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AN INVESTIGATION OF VOCABULARY MASTERY THROUGH VISUAL AIDS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE ATTITUDES OF SEVENTH GRADE STUDENTS

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We **certify** that thesis under the title of "**AN INVESTIGATION OF VOCABULARY MASTERY THROUGH VISUAL AIDS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE ATTITUDES OF SEVENTH GRADE STUDENTS**" is satisfactory for the award of the degree of **Master of Arts** in the Department of **English Language Teaching**.

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Vocabulary is the total number of words, phrases, collocations, etc. in a language.

The language is nothing without vocabulary. We need the words to express ourselves. So teaching vocabulary is indispensible in teaching the language. One of the most important points in teaching vocabulary is that the vocabulary should be in common use and from the similar semantic fields to make sense in the mind of the students. In vocabulary teaching, it's important that the students should understand it in both oral and written form and should remember it when asked. To do this, we need vocabulary work in class. If we recycle vocabulary in interesting and imaginative ways for our students, some of it would eventually stick. It's by the help of vocabulary work and the appropriate method in teaching vocabulary. There are many different methods and ways to teach vocabulary; however I studied on the technique which depends on using pictures and drawings in teaching vocabulary.

This study has two main aims. Firstly, it aims to investigate the effects of visual aids as instructional material on vocabulary teaching to secondary school students. Secondly, it aims to find out students' attitudes towards vocabulary learning via visual aids.

The students expressed their ideas through a questionnaire and an experimental study showed the effect of using visuals in vocabulary learning process.

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17 th of January, 2014

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ÖZET

GÖRSEL KAYNAKLAR YARDIMIYLA KELİME BİLGİSİ VE BU DURUMUN 7. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN TUTUMLARIYLA İLİŞKİSİNİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

BETÜL TURHAN

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Bölümü
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Genel olarak, öğrenme, dil temelli bir eylemdir ve baskın bir şekilde kelime bilgisine dayanmaktadır. Bütün temel beceri alanlarında öğrenciler zengin bir kelime hazinesine ihtiyaç duyarlar. Kelime öğretiminde ise eğitimciler öğrencilerin yeni kelimeler öğrenmelerinde onlara yardım etmek için farklı stratejiler geliştirmeye yönelmelidir. Hali hazırdaki bu çalışma görsel desteklerin ve resimlerin eğitsel bir materyal olarak öğrencilerin kelime öğrenmeleri ve genel olarak İngilizce öğrenmeye yönelik tutumları üzerindeki etkiyi belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, araştırmacı yedinci sınıf öğrencileri arasından iki farklı grup oluşturmuştur: deney grubu (N=21) ve kontrol grubu (N=19). Bu gruplara araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen program altı hafta süre ile uygulanmıştır. Veri toplama aracı olarak üç farklı ölçme aracı kullanılmıştır: başarı testi, "kendini test et" ve tutum ölçeği. Bu ölçekler çalışmadan önce ve sonra olmak üzere iki gruba da uygulanmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular göstermiştir ki görsel destekler ve resimler öğrencilerin kelime bilgisi düzeyi ve İngilizce öğrenmeye yönelik tutumları üzerinde anlamlı seviyede etkisi bulunmaktadır. Bu sonuçlar ilgili literatüre dayalı olarak tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler:, Eğitsel Materyaller, Görsel Araçlar, Kelime Öğretimi

ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF VOCABULARY MASTERY THROUGH VISUAL AIDS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO THE ATTITUDES OF SEVENTH GRADE STUDENTS

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Learning, overall, is a language-based activity that is predominantly dependent on vocabulary. Students need rich vocabularies to ensure success in all basic skill areas. In the teaching of vocabulary, educators should be concerned with helping students develop strategies that will enable them to learn new words. The present study has two main aims; to investigate the effects of visual aids as instructional material on vocabulary teaching to secondary school students and to find out students'attitudes towards vocabulary teaching after using visual aids. For this aim, the researcher formed two groups; experiment (N=21) and control (N=19) from seventh graders and designed six weeks instructional program and investigate the effect of program on vocabulary mastery. Three different measurement intruments were utilized as data collection tools. Those are an achievement test, test yourself and attitude inventory. The results showed that visual aids and pictures had a significant effect on vocabulary mastery and on attitudes of students toward English learning. Those results were discussed based on the relevant literature.

Key Words: Visual Aids, Instructional Materials, Vocabulary Teaching.

ABBREVIATIONS

SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
DCT	: Dual Coding Theory
IRA	: The International Reading Association
NCTE	: The National Council of Teachers of English
SAT	: Scholastic Aptitude Test

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CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

"*While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." (Wilkins, 1972, s.111).*

It is an undeniable fact that vocabulary learning is one of the most problematic areas in language learning. Learning vocabulary is an essential part in language learning. Educators know that words and vocabulary strongly impact learners' lives. In parallell, people from high socio-economic classes have distinctive features of their written and spoken vocabularies (Blachowicz and Fisher, 2004).

In the context of earlier education, a high level of vocabulary can make a considerable difference for students and their apprehension of reading materials (National Reading Panel, 2000). It is a well-known fact that communication fails due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge. The message can be conveyed despite grammar or pronunciation mistakes; however, it is much harder to understand if the wrong word is used

Therefore, the knowledge of vocabulary is thought as an essential part in learning a language. However, it is necessary to point out what is meant by "knowing a word". In first language and second language research in literature, various attempts have been made to clarify what is meant by "vocabulary knowledge" (Cronbach, 1942). An early definition about knowing a word was made by Cronbach (1942) who divided vocabulary knowledge into two categories: knowledge of word meaning (generalization, breadth of meaning and precision of meaning) and levels of accessibility to this knowledge (availability and application)

Later on, Richards (1976) presented different assumptions involved in vocabulary knowledge. These assumptions are frequency, register, syntax, derivation, association, semantic features, and polysemy. Compared to Cronbach's assumptions, these are more inclusive because they integrate morphological and syntactic aspects with word frequency and register characteristics of the words. However, pronunciation, spelling and collocation were still not mentioned as in Cronbach's definition.

Qian's (2002) recent framework presents four dimensions which are comprised of all types of definitions mentioned so far :

- Vocabulary Size: The number of words the meanings of which are known.
- Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge: The knowledge of all characteristic features of a word such as collocational, phonemic, morphemic, syntactic, semantic, frequency etc.
- Lexical Organization: The storage of words in the mental lexicon.
- The Automaticity of Receptive-Productive Knowledge: The steps of knowing a word, identifying it when encountered, storing in mind, using in free production considering structural and semantic features.

Laufer (1990) proposed a slightly different taxonomy of components of word knowledge, including form, meaning, and relations with other words. He emphasized phonological, graphic and morphological knowledge with form; referential, associative, pragmatic use with meaning; and paradigmatic and syntagmatic use with relation with others words. In short, it is not such a simple fact to know vocabulary. As many researchers have pointed out, it is also important to have an idea about the usage of the vocabularies.

Drawing attention of adolescents by using stimulating instruction is one of the keys to learn and the other way to draw students' attention is to take the advantage of visual prompts and activities. Based on that principle, for Rushton and Larkin (2001), some concepts are better learned if activities that connect or link vivid visual images like pictures. If the brain responds strongly to visual images, what is the best way for educators to convey information? Studies in the field of neuroscience comes to the conclusion that "90 percent of the brain's sensory input is from visual sources, and the brain has an immediate and primitive response to symbols, icons, and other simple images" (Jensen, 2008, p. 56).

1.2. Statement of Problem

Vocabulary is usually learnt through traditional techniques by primary school students. What is meant by 'traditional techniques' are that students tend to make lists for the Turkish equivalences of unknown words and try to memorize them. However, such techniques cause short-term memorizations and create disruptions in using them actively in

a long term of language learning process. In the teaching of vocabulary, educators should be concerned with helping students develop strategies that will enable them to learn new words (Wolfe and Nevills, 2004).

Learners face with difficulties in adapting their vocabulary knowledge into writing or speaking skills. Thus, this technique is insufficient in developing productive language skills such as writing or speaking although knowing a language requires mastering all skills. When students possess a wide-ranging vocabulary, they tend to be more successful in terms of comprehending material being read, as well as interacting in social settings (Blachowicz et al., 2006). Consequently, "vocabulary is one of five core components of reading instruction that are essential to successfully teach children how to read" (Sedita, 2005).

The Dual Coding Theory posits that human cognition is operated by two subsystems: a verbal and a non-verbal system. These systems contain some latent visual codes (imagens) and verbal codes (logogens) which are activated by pictures and words respectively. Thus, the logogens are located in the verbal system and the imagens are found in the non-verbal system. The visual and auditory systems function independently. Yet, Paivio (1986) admits that they can collaborate in the process of language learning. Though both information-processing systems are separated, they are involved in the process of language learning. Moreover, the logogens and the imagens work together in human memory when it comes to learning a language.

It is obvious that humans are typically visually oriented and the retention of information offered in visual form normally exceeds the retention of verbally presented information (Rushton and Larkin, 2001). In fact, Sadoski (2005) cites paired verbal and imagery contexts as highly effective combinations for acquiring vocabulary. Visuals, in addition to the developmental changes that automatically occur in the adolescent brain, can be a powerful memory combination. One of the most significant changes which the adolescent brain experiences is a major increase in the myelination or insulation of the nerve fibers going into and out of the frontal lobes. The more information the executive center can gather in various modes—visual signals, the more nuanced and appropriate the brain's responses can be. (Bloom, Beal, and Kupfer, 2006, p. 105)1111

The dual coding theory was supported by the findings of Sadoski (1985). They observed that pictures served as stimuli to retain or remember a word. Paivio (2006)

conducted a neuropsychological study and found that object pictures and sounds had additive effects on memory.

Thus, they concluded that efficient learning might occur when both visual and verbal materials are presented "contiguously" to the learner. In practice, audio and visual materials facilitate the process of learning simultaneously during the instruction. Those verbal and nonverbal representations help people memorize the instruction being given. In view of the dual coding theory, this study integrates visual and verbal stimuli.

Marzano (2004) presented a six step process for teaching vocabulary, where he recommended some ways to present new vocabulary terms to learners. Among the initial steps, he recommended that teachers could use video or computer images as tools for teaching new vocabulary terms. For that purpose, teachers should find or create pictures that represent the term being taught. The use of pictures as instructional materials is becoming increasingly important in the area of language learning. Many studies have investigated the effect of pictures on the efficacy of language learning (Levin, Anglin and Carney, 1987).

Even the studies related to the effectiveness of pictures and drawings on are well reported in foreign literature as outlined above, there is a few documented studies in Turkish context. So, the current study will serve as introducing this topic in different population.

1.3.Purpose of the Study

The current study has two main aims;

a.To investigate the effects of visual aids as instructional material on vocabulary teaching to secondary school students.

b. To find out students'attitudes towards vocabulary teaching

1.4. Importance of the Study

While the value of using visual tools with young English learners in developing vocabulary proficiency and providing learning pleasure has been generally acknowledged by researchers and practitioners, few studies have been done in that topic in the educational settings in Turkey to investigate how pictures work for young people in developing vocabulary learning skills and how English teachers use them in classroom settings.

The data collected in this study provide teachers with information which includes any kinds of pictures and illustrations in books. Most young English learners might like the criteria for selecting suitable and good quality visual tools as well as how pictures can help them in vocabulary learning. What is more, this study demonstrated how types of pre-reading activities, pictures and visual tools could be used in an entertaining way to interest young English learners while studying with them.

Additionally, those visuals tools help these learners interact with text, deepen understandings, make connections, work collaboratively and share their insights and ideas. The results showed that these activities in combination with traditional materials enhanced language learning and learning enjoyment. In parallel, those materials can provide English teachers a general idea of what kinds of activities most learners might enjoy and find helpful in learning. The findings also suggest ways for teachers to integrate visual tools into their English curriculum.

Finally, this study examined if using visual materials with young learners had the potential to help them gain incidental vocabulary learning and whether a combination of traditional activities with visual tools could yield significantly more word knowledge gain. The results can help language teachers and researchers understand the impact of using visual materials on young English learners' learning vocabulary. Therefore, the present study can not only provide teachers an alternative to language teaching that is effective for vocabulary development and can be useful to activate students' language learning interests and engage them in class, but also shed light on future research directions for language researchers in developing effective language pedagogy.

1.5. Limitations

- The results could only be generalizable to the secondary school aged students.
- The results are restricted with 2012-2013 education year.
- The results are restricted with the validity and reliability of the measurement tools.

1.6. Research Questions

The research questions of this study are presented as follows:

1. How does picture aided instruction impact vocabulary learning compared to regular classroom instruction?

2. What are the attitudes of students toward learning vocabulary through visual aids?

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE

2.1. Vocabulary

It is widely accepted that vocabulary proficiency is very crucial for language learners' proficiency in a given language and vocabulary deficiency may disrupt performing the necessary production and comprehension skills expected from them.

Children learn a foreign language vocabulary relatively rapidly and gain the target language vocabulary more easily when they get it unconsciously and indirectly in context. For example, instead of memorizing foreign words as an intentional vocabulary learning, children learn vocabulary better while listening to a story book, a conversation or playing games in target language. Thus, the vocabulary becomes a tool to reach the goal of communication by this incidental vocabulary learning. Hence, comprehension based, communication based teaching methods do better in foreign language classrooms rather than grammar-based lessons which focus on the structure while neglecting the message communication, which is the main function of the language (Gordon, 2007).

There are different curriculum programs available to teach young children literacy skills that are necessary to learn how to read. This researcher identifies vocabulary development as an essential component but one that lacks specific focus, teaching suggestions, measurable objectives, criteria for word selection or any type of scope and sequence. Although there is an acknowledgement that young children need to develop vocabulary skills, there is little evidence of actual teaching strategies and a proven instructional regime for teachers who want to be more effective in this area. Existing programs do not provide a deliberate attempt for frequent practice, multiple exposures to words and systematic opportunities to use vocabulary. Many of these programs assume that children will learn vocabulary words by repeating them after the teacher or by hearing them in a story.

Developmentally appropriate strategies for teaching vocabulary as well as instructional materials for enhancing young children's vocabulary skills need improvement. In addition, teachers are often not provided professional development to teach vocabulary skills. Strategies used in meaningful contexts through semantically related activities are needed. Opportunities for children's active participation in learning as

well as concrete props are necessary to develop vocabulary skills (Neumon & Dwyer, 2009).

Furthermore, studies in recent years giving focus to literacy took closer attention to the considerable individual discrepancies of vocabulary abilities of young children in primary school context (Beck and McKeown, 2001). In those studies, it has been found that there is a relationship between reading skill and vocabulary size (IRA, 2002). Biemiller (2003) described significant differences in vocabulary size among children already by the end of second grade. In his study, second graders in the highest quartile of vocabulary size demonstrated the knowledge of approximately 7,100 root words. By contrast, second graders in the lowest quartile had a vocabulary size of only 3,000 root words. When these second graders reached fifth grade, the students in the lowest quartile still had not learned even 7,100 root words.

Hence, because most vocabulary level gap develop among individuals before third grade, at which point a considerable disparity exists in the speed of word acquisition (Biemiller and Slonim, 2001), it is crucial to start building vocabulary knowledge when children are young. Estimates of the volume of words that elementary students learn each school year show variance from nearly 2,000 words (IRA, 2002) to 4,000 words (Johns and Lenski, 2005). Teachers need to teach 22 new vocabulary terms every day of the school year so that their students can learn 4,000 words throughout the year (Johns and Lenski, 2005). As a result, it is clear that children learn vocabulary words both by chance and with deliberate attempt.

Incidental learning occurs without delibarate intervenion, as students experience or read words without being given any kind of vocabulary instruction. Biemiller (2003) claimed that vocabulary development and the level of vocabulary comprehension are both influenced by any other language support and by explicit instruction at school. Moreover, children from low-socio-economic background, whose parents communicate with them as much as their high socio-economic level counterparts acquire vocabulary as strongly as children from wealthy families. The variable appears to be the number of words parents and children use in their daily talk, especially if "high-level words," which are not familiar words, are used and explained (Biemiller, 2003).

Other than conversation, children can acquire vocabulary words through read-alouds and independent reading. Students who prefer to read a different kind of texts

frequently at school and at home probably make better progress in vocabularies than their same age counterparts who avoid reading. Additionally, sharing, investigating and discussing experiences increase the level of the incidental development of vocabulary (Brabham and Villaume, 2002). Wordplays, including silly songs and rhymes, help children enjoy and spontaneously play with language, consequently increase incidental vocabulary development.

Along with incidental word learning, vocabulary could also be learned intentionally. According to Biemiller (2003 alleged that teachers should take note of words that have been introduced, as well as the specific words retained by students. Explaining three vital sets of literacy skills used throughout life, which include "word identification (phonemic awareness plus decoding), morphological analysis (applying knowledge of suffixes and prefixes to extend word knowledge), and simple dictionary skills," He stated that in contrast to these skills, "building basic root word vocabulary requires continuing support, especially for less advantaged and lower-vocabulary children" (p. 330).

All those claims show the absolute necessity of vocabulary that cannot be denied for both first and second language learning. Learners, who are lack of necessary vocabulary knowledge, are unable to use language fluently. Vocabulary forms the basis of four language skills, therefore the success in any language skills such as writing, speaking, listening and reading is bound to one's vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary knowledge has a great deal of contribution to language success. Also, there are positive relations between vocabulary knowledge and different language skills. Similarly, the level of one's vocabulary knowledge is relevant to one's performance on any language test. In other words, that language ability is to quite a large extent a function of vocabulary level.

For this reason, the importance of teaching vocabulary is absolutely undeniable. Students often take advantage of selecting words from their own vocabulary and their own repository (Brabham and Villaume, 2002). Teachers give advices about teaching words "thoroughly and in depth over time" as well as showing particular strategies for solving problems, revision about the ideas of definitions, and using words in appropriate way. Additionally, "in explicit strategies instruction, teachers show students how to apply prior knowledge as they use context clues and break down word structures to figure out meanings".

As students learn strategies, they also become in progress in understanding the meaning of the words, which also enables a higher possibility of incidental learning for them. Encouraging students to investigate their own strategies also have many benefits. Asking "questions such as 'What do you think that means?' and 'How did you figure that out?' stimulates conversations that make strategies more visible and thus more powerful as tools for intentional vocabulary learning" (Brabham and Villaume, 2002, p. 266).

Children typically develop an understanding of vocabulary words gradually. According to Dale and O'Rourke (1986), there are four levels of word knowledge: "

- I never saw it before.
- I've heard of it, but I don't know what it means.
- I recognize it in context—it has something to do with…
- I know it" (Stahl, 2003, p. 18).

The understanding of a word increases as a person repeatedly encounters that word (Stahl, 2003). Indeed, "vocabulary knowledge seems to grow gradually, moving from the first meaningful exposure to a word to a full and flexible knowledge," which "involves an understanding of the core meaning of a word and how it changes in different contexts" (Stahl, 2003, p. 19). This deep comprehension of a word requires "exposure to the word in multiple contexts from different perspectives" (Stahl, 2003, p. 19). To truly understand a word, it is necessary to have definitional knowledge and contextual knowledge, the combination of which leads to a rich vocabulary.

After understanding the importance of vocabulary for learning language, one important point is how it could be developed effectively. A good vocabulary teaching method requires visual and concrete materials such as picture vocabulary cards for very young children, because their comprehensions occur in concrete contexts. In this study, picture cards on which there are related vocabulary items, colorful photos or depictions were used in vocabulary activities. Explicitly, picture vocabulary activities are individual or group games that are played by using picture cards for teaching foreign language vocabulary. Picture cards can also be used in vocabulary activities when teaching an additional language to very young learners. Teaching an additional language to very young learners can include various techniques such as videos, storytelling, finger plays, singing, etc.

For that reason, teachers should be aware of the importance of vocabulary. It is undeniable that communication breaks down when the learners don't have the necessary vocabulary knowledge and therefore, both grammar and vocabulary should be given equally during the learning process. Vocabulary learning is not easy for second language learners, therefore teaching vocabulary would be thought to be the prominent subject for the instructors of language, but it is not. Most language classes are lack of direct vocabulary teaching.So students are supposed to learn vocabulary with no help. Language teaching programmes include many courses on four language skills as well as culture although vocabulary courses are not very common and many of these existing courses include learning vocabulary by heart or they give limited chance to put what have learned into practice.

The general atmosphere of classroom environment can influence students' vocabulary acquisition. An environment that is rich in terms of the its resources and means for teaching is crucial, as "building new concepts by means of experience forms the primary foundations for learning new words". A "language-rich environment" is a classroom "alive with probing and thoughtful conversations… [while students] share, explore and refine their thinking" about many concepts. Finally, a "fascination-rich environment" where "eyes sparkle with insights, bodies and minds stretch with inquisitiveness and voices are charged with energy" promotes vocabulary acquisition. In this type of classroom, rich in experience, print, language and fascination, teachers themselves cherish and promote the joy of language and their enthusiasm is contagious (Brabham and Villaume, 2002, p. 267).

2.2. Visual Approaches to Learning

Mental imagery has also had a long history in the cognitive sciences as a critical factor in cognition. In his contemplations on the ability of reasoning, Aristotle theorized that human beings cannot think without the tool of mental imagery. Furthermore, Thomas Aquinas stated that "man's mind cannot understand thoughts without images of them." Similarly, William James (1890) suggested that the static meanings of concrete words consist of "sensory images awakened" (Bell, 2002, p. 7).

Moreover, Piaget (1936) wrote that "…over time schemata become internalized in the form of imaged thought." It is true that visualization by a reader is kept in prior to knowledge. Normally, readers form images and these are adapted as a result of additional

information. Visualization is what many good readers do—they engage in the reading by forming mental imagery. The psychologist Edward Titchener (1909) wrote, "My mind in its ordinary operations is a fairly complete picture gallery" (p. 28). Finally, Albert Einstein made his thinking concrete with the sensory-cognitive function of mental imagery. "If I can't picture it, I can't understand it." he said (as cited in Lindamood-Bell, 2002, p. 8).

Obviously, internal visualization can be very valuable in the education. More specifically, visualization and imagery can be beneficial in learning new concepts. As visual connections help new learning. Furthermore, researches demonstrate that learning vocabulary can be more effective when students are able to visually represent a word and its related terms (Smith, 1997).

Effective strategies for vocabulary instruction should provide students with the following experiences; multiple exposures to words through conversation, visual displays, readings, etc; authentic opportunities to use words in classrooms and to make appropriate connections for use in other contexts; rich discussions that focus on academic terminology; detailed word analysis that allows students to study the structural features of language; and diverse texts, including literary and factual pieces, poetry, and visual materials… (Luthy, 2005, pp. 11-12)

The importance of visual knowledge has even been recognized by distinguished national educational associations: The International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) announced that teachers should "challenge students to analyze the texts they view critically and to integrate their visual knowledge with other forms of literacy" (IRA and NCTE, 1996, p. 6). As known, one of the best ways to learn a new word is to integrate it with an image. However, This rarely happens when students are simply assigned a list of words and tasks in a vocabulary or Scholastic Aptitude Test [SAT] workbook. Interestingly, Marquez-Zenkov and Harmon (2007) posit that youths' experience with visual texts might give adolescents personal links to education. These experiences may also provide teachers with pedagogical supports that help teenagers enjoy literacy tasks.

2.3. Learning Vocabulary through Pictures

Stephen Krashen (1989) is best known for his work on two hypotheses, the "Input" and "Affective Filter" hypotheses. According to Krashen's "Input Hypothesis," new, unfamiliar vocabulary is acquired when its significance is made clear to the learner.

Meaning is conveyed by providing extra-linguistic support through the use of illustrations, actions, photos, and real objects. Vocabulary is incidentally acquired through stories because of the following:

- Familiar vocabulary and syntax contained in the stories provide meaning to less familiar vocabulary.
- Picture illustrations clarify the meaning of unfamiliar words.
- There is evidence that picture illustrations have an impact on supporting the reading process by clarifying the meaning of incoming verbal information. In short, meaning is critical to the acquisition of vocabulary.

The relevant literature was investigated that evaluated the relative effectiveness of pictures as an instructional tool in regular classrooms. For this aim, the study especially focused on students from various backgrounds and from difeerent cultures. In this part, the study generally focuses on how the data in other studies has been collected so far, how those studies have been examined and in what ways picture reading can enhance literacy learning. Results of the studies on picture reading skills supports the idea that pictures can stimulate learning information for students with significant disabilities (Lignugaris/Kraft et al., 2001). Students were instructed on basic picture reading skills that included matching words with the pictures, orienting objects in the direction shown in the picture, positioning objects and performing illustrated actions and asked to generalize their skills from pictures to actual situations (Lignugaris/Kraft et al., 2001). The results revealed a positive contribution of pictures to learning. This review paper examined research from 1970-1986 on picture reading skills (Lignugaris/Kraft et al., 2001). The review described studies using pictures as an instructional tool and showed how competent the participants were in generalizing the learned skills to new tasks, objects or settings after being taught with picture reading. In general, the results were positive for generalization of some picture reading skills.

Another study examined the effects of using personal photos and drawings to increase communication, which showed positive effects on students with moderate mental retardation (Johnson et al., 1992). The instructors taught students how to get the meaning of the words from the pictures to express their ideas verbally. The students were motivated by the activity which is understandable and doable. The pictures were used to stimulate language and focus on extracting meaning (Johnson et al., 1992). The pictures were personal photographs of each participant performing an action to increase verb usage and

language development. The pictures consisted of the participants acting out ten actions. The photographs were taken not only in natural classroom environment but also the students' personal area. Four language books were developed. The first three books included the ten personal photographs of each participant. The fourth book contained drawings of each target verb that every participant was able to use. Firstly, the book was introduced to the participants. Then they were instructed on each target verb. After 100 percent correct verbalizations for three consecutive sessions, the graphic line drawings were introduced. After the student achieved 100 percent correct verbalizations on the graphic representations, three consecutive sessions criterion was met. The study examined the effects of each phase and various sequences of stimuli used (Johnson et al., 1992). This sequence of stimuli was based on Bruner's theory of instruction. The language books used in this study corresponded with Bruner's theory of instruction that addressed student's learning needs by helping students progress from concrete to abstract representations using target verbs (Johnson et al., 1992).

Baseli and Olle (1995) looked at developing vocabulary by using visuals. The review examined different techniques of visualization to improve the students' vocabulary. For example, having students illustrate words from a story helps facilitate comprehension on the story and helped students personally connect to the story (Baseli and Olle, 1995). Some research has suggested that an improvement in vocabulary can enhance comprehension (Baseli and Olle, 1995). The use of visuals have a great impact on student's life and is an effective tool for learning vocabulary as well as increasing comprehension skills (Baseli and Olle, 1995).

Marzano (2004) presented a six step process for teaching vocabulary, where he recommended some ways to present new vocabulary terms to learners. Among the initial steps, he recommended that teachers could use video or computer images as tools for teaching new vocabulary terms. For that purpose, teachers should find or create pictures that represent the term being taught. The present study addresses the use of pictures in teaching vocabulary to children. The use of pictures as instructional materials is becoming increasingly important in the area of language learning. Many studies have investigated the effect of pictures on the efficacy of language learning (Levie & Lentz, 1982; Levin, Anglin, & Carney, 1987). The present study focuses on cartoon pictures as it compares the efficacy of still (static) and animated (moving) pictures. Rieber & Kini (1991) defined an

animation as a series of rapidly changing computer screen displays suggesting movement to the viewer. Its purpose is to show an exact presentation of a process or procedure to facilitate understanding (Hoffler & Leutner, 2007).

In these researches, it was not discussed whether the type of picture (real photography, drawings, or cartoons) could be a factor in the effectiveness of using images. The present study focuses on the use of cartoon pictures. According to Webster's online dictionary, cartoon pictures are drawings depicting a humorous situation. However, the humorous aspect was not considered in the selection of the pictures in this study. Rather, the pictures were chosen to provide a clear illustration of the target words. Teaching or learning languages with the aid of multimedia is backed by some theories developed in the 20th century. The present study is enlightened by Allan Paivio's Dual Coding Theory (1986) and Richard Mayer's Generative Theory of Multimedia Learning (1997). The next sections outline the main principles of these two theoretical frameworks.

2.4. Theories for Language Acquision through Pictures and Drawings

2.4.1. Dual-Coding Theory

Paivio is known as the most importanrt figure and theorizes about the dual-coding theory (DCT). The dual-coding model states the existence of both verbal and nonverbal memory channels that help to create basic mental models. At the basic level, the theory posits that learning is enhanced by the combination of related verbal (vocabulary) and nonverbal (image) input. The combination of verbal and nonverbal memories is the evidence of processing which is at the heart of the dual-coding theory (Igo, Kiewra and Bruning, 2004).

Researchers and theorists studying on vocabulary learning or teaching consistently point to the nature of vocabulary from a dominant linguistic point of view. It is assumed that word knowledge is not distinct from it's meaning expressed in the form of language. In this point of view, it might be seen that it is the only acceptable and possible one. While these linguistic structures are definitely crucial aspects of vocabulary knowledge, Another form of representation is a nonlinguistic form that is referred to as dual coding theory. (Marzano, 2004, p. 104)

Additionally, Paivio's (1990) dual-coding theory "posits two separate symbolic systems: one system is attuned to verbal information, including auditory processing and

language, while the other system is attuned to visual and spatial processing" (p. 55). Also Dual-coding theory suggests that there is little difference between the effect of visual and auditory materials when presented together. Using both visual and auditory materials together have such an impact on teaching process. Even though these systems are functionally and structurally different from each other, they are integrated in such a way that an event in one system can initiate an activity in other one. (Koehler, Yadav, Phillips and Cavazos-Kottke, 2005, p. 249) From this perspective, "video, with its visual and verbal codes, might be a more effective and powerful instructional material than a single representation of just pictorial or verbal code" (Paivio, 1990, p. 55).

In a study, the researchers, David and Kang (1998), utilized the dual coding theory to confirm their hypotheses. Their first hypothesis pointed that "the addition of pictures to low-imagery copy will improve recall" (p. 22). And that could be explained as using the dual-coding theory. They theorized that the activation f both visual and verbal subsystems together had such an effect on memory more than the copied one in a situation. The second hypothesis stated that "High-imagery copy will be recalled better than low-imagery copy" (p. 22). The results of the study suggested that there was a "significant gain in recall from the addition of either visual imagery through pictures or verbal imagery through high-imagery language" (p. 24). The authors noted that the purpose of this study was not to "test the validity of the DCT model, but to apply the model to new learning and offer a theoretical explanation for the underlying phenomena" (p. 22).

It is clear that people are generally visually oriented and the retention of information offered in visual form normally is more than the retention of verbally presented information (Levie and Lentz, 1982). Actually, Sadoski (2005) states paired verbal and imagery contexts as very efficient combinations for learning vocabulary. Visuals, in addition to the developmental changes that automatically formed in the adolescent brain, can be a effective memory combination. One of the most significant changes the adolescent brain experiences is a major increase in the myelination or insulation of the nerve fibers going into and out of the frontal lobes…the more information the executive center can gather in various modes—visual signals…the more nuanced and appropriate the brain's responses can be. (Bloom, Beal and Kupfer, 2006, p. 105)

Moreover, imagery can be an important way for creating a new schema and developing the schema that exists in one's brain. Nonlinguistic representation improves

students' skills to use mental images to reflect and work on knowledge" (Pitler, Hubbell, Kuhn, and Malenoski, 2007, p. 86). This is increasingly relevant as students get older; "Graphic literacy – the ability to interpret and create visual messages accurately – becomes increasingly important as students move up through the grades" (Hampton and Resnick, 2009, p. 42).

Pictures can make vocabulary acquisition easier and vocabulary instruction could be implemented in a more efficient way. This is especially valid for words that are representations of concrete concepts that are easy to acquire (David and Kang, 1998),. They could be easily used in activities including pictures as an instructional material and enables students to see distinctive semantic of the words (Tennyson and Cochiarella, 1986). In a study where concrete concepts were utilized as just words, as just pictures, or as words and pictures, recalling was much higher in the combined one. (Paivio, 1971).

However, Paivio states (1991) it is not always possible to include picture visualize all the vocabulary because not all the words are concrete and cannot be represented in visual form. Consequently, some words are much easier to teach and learn than others. In other words, vocabulary that lacks concreteness can be more difficult to learn. Paivio further states that concreteness is one of the key elements which has the potential of evoking the images in one's brain.

Imagery and concreteness are close relationship that researchers can often take the advantage of them by using interchangeably. Concreteness and imagery-evoking potential have such an effect on recalling. For instance, concrete nouns like flag or map are recalled better than abstract nouns such as justice or freedom (David and Kang, 1998)

2.4.2. Generative Theory of Learning

In 1974, Wittrock introduced the generative model of learning.In his model,It was assumed that human learning was "a function of the abstract and distinctive, concrete associations which the learner generates between his previous experience, which is stored in long-term memory, and the stimuli" (p. 89). In other words, this model emphasizes the active integration of new ideas with the learner's existing schemata, particularly by using four types of learning strategies: 1) recall, 2) integration, 3) organization and 4) elaboration (Wittrock, 1974, 1990).

In recall, the learner uses some techniques such as repetition, rehearsal, review or mnemonics to recall the vocabulary from long-term memory. Methods such as paraphrasing, summarizing or questions-generalizing are applied to integrate new information with prevous the knowledge.After that ,the learner utilizes techniques such as outlining, categorization, clustering or concept mapping to connect new information to previous knowledge in an organizaton. Finally, the new information is synthesized and elaborated through mental images, writing, visuals and similar methods as a resultof the connection between the new information and the learner's previous knowledge. Personal strategies are only used or in collaboration with others to achieve a learning goal.

2.4.3. Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

According to the cognitive theory of multimedia learning, it is very useful to integrate graphics with words in order to help learners engage in active learning. Many studies have been conducted to find out the effects of the multimedia learning by doing writing or speaking exercises by the help of some visuals rather than doing simple writing or speaking exercises. (Moreno & Valdez, 2005).

Moreno and Valdez (2005) found that students learned best when words and pictures presented together and had higher performancedespite being engaged in the process at a lower rate cognitively. It was also found out that learning took place deeply when animation and narration was presented together.

Cognitive theory assumed that integrating graphics and the text onscreen requires learners to process all data visually. Therefore, this can result in overload in visual part. In order to decrease the overload in visual part, the information should be separated in two forms and then the text should be narrated so that it can also be processed verballly. Many studies has showed that applying the modality principle in multimedia learning environment result in better learning outcome. The similarities between these studies are that the subjects studied are technical such as mechanics, geometry, electric circuits. the learning materials are based on the system. Contrary to these findings, when the modality effect was implemented in classroom environment, the superiority of the modality effect could not be found (Clark & Mayer, 2003).

According to the arousal theory, a variety of interesting materials help learners to become more emotionally aroused, which result in better performance by helping the student stay alert, focused and attentive. Therefore they work harder to learn the material.

Arousal theory predicts that the students will learn more from multimedia presentation that contain interesting sounds and music than from multimedia presentation without interesting sound and music. On the contrary, the cognitive theory is against using irrelevant music in multimedia because of limited capacity of active memory. Arousal theory also predicts that adding interesting but extraneous pictures will promote better learning. On the other hand, cognitive theory assumed that because of limited capacity of active memory, learner can have difficulty in making sense of the material (Clark & Mayer, 2003).

CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used in this study which involved quantitative methods of data collection and analyses. More specifically, this research is in the category of experimental research since the participants were exposed to a treatment the effectiveness of which was found out statistically while the control group was not exposed to any kind of intervention. This chapter contains the following sections: research design, participants, data collection tools, data collection procedure and data analysis.

3.1. Research Design

The non-equivalent control group pretest and posttest design was implemented in this study. A purely quantitative approach was utilized since the researcher did not intend to observe participants or base findings on students' opinions as it is in a qualitative or mixed methods study. The quasi-experimental design was used because the participants were not randomly assigned, unlike a true experimental design where random assignment of participants is required. The entire population was whole 7^{th} grade students consisted of a total of 40 students. The experimental group (Group A) included 21 students from one 7th grade class. The control group (Group B) included 19 students from another 7th grade class.

The treatment was provided to Group A only. Group B did not receive the treatment, but this group had the regular instruction according to the curriculum. As a characteristic of this type of design, the same pre and posttests were applied to both groups, but the control group didn't get attitude test. (Creswell, 2003). As during the six week intervention period, there was no reason for the participants in 7^{th} grade to change their attitudes toward English.

3.2. Participants

The study was conducted in a small urban elementary school in Osmaniye which is a small city with a population with approximately 200.000 and located in southern part of Turkey where the researcher is employed. The students ranged in age from twelve to thirteen years and were mixed in gender. The entire population was whole 7^{th} grade students. A convenience sample, as defined by Creswell (2003), consisted of a total of 40 students. The treatment group included 21 students assigned to the researcher's one 7^{th} grade class. The control group included 19 students from another 7^{th} grade class. After that,

the researcher's role was to teach vocabulary through visual aids to the experimental group. The researcher also prepared pre- and posttests to be used in the study; these are discussed in the data collection tools section.

3.3. Date a Collection Tools

The instrument that used for measurement of the learning of the vocabulary was developed by the researcher. It was an achievement test which was used as an indication of vocabulary learning via visual aids and pictures (see Appendice A). Additionally, "Test Yourself" was used as a secondary measurement instrument to find out the enhancement of vocabulary mastery by the participants (see Appendice B). Finally, an attitude test was used to measure attitudes of the participants toward English Learning (see Appendice C).

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

The quantitative data collected in this study were obtained through the pre and post vocabulary tests. Data collection took place in two 7^{th} grade classrooms, in a small urban elementary school in Osmaniye over a 6-week period of time. Pre and post vocabulary tests and attitude test were applied by the researcher to the experimental group and by another 7^{th} grade teacher to the control group to assess students' vocabulary learning. To ensure that both groups had the same testing conditions, optimal classes were selected in terms of their equivalency and all students had the same period of time only to take each test and no papers or notes were allowed on desks while being tested . Pretest results were not discussed with the participants. Each week following the pretest, participants in Group A participated in the program designed for the study for six weeks. Students were instructed to learn a picture and to depict the meaning of each vocabulary word. Discussion of targeted vocabulary words and pictures ensured. Participants in Group B were given an identical pretest except the attitude test and were not instructed independently other than the instruction given them in their regular class. These students received no instruction to implement the strategy about using visual tools and there was no opportunity for discussion of the targeted words. Students could have chosen to implement other strategies such as writing on vocabulary to memorize if they wanted. At the end of each of the 6 weeks, identical posttests were applied to both groups.

3.5. Data Analysis

Data was analyzed to test whether or not there would be any effect on students' vocabulary learning as a result of the implementation of the six week instruction program based on teaching vocabulary through pictures and drawings and attitudes toward learning English via visual aids. It was assumed that there would be a significant effect on students' vocabulary learning as a result of the implementation of program based on teaching vocabulary through pictures and drawings.

The equivalency of the groups was ensured by applying the instrument to both control and experimental group before the implementation of the program. Those scores were used as pre-test scores. Later, the same instrument was applied to the participants after the program. The results of post-tests was compared by using T-test statistics with the help of SPSS statistics computer program. If the pre-test scores of the participants had not supported the equivalency of the groups, the effect of the pre – treatment differences among the groups would have been statistically controlled by looking at the difference scores for each group. The reason of this was that it could cause control group members to get higher scores during the post test period since they were all familiar with the questions during the pretest implementation. Therefore, by comparing the different scores for the both groups, it was confirmed that difference in different scores could only be attributed to the intervention.

CHAPTER IV

4. FINDINGS

This study attempts to investigate the effects of visual aids as instructional material on vocabulary teaching to secondary school students. To achieve this aim, the first chapter has introduced the topic of this study. The second chapter has provided us with the relevant background information on which this study is based. The third chapter has described the method of this study. This chapter aims to present and analyze the data obtained by the help of implementation of the measurement tools used in the study.

4.1. The Description of the Answers Given to the Measurement Tools

The descriptive statistics of the answers given to the achievement test is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Answers Given To Achievement Test

	Min.	Max.	X	SD
Study Pre Correct	1	17	7,5556	5,42567
Study Pre False	4	19	12,5556	5,06687
Study Pre Unattemped	0	4	0,8333	1,20049
Study Post Correct	13	21	17,5556	2,14811
Study Post False	0	8	3,1667	1,94785
Study Post Unattemted	0	2	0,2778	0,57451
Control Pre Correct	0	15	6,1667	4,94975
Control Pre False	4	17	11,2778	4,08448
Control Pre Unattemped	0	7	1,6111	1,78684
Control Post Correct	5	17	10,7778	3,28196
Control Post False	2	14	7,4444	3,11018
Control Post Unattemted	0	4	0,7778	1,11437

As shown in Table 1, number of correct answers for the pre-test in study group ranged from 1 to 17 (X=7.55 , SD=5.42) while it in the post-test ranged from 13 to 21 (X=7.55 , SD=5.42) in the post-test. The number of false answers for the pre-test in study

group ranged from 4 to 19 (X=12.55 , SD=5.07) while it ranged from 0 to 8 (X=3.17 , SD=1.94) in the post-test. Also, number of unattempted answers for the pre-test in study group ranged from 0 to 4 (X=0.83 , SD=1.20) while it ranged from 0 to 2 (X=0.27 , SD=0.57) in the post-test.

As to the control group; the number of correct answers for the pre-test in control group ranged from 0 to 15 (X=6.16 , SD=4.94) while it ranged from 5 to 17 (X=10.78, SD=3.28) in the post-test. The number of false answers for the pre-test in control group ranged from 4 to 17 (X=11.27, SD=4.08) while it ranged from 2 to 14 (X=7.44, SD=3.11) in the post-test. Also, number of unattempted answers for the pre-test in control group ranged from 0 to 7 (X=1.61, SD=1.28) while it ranged from 0 to 4 (X=0.78, SD=1.11) in the post-test.

As shown in Table 1, there is a siginificant difference between the results of the control group and study group for post-test scores. This indicates that using visuals in learning process has both positive and useful effects on vocabulary learning.

The descriptive statistics of the answers given to "Test Yourself" is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Answers Given To "Test Yourself"

	Min	Max.	X	SD
Study Pre Correct	0	20	5,5556	6,09939
Study Pre False	1	21	15,4444	6,09939
Study Post Correct	16	21	19	1,41421
Study Post False	0	5	2	1,41421
Control Pre Correct	0	18	4,4444	5,65916
Control Pre False	1	19	14,5556	5,65813
Control Post Correct	5	18	11,8889	3,99837
Control Post False	1	14	7,1111	3,99837

As shown in Table 2, number of correct answers for the pre-test in study group ranged from 0 to 20 (X=5.55 , SD=6.09) while it ranged from 16 to 21 (X=19 , SD=1.41)

in the post-test. The number of false answers for the pre-test in study group ranged from 1 to 21 (X=15.44 , SD=6.09) while it ranged from 0 to 5 (X=2 , SD=1.41) in the post-test. As to the control group; the number of correct answers for the pre-test in control group ranged from 0 to 18 (X=4.44 , SD=5.65) while it ranged from 5 to 18 (X=11.89, SD=3.99) in the post-test. The number of false answers for the pre-test in control group ranged from 1 to 19 (X=14.55, SD=5.65) while it ranged from 1 to 14 (X=7.11, SD=3.99) in the post-test.

The table shows that there is a significant change in the study group. It was confirmed that the study group using visuals in learning process demonstrates significant gains in their ability to learn new vocabulary. In short, the results show a statistically significiant difference.

The descriptive statistics of the attitudes toward learning English is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of the Attitudes toward Learning English

	Min	Max	X	SD
Female Pre	0	12	9,1333	3,83344
Male Pre	1	9	6,0667	2,49189
Total Pre	1	21	15,1333	6,31174
Female Post	2	12	10,1333	2,99682
Male Post	5	9	7,3333	1,23443
Total Post	8	21	17,4667	3,99762

For this analysis, the data was collected from only the study group. As presented in Table 1, the number of the people that regarded English learning positive for female participants ranged from 0 to 12 (X=9.13 , SD=3.83) while it ranged from 2 to 12 (X=19.13 , SD=2.99) in the post-test. The number of the people that regarded English learning positive for male participants ranged from 1 to 9 (X=6.06 , SD=2.49) while it ranged from 5 to 9 (X=7.33 , SD=1.23).

4.2. Testing of The Research Questions

In order to determine the effects of the intervention on achievement scores, independent sample t test was used and the results were presented in the Table 4.

Table 4: The Effect of the Intervention on Achievement Scores

Comparison Pair	$X_{dif.}$	T	df	p		$\bar{X}$	SD
Study - Control Pre Correct	1,38	2,08	17	0,053	Study	7,55	5,42
					Control	6,17	4,94
Study - Control Pre False	1,28	2,19	17	0,042	Study	12,55	5,06
					Control	11,28	4,08
Study - Control Pre Unattemped	-0,78	-3,5	17	0,003	Study	0,83	1,20
					Control	1,61	1,78
Study - Control Post Correct	6,78	15,42	17	0,001	Study	17,55	2,14
					Control	10,78	3,28
Study - Control Post False	-4,28	-9,38	17	0,001	Study	3,17	1,94
					Control	7,44	3,11
Study - Control Post Unattemted	-0,50	-1,93	17	0,070	Study	0,28	0,57
					Control	0,78	1,11

According to the results, there is no statistically significant difference between the number of correct answers between the control and study group for the pre-tests

(t(17)=2.08, p = 0.053). On the other hand, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of false answers between the control and study group for the pretests (t (17)=2.19, p = 0.042). The number of study group's false answers is significantly higher for the pretests. Also, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of unattemted questions between the control and study group for the pretests (t (17)=-3.50, p = 0.003). The number of control group's unattempted answers is significantly higher for the pretests.

For the post test comparisons, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of correct answers between the control and study group for the post tests (t (17)=15.42, p = 0.001). The number of study group's true answers is significantly higher for the post tests. There is a statistically significant difference between the number of false answers between the control and study group for the post tests (t (17)=-9.38, p = 0.001). On the other hand, the number of control group's false answers is significantly higher for the post tests. Also, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of unattemted questions between the control and study group for the post tests (t (17)=-1.93, p = 0.070).

The post test-pre test correct answer differences for the both groups were compared by using t test statistics. The results were presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Comparison of Achievement Difference Scores

Comparison Pair	$X_{dif.}$	t	df	p		$\overline{X}$	SD
Study - Control Correct Difference	5,38	6,16	17	0,001	Study Control	10 4,61	3,83 3,45
Study - Control False Difference	5,55	7,44	17	0,001	Study Control	9,39 3,83	3,70 2,59
Study - Control Unattemted Difference	0,28	0,96	17	0,350	Study Control	0,55 0,83	1,29 1,38

The results showed that the participants in the study group increased their number of correct answers by 10 points while the participants in the control group increased their

scores only 4.61 points. The comparison of those difference scores showed that the increase in the study group is significantly higher for the study group ($t(17)=6.16$, $p = 0.001$). The participants in the study group decreased their number of false answers by 9.39 points while the participants in the control group decrease their scores 3.83 points. The comparison of those difference scores shows that the decrease in the study group is significantly higher for the study group ($t(17)=7.44$, $p = 0.001$). The participants in the study group decreased their number of unattempted answers by 0.55 points while the participants in the control group decrease their scores 0.83 points. The comparison of those difference scores shows that the decrease in the study group is not significantly different than study group ($t(17)=0.96$, $p = 0.350$).

In order to determine the effect of the Intervention on "Test Yourself" scores, independent samples t test was performed and the results were presented in the Table 6.

Table 6: The Effect of the Intervention on "Test Yourself" Scores

Comparison Pair	X_{dif}	T	df	*p*		$\bar{X}$	SD
Study - Control Pre Correct	1,11	2,87	17	0,010	Study	5,55	6,10
					Control	4,44	5,65
Study - Control Pre False	0,89	2,29	17	0,030	Study	15,44	6,10
					Control	14,55	5,66
Study - Control Post Correct	7,11	9,84	17	0,001	Study	19,00	1,41
					Control	11,88	4,00
Study - Control Post False	-5,11	-7,07	17	0,001	Study	2,00	1,41
					Control	7,11	4,00

According to the results, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of correct answers between the control and study group for the pre-tests (t (17)=2.87, p = 0.010). The number of study group's correct answers is significantly higher for the pretests. Additionally, there is another statistically significant difference between the number of false answers between the control and study group for the pretests (t (17)=2.29, p = 0.030). The number of study group's false answers is significantly higher for the pretests.

For the post test comparisons, there is a statistically significant difference between the number of correct answers between the control and study group for the post tests (t (17)=9.84, p = 0.001). The number of study group's true answers is significantly higher for the post tests. There is a statistically significant difference between the number of false answers between the control and study group for the post tests (t (17)=-7.07, p = 0.001). The number of control group's true answers is significantly higher for the post tests.

Table 7: Comparison of "Test Yourself" Difference Scores

Comparison Pair	$X_{dif.}$	T	Df	p		$\overline{X}$	SD
Study - Control Correct Diff	6,00	8,01	17	0,001	Study	13,44	5,10
					Control	7,44	3,31
Study - Control False Diff	19,78	10,44	17	0,001	Study	13,44	5,10
					Control	-6,33	3,77

The results showed that the participants in the study group increased their number of correct answers by 13.44 points while the participants in the control group increase their scores only 7.44 points. The comparison of those difference scores shows that the increase in the study group is significantly higher for the study group (t(17)=8.01, p = 0.001). For the false score comparisons, the participants in the study group decreased their number of false answers by 13.44 points while the participants in the control group interestingly increased their false scores -6.33 points. The comparison of those difference scores shows that the decrease in the study group is significantly higher for the study group (t(17)=10.44, p = 0.001).

In order to determine the effect of the Intervention on "Test Yourself" scores, independent samples t test was performed and the results were presented in the Table 6.

Table 8: The Effect of the Intervention on Attitude Scores

	T	df	*p*		$\bar{X}$	SD
Female Pre-Post Yes	-3,416	14	0,004	Pre	9,1333	3,83344
				Post	10,1333	2,99682
Male Pre-Post Yes	-3,106	14	0,008	Pre	6,0667	2,49189
				Post	7,3333	1,23443
Total Pre-Post Yes	-3,427	14	0,004	Pre	15,1333	6,31174
				Post	17,4667	3,99762

According to the results, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre and posttest attitudes scores of female (t (14)=-3.416, p = 0.004). So, for the female participants, posttest attitude scores are significantly higher. For the male participants, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre and posttest attitudes scores of female (t (14)=-3.106, p = 0.008). So, for the male participants, posttest attitude scores are significantly higher. Also in general, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre and posttest attitude scores of the total participants (t (14)=-3.427, p = 0.004). So, posttest attitude scores are significantly higher which means using visuals in learning process has also a positive effect on the attitudes of the students.

CHAPTER V

5. DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Discussion

It is an undeniable fact that the language is nothing without vocabulary. As people need rich vocabularies to express themselves. One of the most important points in teaching vocabulary is that the vocabulary should be in common use and from the similar semantic fields to make sense in the mind of the students. The students should also understand it in both oral and written form and remember it when asked. It is only achieved by the help of the appropriate method in teaching vocabulary. This study aims to investigate the effect of using pictures on vocabulary learning. To achieve this aim, the first research question was: how does picture aided instruction impact vocabulary learning compared to regular classroom instruction?

Based on the results, students' scores statistically differ between the conrtol group and study group in terms of vocabulary learning. In this case, instruction by using visuals intervention did impact on vocabulary learning significiantly as compared to typical classroom instruction. These results are consistent with that of previous research conducted by Calhoun et al. (2001) in Canada. Clearly, the results of that study shows that visual aid facilitates vocabulary acquisition. According to Lattimer, seeing a visual representation of the word is very effective, and "visual connections spur new learning and increase retention" (2010, p. 95). Nagy (1988) also notes that to be effective, vocabulary instruction needs to be meaningful. The reason of using pictures in their instruction was to take the advantage of the students' ability to make connections.

Engaging students in different ways actively to use the language more helps them make valuable connections and develop their thinking. Children discover relationships between concepts they already know through active engagement and experiences which inevitably affect their attitudes toward language learning (Clabaugh, 2009). The other aim of this study is to test the effect of picture aided instruction on vocabulary learning. The results show that it has such an effect.

It is undeniable that the effects of this study could be even more significant in the long term. For instance, a similar study was conducted by Smith (1987) in which the utility of imagery in a classroom setting was investigated. The researcher investigated whether

the use of a visual had a positive effect on vocabulary learning. Participants were 142 college students who were in a reading course at Georgia State University. The control group was given the word and its definition whereas the experimental group was supplied with the word, a definition and a relevant visual. Following the lesson, the first posttest was applied. There were no significant differences between the groups. However, there was such a difference between the groups after being applied another test two weeks later. It shows that a classroom environment which is created by the help of visuals facilitates the students to engage in the lessons. The practices depending on visuals increases the level of social interaction in the classroom and stimulates students' interest in using the language actively. Vygotsky (1978) viewed intelligence as being shaped by social rather than solely by innate forces. Additionally, Gee (1996) suggested that literacy is deeply related to social practices and cannot be separated from them.

With the introduction of the three visual approaches to vocabulary learning, a social environment was established. This was a total contrast to the traditional vocabulary instruction which fundamentally composed of independent personal study. This social environment facilitated students' active engagement.

Information processing theorists Miller (2002), Torgeson (1986), Stanovich (1986), and Brown (1975) also support the current findings and discuss the importance of planning curriculum in connection with learning approaches to help young leaners process, remember, and retrieve information. It is clear that the appropriate approach has a significant effect on learning process.

That study also proves that visual aided instruction via pictures could enable to minimize earlier differences among students who came from different backgrounds. The findings from this study concur with the research found in the literature review that intensive interventions with young children must begin early in their schooling, when the highest rate of vocabulary growth occurs and must be based on evidence-based practices that reduce learning gaps in language development (Farkas & Beron, 2004). Programs need to provide a deliberate attempt for frequent practice, multiple exposures to words and systematic opportunities to use vocabulary.

5.2. Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this research study was the small sample size. With such a small sample, it could have been difficult to achieve generalizability to a larger populations. Similarly, "increasing sample size is of benefit in research because it increases precision" (Patten, 2005, p. 53). Having highly precise results or very statistically significant results, means that "the results will vary by only a small amount from sample to sample" (Patten, 2005, p. 53). In addition to increasing precision, if this sample size had been larger, the results of this research may have been different. For instance, more participants may have affected the results of the relationship of vocabulary and comprehension based on group membership (experimental vs. control).

Another limitation of this research study was the quasi-experimental design. A true experimental design, with random assignment to experimental and control groups, is the most accurate design to explore cause-and-effect relationships because random assignment has no bias (Patten, 2005). However, it was not possible for this research to assign participants at random because the experimental group consisted of students in a population that is the same for the control group. That is just an assumption. There could be systematic measurement errors caused from sampling procedure Quasi-experimental designs are considered to be preferable to pre-experimental designs, which have poor internal validity (the issue of whether the treatment is responsible for the changes observed in the experimental setting) (Patten, 2005).

5.3. Implications

This research intended to analyze the use of pictures as instructional material in vocabulary teaching to 7th graders in Namık Kemal Secondary School in Osmaniye. The participants were selected from 12-13 year-old students who were all 7th graders. The students studied the English language 4 hours a week. The study took place over a 6-week period of time. The data was collected through vocabulary tests and a questionnaire.

Depicting my teaching area, experience and as result of this study, I can say that using pictures and drawings is useful when it is presented in an appropriate way in classes.

Also, this study can not only provide teachers an alternative to language teaching which is effective for vocabulary teaching and can be useful to active students' language learning interests and engage them in class, but also shed light on future research directions for language researchers in devoloping effective language pedagogy.

5.4. Recommendations

Future research might apply to a study of the same research questions but on a larger scale. For example, it might be beneficial if all of the teachers in the same school provided instruction with picture aided instruction, while the control group would be all students in the rest of the city in the same grade. As mentioned previously, a larger sample size would increase precision and might even influence or vary the results. Future research could also focus on the retention of vocabulary words in long-term memory (Calhoun et al., 2001) in addition to vocabulary learning. Another issue that could be developed in future research is how students' primary languages might impact their vocabulary learning and comprehension. An additional aspect of future research could be the integration of picture aided instruction with other subjects; various pictures could incorporate with specific concepts in mathematics, social studies, or science. For example, if the current science topic were animal adaptations and habitats, the picture aided could show a snowshoe hare blending into its habitat, and the discussion could emphasize some of the scientific concepts as well as the vocabulary words.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICE A- Achievement Test

TEST YOURSELF

1. I finished all the housework; but I'm too ..... . I need to have a rest.

A) Happy C) Bored

B) Angry D) Tired

2.Look! Our teacher looks very ..... today As She's shouting at everybody in class.

A) Angry C) Hot
B) Excited D) Sick

3.I had a terrible dream last night. I was in a very dark, deep forest. I was very ..... .

A) In love C) Scared
B) Sleepy D) Thirsty

4.Yesterday was a nice day for Pamela. Because her friends organized a surprise birthday party for her. She was really ..... and happy.

A) Hungry C) Sad
B) Bored D) Surprised

5 A: My parents were ……. about me when I was a child because I couldn't talk until I was four.

B: Really? I started to talk when I was two years old.

A) Worried
B) Angry
C) Cold
D) Hungry

6. A: Dad is coming back from Italy tomorrow. We're really ……. . As we missed him a lot.

B: I'm really pleased to hear that.

A) Sleepy
B) Shy
C) Excited
D) Tired

7. Yesterday, John wanted to ask Jane to dance with him; but he couldn't . Because
He was too ……

A) Shy
B) Angry
C) Hungry
D) Sleepy

8.Cindrella was so …… because her stepmother and stepsisters treated her badly.

A) Sad
B) Happy
C) Sleepy
D) Thirsty

9. The girl was _____ because she couldn't find her dog.

A) Scared
B) Excited
C) Angry
D) Unhappy

10. I am really very ……..I can drink bottles of water.

A) In love
B) Thirsty
C) Sick
D) Cold

11. A: It's really ……..and sunny today. Shall we go swimming?
B: Sounds great. It will be a nice day, then.

A) Cold
B) Cloudy
C) Hot
D) Rainy

12. Maria is such a beautiful girl that All the boys in our school are ……. with her.

A) Sick
B) Bored
C) In love
D) Thirsty

13. A: You look very tired, Mike. What happened?
B: I studied on my project all night and I never slept. That's why I'm too ……

A) Hungry
B) Scared
C) Happy
D) Sleepy

14. Jackie: Hi, Jackie. I can't come to the course today.
John: Why? What's the matter with you, Jackie?
Jackie: I'm a bit ……. and I don't feel well.
John : Ohh, Jackie. Sorry to hear that . If you wish, I can take you to the doctor's
Jackie : Thank you, John.

A) Surprised
C) Worried
B) Sick
D) Excited

15. There is a strong wind today. So you will feel ……..if you don't wear your coat.

A) Thirsty
C) Tired
B) Shy
D) Cold

16. When I got home from school, I felt quite ……. And I ate two big hamburgers.

A) Angry
C) Hungry
B) Unhappy
D) Tired

17. Today was a nice day for me. I joined a fancy dress party with my friends. We laughed a lot. And I felt very……. as I left them.

A) Scared
C) Angry
B) Worried
D) Happy

18. It was a really cold, wet day and the children couldn't go out and do anything. They were really ……. As there was nothing to do.

A) Bored

B) Hot

C) Thirsty

D) Excited

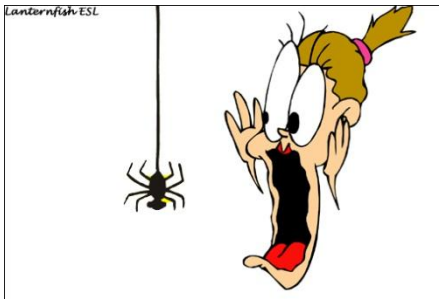
APPENDICE B – Test Yourself

TEST YOURSELF

- **Write the most suitable word below for each Picture**

Happy / Angry / Bored / Sad / Scared /
Hungry / Tired / Thirsty / Hot / Cold /
Sick / Surprised / Sleppy / Shy / In love /
Unhappy / Worried / Excited

	
……	……

	 Lanternfish ESL .....
	 .....
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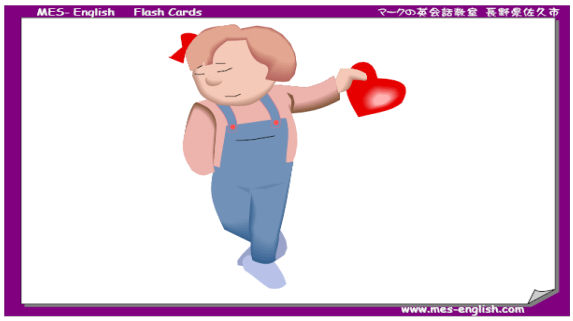
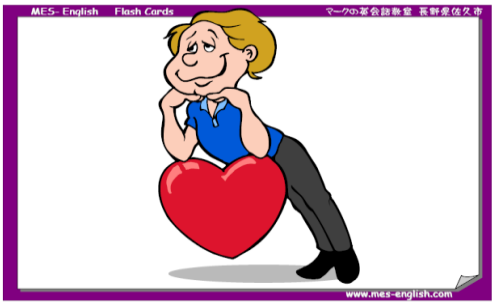
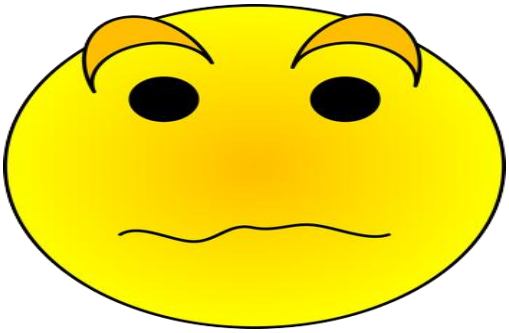
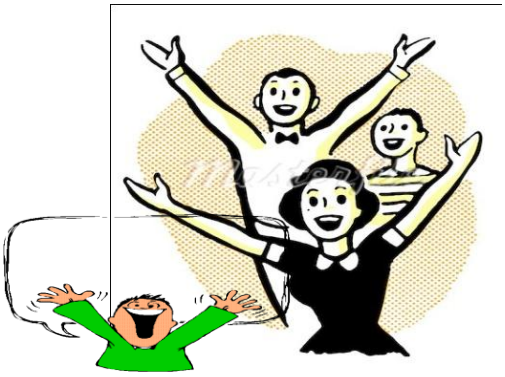
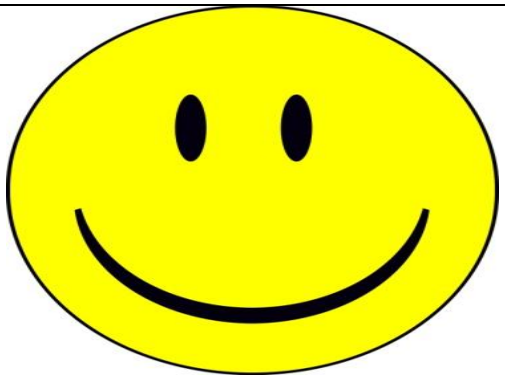
	 MES- English Flash Cards www.mes-english.com .....

 ……	 ……
 ……	 ……
 ……	 ……

APPENTICE C – Attitude Test

1. Yabancı Dili resimler ve çizimlerle öğrenmeyi seviyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

2. Yabancı Dil dersinde resimlerle çalışmayı ve çizimler yaparak öğrenmeyi eğlenceli buluyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

3. Yabancı Dil dersine yönelik resimleri zevkle hazırlıyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

4. Yabancı Dil dersinde resimler ve çizimler kullanıldığı zaman dersin bitmesini hiç istemiyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

5. Yabancı Dil derslerinde çizimler yaparken zaman geçmek bilmiyor.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

6. Yabancı Dil dersine yönelik resimler hazırlarken bunalıyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

7. Verilen ödevler dışında da resimler hazırlayarak yabancı dil çalışıyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

8. Ders dışında resimler hazırlayıp yabancı dil çalışmak içimden gelmiyor.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

9. Yabancı Dil dersini resimler ve çizimlerle işlerken derse aktif olarak katılıyorum.

   Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

10. Yabancı Dil dersini resimler ve çizimler eşliğinde öğrendiğim zaman daha başarılı olduğumu düşünüyorum.

    Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

11. Yabancı Dil dersinde resimlerle ve çizimlerle konuyu kavramama rağmen kısa sürede unutuyorum.

    Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

12. Yabancı Dil dersinde resimlerle ya da yaptığım çizimlerle öğrendiklerimi unutmuyorum.

Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

13. Yabancı Dil dersini resimler ve çizimlerle öğrenmeye başladıktan sonra yabancı dildeki reklam ve afişler daha çok ilgimi çekiyor.

Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

14. Yabancı Dil dersini resimler ve çizimlerle öğrenmek yabancı dile olan ilgimi arttırıyor.

Evet ( ) Hayır ( )

15. Yabancı Dil dersine yönelik resim ve çizimleri yapmakta zorlanıyorum.

Evet ( ) Hayır ( )