationships, or semantic networks. McCarthy et al. (2010: 104) offer two examples of semantic network as below:

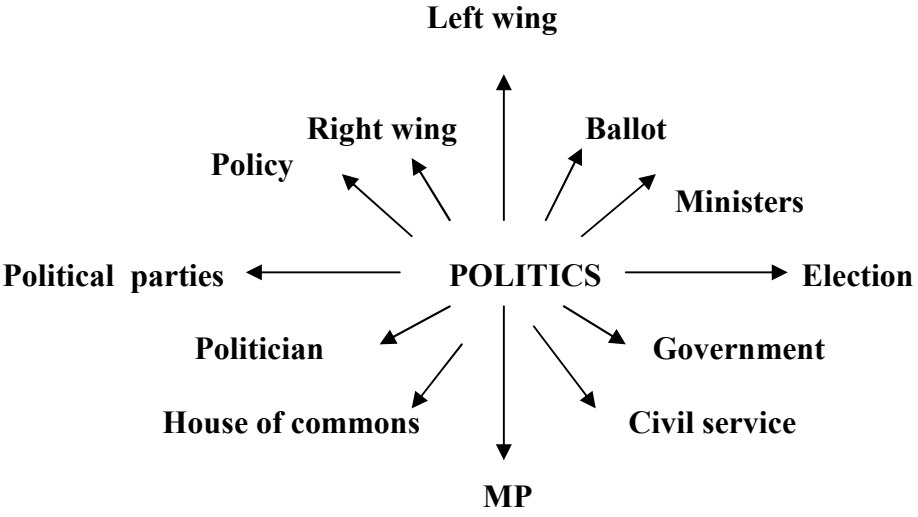


Figure 4. Semantic Network of Politics

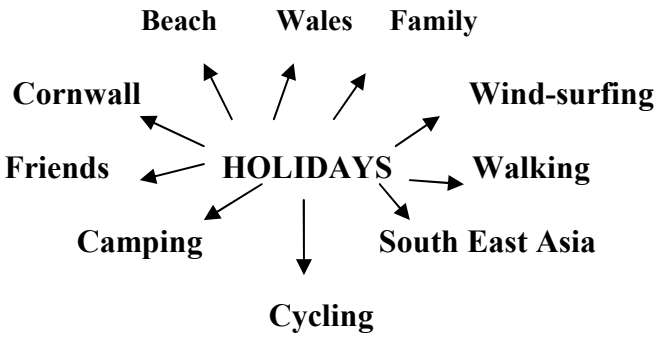


Figure 5. Semantic Network of Holidays

The kind of knowledge of a word that is represented here is clearly different to that presented in a dictionary. In this case, knowing a word brings together linguistic, experimental, and world knowledge. So it suggests that our storage of words is closely related to the ways in which we store memories and experiences. One final word about mental lexicon is that, it is never static; it is constantly receiving new input which should be protected and preserved in the storage mechanism in our minds.

Retrieval : This stage refers to the ways in which we recall words. The stereotype question " what does knowing a word mean " is always asked by any teacher who tries to teach something to his students. The most common answer to this question is that knowing a word is the ability to summon it whenever it is needed. McCarthy et al (2010: 106) offer some principles on which retrieval depends on :

> * make use of contextual clues : what information gives us clues so that we use the correct word for a particular context.
> * match spoken or written input to stored sounds and spellings :this means that learners must be able to relate what they see or hear to what they have stored and then recall an appropriate word to formulate a response.
> * use anchor words, words which tend to have fixed meanings.
> * decode chunks of language but also recognise individual meanings, for example *by and large.*

When a word is comprehended in a textual input, in subsequent stages it must be retrieved in order to be strengthened in our memory. If retrieval is in the form of perceiving the form and meaning when the word is encountered in a listening or reading activity, it is called receptive; but if it requires communicating the meaning of the word

in a speaking or writing activity then it is called productive retrieval (Nation, 2001: 67). In order to enhance retrieval, as teachers we should do different sorts of recycling activities for the students to revise the words. The vocabulary to be remembered cyclically should be presented and practiced on a regular basis. Nation (2001: 74) clearly states this fact :

> "Repetition is essential for vocabulary learning because there is so much to know about each word that one meeting with it is not sufficient to gain this information and because vocabulary items must not only be known ,they must also be known so well that they can be fluently accessed. Repetition, thus, adds to the quality of knowledge and also the quantity or strength of this knowledge".

In other words there are various factors that must be taken into account in the repetition and retrieval stage since students differ in their abilities and preferences to learn a word. Learners should be able to retrieve words at the very moment in exact time whenever they are needed and it will not be wrong to say that retrieval differs according to whether it is receptive or productive. According to McCarthy (1990: 43), receptive retrieval involves matching spoken or written input to stored sound or orthographic patterns and their associated meanings. This is why, for example in a reading activity, it is important to get learners not to focus on every individual word, but to simply recognise words. In this way they will become both faster and more efficient (cited in McCarthy et al, 2010: 106). On the other hand productive retrieval means being able to make more active use of word, in a piece of writing. Receptive and productive retrieval highlight the fact that we do not use words in the same way all the time.

To sum up, the endeavour of understanding how we store information in the memory and the very cliché question of why certain chunks of language stay while other fly away is matter of concern of language teachers who tries to teach a language. For these language teachers, the primary goal should be to establish classroom procedures in order to maximize effective learning. In our native language, we are able to store, retrieve vast amount of words but when it comes to foreign language learning the difficulty is doubled. Whether it is first or foreign language, these things are in common in the field of memory: Words are organized in some way in our minds, knowledge of vocabulary is very closely linked to our knowledge of world. Input, storage and retrieval

of words are very important processes that must be grasped and last but not the least one, there is much more to knowing a word than knowing its form or meaning slightly.

4.4. Vocabulary Learning Considering Memory

In the last two decades, the field of second language learning has seen the re-emergence of interest in one area of language study, vocabulary, and the appearance of a newly recognized aspect-learner strategies (Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 199). It is put forward by some scholars that through foreign or second language learning strategies the learner makes his own learning easier, faster and more enjoyable. Although some teachers may think that vocabulary learning is easy, learning new vocabulary items has always been challenging for the learners. Different ways of learning vocabulary are usually utilized by the students such as using flash cards, notebook, referring to bilingual and monolingual dictionaries to decipher the meaning, or giving some synonyms and antonyms to name but a few. In spite of these efforts and invariably experiencing so many difficulties vocabulary is the most sizable and unmanageable component. This raises a fundamental query that why learning vocabulary is such challenging and unproductive experience and which method could be used to make vocabulary less of struggle.

To sum up, sensory input is first held in the working memory, which can hold a fairly fixed number of items (about 7 for most people) at a time, although this decreases with anxiety. Information can be manipulated and analysed in the working memory, and it is this activity which allows it to be stored in the long term memory. Relating new information to old means a link is created between the two and the new information can be incorporated into memory. Learning a new lexical item means forming a relationship between form and meaning, this relationship may take the form of an L1 equivalent; L2 synonym or definition; visual image; feeling; sound; emotion; a certain situation or context; or a combination of these. The greater the number of connections we make the more likely we are to remember it. Once stored in the permanent memory a word needs to be retrieved to be able to use it. This retrieval is usually triggered by linguistic or situational context.

CHAPTER 5 . YOUNG LANGUAGE LEARNERS

In chapter 5, the term "young learners" will be defined and their characteristics will be stated. Also some major theorists' perspectives in developmental psychology will be presented in terms of cognitive development of young learners.

5.1. Defining Young Learners

First of all, we should define who young learners are. Stating a certain age does not seem reasonable because of the fact that the definition of young learners may vary from country to country. However it is possible to come across such definitions of young learners as below. 'Young learners' refers to the children from the first year of formal schooling to eleven or twelve years of age. (Philips, 1993: 3). Keddle (1997: 69) groups young learners as child, preteen and young teenagers. On the other hand, Scott and Ytreberg (1991: 176) claim that young learners can be grouped according to their ages rather than their growth level; five to seven years old and eight to ten years old. In this study, Philip's grouping young learners is taken into consideration because the students in experimental and control groups are at the age of 12.

5.2. Characteristics of Young Learners

It is of high importance for primary school English teachers to be aware of the characteristics of young learners since they will give directions to teachers' reactions in the process of teaching a foreign language. It is an incontestable reality that children are totally different in many ways from the adult learners as they are usually keen and enthusiastic learners, without the inhibitions which adults sometimes bring to learning environment. Moreover, young learner's learning capacity can be closely linked with their need for physical movement and activity. Because of children's special learning strategies, traditional techniques do not work in teaching English to children. Besides this, learning new words in another language makes young language learners feel stressed and anxious so the language teacher has to try new techniques which are appropriate for their learning strategies in order to make young language learners to learn and have fun. In this sense, semantic grids gain much importance in language teaching process to young EFL learners.

The characteristics which young learners share are stated by Cameron (2001: 1).

> "They are often more enthusiastic and lively as learners than adults. They will have a go at an activity in order to please their teacher, even when they do not quite understand why or how. They are a cube of energy, so teachers should find the proper methods to use this hidden energy effectively".

They get bored easily. They lose their interest more quickly than elder learners and are less able to keep themselves motivated on tasks they find difficult. They are less embarrassed than adults at talking in a new language, and their free attitudes seem to help them have a more native-like accent. They are not afraid of taking risks. Since they are less embarrassed and they are more willing to learn, their being great risk-takers is not something confusing. They like having fun, singing songs, playing games. Their own understanding comes through hands and eyes and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times, they like moving and touching things.

The characteristics above show that learning a language at an early age has some significant advantages over adult learners. They seem to be more open to learn new things, they have much more time for the learning process than adults, and it is much more easier to motivate and adapt them and they need to have fun while they are learning.

5.3. Cognitive Development of Young Learners

In some societies teaching young learners is viewed as a kind of mothering rather than as an academic enterprise because they are just "children". However children have also a complicated view of world and it will be misleading to think that they only should learn colours, numbers, objects and some specific songs. They generally succeed more than we think they can due to their huge learning potential.

The probability that learning a foreign language at an early age affects children's language and cognitive development has long been a concern for parents and educators. In the first half of the 20th century, the popular belief was that foreign language learning early in life made children confused and interfered with their ability to develop normal cognitive functions and succeed in educational environments. Whereas these ideas were dramatically reversed in a landmark study by Peal and Lambert showing a general

superiority of bilinguals over monolinguals in a wide range of intelligence tests and aspects of school achievement (Bialystok, 2006: 1). The relation of language and cognition has intrigued a great number of scholars causing controversy and confusion. Views about this issue are divided between those who believe that certain degree of cognition always exists before human beings are exposed to language, and those who believe that language influences and determines the development of cognition. Linguists, developmental psychologists, psycholinguists, and educators have all attempted to put a wide interpretation on the mysterious connection between cognition and language. "Klein believes that language acquisition is a cumbersome process, and it takes many years to achieve full mastery of his or her language. In opposition to Klein, Hyames argues that despite this cumbersome process, children acquire language with relative speed and ease" (cited in Warsi, 1994: 1). So the problem is then how they acquire knowledge of language.

Theorists in developmental psychology have answered that children go through stages of development, in which their cognitive ability expands. According to their view, language is a kind of secondary product as a consequence of their cognitive development. There are some highlighting key ideas about three major theorists; Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner in development psychology about the child as a language learner.

5.3.1. Piagetian Perspective

The renowned French psychologist, Piaget, believes that both cognitive and language development take place because of genetic epistemology; he suggests that there is something in the nature of infants that leads to the development of cognition and language. Development is distinct levels of intelligence, and it occurs through the operation of assimilation, accommodation and equilibration (Warsi, 1994: 2). According to Piagetian viewpoint knowledge is both 'real' and constructed, that is, our conceptual knowledge and cognitive representations of the world develop progressively through the process of equilibration.

> "For example, a very young child might encounter the problem of how to get food from her bowl into her mouth. In solving the problem, with a spoon or with fingers, the child learns the muscle control and direction – finding needed to feed herself.

> The knowledge that results from such action is not imitated or in-born, but is *actively constructed* by the child" (Cameron, 2001: 3).

In this way, thought is seen as deriving from action and learner is viewed as active rather than passive in developing thinking. Taking action to solve problems is the way of learning.

Piaget divides the stages of cognitive development into categories thus stating systematic scheme of intellectual development. However, his work was far away from predicting the behaviour of children. As Wadsworth mentions "his work was primarily concerned with describing and explaining in a very systematic way the growth and development of intellectual structures and knowledge" (1989: 1). That is to say, his studies were primarily focused on mental activities of children concerning their cognitive development. So it will not be wrong to say that his researches made great contribution to psychology and education to understand how to teach a foreign language to children. He divides the cognitive development of children into four stages: sensory-motor, preoperational, concrete operations, formal operations. Children are in the sensory-motor stage until 24 months, preoperational stage until from two to seven years, from seven to eleven years in the concrete operational stage, and from eleven up in formal operation stage. The formation of these stages depends on hereditary and environmental factors. On these different stages children master different cognitive tasks. In the sensory-motor stage concrete objects, in the preoperational stage symbols, in the concrete operational stage classes, relations, numbers, and how to reason, and in the formal operations stage mastery of thought (Evans, 1973: 104).

Three important processes underlie the intellectual growth assimilation, accommodation, and equilibration. Assimilation happens when action takes place without any change to the child whereas accommodation means existing structures change to accommodate to new information. These processes, assimilation and accommodation, help the child to form a schema. Equilibration involves the person striking a balance between himself and environment, between assimilation and accommodation. Then, it can be said that, equilibration is the effort to have a balance through adapting his/her mental constructions. In other words learning occurs through cognitive conflict.

Although Piaget's work is innovative, effective, and widely accepted for long years, it was also criticized. Some theorists, such as Bruner, criticized the stages of development because of the peculiar to each stage and for not being sufficiently child- friendly, and for underestimating what children are capable of (Cameron, 2001: 3).

5.3.2. Vygotskyan Perspective

Vygotsky agrees in general terms with Piaget but he maintains that it would be incorrect to assume children to operate only at a certain stage. Vygotsky turned over a new leaf in cognitive development studies underlying the importance of social interaction concerning cognitive development. Vygotsky believed that thought has a social, external origin and that language functions as a tool in the development of individual cognition from this external origin (Frawley and Lantolf, 1985: 19). According to Vygotskyan theory, cognitive growth occurs within a socio-cultural context that is influential on its process. Language has also an important role in development. With this statement, he puts an emphasis on social context, its necessity in terms of cognitive development. This idea forms the base of his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Vygotsky used the idea of ZPD to create a new meaning for "intelligence". "Rather than measuring intelligence by what a child can do alone, Vygotsky suggested that intelligence was better measured by what a child can do with skilled help" (Cameron, 2001: 6). In other words, learning to do things and learning to think are both helped by adults so then, according to Vygotskyan perspective, children learn from their surroundings and from the others.

If we compare Piagetian and Vygotskyan perspectives, it is easy to see that Piaget believed in actions about the origins of intelligence. The children learn through the interaction with their surroundings they have and learning takes place after development since children are highly active learners. Whereas, according to Vygotsky, learning takes place in a social context, in a world full of other people interacting with child.

5.3.3. Brunerian Perspective

For Bruner, language is the most crucial tool for cognitive growth and in his studies Bruner investigated how adults use language to help children solve problems.

"Although from the earliest months of life he is a natural problem solver in his own right, it is often the case that his efforts are assisted and fostered by others who are more skilful than he is" (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976: 89). Tutorial interactions are a crucial feature of childhood.

Wood, Bruner and Ross have developed the term *scaffolding*, as a metaphor to describe the role played by the interactional talk between learners and skilled others. Scaffolding, as most people know, is placed around the outside of new buildings to allow builders access to the emerging structure as it rises from the ground. When the building is able to support itself, the builder removes the scaffolding. The metaphor of scaffolding has been widely used in recent years to argue that, just as builders provide essential but temporary support, teachers need to provide temporary supporting structures to assist learners to develop new understandings, new concepts, and new abilities. As the learner acquires these skills, so teachers need to withdraw that support, only to provide further support for extended or new tasks, understandings and concepts. (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001: 8). The metaphor here resonates with teachers. Bruner (1978: 19) describes scaffolding as "the steps taken to reduce the degrees of freedom taken in carrying out some task so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill she is in the process of acquiring". It is a process of 'setting up' the situation to make the child's entrance easy and more successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child since he becomes skilled enough to manage it on his own.

All in all, scaffolding refers to support that is designed to provide the assistance inevitable to enable learners to develop understandings they would not be able to manage on their own. As Mercer explains (1994: 96) "Scaffolding represents the kind and quality of cognitive support which an adult can provide for a child's learning, which anticipates the child's own internalisation of mental functions". Then, teachers, through different activities and through the quality support and guidance, will be able to challenge and extend what students are able to do. It is possible by participating in such activities that students are pushed beyond their current abilities.

CHAPTER 6 .VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES

This part will overview some general vocabulary learning strategies, and a taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies will be proposed.

6.1. Schmitt's Taxonomy

Schmitt (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 199) points out that research in the area of language strategies began in earnest in the 1970s as part of the movement away from a predominantly teaching –oriented perspective, to one which included interest in how the actions of learners might affect their acquisition of language. Concurrently, there was a growing awareness that aptitude was not the governing factor in language learning success, implying that language achievement depended quite heavily on the individual learner's endeavours.

Vocabulary learning strategies are categorized by Schmitt (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 207) as below in Table 2 :

Strategy type	Discovery	Consolidation
Determination	Analyse part of speech Analyse affixes and roots Check for L1 cognate Analyse pictures Guess from textual context Bilingual dictionary Word list Flashcards	
Social	Ask teacher for translation Ask teacher for paraphrase Ask classmate Discover new meaning	Study and practice meaning in group Teacher checks students' flashcards
		Image word's meaning Connect to personal experience Associate the word Use semantic maps Use scales for gradable adjectives Peg method Loci method

Memory		Use new word in sentences Study the spelling of a word Use cognates Image word form Use physical action Learn the words of an idiom
Cognitive		Verbal repetition Written repetition Word lists Flashcards Take notes in class Listen to tape Keep a vocabulary notebook
Meta-cognitive		Use English language media Testing oneself with word test Use spaced word practice Skip or pass new word Continue to study word over time

Table 2. Schmitt's Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

6.2. Determination Strategies

Any L2 learner who does not know the meaning of a word may discover its meaning by guessing from its structural knowledge of the language, guessing from an L1 cognate, guessing from context or using reference materials and as the last remedy asking someone else. These four options are labelled as determination strategies. According to Schmitt and McCarthy (2006: 208) determination strategies facilitate gaining knowledge of a new word. Learners may be able to discern the new word's part of speech, which can help in the guessing process. They can also obtain hints about meaning from its root or affixes, although not always reliably.

Dictionaries, are commonly used by many learners of foreign languages. Even though many monolingual dictionaries may offer better quality information and also improve learners' ability to paraphrase. Schmitt's (1997: 209-210) survey of attitudes to learning strategies showed a clear preference for bilingual dictionaries.

6.3. Social Strategies

Together with determination strategies, some social strategies may also be preferred to discover a new meaning. Teachers are generally the source of information and they may be asked to give help. The teacher may help in various ways : giving the L1 translation, giving synonymy, giving a definition by paraphrase or using the new word in a sentence. Although these seem to be the fastest and the most advantageous method, in fact they have some disadvantages. First of all the teacher must know the learner's mother tongue, and most translation pairs are not exact equivalents thus some misleading knowledge may be transferred. Since the teachers are always labelled as the most reliable source of information, when the learner takes the synonymous word, s/he will use in without any changes because she will think that they are all the same in terms of collocational, stylistic and syntactic points. Of course classmates and friends can also be asked for meaning but peer correction is always in the second plan while the teacher is available as the best source. According to Schmitt (2006: 211) cooperative group learning or peer cooperation promotes active processing of information and cross-modelling; the social context enhances motivation of the participants and prepare the participants for team activities outside the classroom and because there is less instructor intervention students have more time to actually use and manipulate language in class.

6.4. Memory Strategies

Memory strategies known also as mnemonics involve relating the word to be remembered with a previously learned knowledge through some different techniques. Some of these memory strategies are pictures, related words, unrelated words and rote-learning. New words can be learned by studying them with the pictures of their meaning instead of definitions. In the meantime, learners may also create their own mental picture dictionaries for each unique word. According to Schmitt (2006: 212); " imagery has been shown to be more effective than more repetition for reading passages and sentences suggesting it could well be more effective for vocabulary too ". New words can also be associated with a particularly vivid personal experience of the underlying concept, for example, a learner mentally connecting the word "snow" to memory of playing in the snow while a child.

Like pictures, related words may also be a helpful tool for students. Gairns and Redman (1986, cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 212) propose that some words particularly gradable adjectives have meaning related to other words in their set. For example, in any given situation, big is larger than medium-sized, but smaller than huge. A helpful way to remember these words is to set them in a scale. The learner may also link words together that have no sensible or meaningful relation to each other and this technique is labelled as "unrelated words technique". As James Nattinger proposes (cited in Carter and McCarthy, 1988: 65), this technique is the world's oldest and best known memory device on improving memory. This technique is based on the fact that we operate by cognitive maps, which are familiar sequences of visual images that can be recalled easily. These images are usually situated along a well-travelled path, but can also be objects in a familiar room, events in a well known story or any other such familiar sequence. In order to memorize an item the person forms a visual image of it and places it at one of the loci in one's imaginated scene. Then the retrieval effort of these items comes automatically and effortlessly when the entire scene is brought back to mind (Nattinger, cited in Carter and McCarthy, 1988: 65). Another memorisation technique which has a long history in language learning is labelled as rote learning by Gairns and Redman (1986: 93). This technique involves repetition of target language items silently or aloud or writing the items. The common practice for the learner is to use one side of the list as prompts and cover the other side for testing himself. He may write the items on one page and the translation equivalents on the back part.

6.5. Cognitive Strategies

Although they seem to be memory strategies, they are not focused specifically on mental processing, they include repetition and using mechanical tools to study vocabulary. Written or verbal repetition are the are the most common cognitive strategies preferred in anywhere. Word lists and flashcards are the other helpful tools for memorising new words. Vocabulary notebooks are also a precious way of increasing learner autonomy. By giving learners the responsibility of choosing the words that they will write down, the notebooks help to develop greater self-awareness, and at the same time, remove the teacher from the centre of the learning process and puts farther away. Schmitt and Schmitt suggest a type of notebook which incorporates the progressive

learning of different kinds of word knowledge for each word, and also the use of expanding rehearsal (cited in Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 216). In this strategy, the learner can manipulate the language learning process directly. By practising the structures, the learners can activate their schemata. At this point, the learners are active within the learning process and construct stronger schemas within the target language.

6.6. Meta-cognitive Strategies

Meta-cognitive strategies are preferred by students to control and evaluate their own learning so this type of strategies are in broader perspectives, in other words; it is like "thinking about thinking".

Meta-cognitive strategies are connected with more efficient learning. In order to maximize the efficacy of acquiring a foreign language, the level of maximization of exposure to that language must be at utmost level. If the foreign language is English, the vast amount of materials, magazines, newspapers and movies offers an endless resource to the learners and it should never be forgotten that in a language like English, even the native speakers know only a fraction of the vast total of words. Thus foreign language learners need to realize that they will never learn all the words, and so need to concentrate their limited resources on learning the most useful ones. Part of this involves knowing when to skip or pass a word, especially low frequency ones which they may not meet again for a very long time (Schmitt and McCarthy, 2006: 216). This will greatly improve their learning potential and efficacy.

In this chapter, it was argued that vocabulary is an important ingredient of language and vocabulary learning is an essential part of second or foreign language learning. Language learners need a wide array of target language words to be able to tackle successfully both production and comprehension activities in the second or foreign language. One way to help learners to enhance their knowledge of L2 vocabulary is through equipping learners with a variety of vocabulary learning strategies. Different taxonomies have been proposed, and some of which were discussed. To this end, teachers should consider the learners' willingness and readiness to receive trainings and think of the most appropriate way to introduce the strategies.

CHAPTER 7. SEMANTIC MAPPING PROCEDURE

In this chapter, semantic mapping technique will be discussed in detail and semantic mapping procedure will be presented step by step.

7.1. Semantic Mapping Technique

Semantic mapping is a visual representation of information, a picture of conceptual relationship in an organized way. Semantic mapping technique is an educational aid that can be utilized in teaching vocabulary. Semantic mapping has been defined as "a graphic arrangement showing the major ideas and relationships in text or among word meanings" (Sinatra, Stahl -Gemakel & Berg, 1984: 22). As an instructional strategy it involves establishing the links between words and concepts in the text, grouping information and creating visual displays of these categories and their relations.

Semantic mapping provides students with a visual means of organizing content information. It is also a technique activating and building on a student's earlier knowledge. Semantic mapping technique is not something new. It has always been on the scene under different labels such as "semantic webbing", "semantic networking", or "plot maps".

Aitchison (1987: 84) has proposed that the human mental lexicon is believed to be a network where semantically related words were associated with each other. One particular form of semantically related instruction is semantic mapping. According to Blachowicz and Fisher (2000: 505), "semantic mapping is a technique that graphically represents the relationships between words and requires students to identify and understand the relations between words". For high-level students, the brainstorming activity provides the opportunity to activate their background knowledge around the new term and to make associations between the new word and already known words. For low-level students, it provides them with an opportunity to begin to reconstruct their own conceptual system in which the new term will be an additional component.

During the 1980's, the usage of semantic mapping technique has increased on a large scale. The term semantic mapping technique contains numerous strategies designed to show graphically information within categories related to a certain central concept. According to Johnson; "semantic mapping has been shown to be an effective way to learn new words, a procedure for activating students' schemata, and a technique that improves both composition and comprehension" (cited in Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986: V). Johnson (1986: 778) argues that "semantic mapping has been used successfully by teachers at all levels to motivate and actively involve learners in the thinking-reading-writing-process". As Stahl and Vancil note (1986: 62), in semantic mapping a teacher chooses a key word and other target words from material that the students will read. The keyword is listed on the board and students are asked to suggest terms associated with the key word. The teacher writes the suggested words in a list on the board as the students suggest them. The teacher forms a map from this list. Then the relationships between key words and the target words are discussed deeply. Then it is time for students to categorize each section of the map. Thus semantic mapping technique has the effect of organizing relationships on a topic for the purposes of deepening understanding of the topic better and creating associative networks but it best works as a collaborative duty between the teacher and the class reciprocally.

Zaid (1995: 1) proposes that semantic mapping may be used at all grade levels in regular or remedial classrooms as well as for those who are learning-disabled. The semantic mapping technique has the chance of applicability to large or small groups, pairs of students or to individuals on alone. This technique gives students the chance to make drawings from their prior knowledge that is why it is a highly motivational technique on behalf of students. In semantic mapping activities, the theme focuses the students' attention both on the meaning of the word and on the relationship among them thus empowering the tights related to word storage in the brain.

There are three places in a lesson where semantic mapping may be placed: As a pre-assignment strategy to activate students' prior knowledge or to help the teacher in assessing the students' readiness to do the assignment; as a strategy to allow students to record what they are learning during the assignment; and as a post-assignment strategy to allow them to integrate or synthesize what they have studied (Zaid, 1995: 2).

Ultimately, a semantic mapping activity sustains students in viewing learning from a systematic perspective.

7.2. Phases in Semantic Mapping Procedure

The following procedure exemplifies all three stages of the use of semantic mapping in the classroom, broken down into five phases and these phases are (a) introducing the topic, (b) brainstorming, (c) categorization, (d) personalizing the map, (e) post-assignment synthesis.

7.2.1. Introducing the topic

In this very first stage the teacher announces the topic to the students and draws a large oval on the board thus making the students aware of the topic. If they do not know about the procedure it is the teacher's duty to explain at this stage. Also at this stage some teachers may show some pictures related their topics to activate students' schemata.

7.2.2. Brainstorming

The teacher asks the students to think of lots of ideas that might be related to their topic. This brainstorming phase allows students to make use of their prior knowledge or experiences. "Brainstorming is an application of the schema theory, which attempts to explain how people integrate new information with their existing framework of knowledge" (Zaid, 1995: 3). Schema theory encompasses that information is stored in the brain in networks. When we encounter new information our brain is inclined to replace this information into proper schemas formed earlier. Thus, prior knowledge may be viewed as a helpful tool or as a stepping block to reach new knowledge. The brainstorming phase of semantic mapping gives the teacher a broader insight into the schemata of each of her/his students because it reveals students' interests, ideas and errors. Typically in brainstorming, ideas from one student will trigger ideas from other students "in a chain reaction thought process" (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986: 34). This is especially useful for the revision and for the introduction of new words. This technique can be used as a warm-up exercise or as a way to teach new vocabulary. Students will have had the opportunity to learn new words, suggested by others, that

they do not know at the beginning of the lesson. A discussion of new words can take place at the end of the brainstorming exercise.

7.2.3. Categorization

At this stage the teacher encourages his/her students to form meaningful clusters with the ideas they have produced pushing them to see the relationships among the words. The teacher writes the word that the students suggest on the board and now it is time to categorize them into meaningful clusters. Then the students together with the teacher label these categories with proper headings and discusses with their reasons.

Once the pre-assignment semantic map has been drawn on the chalkboard, the teacher should have the students make their own copies. In this phase, the students gain experience in practicing some valuable cognitive skills, particularly categorization and exemplifying, but also (depending on the topic) comparing and contrasting, cause and effect, inference making, and forming judgments (Zaid, 1995: 4). The map can then be modified since the class begins to organize and integrate the individual suggestions because this participation activity allows students, as they begin to relate ideas, in order to see the connections between their suggestions.

7.2.4. Personalizing the Map

After each student has made a copy of the pre-assignment map, the teacher asks students to read the passage. After the students have finished reading, they suggest new words that may be added to their semantic map on the blackboard. What is apparent is that the reading passage will contain more words than the students have listed on the pre-assignment map. As they read they will decide on which words to eliminate or add and this activity will give them the chance of making judgements. At the end of this stage, new knowledge will have been integrated to the prior one.

7.2.5. Post-assignment Synthesis

The last phase of this period is post-assignment synthesis in which students may present their suggestions from their personal maps if they draw. They may want to enlarge the map making further research at home so this phase may also be given as a homework activity. The map also may function as an outline for writing an essay for the

students or only one segment of the map may be used to write a paragraph. The most widely known usage of semantic mapping in vocabulary development is the type suggested by Johnson and Pearson. This semantic mapping procedure prepares students to understand, assimilate and evaluate the information to be read (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986: 5). Following excerpt is an adaptation of Johnson and Pearson (cited in Heimlich and Pitttelman, 1986: 5) procedure.

1.Choose a word or topic related to classroom work.
2.List the word on large chart tablet or on the chalkboard.
3. Encourage the students to think of as many words as they can that are related to the selected keyword and then to list the words by categories on a sheet of paper
4. Students then share the prepared lists orally and all words are written on the class map in categories.
5.Students can gain further practice in classification by labelling the categories on the semantic map.

a. people
b. kinds
c. problems
d. expenses of owning
e. price

6.Discussion of the semantic map is, perhaps, the most important part of the lesson. The purpose of the exercise is to encourage students to become aware of new words, to gather new meanings from old words, and to see the relationships among all the words.

To sum up, semantic mapping is not only a valuable strategy to use in specific reading or any other area in a lesson but also an effective way to illustrate the relation between certain concepts in a unit. In semantic mapping activities the teacher has the role of facilitator because this indirect role encourages students to pop-up and express themselves. While semantic mapping presents students the opportunity to integrate the new knowledge with the prior one, in fact it triggers forming new schemas in their brains. Since the students and the teacher work hand in hand in the lesson based on semantic mapping, it is a highly motivational and brainstorming technique on behalf of students. The process of semantic mapping also allows teacher to assess and interpret what students know as well as to make accurate judgments about them.

All in all, a semantic map is one type of graphic organizer. It helps students visually organize and graphically show the relationship between one piece of information and another. Semantic mapping is an adaptation of concept definition mapping but builds on students prior knowledge or schema. While it draws on prior knowledge it recognizes important components and shows the relationships among the components. The framework of semantic mapping includes: Introducing the topic, brainstorming, categorization, personalizing the map and post-assignment synthesis.

CHAPTER 8. RELEVANT STUDIES

In this chapter studies made in Turkey and abroad are presented after scrutinizing the literature in this field thoroughly.

The important role of vocabulary development in foreign language learning has been acknowledged for many years. The increasing awareness of the influence of prior knowledge in taking new one, has given greater importance to vocabulary development ever than before. A learner's vocabulary serves as a means of labelling the ideas that already exist in mind and this idea constituted a milestone for the linguists and researchers to make new research in the field of vocabulary teaching through semantic mapping technique based on the correlation of semantic networks in the brain.

The studies in this field just focus on different vocabulary teaching techniques, others aim at testing the efficacy of using semantic-mapping technique in vocabulary teaching by conducting an experimental procedure.

In this part, necessary information about the research conducted under the title of vocabulary teaching techniques have been given and these studies are divided into two main divisions as domestic ones and foreign studies.

8.1. Foreign Studies

Studies made in order to evaluate the effectiveness of semantic mapping technique have proved the use of this technique as an effective strategy. Toms- Bronowski (1983) found that fourth grade children who were taught target vocabulary words through semantic mapping significantly outperformed students who learned the words through contextual analysis.

Karbon (1984) conducted a study with the rural Native American, inner city Black, and suburban sixth graders to examine the resources and processes used by children of different cultural groups during vocabulary instruction. Karbon found that students exploit their unique experiences as a means of developing vocabulary. She advises that teachers use vocabulary techniques that build on prior knowledge, emphasizing that

semantic mapping provides an alternative technique to vocabulary instruction that focuses on new and known words relationships (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986: 4).

Zaid (1995) applied the semantic mapping technique in teaching reading to his students at Abha college of Education. He stated that semantic mapping has been proved to be a beneficial learning and teaching technique for native speakers of English at all grade levels in regular and remedial classrooms as well as for those who are learning-disabled. He also added that students who use semantic mapping technique manifest considerable improvement in reading comprehension, written expression, and vocabulary development.

In their study Brown and Perry (1991) investigated three learning strategies which are keyword only, semantic (meaning through context), and keyword-semantic (keyword-context). The study was conducted over 60 Arabic speaking subjects. Considering three strategies, three experimental groups were formed. Each group was instructed during two days about the strategy they were going to use. After the instruction session, during four days subjects were supposed to learn 10 new words in 5 minutes. Then they were given a recall test. The results showed that keyword-semantic group overcame the other groups in terms of retention.

Sagarra and Alba (2006) examined the effectiveness of three methods which are rote memorization, semantic mapping and the keyword method. The subjects were 778 beginner level second language learners. The rote memorization group was to memorize the first language translation of a new second language word by rehearsal. The semantic mapping group was given first language words conceptually related to the second language word in a diagram. The keyword method group was given words by means of associating the new second language word with a first language keyword that was acoustically or orthographically similar and connecting the first language keyword with the first language translation of the second language word. The results demonstrated that the keyword group performed better in retention of words than other groups. This study also showed that vocabulary learning techniques requiring deeper processing through form and meaning associations cause better retention in vocabulary learning.

Scribner (2000; cited in Sagra and Alba, 2006) conducted a study in which he compared three methods- rote memorization, the keyword method and a type of semantic method and found the results showing that rote memorization was the least effective method in terms of delayed retention of the words.

Pittelman, Levin and Johnson (1985) studied poor readers to see whether they learn more from semantic mapping vocabulary instruction when they are taught with other poor readers in a small group or when they receive whole class instruction with students of mixed reading abilities. Group size did not matter. Furthermore, poor readers who received semantic mapping instruction had significantly higher gain scores than did students in control classes. The study confirmed that teachers can feel comfortable using semantic mapping in both reading ability groups and whole class content area instruction.

El Koumy (1999) compared the effectiveness of three classroom methods for teaching semantic mapping to college-level learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). Subjects were 187 freshmen at an Egyptian university; they were randomly assigned to three treatment groups: teacher-initiated semantic mapping; student mediated semantic mapping; and teacher-student interactive semantic mapping. Treatment was administered over 5 months in one session per week. Subjects were pre- and post tested in reading comprehension. While the pre-test indicated no significant differences in the groups, post test results revealed students in the teacher student interactive semantic mapping group scored significantly higher than the other two groups, which had similar results.

Schlesinger, C. et al. (2000) elaborated on their beneficial experiences from incorporating semantic maps into class lessons, and the students recognizable academic improvement that resulted from utilizing this new teaching strategy. The authors quoted an eleventh grade student who reflects on her growth of knowledge while comparing her pre- and post-semantic maps she created on a six-week unit on Africa. The authors depicted semantic mapping as a graphic representation or picture of one's thoughts, ideas, and attitudes toward a key concept. Semantic mapping focuses on categorizing and connecting these thoughts, ideas, and attitudes in relation to the key concept. The

authors detailed the process of semantic mapping as starting with teachers asking students to brainstorm the ideas, images, or descriptions they associate with a particular concept, then students group related terms into categories, providing a label for each category. Then students graphically displayed their ideas in a semantic map. The authors described the multi-purpose usefulness of semantic mapping in the classroom. They evaluated the advantageous learning experiences for teachers and students through developing maps, either by individual students, or small groups or by the class. The authors then discussed the purposes semantic maps serve at different times during a unit. The authors concluded that the process of mapping techniques may improve reading comprehension, increase content-area achievement, enhance recall of material, and reduce student anxiety.

Grigaite (2005) conducted a study to investigate the effect of using semantic mapping strategies on developing child's thinking skills. She defined semantic mapping as a strategy in which information is categorically structured in a graphic/visual representation. She examined the cognitive outcomes stimulated by the teachers' use of semantic mapping as a strategy for accelerating two cognitive operations, classification and seriation in a child's seventh year. Fifty-seven children at the age of six took part in the research. The findings revealed that students in the experimental group who participated in the training were creative. They revealed high degrees of cognitivism.

Saqqa (2005) investigated the effect of computer assisted semantic mapping and brainstorming on Jordanian upper basic stage students' reading comprehension and writing in English. The findings revealed that students were very active, they read the texts from their textbooks, and then suggested some changes like deletion and additions on the first semantic map they drew. The researcher recommended that more computer assisted semantic mapping and brainstorming programs to be conducted to improve the students' reading and writing abilities.

In conclusion, most of these studies have revealed almost the same findings; they showed that the effects of using the semantic mapping do not only improve the learner's reading comprehension, but also their thinking, brainstorming and writing abilities.

8.2. Domestic Studies

Özden (1998) aimed at testing the effectiveness of semantic mapping technique on preparatory students with intermediate level in English proficiency at the university. In this study, the effectiveness of semantic mapping technique was compared with traditional approaches in order to determine its effects not only on vocabulary learning for immediate and long-term retention but also on guessing the meanings of unknown words from context. In his study the semantic mapping technique has been proved to be effective for teaching English vocabulary through reading passages and guessing the meanings of unknown words from context.

Aydın (2010) , in her study aimed to determine if there is a difference between mind mapping note-taking technique and classical note taking techniques on comprehension and retention the texts which the department of Turkish education students listened to. In this line, the study group of the research was composed of 77 students in total who studied in the Ataturk University Faculty of Education the Department of Turkish Teaching, 38 of whom were from class 3/A and 39 of whom were from class 3/B. In this study, experimental design with "pre-post test and control group" is used. In the present study which lasted four weeks, the experiment group received strategic training in mind mapping note taking technique; the control group received strategic training in classical note taking techniques. After 4 weeks following the application, permanence test was performed. The students studying in the department of Turkish education took notes using mind mapping technique and classical note taking techniques and this increased their listening – comprehension success. However, this increase was more distinctive in the group that took notes using mind mapping technique. The group using mind mapping technique was more successful than the group using classical note taking techniques in retention the text they listened to. In the experimental group that received strategic training in mind mapping technique, it was observed that the students became much more interested in the course and the course became more entertaining.

Durukan and Maden (2010) also conducted a study and purpose of their study was to analyse the effects of taking note with concept maps on students' listening skills. For this purpose pre-test and post-test with control group via experimental research method

used in this study. Research's sample has comprised 49 students in 7th class. Concept maps used in experimental group and traditional method used in control group. It has been found that "taking notes with concept maps" is more effective than traditional method on listening skill.

Tümen (2005) conducted a study and the main purpose of this study was to compare the concept mapping with the traditional instruction method in consideration of student's accomplishment in English course. The students who took "English" class in 9th grade at Balakgazi High School in 2005-2006 attended this study. An experimental group and a control group consisting of 23 members each, were organized. The concept mapping was carried out to the experimental group. Traditional instructional method was carried out to the control group. In both of the classes the subjects- "Present Continuous Tense and Simple Present Tense" – were held. Various concept maps related to these subjects were developed. The primary findings indicated that; comparing the control group the experimental group which the concept mapping was carried out has become more successful.

The studies mentioned above on the issue of semantic mapping technique are only some of the literature on the EFL. They were selected according to their content and findings so that the whole literature could be represented here. What is the most important here is that there are some distinctions between the findings of these studies caused by the existence of different variables. It is hoped that this study will also take its place among these researches and make its contribution to the related literature.

Among these studies, in domestic group, the very similar one to this study is Tümen's study applied in 2005 but there is a slight difference in terms of what is being taught. He taught a grammatical topic through semantic mapping technique and his groups were ninth grade. He gained meaningful results in favour of his investigation.

What is common among the studies mentioned above is that the researchers all reached meaningful results in favour of semantic mapping technique and generally these studies were related with the improvement of reading skill because this technique is generally believed to be efficient in improving efficient reading skills of the learners. But this

study is conducted in a primary school for sixth grade in order to teach and test vocabulary to young learners through semantic mapping technique.

The above-mentioned studies on this particular issue are only some of the literature on semantic mapping technique. These studies were selected according to their content and findings so that the whole literature could be represented here. One of the most important points here is that there are some differences between the findings of these studies, whose cause is existence of different variables. It is hoped that this study will also take its place among these researches and make contribution to researchers.

CHAPTER 9. METHODOLOGY

In this part, information about the population and sampling, data collection and data analysis conducted under this thesis will be presented.

9.1. POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The population of the study consists of students attending at Bafra Ticaret Sanayi Odası Primary School in 2010-2011 education year.

The sample of the study is composed of two classes of 6th grade students attending Bafra Ticaret Sanayi Odası Primary School in 2010-2011 education year. The study was planned as a research trying to reveal the effectiveness semantic mapping technique in vocabulary teaching for young learners.

The subjects of the Experimental Group compose 27 students of the class 6/C attending Bafra Ticaret Sanayi Odası Primary School in 2010-2011 education year. In Experimental Group ,there are 15 female,12 male students and their average age is 12.

As for the control group, the subjects of the Control Group have been compose of 27 students of the class 6/D attending Bafra Ticaret Sanayi Odası Primary School in 2010-2011 education year. In Control group, there are 13 female, 14 male students and their average age is 12. Both groups are almost similar in terms of students' background, sex, and ages. Of the teacher's six classes, two of them are selected as the control group and the experimental group. The selection is based on the students' scores on the previous English exams. The comparison reveals that the two groups have equal English levels and that groups could be the subjects of the study.

9.2. DATA COLLECTION

a-A pre-test for vocabulary knowledge was administered to both groups at the beginning of the eight week training in order to see the level of the subjects.

b- A post-test was administered to subjects following the teaching of 60 target words through semantic mapping technique in order to specify the efficacy of this technique.

In order to eliminate a possible risk of difference between levels, the pre-test and post-test for the study was applied using the same words and questions.

In order to evaluate the comprehension level of the students, 17 multiple choice questions, were addressed to them in the test. The questions were prepared by the researcher taking the level of the students and scope of the semantic mapping technique into account.

9.3. DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical analyses of the study were carried out by means of the "SPSS 11.0" data analysis program employing statistical techniques such as mean, standard deviation, frequencies, percentage and T-tests. While conducting statistical analyses, the threshold for significance was accepted as $p<0.05$ and discussions and comments on the findings of the study were shaped in accordance with this significance threshold.

9.4. PROCEDURE

In this study, two groups at the same proficiency level (elementary) were compared according to two different techniques for vocabulary teaching. The first technique was the use of semantic-mapping technique in vocabulary teaching. The second technique was the use of a traditional technique, giving Turkish equivalents of every word. The teacher was assigned to teach six classes during this particular term. Since the study required two classes -one experimental group and one control group- were chosen for the study. Each class has four hours of English lesson in a week.

After the formation of the groups, five topics were randomly selected for vocabulary teaching purpose. Within the five topics 60 words (Appendix- 9) were selected randomly as the target words of the study.

After the selection of the sixty words and the topics, five semantic maps were drawn on the blackboard for teaching of the target words during eight weeks. The vocabulary that

would be used in the maps were parallel to the vocabulary of the five topics in their students books. A pre-test of 17 questions (Appendix -1) testing the target vocabulary was implemented to experimental and control group without a prior announcement. In the following eight weeks, the target vocabulary was given but in two different ways. In Class 6-C (experimental group), target vocabulary was taught through semantic maps, In Class 6-D (control group), on the other hand, target vocabulary was taught, through traditional methods (giving the Turkish equivalence).

During the instruction of this part, both groups were presented the same teaching materials. Five units with the same target vocabulary "Weather conditions, making suggestions, Personal hygiene, Occupations, daily routines and wh- questions" were introduced to the subjects. In addition to the routine overflow of the topic, five semantic maps were used to teach vocabulary to the experimental group.

In the experimental group, the instruction was enriched using these maps. After the warm-up and motivation part, the reading texts in the course books were read by teacher and the students. After the instruction, the target vocabulary was presented through maps on the board to make the relation more visible among the words. Whereas, semantic maps were disregarded while teaching vocabulary to the control group. In the control group, the teacher taught the target vocabulary in a traditional way. That is to say, the teacher gave the texts beforehand and started the lesson. After warm-up and the motivation phase, the teacher stated the aim of the lesson and wrote the definitions of the new words on the blackboard. She used them in sentence. First the teacher read the reading text then the students read it. After reading, the students answered the questions or completed the exercises. As in the experimental group, towards the end of the each week the target vocabulary was revised, but in a traditional way. The teacher asked the meanings of the some of the target words and the students tried to say the definitions or Turkish equivalents. However, the time period and the employed texts for the instruction of both groups were the same.

The purpose of this study was to find out whether there would be a significant difference in learning the target vocabulary between the group that was exposed to the

vocabulary teaching regarding semantic mapping technique, and the group that was exposed to the traditional vocabulary teaching, guided by the same teacher.

To achieve this goal, the two groups were asked 17 questions testing the knowledge of the target vocabulary as a pre-test and the next step was the introduction of 5 new themes including 60 target words in 8 weeks. As a last step, a post-test including the same 17 questions testing the knowledge of the target vocabulary were asked to the students.

In teaching procedure cognitive approach was preferred by the researcher. The cognitive approach is an area of psychology that focuses on mental processes, perception, and language as a way of explaining and understanding human behaviour. It starts to develop in the 1960s, and by the end of the 20th century, the cognitive approach becomes the dominant school of thought in psychology. Psychotherapy based on the cognitive approach attempts to alter behaviour by attempting to change the behaviour's underlying cognition, or thought processes. There are a few assumptions that are central to the cognitive approach. One is that human behaviour can be understood by scientific processes. Unlike Freudian psychology, cognitive psychology developed through empirical testing. Another assumption is that human behaviour is a series of responses to external stimuli mitigated by our thoughts, perceptions, moods, and desires. Cognitive psychology differs from the older, behaviourist approach to human behaviour. Behaviourists believe that all people are essentially the same at birth, but their personality is affected and formed by environmental factors and outside stimuli. They also believe that behaviour can be permanently altered by changing the environment and stimuli. Behaviourism views people as blank slates passively reacting to their surroundings. Cognitive psychology arose partly as a reaction to behaviourism. The behaviourist insistence that only stimuli and responses lay within the scope of science had long prevented the effective study of higher mental processes. The establishment of cognitive psychology broke this taboo.

Many educational psychologists viewed the behavioural approach as unsatisfying. In the areas of problem solving and learning strategies they became more concerned with what was unobservable - what was going on inside the brain. These theories are based on the

work of educational philosopher Dewey, and educational psychologists Vygotsky, Piaget, Bruner among others. They propose that children actively construct knowledge and this construction of knowledge happens in a social context. Vygotsky proposed that all learning takes place in the 'zone of proximal development'. This 'zone' is the difference between what a child can do alone and what he/she can do with assistance. By building on the child's experiences and providing moderately challenging tasks teachers can provide the 'intellectual scaffolding' to help children learn and progress through the different stages of development.

The methods of constructivism emphasize students' ability to solve real-life, practical problems. Students typically work in cooperative groups rather than individually; they tend to focus on projects that require solutions to problems rather than on instructional sequences that require learning of certain content skills. The job of the teacher in constructivist models is to arrange for required resources and act as a guide to students while they set their own goals and 'teach themselves'.

Below is the eight week- training process of semantic mapping technique for the experimental group:

9.4.1. Eight-Week Training Process

02 November 2010
Pre-test

11 November 2010
1st Lesson

18 November 2010
2nd Lesson

25 November 2010
3rd Lesson

02 December 2010
4th Lesson

09 December 2010
5th Lesson

16 December 2010

6th Lesson

23 December 2010
7th Lesson

30 December 2010
8th Lesson

07 January 2011
Post-test

9.4.2. Account of the Weeks

Week -1

a. Control Group

After the warm-up and motivation stage, the teacher wrote the Turkish equivalents of the target words on the blackboard and pronounced and students repeated. Then the reading passage about 'weather conditions' was read by the teacher and the students. Lastly some translation activities and exercises in the course book were done by the students.

b. Experimental Group

The subject was 'weather conditions' for both of the group. After warm-up and motivation stage, first the teacher then the students read the passage about weather conditions; after reading, the teacher didn't give the meanings of the target words directly but drew a semantic map of related words (Appendix-2) on the board. Students did a matching exercise using the target words and filled in an empty map on their own.

Week -2

a. Control Group

The subject was 'Occupations' for the second week. After warm-up and motivation stage, the teacher wrote the Turkish equivalents of the target words on the blackboard and modelled their pronunciation as the same of the first week. Then the reading passage about 'occupations' was read by the teacher and the students. Students answered the comprehension questions about the subject and did the exercises on the course book.

b. Experimental Group

At the beginning of the second week, students tried to remember the words, remember the map on the board drawn by the teacher in previous week. The teacher tried to make them to form relationship among words as in the concept map. The passage about the second week's subject was read by the teacher and then the students. Students made a matching exercise, they matched the pictures of the target words with their meanings in English. The teacher modelled the pronunciation of the words, throughout the exercises. At the end of the each lesson, the teacher drew two semantic maps on the board about occupations (Appendix-8) and occupations with special clothes (Appendix-7) adding the necessary branches to two maps with the help of the students.

Week -3

a. Control Group

This week was a revision week of the previously learned words for control group. The teacher applied a quiz (Appendix-10) to the students asking the Turkish equivalents of the 24 words.

b. Experimental Group

This week was also a revision week of the previously learned words for the experimental group, too. The teacher applied the same quiz to the students asking the Turkish equivalents of the 24 words and also wanted them to fill in an empty semantic map similar to the ones that they had drawn on the previous lessons.

Week- 4

a. Control Group

This week the subject was 'Making suggestions'. As in the previous weeks, the teacher wrote the Turkish equivalents of the target words on the blackboard and modeled their pronunciation. The reading text about the subject was read by the teacher, then the students read the text. The comprehension questions were answered, and some other exercises were done by the students.

b. Experimental Group

After reading the text and answering some comprehension questions, the teacher drew a semantic map of "how to make a suggestion" (Appendix-3) and modelled the pronunciations of the target words.

Week- 5

a. Control Group

The topic of the fifth week was "daily routines and wh- questions". Before starting the lesson the teacher asked students about their daily routines and tried to make them narrate their days. Then as classical, they read the reading passage in the course book and the teacher wrote target words on the board and students repeated these words after teacher's pronunciation.

b. Experimental Group

The subject was 'daily routines' and "Wh- Questions for both of the group. After warm-up and motivation stage, first the teacher then the students read the passage about daily routines; after reading, the teacher did not give the meanings of the target words directly but drew two semantic maps of related words on the board (Appendix-5, Appendix-6). Students did a matching exercise using the target words and filled in an empty map on their own adding more branches to the map.

Week -6

a. Control Group

This week was a revision week of the previously learned words for control group. The teacher applied a quiz to the students asking the Turkish equivalents of the 48 words (Appendix-11).

b. Experimental Group

This week was also a revision week of the previously learned words for the experimental group, too. The teacher applied the same quiz to the students asking the

Turkish equivalents of the 48 words and also wanted them to fill in an empty semantic map similar to the ones that they had drawn on the previous lessons.

Week-7

a. Control Group

This week the subject was 'Personal Hygiene'. As in the previous weeks, the teacher wrote the Turkish equivalents of the target words on the blackboard and modeled their pronunciation. The reading text about the subject was read by the teacher, then the students read the text. The comprehension questions were answered, and some other exercises were done by the students.

b. Experimental Group

After reading the text and answering some comprehension questions, the teacher drew a semantic map of "personal hygiene tools" and modelled the pronunciations of the target words (Appendix-4). After making a brainstorming activity of these tools, the teacher wanted students to draw semantic maps in groups of four.

Week-8

a. Control Group

The last week was a revision week of the previously learned words for control group. The teacher applied a quiz to the students asking the Turkish equivalents of the 60 words. On this week the teacher also wanted the students to draw five semantic maps showing an example. Thus she grasped the chance of discriminating the difference of the two groups.

b. Experimental Group

This week was also a revision week of the previously learned words for the experimental group, too. The teacher applied the same quiz to the students asking the Turkish equivalents of the 60 words and also wanted them to draw 5 semantic maps similar to the ones that they had drawn on the previous lessons. With this application,

the teacher's ambition was to see the conceptual webs in their minds and to check whether there have been any changes before and after the training.

CHAPTER 10. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this part of the thesis, findings gathered from the data collected by the data collecting instruments will be presented together with the discussion part. The scope of the findings covers statistical data about pre-test scores and the hypotheses specified at the outset of the research.

10.1. FINDINGS ABOUT THE PRE-TESTS

Before giving start to the study and eight -week instruction process, it was required to guarantee that the experimental and control groups did not differ significantly with regard to their levels in terms of vocabulary knowledge. With this aim, both groups were administered the same pre-test on 02 November 2010. The analysis of the scores is presented in the below table:

Table 3. Comparison of the Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and Control groups

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	Significance
Experimental	27	4,8889	1,57708	,000 *	,831
Control	27	4,8889	1,52753		

* (p > 0,05)

The analysis of the results of the pre-tests conducted for both groups shows that the significance level is ,831 (p > 0,05). It shows that there is not a significant difference between the proficiency level of the students in both experimental and control groups in terms of their word knowledge.

10.2. FINDINGS ABOUT THE 1st HYPOTHESIS

The first hypothesis of the study: "There will be a significant difference between the word knowledge of the students taught through semantic mapping technique and those who are not". In order to evaluate this hypothesis, t-test was applied for the post-test results of the students. The comparison of the post-test scores of both groups also aims to provide an answer to the research question of the thesis. The related table is given below:

Table 4. Comparison of the Post-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	Significance
Experimental	27	7,1111	2,48586	1,596*	,626
Control	27	6,0741	2,28584		

*(p > 0,05)

The results of the t-test applied for the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups show that the significance level is ,626 (p>0,05). Since it exceeds the significance threshold, it can be said that there is not a significant difference between the post-test performances of the students who belonged to the experimental and control groups of the study. This finding of the post-test scores constituted a clear contradiction with the first hypothesis of the study and it will be discussed in detail in the discussion part below. It will be commented by taking the second and third hypotheses into account and its reasons will be presented.

10.3. FINDINGS ABOUT THE 2nd HYPOTHESIS

The second hypothesis of the study: "There will be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group." In order to evaluate this hypothesis, t-test was applied for the pre-test and post-test scores of the students included in the experimental group. With the analysis of the pre and post-tests of the experimental group in itself, it is aimed to reach a perspective for the progress made by the experimental students during the instruction process. The related table is given below:

Table 5 . Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group

	Mean	N	St. Deviation	t	Significance
Pre-test	4,8889	27	1,57708	4,964 *	,000
Post-test	7,1111	27	2,48586		

*(p < 0,01)

The results of the t-test applied for the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group show that the significance level is ,000 (p<0,01). Since it appears within the significance threshold, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the students who belonged to the experimental group. This finding does not contradict with the second hypothesis of the study, in other words, there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post test scores of the experimental group. This finding will also be discussed in the discussions part.

10.4. FINDINGS ABOUT THE 3rd HYPOTHESIS

The third hypothesis of the study: "There will also be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group." In order to evaluate this hypothesis, t-test was applied for the pre-test and post-test scores of the students included in the control group. The analysis of the pre-test and post-test results of the control group in itself will provide a perspective for the progress made by the control group students during the instruction process. The related table is given below:

Table 6. Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group

	Mean	N	St. Deviation	t	Significance
Pre-test	4,8889	27	1,52753	2,327*	,028
Post-test	6,0741	27	2,28584		

*(p < 0,05)

The results of the t-test applied for the pre and post-test scores of the control group show that the significance level appears as, 028 (p<0,05). Because it takes place within the significance threshold, it can be said that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the students who belonged to the control group as in the experimental group. This finding will also be commented below.

10.5. DISCUSSIONS ON THE FINDINGS

This study shows a different dimension of teaching vocabulary to young language learners. It has been found in this study that using "semantic mapping technique" is not superior to teaching vocabulary through traditional techniques. The findings of this study gives negative answer to the main research question but gives positive answers to sub-questions. The research question of the study was as follows: "*Is there a significant difference between the experimental group where content words will be taught through semantic mapping technique and the control group that will be left with traditional*

techniques?". The results of the post- test indicated that there was not a significant difference between the control and the experimental groups. Using "semantic mapping technique" does not lead more vocabulary gain than teaching words through traditional techniques at the later stage. In other words, independent variable (using semantic mapping technique) does not have more positive effects on the dependent variable (the vocabulary gain of the young language learners)The first sub- question was*; Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group?*

According to analysis of the scores of post test results, using semantic mapping technique supports young language learners' vocabulary learning. Independent variable (using semantic mapping technique) influenced the dependent variable (vocabulary gain) according to the results of the analysis of T-test but it is not a significant difference. In other words, independent variable does not lead to the expected effect on the test scores in the post test because the same progress has also been conducted in the control group, too. In other words, it is a clear fact that teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping technique turned out to be useful with regard to the statistical analysis of the experimental group's pre and post-test scores. However, it does not appear statistically meaningful from a broader perspective because these findings all suggest that the teaching process failed to produce the desired and expected results thoroughly. It is quite normal to observe a progress in these students, as they were exposed to several words during the process and the practices made in the class produced an increase in their scores. That is, the efficacy level of the instruction might have been higher because a similar rise between pre and post-test results have been conducted in the control group as well. There may be several reasons behind such an outcome; some of their most possible ones are mentioned below.

The amount of time could be an important reason. The students in this study were taught words with semantic mapping technique in a short period of time, which was two class hours per week. The solution the research recommended was "learners need more exposure to semantic maps".

Another reason might be that the students might not have paid very much attention how to form a semantic grid when presented with new words in the treatment. Then it is difficult for learners to learn the formation of a meaningfully semantic web. This inattentiveness to semantic maps may be because students are not aware of the notion meaningful schemata. In addition, in this study, the total number of students were only 54. That might be another reason why the researcher could not find any significant difference among the groups. Since this was a small study and the number of the participants was quite low, the results of the study cannot be generalized. If there is to be further research on teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping technique, this limitation should be taken into consideration and the number of the participants should be increased.

Another limitation of this study was the level of the students. It was limited to only elementary level students. If it were applied to other levels, the results might have been different. The study conducted by Özden (1998) revealed that students from different language proficiency levels responded differently to semantic maps and his study yielded meaningful results in terms of students' ultimate success.

All in all, even though the finding that there is not a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups does not complement with the expectations of the researcher, the progress made in the both experimental and control groups themselves makes the researcher feel really glad at the end of this tiring process.

CHAPTER 11. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter of the thesis, conclusions drawn from the findings will be presented together with some suggestions for future action or research in the same field.

11.1. CONCLUSION

The intention of this study was to investigate the effects of semantic mapping technique in teaching vocabulary items to young language learners. In particular, it aimed at finding out if teaching new words by using semantic mapping technique could result in a better learning and recalling of those words than teaching them individually.

In order to answer the research question and sub-questions, the data obtained from post tests were used in within-group comparisons and between-group comparisons. At the end of this study, the findings answered negatively the research question of the present study.

At the beginning of the study two homogenous classes at the sixth grade participated in the study: one group as the experimental group and one group as the control group. Each group consisted of 27 students A diagnostic test (pre-test) was applied to both groups in order to find out their knowledge about the target vocabulary items and see whether the vocabulary level of the groups was the same or not. Then, the students in both groups were taught the same words but with different techniques. The only difference was that the target words were presented with semantic maps in the experimental group. In the control group, target words were presented and practiced as well but traditional techniques were preferred. 8 weeks later post- test was applied to the students .The findings of the study demonstrates that there is not a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group. The research question of the present study does not find their expected answers and it was found that using semantic mapping technique in vocabulary teaching does not lead more vocabulary gain than teaching words through traditional technique to young language learners.

In order to see whether teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping technique made a statistically significant contribution for vocabulary learning, post-test scores of both

groups were evaluated statistically by means of SPSS program. It has been detected that the significance level was 0,626 (p>0,05) and this was contrary to the researcher's expectations and 1st hypothesis of the present study. This unforeseen circumstance directs the researcher to browse to the post test performances of the groups and evaluate them independently. Statistical analysis of the experimental group's post-test scores yielded a significance level of ,000 (p<0,05) and this showed the effectiveness of semantic mapping technique and verified the 2nd hypothesis of the researcher. Similarly, the analysis of the control group's post-test scores has yielded a significance level of ,028 (p<0,05). This finding was in compatibility with the 3rd hypothesis of the researcher.

It can be deducted that this research have some drawbacks like limited-time, limited number of target words and inadequate familiarity of the students with semantic webs. For the foregoing findings and experience gained under this study, some suggestions are presented under the following title.

11.2. SUGGESTIONS

In the light of the conducted study, it will be proper to summarize the above given suggestions as in the following:

Although this research seems useful for teaching foreign language vocabulary, there is still much to be done, the field is open and more research in this line is needed. In the present study, the participants are 6th grade students in a Turkish state school and, they do not have so much experience with the target language. Since teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping seems to require some vocabulary knowledge and upper cognitive skills to comprehend the semantic ties, another study may have the purpose for comparing the same vocabulary teaching approaches on adult learners or more advanced learners so a further research can be carried out to find the effects of using semantic webs on the vocabulary knowledge of young language learners and data can be collected from a larger group of participants to increase the generalization of the findings. It can also be deducted that this kind of application needs to be adjusted in

order to increase its effectiveness in accordance with the students' learning needs and interests.

In addition to the above-mentioned points, the number of the target words selected and their types should be multiplied. It can be thought that the teaching of limited number of words in this study on account of the time limitation of 8 weeks may have been one of the factors behind the failure to get the expected results. In order to see the long-term effects of the application the allocated time can be lengthened in another study. The outcomes may change in long term so a follow-up test can be applied after 3-4 months. In order to take students' interest, the maps can be more colourful and contain less word. In this study, the semantic webs are all the same type, but different types of diagrams may be preferred such as, "KWL" or "Venn Diagram" and some other different graphic organizers can be more effective and retainable in their mind effecting the outcomes of this experimental study positively.

Moreover, this study shows that the learning styles of the learners should be taken into consideration while forming semantic webs on the board. This becomes especially important when one thinks that the learning style and special interests of a learner can have a negative effect on learning some specific words. In order not to create such a possibility, it will be better to identify the interests and determine the target words beforehand.

All in all, the findings obtained through this research are believed to form a constructive dimension for employing new vocabulary teaching techniques for vocabulary learning and, in broader sense, for language learning. This study is, by no means, comprehensive and conclusive. Further research on the theory and practical implementation of it is necessary. This study hopes to serve as one of the preliminary steps towards such research in this field.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX-1

PRE-POST TEST

Answer the following questions

1-Jessica buys and reads books every weekend. She is a ……

a)bookcase b)notebook c)bookshop d)bookworm

2-I …….come to school late. I always come to school on time.

a)always b)usually c)never d)often

3- Mr.Spices makes food for students in school. What is his job?

a)cleaner b)doctor c)teacher d)cook

4- Adem is a(n)……. He draws plans and builds houses.

a)engineer b)driver c)banker d)worker

5- Mr.Funny is a clown. He ……..for a circus.

a)watches b)works c)live d)washes

6-Mr.Erkanlıoğlu is our school's …….He manages the school.

a)cook b)Maths teacher c)cleaner d)headmaster

7- Students ……..to school at 8 o'clock in the morning.

a)leave b)come c)eat d)drink

8-Cheetahs are very quick animals .They always……..

a)eat fruit b)climb trees c)live in water d)run fast

9- What does a mechanic do ?

a)He drives the cars c)He repairs the cars

b)He paints the cars d)He washes the cars

10-In winter, Erzurum is very ……

a)chilly b)cool c)hot d)war

11- We use it for cleaning our teeth. What is this ?

a)perfume b)brush c)comb d)glass

12- Nihat is very fat. He should……..

a)drink a lot of coke b)drink to work c)take exercises d)eat a lot of spaghetti

13- Where is the party?

a)It is in September c)It is in February

b) It is in my house d)It is a beautiful party

14-Would you like to **……..**chess?

a)go b)watch c)play d)have

15- Whose party is it ?

a) Davis writes the card c)It is at David's house

b) It is David's party d)It is at 9 p.m.

16- Seda : I am very thirsty.
Erdal : …….

a)Let's eat a hamburger c)What about watching TV?

b)Shall we play chess? d)Why don't we drink something?

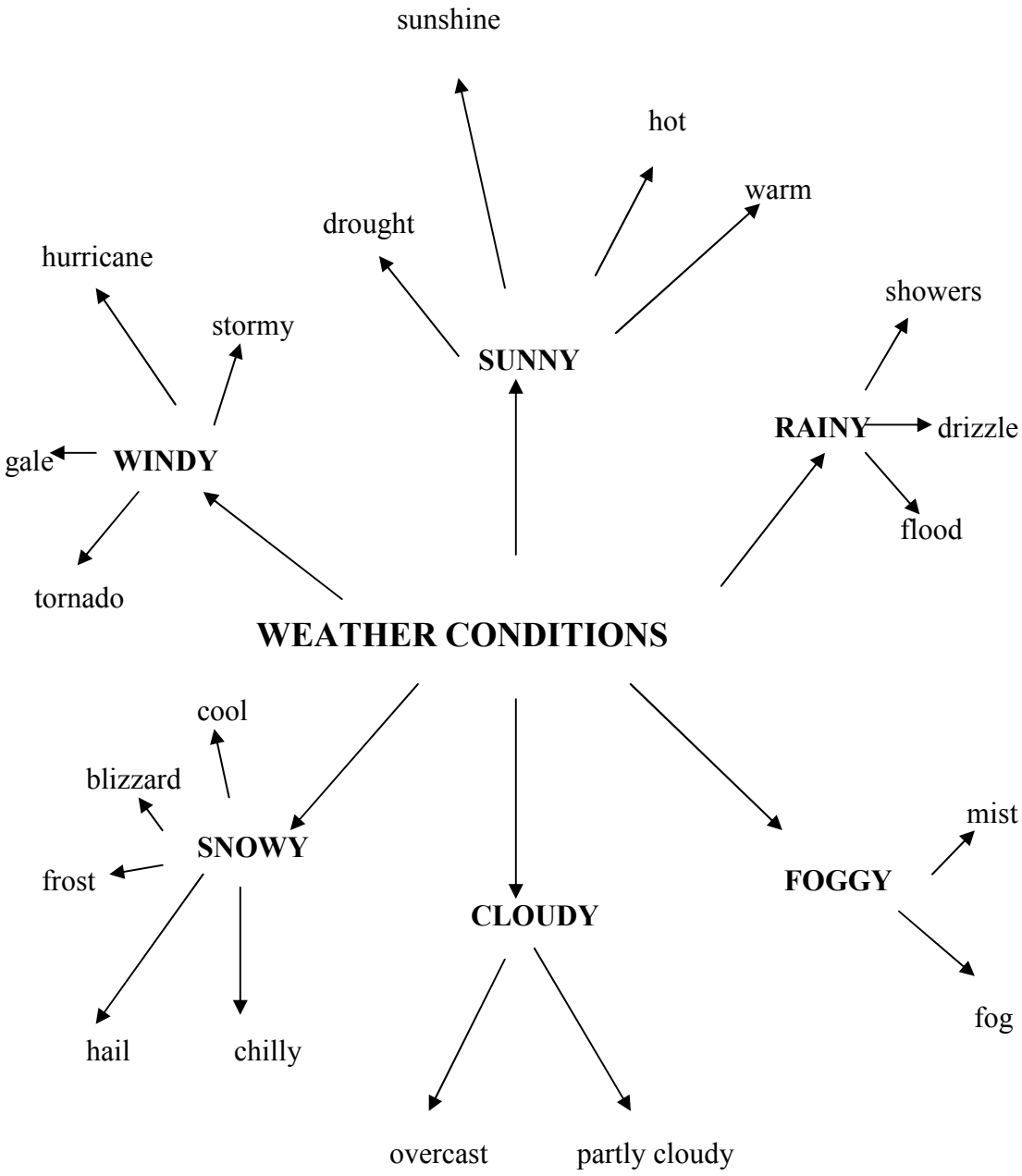
17- How can we fight the germs?

a)Don't wash the fruit c)Wash your car regularly

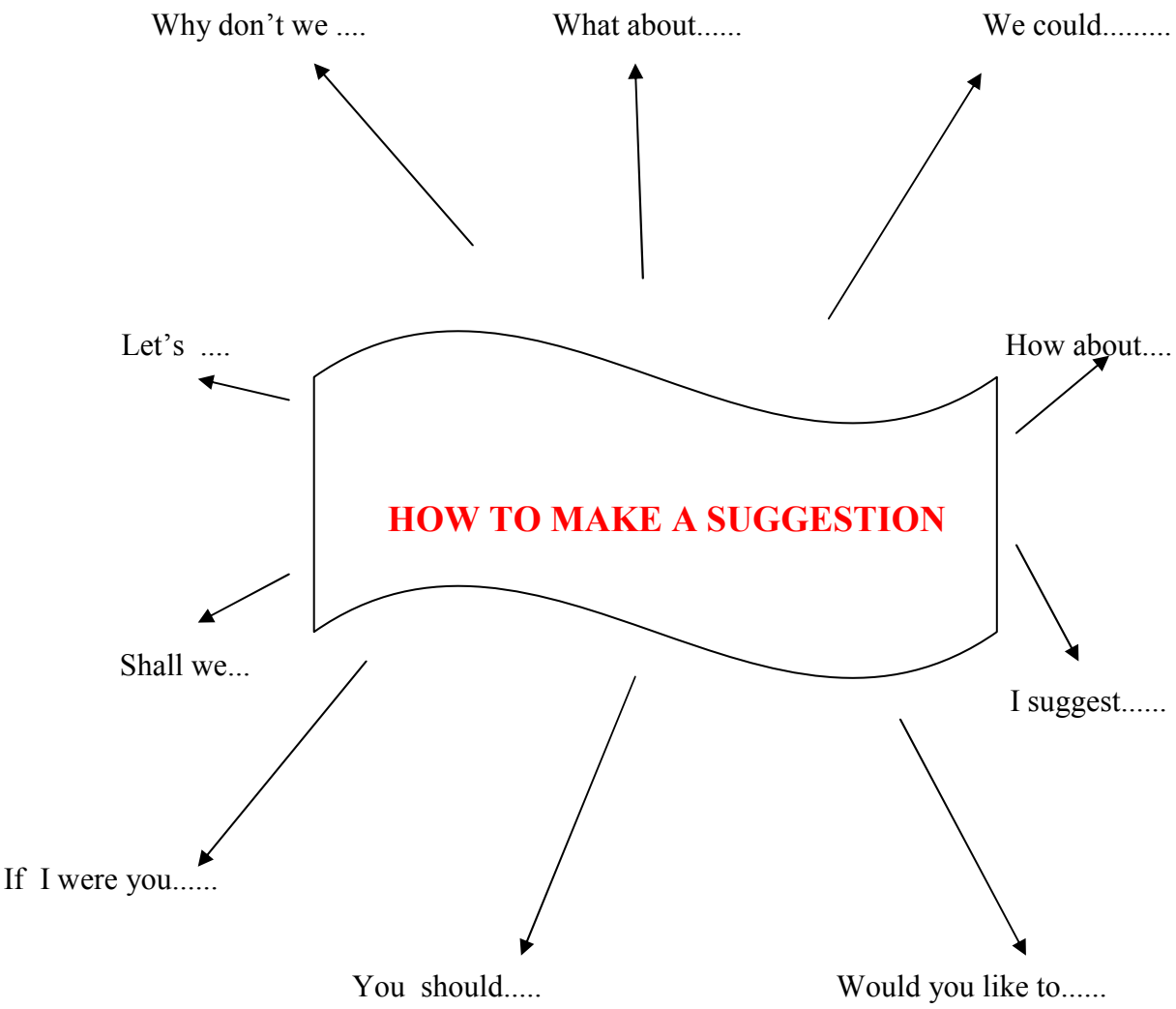
b)Finish your homework d)Use water and soap

Ayşegül YILDIZ
English Teacher

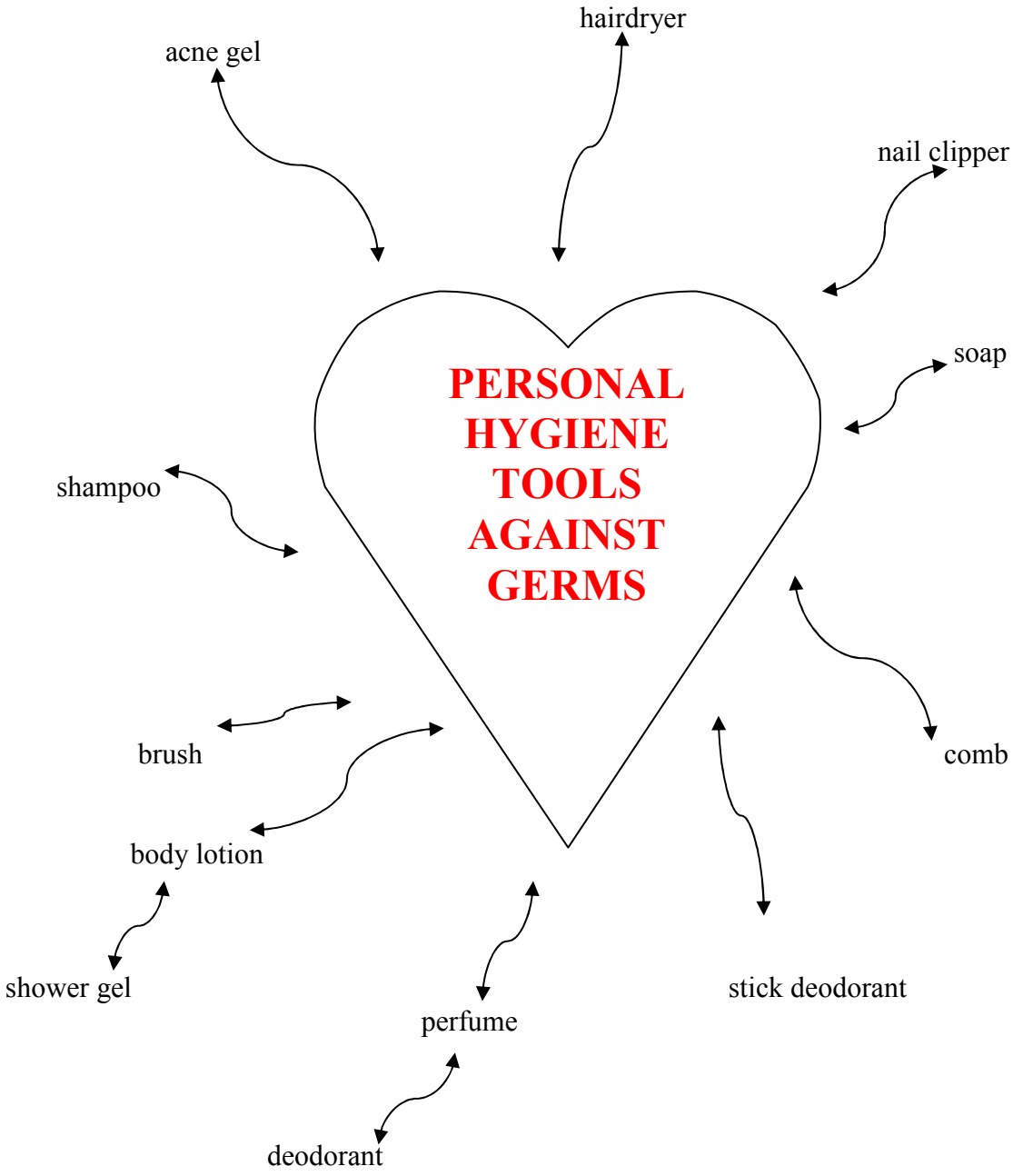
APPENDIX-2


sunshine
hot
warm
drought
hurricane
showers
stormy
SUNNY
RAINY
drizzle
gale
WINDY
flood
tornado
WEATHER CONDITIONS
cool
blizzard
mist
SNOWY
frost
FOGGY
CLOUDY
fog
hail
chilly
overcast
partly cloudy

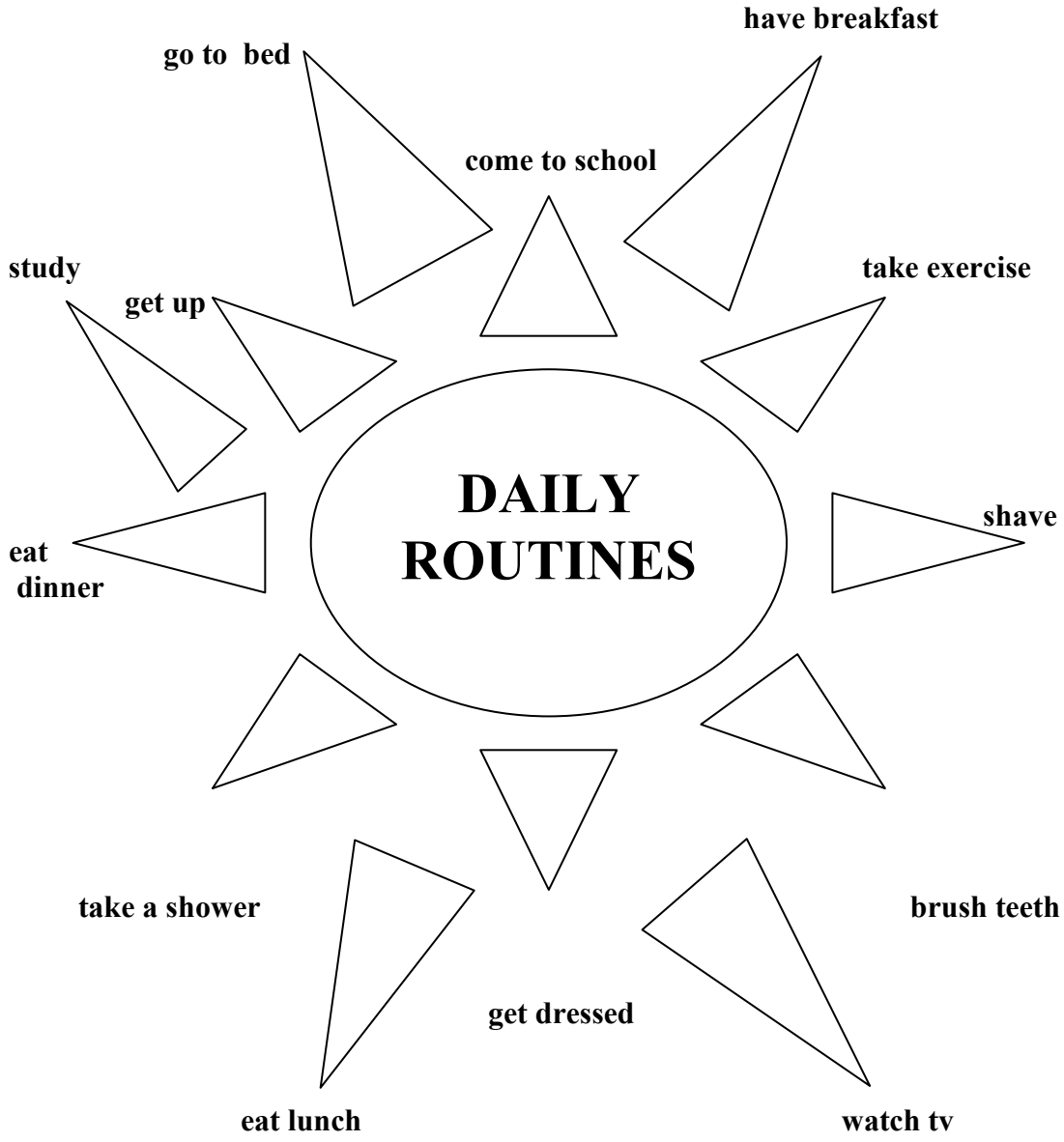
APPENDIX-3


Why don't we ....
What about.....
We could.....
Let's ....
How about....
HOW TO MAKE A SUGGESTION
Shall we...
I suggest.....
If I were you.....
You should.....
Would you like to.....

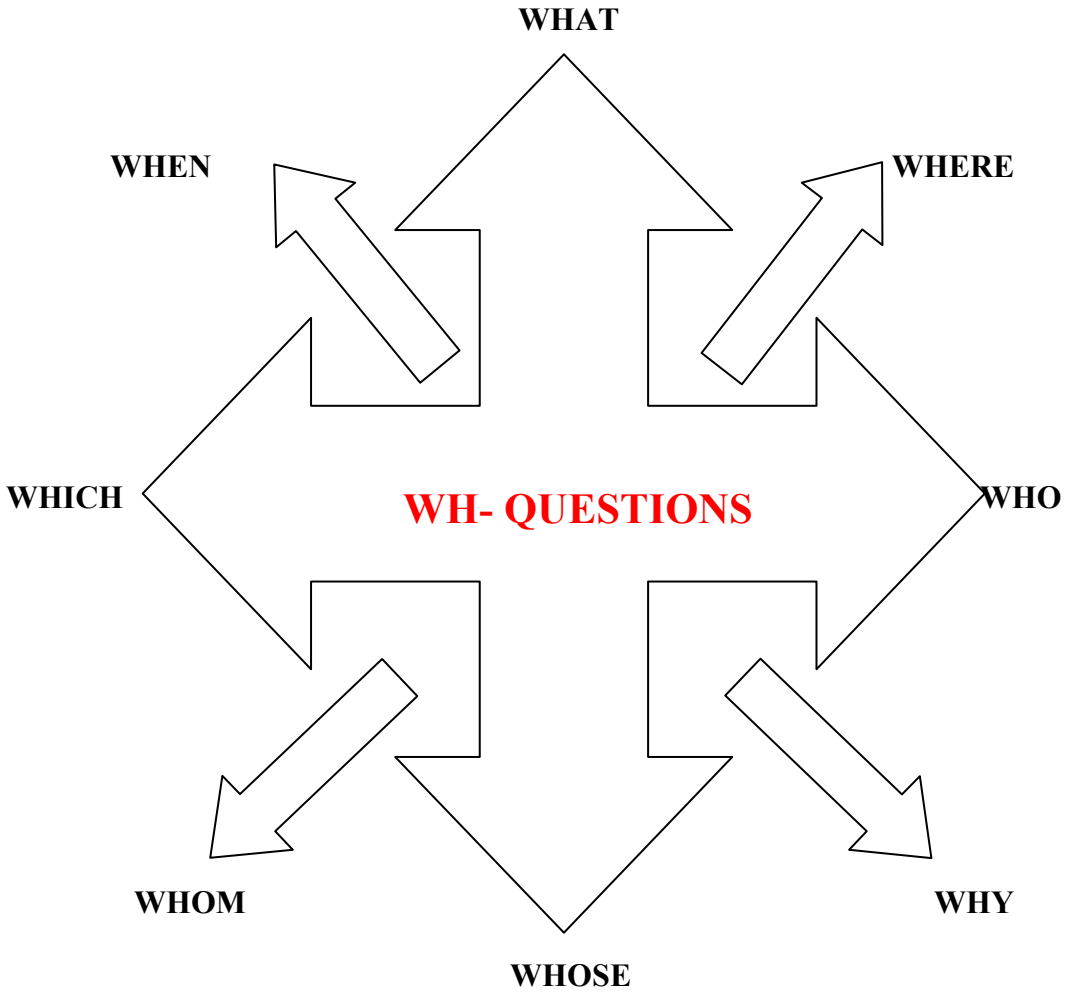
APPENDIX-4


PERSONAL HYGIENE TOOLS AGAINST GERMS
acne gel
hairdryer
nail clipper
soap
shampoo
brush
comb
body lotion
shower gel
perfume
stick deodorant
deodorant

APPENDIX-5


DAILY ROUTINES
go to bed
have breakfast
come to school
study
take exercise
get up
eat dinner
shave
take a shower
brush teeth
get dressed
eat lunch
watch tv

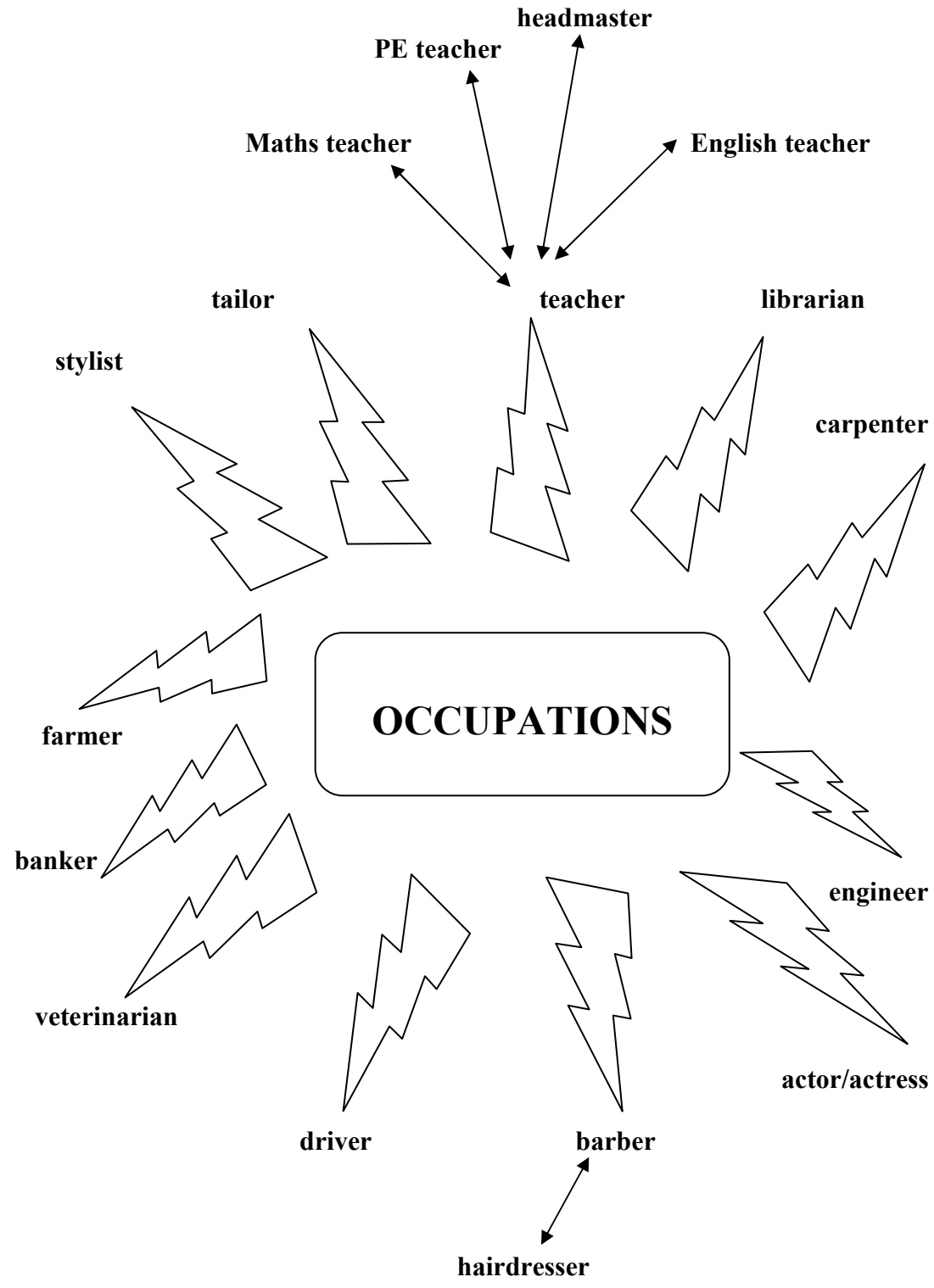
APPENDIX -6



APPENDIX-7


baker
doctor
policeman
pharmacist
nurse
OCCUPATIONS WITH SPECIAL CLOTHES
cook
pilot
soldier
waiter
clown
cleaner
mechanic

APPENDIX-8


OCCUPATIONS
headmaster
PE teacher
Maths teacher
English teacher
tailor
teacher
librarian
stylist
carpenter
farmer
banker
engineer
veterinarian
actor/actress
driver
barber
hairdresser

APPENDIX-9

60 TARGET WORDS IN THIS STUDY

1- Sunny
2- Windy
3- Foggy
4- Partly cloudy
5- Cold
6- Chilly
7- Hail
8- Should
9- Let's
10- Driver
11- Banker
12- Worker
13- Teacher
14- Cook
15- Headmaster
16- Cleaner
17- Clown
18- Bookworm
19- Brush
20- Comb
21- Perfume
22- Hot
23- Warm
24- Mechanic
25- Come
26- Go to bed
27- Soap
28- Who
29- Which
30- Where
31- When
32- Why
33- What
34- Whose
35- Take exercise
36- Nail clipper
37- Shampoo
38- Body lotion
39- Deodorant
40- Acne gel
41- Soldier
42- Policeman
43- Actor
44- Study
45- Get up
46- watch tv
47- take a shower
48- have a breakfast
49-sleep
50-flood
51-carpenter
52-salesperson
53-pharmacist
54- veterinarian
55-engineer
56-bookcase
57-bookshop
58-circus
59-stylist
60-pilot

APPENDIX-10

QUIZ-1

Write the Turkish Equivalents of the following words

1- Sunny : .....
2- Windy : .....
3- Foggy : .....
4- Partly cloudy :.....
5- Cold : .....
6- Chilly :.....
7- Hail : .....
8- Driver : .....
9- Banker : .....
10- Worker : .....
11- Teacher : .....
12- Cleaner : .....
13- Headmaster :.....
14- Clown : .....
15- Mechanic : .....
16- Pilot : .....
17- Stylist: .....
18- Soldier : .....
19- Policeman :.....
20- Actor : .....
21- Pharmacist : .....
22- Engineer : .....
23- Cook : .....
24- Veterinarian : .....

APPENDIX-11

QUIZ-2

Write the Turkish Equivalents of the following words

1-pilot : .....
2-circus :.....
3-bookshop :.....
4-bookcase :.....
5-engineer :.....
6-veterinarian :.....
7-pharmacist :.....
8-salesperson:.....
9-carpenter :.....
10-flood :.....
11-sleep :.....
12-have breakfast :.....
13-watch tv :.....
14-get up :.....
15-study :.....
16-policeman :.....
17-soldier :.....
18-take exercise :.....
19-whose: .....
20-what :.....
21-why :.....
22-when :.....
23-where:.....
24-which :.....
25-who :.....
26-go to bed :.....
27-come :.....
28-mechanic:.....
29-warm:.....
30-bookworm.....
31-clown:.....
32-headmaster:.....
33-cleaner:.....
34-cook:.....
35-teacher:.....
36-worker:.....
37-banker:.....
38-driver:.....
39-let's:.....
40-should:.....
41-hail:.....
42-chilly:.....
43-cold:.....
44-partly cloudy:.....
45-foggy:.....
46-windy:.....
47-sunny:.....
48-actor:.....

APPENDIX-12

QUIZ-3

Write the Turkish Equivalents of the following words

1-Sunny :
2-Windy :
3-Foggy :
4-Partly cloudy:
5-Cold :
6-Chilly :
7-Hail :
8-Should :
9-Let's :
10-Driver :
11-Banker :
12-Worker :
13-Teacher :
14-Cook :
15-Headmaster:
16-Cleaner :
17-Clown :
18-Brush :
19-Comb :
20-Perfume:
21-Hot :
22-Warm :
23-Mechanic :
24-Come :
25-Go to bed :
26-Soap :
27-Who:
28-Which :
29-Where :
30-When :
31-Why :
32-What :
33-Whose :
34-Take exercise :
35-Nail clipper :
36-Shampoo :
37-Body lotion :
38-Deodorant :
39-Acne gel :
40-Soldier :
41-Policeman :
42-actor :
43- watch tv :
44- take a shower :
45- have a breakfast :
46-sleep :
47-flood :
48-carpenter :
49-salesperson :
50-pharmacist :
51- veterinarian :
52-engineer :
53-bookcase :
54-bookshop :
55-circus :
56-stylist :
57-pilot :
58-study :
59-get up :
60-bookworm :

APPENDIX- 13 **Lesson Plan-1**

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

SUBJECT: Weather Conditions

TIME: 40 minutes

NUMBER OF STUDENTS: 27

OBJECTIVES: Enabling students to learn the vocabulary related to weather conditions in a systematic relation with the help of a semantic map.

MATERIALS: Blackboard, Spot On 6 Student's Book .

APPROACH : Cognitive Approach

TECHNIQUES : Semantic mapping technique, matching, brainstorming.

STEP-1

At this stage the teacher greets the students and asks some questions to make students feel relaxed and to motivate them. She wants the students to talk about the weather.

STEP-2

First the teacher then the students read the passage about weather conditions; after reading, the teacher does not give the meanings of the target words directly but draws a semantic map of related words (Appendix-2) on the board.

STEP-3

Students do a matching exercise using the target words and fill in an empty map on their own. They try to draw different semantic grids in different shapes creating and adding more branches to the available grid.

STEP-4

The volunteers come to the board and draws his/her own map showing and explaining the semantic relations in the grid.

APPENDIX-14 **Lesson Plan-2**

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

SUBJECT: Occupations

TIME: 40 minutes

NUMBER OF STUDENTS: 27

OBJECTIVES: Enabling students to learn the vocabulary related to occupations in a systematic relation with the help of a semantic map.

MATERIALS: Blackboard, Spot On 6 Student's Book .

APPROACH : Cognitive Approach

TECHNIQUES : Semantic mapping technique, brainstorming.

STEP-1

At this stage the teacher greets the students and asks some questions to make students feel relaxed and to motivate them. She wants the students to talk about the occupations. She asks the students their mother's and father's occupations.

STEP-2

At this step, students try to remember the words, remember the map on the board drawn by the teacher in previous week. The teacher tries to make them to form relationship among words as in the concept map.

STEP-3

The passage about the second week's subject is read by the teacher and then the students. Students make a matching exercise on their books, they match the pictures of the target words with their meanings in English. The teacher models the pronunciation of the words, throughout the exercises.

STEP-4

At the end of the lesson, the teacher draws two semantic maps on the board about occupations (Appendix-8) and occupations with special clothes (Appendix-7) adding the necessary branches to two maps with the help of the students. As an homework, she wants them to draw different maps under different headings.

APPENDIX-15 **Lesson Plan-3**

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

SUBJECT: Making suggestions

TIME: 40 minutes

NUMBER OF STUDENTS: 27

OBJECTIVES: Enabling students to learn the vocabulary related to "making suggestions" in a systematic relation with the help of a semantic map.

MATERIALS: Blackboard, Spot On 6 Student's Book .

APPROACH : Cognitive Approach

TECHNIQUES : Semantic mapping technique, brainstorming.

STEP-1

At this stage the teacher greets the students and asks some questions to make students feel relaxed and to motivate them. She wants the students to talk about how to make suggestions to people. She creates a fake scenario and asks them to advice to the character in this scenario.

STEP-2

While the students are uttering their own advices she writes them on the board on a semantic map as in previous weeks.

STEP-3

She wants the students to form groups of two with their desk-mates and form a dialogue like she did and states that they have to use the newly learned structures and words in their dialogues.

STEP-4

For a better and more retained understanding she wants the volunteer students to act their dialogues before the other students.

APPENDIX-16 **Lesson Plan-4**

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

SUBJECT: Daily Routines

TIME: 40 minutes

NUMBER OF STUDENTS: 27

OBJECTIVES: Enabling students to learn the vocabulary related to "Daily routines" and "wh- questions" in a systematic relation with the help of a semantic map.

MATERIALS: Blackboard, Spot On 6 Student's Book .

APPROACH : Cognitive Approach

TECHNIQUES : Semantic mapping technique.

STEP-1

At this stage the teacher greets the students and asks some questions to make students feel relaxed and to motivate them. She wants the students to talk about their daily routines.

STEP-2

After warm-up and motivation stage, first the teacher then the students read the passage about daily routines; after reading, the teacher does not give the meanings of the target words directly but draws two semantic maps of related words on the board (Appendix-5, Appendix-6).

STEP-3

Students do a matching exercise using the target words and fill in an empty map on their own adding more branches to the map.

STEP-4

The teacher wants students to form groups of four and discuss their daily routines asking some wh- questions.

APPENDIX-17 **Lesson Plan-5**

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

SUBJECT: Personal Hygiene

TIME: 40 minutes

NUMBER OF STUDENTS: 27

OBJECTIVES: Enabling students to learn the vocabulary related to "Personal Hygiene" and in a systematic relation with the help of a semantic map.

MATERIALS: Blackboard, Spot On 6 Student's Book .

APPROACH : Cognitive Approach

TECHNIQUES : Semantic mapping technique, brainstorming.

STEP-1

At this stage the teacher greets the students and asks some questions to make students feel relaxed and to motivate them. She wants the students to talk about personal hygiene. She asks about the personal hygiene tools that they have.

STEP-2

After reading the related text and answering some comprehension questions, the teacher draws a semantic map of "personal hygiene tools" and models the pronunciations of the target words (Appendix-4). After making a brainstorming activity of these tools, the teacher wants students to draw semantic maps in groups of four.

STEP-3

At this step the teacher wants students to ask questions each other using the previously learned structures in previous weeks. They ask questions about their own personal hygiene tools using wh- questions and they suggest more different tools for using.

STEP-4

As homework, the students will form new semantic maps about the tools of their own families.