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YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI  
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ PROGRAMI  
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

**THE VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES  
EMPLOYED BY NINTH GRADERS  
AND RELATIONS  
WITH THEIR PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS**

**Ayşe AY**

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**İzmir  
2006**

## **DOKUZUNCU SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KULLANDIĞI SÖZCÜK ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ VE BİREYSEL ÖZELLİKLERİYLE İLİŞKİLER**

Bu çalışma dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencileri tarafından kullanılan sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ve bunların öğrencilerin kişisel özellikleriyle olan ilişkisini araştırmak amacıyla yapılmıştır. Ayrıca, bu araştırma, dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin kullandığı sözcük öğrenme stratejilerinin, cinsiyet, anne ve babanın eğitim durumu, ailedeki kız ve erkek kardeş sayısı, annenin ve babanın mesleği, ailenin ekonomik durumu, İngilizce dersindeki başarı ve evdeki bilgisayar ve ayrı bir çalışma odası değişkenleri açısından anlamlı bir ilişki gösterip göstermediğini araştırmayı da amaçlamaktadır.

Bu araştırma dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin uyguladığı sözcük öğrenme stratejilerine ışık tutması açısından önem taşımaktadır. Çünkü, eğer öğretmenler öğrenciler için çoğu zaman kabus haline dönüşebilen sözcük öğreniminin ne tip stratejiler uygulanarak gerçekleştiğini bilirse, öğrencilerine daha fazla yardımcı olabilir. Aksi takdirde, öğretmenler öğrencilerinin ihtiyaçlarına göre derslerine şekil veremez. Yine aynı nedenden ötürü öğrencilerinin dil öğrenme gelişimine katkıda bulunacak gerekli fırsatları sunup uygun ortam hazırlayamaz. Oysaki, öğretmenler hangi stratejilerin uygulandığını öğrendikten sonra, öğrencilere sözcük öğrenmeye ilişkin yaşadıkları sorunların üstesinden gelebilmek için yardımcı olabilir ve stratejilerin nasıl uygulanacağı konusunda onlara kılavuzluk edebilirler. Bu nedenle bu çalışmanın İngilizce'yi ikinci dil olarak öğreten dokuzuncu sınıf öğretmenlerine model olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışma aynı zamanda Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi Lisesi'ndeki öğrencilerin kişisel özellikleri hakkında bilgi vermesi açısından da önem taşımaktadır. Yapılan son çalışmalar öğrenenlerin kişisel özelliklerini bilmenin ne kadar önemli olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Öğrenci merkezli eğitimin artış gösterdiği günümüzde, öğretme ve öğrenme sürecinin merkezinde öğrencilerimiz daha fazla yer almaya başlamıştır. Dolayısıyla, öğrenciler ve öğrencilerle ilgili değişkenler üzerine odaklanan bir çalışma yapmak derhal gerçekleştirilmesi gereken ciddi bir ödev ve sorumluluk

haline gelmiştir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında da bu araştırmanın öğrenci merkezli yaklaşıma yeni bir boyut getireceği düşünülmektedir.

Bu araştırma inceleme ve araştırma yöntemine dayalı betimsel bir çalışmadır. Araştırmanın katılımcıları İzmir ilinde bulunan Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi Lisesi'ndeki tüm dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencileridir. Toplam 21 sınıftan 504 adet öğrenci araştırmaya katılmıştır. Araştırmaya diğer sınıflar veya diğer liseler katılmamıştır.

Bütün veriler 2005-2006 öğretim yılının ikinci döneminde Mayıs ayında toplanmıştır. Dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencileri tarafından kullanılan sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ile bunların öğrencilerin kişisel özellikleriyle olan ilişkisini araştırmak amacıyla, veriler “Kişisel Bilgi Formu” ve “Sözcük Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri” uygulanarak toplanmıştır. “Sözcük Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri” Sabriye Şener (2003) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Öğrencilerin yanlış anlamalarına ve yorumlarına yer vermemek amacıyla ölçeklerin her ikisi de Türkçe olarak uygulanmıştır. Kişisel bilgi formunda öğrencilerin kişisel özelliklerine yönelik on adet soru vardır. Bu kişisel özellikler hakkında elde edilen veriler, sözcük öğrenme stratejilerinin dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin kişisel özellikleri açısından anlamlı bir fark gösterip göstermediğini saptaması açısından önemli rol oynamaktadır. Sabriye Şener tarafından geliştirilen sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ölçeğinde ise 60 madde vardır. Öğrenciler her bir strateji için, a şıkkından e şıkkına kadar belirtilmiş “hiçbir zaman, nadiren, bazen, genellikle, her zaman” yanıtlarından birini işaretleyerek sözü geçen stratejiyi ne kadar sıklıkta uyguladıklarını göstermişlerdir. Veriler optik okuyucu ile taranacağı için öğrencilere yanıtlarını işaretleyecekleri beşer şıktan oluşan KPSS formları dağıtılmıştır. Uygulama aşamasında kişisel bilgi formu sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ölçeğine eklenerek 70 maddelik tek bir ölçek oluşturulmuştur. Verilerde herhangi bir yanlışlığa yol açmamak için, ölçekler kendi içinde ayrı ayrı numaralandırılmamış, tek bir bütün olarak uygulanmıştır. Uygulama Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi Lisesinde 504 öğrenciye aynı anda yapılmış, öğrencilere yanıtlarını tamamlamaları için bir ders saati verilmiştir. Veri toplama bir gün içinde tamamlanmıştır.

Verilerin analizi optik okuyucu ve SPSS 11.0 İstatistik Programı aracılığı ile yapılmıştır. Analiz aşamasında öğrencilerin birden fazla verdiği yanıtlar ve boş bıraktıkları yanıtlar göz önünde bulundurulmamıştır. Frekans, Ortalama, Yüzde,

Standart Sapma Teknikleri, t-testi, Varyans Çözümlemesi ve LSD testi kullanılarak yapılan veri çözümlenmeleri sonucunda, dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin kullandığı sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ile annenin mesleği arasında anlamlı bir ilişki saptanmıştır. Bu durum annelerin özellikle de ev hanımlarının babalara oranla çocuklarıyla ilgilenecek daha fazla vakitlerinin olmasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Bu nedenle, anneler çocuklarına daha fazla vakit ayırmak ve onların ihtiyaçlarını karşılamak için ellerinden geleni yapmalıdır. Çünkü anneler çocuklarının fiziksel ve psikolojik gelişiminde yadsınamayacak kadar önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin kullandığı sözcük öğrenme stratejileri diğer değişkenler tarafından incelendiğinde ise, sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ile, cinsiyet, anne ve babanın eğitim durumu, ailedeki kız ve erkek kardeş sayısı, annenin ve babanın mesleği, ailenin ekonomik durumu, İngilizce dersindeki başarı ve evde bilgisayar ve ayrı bir çalışma odası olup olmaması açısından anlamlı bir ilişki saptanamamıştır. Bu bulgular öğrencilerin kendilerine olan güveninin artmasında etkili olabilir. Ayrı bir çalışma odası olmasa da, bilgisayara sahip olmasa da öğrencilerin başarılı olabileceğini bilmesi sözcük öğrenme fobilerinden, önyargılarından arınmalarını kolaylaştırabilir, onların güdülerini arttırabilir.

Bu çalışma aynı zamanda okuyucuyu dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin en çok ve en az kullandığı sözcük öğrenme stratejileri hakkında aydınlatmaktadır. Bu araştırmanın sonucunda, dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin en çok kullandığı sözcük öğrenme stratejilerinin “Daha önceden öğrendiğim bir sözcüğün açıklamasını duyarsam veya okursam, bildiğim o sözcüğü hatırlarım”, “Bir sözcüğün anlamını resimli sözlükten bulursam, onu daha iyi öğrenirim.”, “Bir sözcüğün anlamını bilmiyorsam, İngilizce-Türkçe sözlük kullanırım.” stratejileri olduğu saptanmıştır.

Diğer taraftan, araştırma sonucuna göre, en az kullanılan sözcük öğrenme stratejilerinin ise, “İngilizce günlük tutarım.”, “İngilizce ve Türkçe anlamlarını yazdığım küçük kâğıtları nereye gidersem yanıma alırım.”, “Bir sözcüğün anlamını öğrenmek için sadece İngilizce yazılmış sözlük kullanırım.” oldukları saptanmıştır. Ölçekteki ifadelerin güvenilirliği %94’tür. Bu sonuçlar, öğrencilerin sözcük öğrenme konusunda bir takım kemikleşmiş klişelere sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Dolayısıyla öğretmenler sözcük öğrenme stratejileri hakkında öğrencilere bilgi

vermeli, onlara sözcük öğrenmenin daha etkili ve zevkli yöntemlerini öğretmelidir. Sonrasında da öğrencilere seviyeleri doğrultusunda bu stratejileri uygulayacakları ortamlar yaratılmalıdır.

Sözcük öğrenimi çoğu öğrenci tarafından zor ve sıkıcı bir süreç olarak kabul edildiği için, öğretmenler öğrencilerin önyargılarından ve korkularından kurtulması için ellerinden geleni yapmalıdır. Bunun başarmanın yollarından biri de öğretmenlerin öğrencilerinin kişisel özelliklerini tanınmasıdır. Eğer öğretmenler, öğrencilerinin kişilik özellikleri, öğrenme stilleri, aile özellikleri ve sözcük öğrenme aşamasında yaşadığı zorlukları bilirlerse, kısacası onların sözcük öğrenimine engel olan kişisel özelliklerinden herhangi birini tespit edebilirse, onlara sorunları aşmalarında yardımcı olabilir.

Bu alanda daha başka araştırmalar da yapılabilir. Diğer araştırmacılar Kişisel Bilgi Formundaki kişisel özelliklere yenilerini ilave edip, sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ile diğer kişisel özellikler arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırabilirler. Ayrıca sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ile diğer öğrenci merkezli değişkenler arasındaki ilişki de incelenebilir. Bu çalışmanın sözcük öğrenimi ile ilgilenen ve öğrenci merkezli eğitim anlayışını benimseyen meslektaşlara yardımcı olacağı düşünülmektedir.

**Ayşe AY**

## YEMİN METNİ

Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak sunduğum “The Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed by Ninth Graders and Relations with their Personal Characteristics.” adlı çalışmanın tarafımdan bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin bibliyografyada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

.../.../2006

Ayşe AY

**Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü M¼d¼rl¼đ¼ne**

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**Başkan.....**

**¼ye.....**

**¼ye.....**

**¼ye.....**

**¼ye.....**

**Onay**

**Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geen ¼ğretim ¼yelerine ait olduđunu**  
**onaylarım.**

...../...../2006

**Prof. Dr. ....**

**Enstit¼ M¼d¼r¼**





## ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencileri tarafından kullanılan sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ve bunların öğrencilerin kişisel özellikleriyle olan ilişkisini araştırmaktır. Ayrıca, bu araştırma, dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencilerinin kullandığı sözcük öğrenme stratejilerinin, cinsiyet, anne ve babanın eğitim durumu, ailedeki kız ve erkek kardeş sayısı, annenin ve babanın mesleği, ailenin ekonomik durumu, İngilizce dersindeki başarı ve evdeki bilgisayar ve ayrı bir çalışma odası değişkenleri açısından anlamlı bir ilişki gösterip göstermediğini araştırmayı amaçlar.

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Dokuzuncu sınıf öğrencileri tarafından kullanılan sözcük öğrenme stratejileri ile bunların öğrencilerin kişisel özellikleriyle olan ilişkisini araştırmak amacıyla, veriler “Kişisel Bilgi Formu” ve “Sözcük Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri” uygulanarak toplanmıştır. “Sözcük Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri” Sabriye Şener (2003) tarafından geliştirilmiştir.

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durumu, İngilizce dersindeki başarı ve evde bilgisayar ve ayrı bir çalışma odası olup olmaması açısından anlamlı bir ilişki saptanamamıştır.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders and relate them with their personal characteristics. This study also aims to find out whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders demonstrate significant differences in terms of gender, educational backgrounds of the father and mother, the numbers of the brothers and sisters in the family, the occupation of the mother and father, income of the family, achievement in English, having a computer and room at home.

This is a descriptive study which is based on survey search methodology. The sample of this research includes all the ninth graders of Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School, İzmir. 504 ninth graders whose level of proficiency is elementary participated in this study.

In order to investigate the relationship between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders and their personal characteristics, the data have been acquired through the administration of a personal information form and vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire. The vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire in which the statements are based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy was developed by Şener (2003).

As a result of data analyses gained by means of the statistical techniques frequency, arithmetic mean, percentage, standard deviation, *t*-test, the analysis of variance and LSD test, it has been found that the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of mother's occupation. As for the analysis of the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in terms of other variables, it has been found that the vocabulary learning strategies used by the students do not vary significantly in terms of gender, mother's educational background, father's educational background, the number of

brothers and sisters in the family, father's occupation, economic condition of the families, achievement in English in the first term of the year, having a computer at home, having a room at home.

This research also enlightens the reader about the most frequently and the least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies by ninth graders. As a result, it can be seen that the three most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies are strategy 43 "When I read or hear the explanation of a word, I remember the word I have learned before." (M= 3.9802), strategy 25 "I learn the meaning of a word better when I look it up in a picture dictionary." (M=3.8829), and strategy 12 "When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a bilingual dictionary." (3.8651).

On the other hand, the three least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies are strategy 60 "I keep a diary in English." (M= 1.9246), strategy 52 "I take the cards which contain English words on one side and Turkish meaning on the other side." (M= 2.1865), and strategy 13 "When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a monolingual dictionary." (M= 2.2639).

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes the purpose and the significance of the study, the statement of the problem, the research questions, limitations and assumptions as to the research. Aside from these, abbreviations used in the study are explained to enlighten the study.

#### **1.1. The Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders and relate these with their personal characteristics.

This study also aims to find out whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders demonstrate significant differences in terms of gender, educational backgrounds of the father and mother, the numbers of the brothers and sisters in the family, the occupation of the mother and father, income in the family, success at English, having a computer and room at home.

In the light of the literature review related to vocabulary learning and student diversity, this research intends to determine the differences between the vocabulary learning strategies of the ninth graders at Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School with regard to their personal characteristics.

## **1.2. The Significance of the Study**

This study has several significances. In the first place, it intends to provide an insight into the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders. When the literature is examined, it can be seen that vocabulary learning is generally believed by the students to be a difficult and boring task. It should be taken for granted that it is necessary for teachers to know what kinds of vocabulary learning strategies are used by the EFL students in their classrooms because if teachers are not aware of these, they cannot shape their lessons according to the needs of the students and so can offer only minimal opportunities for the development of the students' language learning whereas the teachers can help the students to overcome their constraints related to vocabulary learning and guide them in strategy training after learning what strategies they employ. Therefore, this study is believed to perform the function of constituting a model for the teachers of the ninth graders who are teaching English as a second language.

In addition, this study will throw light upon the personal characteristics of the ninth graders at Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School. Recent studies have put forward the importance of the personal characteristics of the learners. Since the student-centered methods have gradually become widespread, and the methods in question have put the students at the core of the teaching and learning process, the guiding teacher has substituted for the instructor teacher. An investigation focusing on the students and the variables related to students can therefore be regarded as an urgent duty to accomplish. In this respect, this research is expected to add a new dimension to the student-centered approach, which attaches more importance to the learner.



### **1.3. The Statement of the Problem**

The aim of this research is to find out whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders at Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School vary significantly in regard to their personal characteristics.

### **1.4. The Research Questions**

This study also aims to find answers to the following questions:

1. What vocabulary learning strategies do the ninth graders use?
2. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of gender?
3. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of their mothers' educational background?
4. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of their fathers' educational background?
5. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of the number of brothers and sisters in the family?
6. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of their mothers' occupation?
7. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of their fathers' occupation?
8. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of income acquired by the family members?
9. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of success at English in the first term of the year?
10. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of having a computer at home?

11. Do their vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of having a room at home?

### **1.5. Limitations**

In this study only vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders of Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School were taken into account. It does not include the other high schools and grades.

Also, the study is limited to the elementary level of students.

### **1.6. Assumptions**

It is believed that the students who participated in this research have read through each strategy in the scale attentively and given honest, sincere and logical answers to the questions.

### **1.7. Abbreviations**

**DF:** Degree of Freedom

**F:** Frequency

**SD:** Standard Deviation

**SIG:** Degree of Significance

**SS:** Sum of Squares

**N:** The Number of the Sample

**t:** *t*-value

**$\bar{X}$ :** Arithmetic Mean

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE**

In the second chapter of this study, review of literature on vocabulary, language learning strategies and learner characteristics is mentioned through the comments of different researchers. After giving information as to the background of the study, the reader is enlightened about the importance of vocabulary, vocabulary-related problems, the frequency of words, knowing and recalling a word. Following this, the chapter highlights the important aspects of teaching and explaining vocabulary, vocabulary lessons for different levels of students and vocabulary learning. In addition to these, different classifications of language learning strategies proposed by Rubin, Oxford and O'Malley are presented. At the end of the chapter, personal characteristics affecting second language learning are explained in order to emphasize the importance of the personal characteristics of learners in second language learning.

#### **2. 1. The Background of the Study**

Vocabulary is one of the most important components of language. It plays a vital role in the process of language learning but unfortunately it is ignored and given insufficient importance. Allen (1983) thinks that little attention is given to the techniques for learning vocabulary. He highlights the facts underlying this neglect at the beginning of his book: During the period 1940-1970 vocabulary was neglected in teacher preparation programs because it had been emphasized too much

before that time. Some people believed that vocabulary was the most important part in the language learning. They thought they could control language by learning a large number of words; but in fact this is not enough because it is also necessary to know how the words work together in English sentences as well as knowing English words and their meanings. For this reason, most of the people preparing teachers felt that grammar should be given more importance than vocabulary because according to them, vocabulary was emphasized too much in language classrooms (Allen, 1983).

In the 1950s, many people began to notice that vocabulary learning is not a simple matter of matching up words in the native language and the target language. They believed that vocabulary learning is very complex and students cannot be given an exact and precise understanding of word meaning in class, so specialists in methodology feared students can have mistakes in sentences, if a lot of words are overloaded before the basic grammar is mastered. In their opinion, it was best not to teach a lot of vocabulary (Allen, 1983).

Ruddell (cited in Bushman, 2001: 175) also thinks that “Vocabulary instruction is often the most neglected and least effectively taught aspect of instruction in content area classrooms.”

Besides, Aksungur (2000) believes that the significance of teaching and learning vocabulary was ignored for a long time. To support her beliefs, she benefits from the comments of Meara and Prince, who state that the importance of vocabulary learning was at its peak at the period of the Grammar-Translation Method but fell behind in the Audio-Lingual days and so “for a long time vocabulary as a language skill, which was considered as a language sub-skill that develops in parallel with a major language skill, has attracted little investigation in second language acquisition research compared to grammar and phonology”(170).

In addition to them, Pressley et al. (1995) complains about the inadequacy of the research about vocabulary and vocabulary learning strategies and also states that most of the vocabulary instruction of the teachers does not provide sufficient opportunities for students to use the words they are learning according to the research.

Brown (2001: 376) explains this adequacy by stating Zimmerman's ideas:

While traditional language-teaching methods highlighted vocabulary study with lists, definitions, written and oral drills, and flash cards, there was a period of time when the teaching and learning of vocabulary were undervalued.

He also adds that "In the zeal for natural, authentic classroom tasks and activities, vocabulary focus was swept under the rug" (376).

It can be said that toward the end of the twentieth century, it is possible to see a revival of attention to vocabulary learning. Instead of vocabulary items as long and boring lists of words to be described and memorized, lexical forms have taken place in contextualised and meaningful language (Brown, 2001).

The status of lexis increased through the developments in lexical and linguistic theory and recognition of the role of multiword units in language learning. More central role for vocabulary was adopted. Several approaches to language learning which consider the vocabulary and lexical units as central in learning and teaching have been suggested: *The Lexical Syllabus* (Willis 1990), *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching* (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992) and *The Lexical Approach* (Lewis 1993), (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

As different from grammar-based approaches, the lexical approach has emerged in recent years. It focuses on the development of learner's proficiency with lexis or words and word combinations

(Moudraia, 2001). The focus of lexical approach is on the centrality of the lexicon to language learning and language use, especially multiword lexical units or “chunks” (Richards, 2001). According to lexical approach, there is a difference between vocabulary which is regarded as a number of individual words with fixed meanings and lexis which involves not only the single words but also the word combinations stored in mental lexicons (Moudraia, 2001). This shows that the lexical approach gives emphasis to vocabulary learning as both individual, high frequency words and word combinations (or chunks) (Thornbury, 2002). As Thornbury puts forward “A lexical approach argues that meaning is encoded primarily in words (Thornbury, 2002: 112).

Lewis (1993) highlights the importance of vocabulary by considering it as basic to communication (Moras, 2001). He challenges the traditional view in which language competence is limited to the foundation of grammatical structures. He thinks that words, phrases, collocations are stored along with their associated grammar (Thornbury, 2002). As a result of this, he opposes the standard division of language teaching as grammar and vocabulary. According to him, language is made up of lexical items. He categorizes lexical items into major groups as words and poly words, collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expressions and chunks (Kavaliauskiene & Januleviéiene, 2001). Also, Lewis believes that language should be recorded in collocation tables, semantic maps and word trees instead of alphabetical order. In his opinion, successful communication is more significant than the production of accurate sentences. In addition to this, he suggests that the use of dictionaries should be extended to concentrate on word grammar and collocation range (Moras, 2001).

As a result, it can be said that the Lexical Approach acknowledges the important meaning-making function of vocabulary and objects to the traditional distinction between vocabulary and grammar

(Thornbury, 2001). Lexical phrases are thought to help the learners in production and comprehension. The guiding principles of the Lexical Approach can be summarized with these points: Collocation is accepted as an organizing principle. The Present-Practice-Produce Paradigm is replaced by the Observe-Hypothesise-Experiment cycle. Language is not made of lexicalised grammar but grammaticalised lexis (Lewis, 1997).

## **2.2. The Importance of Vocabulary**

Vocabulary is very important while learning a second language. In River's (1968) opinion, language cannot be learned without vocabulary. To support this belief he says that "language is not dry bones. It is a living, growing entity, clothed in the flesh of words" (462). He believes that vocabulary can be presented, explained and included in various activities. As for Krashen and Terrell (cited in Aksungur, 2000: 170), "Acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary."

Akın and Seferoğlu (2004) refer to Harmer's idea about vocabulary like this: "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (cited in Akın and Seferoğlu, 2004: 1). As for Wallace, he states that "it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language works and yet not to be able to communicate after a fashion" (cited in Akın and Seferoğlu, 2004: 9).

The words which occur frequently in reading passages are important to learn. Which words need special attention can be decided by means of these questions posed by Allen:

Which words must the students know in order to talk about people, things and events in the place where they study and live?

Which words must the students know in order to respond to routine directions and commands? Which words are required for certain classroom experiences? Which words are needed in connection with the students' particular academic interests? (Allen, 1983: 108).

As a result of these comments on vocabulary, it can be said that vocabulary is a very important component of language learning.

### **2.3. Vocabulary-Related Problems Faced by Teachers and Learners**

There are various vocabulary-related problems faced by teachers and learners during teaching and learning process. As Oxford and Scarcella (cited in Waring, 2002) point out, there are a lot of common deficiencies in strategies adopted by the teacher. To begin with, teachers regard vocabulary learning as the student's responsibility and rarely present vocabulary learning strategies and techniques to the students. Unfortunately, most vocabulary teaching is based on identifying and teaching single words instead of collocations and lexical phrases. Also many teachers do not determine a systematic approach for the selection of vocabulary. For this reason they may sometimes teach too many words at one time. Because of this overloading the students may confuse the words easily. Moreover, teachers are not aware of the deeper aspects of word learning and they only teach meanings, spellings and pronunciation of the words. Teachers usually regard the text book as the syllabus dealing with all the necessary words. Therefore, the students are guided by the same materials and have limited exposure to words. Most vocabulary exercises test instead of teaching whereas specific vocabulary learning goals should be set for more instructive and qualified teaching.



Uslu (1996: 44) refers to statements of Bowen et al. (1985: 197) to emphasize the challenge of teaching vocabulary:

A truly challenging problem is finding the means of identifying which of the thousands of these words should be presented to the students in a language class. This problem does not occur with the same urgency in first language training, because students have a large working vocabulary gained meaningfully in their own social milieu. How can a comparable experience be arranged for second language learners, who lack and need not only the specialised vocabulary of their individual and professional interest, but also significant parts of a general vocabulary?

This statement proves that “vocabulary learning seems to the learners to be an unending and tiresome process of memorizing thousands of vocabulary items that have little resemblance to one another” (Uslu, 1996). Snow et al. (2002) also draw attention to the difficulty of vocabulary acquisition in her article. She states that learners sometimes benefit from their knowledge of first language to facilitate the task of L2 vocabulary acquisition.

Traditionally, vocabulary instruction was regarded as equal to teaching word meaning. Students tried to learn lists of words, synonyms and antonyms in the hope that vocabulary extension work was taken care of (Ooi & Kim—Seoh, 1996). However, it can be said that vocabulary teaching is not merely giving the meanings of words, as Yavuz (1999) suggests.

Vocabulary instruction should go beyond just helping the learner to internalize dictionary meaning. A central purpose in teaching should be to encourage and help the learner to become more aware of how native speakers and other proficient speakers use the target language, and to be more sensitive to differences in nuances and shades of meaning. (Ooi & Kim-Seoh, 1996: 56).

Akin and Seferoğlu (2004) state that teachers present the vocabulary items either in context or in isolation and then expect students

to learn and use them properly. They waste so much time on explaining vocabulary that they cannot find time for practice.

According to Waring (2002), it is not certain that students learn the words after the teacher teaches them. Learners have difficulties in learning a vocabulary item, although they hear the words many times. As Uslu (1996) suggests one of the most important problems faced by the teacher is the difficulty of displaying a new vocabulary item in the process of teaching a foreign language.

It is possible to change the bad effects of vocabulary on EFL second language learners by applying suitable teaching methods and emphasizing the crucial learning strategies. The traditional ideas began to be left together with some of the innovations. For instance, computer-aided research facilitated learning. Also, psycholinguistic studies added new dimensions to how the mind processes and stores vocabulary. Thanks to some investigations, it is possible to learn about effective teaching and learning strategies (Ooi & Kim-Seoh, 1996).

As language teachers, it is important to arouse interest and a certain excitement in words. Teachers can help the students by giving them ideas on learning vocabulary and guiding them on what to learn (Rivers, 1968). Teachers should put effort into equipping their students and themselves with more communicative ways of learning English and try to diminish the negative effects of the grammar translation method on their students (Aksungur, 2000).

According to Bress (2005), it is not logical to hope a student will learn difficult words as fast as a child acquires the first language. Nevertheless, it can be facilitated by means of the teacher's help. To illustrate, the teacher can apply these seven steps for vocabulary learning: First the students should listen to the word or phrase in authentic-sounding dialogues. Then they are given time to examine the word in the context in

order that they find out what the meaning is. They study individually, in pairs or in groups. Then they are asked concept questions by the teacher to reveal their opinions about the meaning. Later, the teacher supplies a phonological model in another sentence. Then the teacher attempts to elicit use of the word in a natural way. In the next step, the teacher sets a simulation and instructs the students to act the scenario including the use of the word. Finally, the teacher elicits and practises the words through a review schedule (Bress, 2005).

Teachers can dramatize, show pictures, paraphrase, give the equivalent and use any suitable techniques to enrich their lessons. They can use different kinds of drills to practise this vocabulary such as substitution drills, transformation drills, questions and answers (Finocchiaro, 1964).

To Nation (2001), language learning requires language items such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammatical constructions, subject matter knowledge and cultural knowledge. We should shed enough light on vocabulary since it is an inevitable part of language learning. Learners should try to improve their vocabulary by means of speaking and writing activities which are important ingredients of vocabulary. Productive activities such as speaking and writing make learners focus on words and so strengthen their knowledge of previous vocabulary. To highlight this importance Nation (2001: 2) says: "Having to speak and write encourages learners to listen like a speaker and read like a writer." They become more fluent. Both learners and teachers should devote enough time to effective vocabulary learning.

In the light of the comments of these researchers, it can be seen that vocabulary learning is an inevitable part of language which can be facilitated by suitable strategies. Although there are a lot of vocabulary-

related problems faced by teachers and learners they can be prevented easily by devoting more time to vocabulary.

#### **2.4. The Frequency of Words**

First of all, It is important to highlight what the word means: While Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary (cited in Uslu, 1996: 43) describes “word” as “a single unit of language that can be represented in writing or speech”, Webster’s New World Dictionary (cited in Uslu, 1996: 43) gives a more technical definition as “unit of language between the morpheme and the complete utterance”.

Some words can be more useful than the others. The words can be categorized into four groups as high-frequency words, low-frequency words, academic words and technical words. High-frequency words are very important because they cover a large amount of spoken and written English. High-frequency words include function words such as in, for, the, of, and also includes many content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). High-frequency words show a large amount of the words in spoken and written language (Nation, 2001). Function words are limited in number and are often used in the procedure of teaching grammar whereas the number of content words is really very great (Uslu, 1996). As the high-frequency words of a language are so significant, teachers and learners should spend considerable time on them. Teachers should dedicate enough time to teaching high-frequency words. Academic words are used for academic purposes. The words which are related to the topic and subject area of the text are called technical words. The range of topics or language uses can be restricted systematically to make special vocabulary so it is likely to have special vocabularies in speaking, reading academic text, reading newspaper writing letter. Technical vocabularies can also be

regarded as specialised vocabulary. Academic vocabulary is also specialised vocabulary. Learners need different kinds of vocabularies according to their branches such as law, science and economy. Nation states that academic vocabulary can sometimes be called sub-technical vocabulary since it does not contain technical words but rather formal vocabulary. Some of the words occur very infrequently and cover only a small part of a text. Many low frequency words are proper names. They may indicate a rarely expressed idea. They may be very formal, old-fashioned, vulgar, foreign words. The ancient vocabulary proverb “one person’s technical vocabulary is another person’s low-frequency word.” (20) presented by Nation (2001) summarizes that vocabulary frequency can change according to personal interest because people’s vocabularies increase as a result of their jobs and specialisations. We rarely meet these kinds of words in our daily speech.

Teachers should teach some strategies such as guessing from context, using word parts to help remember words, using vocabulary cards and dictionaries. To Nation (2001), teachers should concentrate on increasing the learner’s control of vocabulary learning and coping strategies. The distinction between low frequency words and high frequency words is important. They differ from each other in regard to frequency, coverage and quantity. The teachers need to know this distinction so as to decide on what approach to take while teaching them. High frequency words should be well-known by the learners. According to Nation, teachers should also know what kind of vocabulary work learners need to do (Nation, 2001).

It is important for teachers and learners to have enough information about the frequency of words to shape their learning process.

## 2.5. Knowing a Word

There are various things that should be known about any particular word because words are not isolated units. Learners have different language backgrounds so sometimes knowing a word can bring about boredom and burden for learners depending on their language backgrounds. The more closely the first language is related to the second language, the less learning becomes a burden for the learners. Teachers can diminish this heavy burden by highlighting the systematic patterns and analogies within the second language by identifying the connection between the first and second language. If learners perceive what is involved in knowing a word they can facilitate their learning process (Nation, 2001).

Lewis and Hill (cited in Uslu, 1996: 45) argue that knowing a vocabulary item,

is not a simple process – it means much more than simply memorizing the word. From a receptive (passive) point of view, it means recognizing its meaning when it occurs in context, a relatively simple process. For students to add the word to their active vocabularies they need to know the context in which it can occur, the possible and impossible collocations of the word as well as more detail of the connotation meaning of the word.

By means of listening and reading we receive language input from others and try to understand it. On the other hand, we produce language forms and so convey messages to others through speaking and writing. Receptive vocabulary use requires comprehending the word while listening or reading and then retrieving its meaning. However productive vocabulary use entails expressing a meaning by means of speaking or writing and producing the suitable spoken or written word form. At the most general level knowing a word includes form, meaning, use. Nation

classifies the aspects of knowing a word both from the point of view of productive knowledge and receptive knowledge (Nation, 2001).

Productive learning is more difficult than receptive learning because learners should learn extra spoken or written output patterns. However learners only need to know important features of the word's form for receptive use. More precise knowledge of the word form is needed for productive use. Although we know some vocabulary very well they can remain in our passive vocabulary (Nation, 2001). That is, we understand them after hearing and reading but we do not use them in speaking or in writing (Finocchiaro, 1964). It requires more time and effort to learn vocabulary for speaking and writing than for listening and reading. Learner's skills are different from each other at learning vocabulary and they have got different purposes (Nation, 2001).

Knowing the spoken form of a word requires recognising the word when it is heard and producing the spoken form in order to express meaning. In order to produce the spoken form of a word we should be able to pronounce the sounds in the word together with the stresses of the syllables. Depending on the similarities between the first and the second languages, pronouncability of a word can affect vocabulary learning. Learners can represent the spoken forms of words in their memory in various ways such as whole words, onsets, rimes, letter names and phonemes, claims Nation (2001). Spelling is one aspect of getting familiar with the written form. "The ability to spell is most strongly influenced by the way learners represent the phonological structure of the language" (Nation, 2001: 45). The irregularity in the English spelling system constitutes difficulty for learners of English. Insufficient spelling can affect a learner's writing in a bad way. This situation can cause the learner to use limited vocabulary and to avoid words which are hard to spell. There is a strong relationship between spelling and reading. If the first

language of the learner does not use the same writing system, learning the written form of a new language can bring about a burden for the learner. It can be said that first and second language parallels regularity of the second language writing system and learner's knowledge of the spoken form of the second language vocabulary affects learning the written form of words (Nation, 2001).

If we know the affixes and the stems in words it will be easier for us to learn that word. Learner's knowledge of word parts and word building changes as their proficiency develops. Knowing a word includes knowing the members of its word family. We can use the word parts to help remember the meanings of a word. For this strategy learners need to know the most frequent and regular affixes well so as to be able to recognise them in words and re-express the meaning of the word using the meanings of its word parts. In short, to know a word we should know how the words sound and look like. It is not enough to know the form of a word. Meaning also plays a vital role so the learners should be able to connect form and meaning. Learners should retrieve the meaning when seeing or hearing the word form. Not only form but also meaning is necessary for knowing a word. It is possible to see a word with a lot of different meanings especially high-frequency words. Words which share the same form can have unrelated meanings. These are called homonyms. Nagy (cited in Nation, 2001) suggests that language learners can deal with related meanings by using two ways:

1. When the word form is met; the suitable sense of the word is called from the storage in brain. This is called "sense selection".

2. When the learner meets the word in use, learner should try to find the particular real world items the word refers to during the comprehension process. This process is called "reference specification".



Nation (2001) claims that “defining a word by looking for the concept that runs through all its uses reduces the number of words to learn” (51). He points out by means of drawing attention to underlying concepts; every occurrence of the word will act as a repetition of what was taught instead of as a different item. Rather than regarding the words as having multiple meanings, we should accept that each word has a single inherent lexical meaning and inferential meaning that we infer from other words. Where a word has more than one meaning, we should presume that these meanings are related to each other by general rules. These rules involve the idea that words can have various meanings from concrete to abstract and that these differences in concreteness and abstractness are inferred from the context. Culture is another dimension affecting meaning and use of vocabulary. Teachers should guide learners about culturally noticeable differences related to food, family and behaviour. As Spinelli and Siskin suggest (cited in Nation: 52), we can benefit from culturally authentic semantic fields and we can distinguish the native and target culture while presenting and practising vocabulary. There is a relation between words learned and the customs represented by these words. Textbooks include short reading comprehension passages in simplified English which deal with common life situations. They should know what common words mean to native speakers. Also they need to learn the new meanings of the words they already know. This proves that words have also social meanings. The comprehension of words like kitchen, family, breakfast can change from one culture to another. It is difficult to learn the social meanings of the words. The learner can get this knowledge from teachers and native speakers. Stories include indirect contact with native speakers of the language. So they can help the teacher to teach social meanings. Students can get pen pals (Allen, 1983).

Understanding the relationship between words is useful for explaining the words and increasing the learner's comprehension of the word. Parts of speech should be known. Nouns can be organized into hierarchies by means of diagrams and hierarchies. The relationship between items in a hierarchy is called hyponymy. In order to distinguish between nouns we need to know parts, attributes and functions. Whole-part relationship is called meronymy. We should distinguish the relationships between the words clearly. Classification is important. The link between the word and its meaning is important. It is essential to know what part of speech a word is and which grammatical patterns it can fit into so as to use it in context. According to many linguists, lexicon plays an important role in grammar. We should know with which words a word occurs (Collocation). There can be limitations about where and when to use certain words. Culture plays a vital role in constraining usage. Frequency of a word can act as a constraint on its use. Teachers' overusing a word affects the learner's use of the word. Teachers should dedicate time to words according to their usefulness in English. For knowing a word affixation system, the sound system, spelling system, collocation, grammatical system, lexical sets are important (Nation, 2001).

Teachers benefit from teaching techniques at receptive and productive levels while introducing new words. At the receptive level the student experiences the new word and their meanings through pictures, cards and realia, techniques of guessing, ranking and matching. On the other hand, students are exposed to repeating words and to pair work or group work activities such as substitution, read and retell (Ekmekçi, 2001).

In Wallace's opinion (cited in Uslu, 1996), a learner can recognize many more words than he can produce, so the teacher should decide which words he wants his student to produce accurately and which

words he wishes him to recognize. However guessing which words take place in the learner's active or passive vocabulary is a hard job.

As seen, knowing a word is not a simple matter because it requires detailed information about the word. Teachers and learners should not neglect this demanding task for the sake of effective vocabulary.

## **2.6. Recalling a Word**

There are three important general processes leading to recalling a word: noticing, retrieval and creative use (Nation, 2001).

### **2.6.1. Noticing**

Noticing is one of the general processes leading to recalling a word. Giving attention to an item encourages learning at the first step. Learners need to be aware of a particular word as a useful language item. The salience of a word in textual input, discussion of a text, previous contact that learners have had with a word and learners' realisation that a word fills a gap in their knowledge of the language are the important factors affecting noticing. Learners may also notice a word while looking up another word in a dictionary, studying a word deliberately or by guessing from context. Motivation and interest are the important components for noticing. The choice of content directly affects the interest. There is not enough success without the engagement and aroused attention of the learner. Noticing involves decontextualisation which occurs in various ways. To illustrate, learners may notice a new word while listening or reading. The teacher emphasizes the importance of a word while writing it on the board. The learners discuss the meaning of a word with each other

or with the teacher. The teacher in turn explains a word by applying to definition, synonym or translation. As a result, it can be said that “decontextualisation means that the word is removed from its message context to be focused on as a language item” (Nation, 2001: 64). Whether it is brief or not, all language learning includes some degree of contextualisation. That is to say, learners need to see language items as parts of the language system instead of as messages (Nation, 2001).

Negotiation and definition are two kinds of decontextualisation. Most studies point out that negotiated vocabulary items are learned better than non-negotiated items. Negotiation facilitates vocabulary learning. In fact, the learning conditions of noticing and the gaining information that negotiation sets up are more important than negotiation itself. Some studies show that vocabulary learning increases by the help of briefly explained vocabulary items. Simple definitions are more effective. Many learners can learn words more easily by a first language translation. Defining in the process of telling a story is a form of decontextualisation like negotiation. That is, attention is focused on words as words instead of as parts of a message. The teacher can influence learners’ noticing skills in speaking and writing tasks by indicating where the wanted vocabulary items are placed in the written input. They can draw the attention of the learners to the wanted items before an activity by means of pre-teaching or consciousness-raising. They can apply some techniques to encourage noticing in listening and reading tasks. Activities like pre-teaching, highlighting the word in text by using underlining, italics, bold letters and glossing the word can encourage noticing (Nation, 2001).

### 2.6.2. Retrieval

Retrieval is the other important process causing a word to be remembered (Nation, 2001). If we understand how our memory works, it is possible to create more effective ways to teach vocabulary (Moras, 2001). By means of teacher's explanation and dictionary use, a word may be noticed and comprehended in the textual input to the task. There are two kinds of retrieval as receptive and productive. When you meet the word in listening or reading you perceive the form and retrieve its meaning. This is called receptive retrieval. On the other hand, when you wish to communicate the meaning of a word and retrieve its spoken or written form as in speaking or writing, it is called productive retrieval. There is no retrieval if the form and its meaning are presented simultaneously to the learner. Repetition plays a vital role in incidental vocabulary learning. Not only repetition but also the repeated opportunity to retrieve the item which is to be learned is important. When any form of a word is heard or seen, it is essential to retrieve what is known about the meaning. Ideas stored from previous meetings and content, information from the present meeting are retrieved. Each retrieval of a word strengthens the connection between form and meaning and also makes retrieval easier. The learner's vocabulary size and memory of the last meeting with a word are important factors affecting retrieval. If someone knows more words the next words he or she needs to learn occur less frequently. The more you increase your vocabulary size, the greater the quantity of language you need to process in order to meet the new words. Some studies show that memory for words can last several weeks or months. Repeated opportunities for meeting the unknown words such as definition, negotiation, conservative interpretation can enable the learner to retain a memory. How long a memory for a word will remain is

controversial because there are various factors affecting memory, including the quality of the meeting with a word. Repetitions should be spaced with a short gap between early meetings and larger gaps between later meetings. Hence the number of previous meetings with the word will affect the length of time a memory remains (Nation, 2001).

According to the research conducted by Gairns (cited in Moras, 2001), learning new items includes storing them first in our short-term memory, and then in long-term memory. While our short-term memory is not effective, our long-term memory can hold any amount of information. Word frequency is another factor affecting storage because the most frequently used words are retrieved more easily. This information is beneficial for grouping vocabulary items in semantic fields such as topics. As seen since forgetting is inevitable, recycling is a vital process.

Wallace (cited in Akin and Seferoğlu, 2004: 5) believes that “there has to be a certain amount of repetition until there is evidence that the student has learned the target word.” Crothers and Suppes (cited in Nation, 2001) found out that a learner can learn a vocabulary item after at least six or seven repetitions.

Akin and Seferoğlu (2004) refer to Gairns and Redman who state that

It is generally believed that of the information we forget, eighty percent is lost within the twenty-four hours of initial learning. This may help to explain why testing activities carried out the day after input yield rather distressing results, while further testing activities carried a week later appear quite satisfactory (p. 5).

Nation (2001: 77) points out a general fact about the spacing of repetitions:

The older a piece of learning, the slower the forgetting. This means two things. Firstly, after a piece of learning, the forgetting is initially very fast and then slows down. Secondly, on the second repetition a piece of learning is older than it was on the first repetition and so the forgetting on the second repetition will be even slower. The

right probability or recall level is one where the learner has forgotten enough to feel that repetition is worthwhile attending to and yet not forgotten too much so that there is still a good chance of recalling and thereby strengthening the form-meaning connection.

In order to be successful at teaching vocabulary, the teacher should know what is going on in the pupil's mind. While learning a new word, the mind links the eight items together according to French et al. (1975: 19) as follows:

1. the object itself or a picture of it;
2. the nearest translation in the pupil's own language;
3. the sound of the English name of the object;
4. the act of watching the teacher's lips and mouth when he speaks the word;
5. the act of moving the muscles of the tongue, lips and throat, when the pupil says the word himself;
6. the act of watching the teacher's hand as he writes the word. This is very important indeed if the written letters of the pupil's language are not the same as the written letters of English.
7. the study of the written or printed appearance of the word when the pupil first sees it;
8. the act of controlling the muscles of the hand and wrist in writing the word, when the pupil first writes it.

The things in which the strongest links are made by the mind are remembered best. Teachers should help students to remember words through various methods such as listening, speaking, action, dictation and also by providing a large quantity of links in the learner's mind between the new word and old words already known (French et al., 1975).

Teachers can also read the same story several times to increase retrieval. Younger learners may enjoy listening to it. For the older ones, a long story can be serialised because in continuous stories vocabulary is repeated very often. Teachers can maximise this by retelling what happened in the process part. The teacher can note the target vocabulary on the board as it occurs in the story, thereby encouraging

retrieval. Teachers can benefit from speaking activities so as to design retrieval. The task involves retelling of the textual input (Nation, 2001).

Oxford (1990: 68) contributes to these scholars' thoughts about retrieval by writing the following:

Just thinking of the learner's original image, sound-and-image combination, action, sensation, association, or grouping can rapidly retrieve the needed information, particularly if the learner has taken the time to review the material in a structured way after the initial encounter.

As a result of this, it can be seen that retrieval, which is one of the important processes of recalling a word, affects vocabulary learning directly.

### **2.6.3. Creative and Generative Use**

The third important factor that may lead to a word being remembered is generation. Generative processing emerges when previously met words are subsequently met or used in ways that are different from the previous meeting with the word. "Generative use is not restricted to metaphorical extension of word meaning and can apply to a range of variations from inflection through collocation and grammatical context to reference and meaning" (Nation, 2001: 69). Discussion is a crucial factor affecting vocabulary acquisition since it creates an opportunity for the new vocabulary to appear in different forms and contexts. Also, a text accompanied by a picture can enrich the level of processing of a word and so increase learning (Nation, 2001).

Negotiation improves learning both through decontextualisation and through the opportunity for generative use. A



word is used in various grammatical contexts during negotiation (Nation, 2001).

Generation can occur in receptive or productive ways. Receptive form includes meeting a word which is used in new ways in listening or reading. On the other hand, productive form includes producing new ways of using the wanted vocabulary in new contexts. That is to say, if the word is used in speaking in a way which is different from its use in the textual input, word has been used in a generative way (Nation, 2001).

By retelling the written input from a different angle, using the information in a way that encourages negotiation and by enabling learners to reconstruct what was in the text rather than repeat it, teachers can encourage productive generative use (Nation, 2001).

### **2.7. Teaching and Explaining Vocabulary**

Methods and materials should be determined according to the needs of learners, teachers' preferences and the constraints in the school or educational background. Using only one method cannot guarantee successful results, since every method has some shortcomings. Teachers should consider who the learners are, which needs they have, with what kind of learners the methods applied are more effective, and whether the chosen method is effective in all cultures or not (cited in Uslu, 1996).

Foreign words about familiar objects and persons should be taught but most class members won't learn them easily because most members of the class will feel no need to learn the words, since they have already had satisfactory words in their own language. When they don't feel interested in learning these, teacher should create a feeling of need by

planning interesting lessons and implementing original techniques. Some teachers read each word loudly and students close their books. On the other hand, some teachers let students look at each word as they are reading them. Each method has advantages and disadvantages. For example, the sight of a word may have a bad influence on a student's pronunciation. On the other hand, learners might remember a word more easily if they see and hear it. As a result, it can be said that vocabulary is best learned when the learner feels that a certain word is needed. Time should be spent on meaningful use of the words. They should make some words in English necessary for communication. For this purpose, educators can involve students in activities that require English words for the exchange of information or for the expression of personal feelings (Allen, 1983). Nation also believes in the importance of meeting the needs of the students. Learners should feel a personal need for a word before learning it. This situation makes learning a word easier. A teacher must produce a feeling of need in students' minds. Mentioning an English word and giving its meaning are not enough to create a sense of need. After understanding, hearing and seeing a word, students should use the new words for communication (Nation, 2001).

Lewis (cited in Moras, 2001) claims that vocabulary is the centre of language teaching. On the other hand, Gairns and Redman (cited in Moras, 2001) state that vocabulary teaching should involve several aspects of lexis such as the boundaries between conceptual meaning, polysemy, homonymy, homophony, synonymy, affective meaning, style, register, dialect, translation, chunks of language, grammar of vocabulary, pronunciation.

How teachers communicate the meanings of words to learners is important. Russel (1982) states that most teachers use the "five-words-a-day" approach to vocabulary. He doesn't approve of such a method, since

he thinks “that method has about as much chance of enlarging a child’s vocabulary as does telling a child to read the dictionary from a to z” (157).

Pressley et al. (1995) recommend that teachers should read extensively to their students and encourage their students to read on their own so as to increase their vocabulary because the size of their vocabulary varies with the extent of their reading after they begin to read on their own.

According to Nation (2001), teachers should ask these four questions about teaching and learning activity:

What is the learning goal of this activity? What psychological conditions does the activity use to help reach the learning goal? What are the observable signs that learning might occur? What are the design features of the activity which set up the conditions for learning? (60).

Teachers should be aware of the important features of the techniques otherwise they won’t know how to use them efficiently. By the help of suitable techniques teachers should be able to achieve the learning goal (Nation, 2001).

“What is it? Technique” is a useful way of acquiring new vocabulary. The teacher tries to convey a meaning by using a word in different contexts gradually. Learners raise their hands after they think they know what the word means. Unless enough hands are raised the teacher does not ask a learner to translate and explain the word. Not too much information should be given at the beginning otherwise learners won’t listen to the word attentively. Teacher should repeat each sentence at least twice. The teacher does not let the first learners raising their hands explain the word and goes on describing the word until most hands are raised. Existence of rich context during this technique can be very useful. We should determine the learning goal of an activity very well and then analyse how the goal will be reached. Only one learning goal should be considered at a time, although there can be various goals. Learners can

benefit from contextual clues to guess the meanings of the words (Nation, 2001).

Rivers (1968) outlines seven steps about vocabulary learning:

1. Students need to learn how to commit vocabulary to long-term memory.
2. Students must learn to discriminate variations in distribution and new boundaries of meaning.
3. Students do not always realise that words are constructed of morphemes which share the burden of the meaning among them. Students should be encouraged to watch for patterns in word formation.
4. There are many borrowed words and cognates. Students should learn to penetrate disguises.
5. Students must learn how to discover new words for themselves.
6. Students need to learn that vocabulary is elastic and that they can make much of the little they know by paraphrase, circumlocution and definition as they gradually build up a more precise and varied lexicon.
7. Students must learn how to augment their own vocabulary steadily and systematically (464-467).

A teacher does not have enough time to teach everything about a word, so the teacher should motivate the students to become independent word learners (Waring, 2002).

Past studies have revealed that teachers spend about 3% to 20% of their instructional time on vocabulary (Scott et al., 2003). For example, Blanton and Moorman (cited in Scott, 2003) found that 28 fourth-grade teachers spent 11% of the time in directed reading activity lessons concentrating on vocabulary. On the other hand, Blachowicz (cited in Scott, 2003) claimed that teachers spent 15% to 20% of their instructional time in reading lessons for vocabulary learning. Times spent do not show the quality of instruction. All these studies indicate that the use of strategy instruction is infrequent. Although all teachers want to help their students learn new words, their procedures vary in regard to effectiveness. This may result from lack of knowledge about pedagogical strategies and the

complexity of vocabulary acquisition. Teachers should create classroom environments in which sophisticated language use is modelled and explained; students are encouraged to experiment with language, and which help students realize the relationship between words. Instead of rote tasks in which they learn individual words, the students need to learn multiple exposures, semantic relations between the words, ways that words can develop communication, and generative knowledge about the words (Scott et al., 2003).

Blachowicz and Fisher (cited in Scott et al., 2003) outlined four principles guiding a suitable vocabulary instruction:

1. Personalizing word learning is necessary for the students, so they can learn words more efficiently. Students should decide on the words they want to learn or ways in which to learn them.
2. Immersing students in words is another important principle. It requires explanation of sophisticated language.
3. Students should learn the words through repeated exposures. A single exposure is not enough for developing a rich understanding of the word. Each exposure gives information about how the word is used in context and its connection to other words.
4. Students' being active is necessary for developing their understanding of the words and ways to learn them. Instead of being passive recipients, the students should try to make connections between what they know and the words and new concepts which are being learned. Students should experiment with language by manipulating words in context, discuss the meaning of words with others and explore how words can improve their ability.

According to Uslu (1996) vocabulary can be taught through short stories because a short story is easily acquired by the learner or the

teacher. Stories are usually so interesting that the learner can focus on the vocabulary more easily. Short stories usually deal with the unexpected and unpredictable, so learners cannot guess what is coming next. This situation arouses their curiosity and enthusiasm. As a result, the learners try to develop strategies to get over the difficulty of the unknown. The learner focuses on the vocabulary more so that he can solve the problem.

According to Uslu (1996), the teachers should teach concrete words through real objects, drawings, photographs and by performing actions whereas abstract vocabulary should be taught by means of association of ideas, description, giving synonyms or antonyms and translation.

As to Ooi and Kim-Seoh (1996), teachers should adopt integrative approaches to accomplish wider goals for vocabulary instruction instead of thinking of lexis, grammar and discourse as separate strands in the language syllabus.

Rivers (cited in Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996) thinks that retention of taught items is increased if the learner comprehends them in connection with his or her own goals and purposes. Gairns and Redman (cited in Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996) also give importance to learner engagement and suggest that the learners should contribute to what they want to learn. On the other hand, McKeown et al. and Channell (cited in Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996) believe that learners should develop semantic networks around learned words. Stahl (cited in Ooi and Kim-Seoh, 1996) states that making connections between new and known information makes the learning process more effective and teaching vocabulary through reading facilitates developing semantic networks and other links which will increase learning. For example, the use of word sorts, semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis grids, concept circles, graphic organizers help students to see important relationships between words and concepts. All these

activities cause students to expand the relationships between their own experiences and background knowledge to newly introduced concepts from the text (cited in Harmon, 2000).

Stahl and Fairbanks (cited in Harmon et al., 2000) found that the number of word exposures affected learning in their vocabulary instruction studies. That is to say, after understanding the meaning of the words, the students must engage in practice with the words so that they can internalize their meanings.

Martha Rapp and Haggard Ruddell (cited in Bushman, 2001: 176) emphasize the importance of five principles related to the development of vocabulary activities:

1. activities should allow students to use new words in a meaningful way.
2. activities should allow students opportunity to associate new words and concepts with their own experience
3. activities should develop associations with other words
4. activities should encourage high-level thinking and
5. activities should lead students to many different text resources.

As a consequence, it can be said that teachers should shape their lessons according to the needs of their students by synthesizing variety of methods in order to enhance their vocabulary efficiently.

### **2.7.1. Goals of Vocabulary Lessons**

The goal of vocabulary lessons is to increase the learner's vocabulary size. Learners should not only increase their vocabulary but also develop their fluency and skills at vocabulary. Learners should know some important strategies and be good at using them, controlling them. To determine the goals, it is necessary to know what kinds of vocabulary the learners need to know. Testing vocabulary knowledge is the best way to

observe learner's vocabulary development, but these tests do not indicate how well students can make use of the vocabulary they know and to what extent they can control vocabulary learning strategies. To learn this, learners can be questioned, they can be observed. Teachers should try to understand what type of vocabulary they need, how much of this type of vocabulary is needed and which strategies they need (Nation, 2001).

Environment analysis includes evaluation of the features of teachers and learners to determine whether the teaching and learning situation is helping or hindering learning. If learners aren't motivated, the teacher can apply to regular vocabulary tests, discussion learning goals, or reward activities. If they are motivated, then the teacher can set ambitious learning goals. Time is also important. Some environment factors such as whether the learners share the same L1 or not, learner's doing homework, teacher's time, whether the L1 and L2 share cognate vocabulary or not and availability of computer affect the learning process (Nation, 2001).

### **2.7.2. Principles of Vocabulary Teaching**

The principles of vocabulary teaching influence content and sequencing (what vocabulary is focused on), format and presentation (how the vocabulary is taught), monitoring and assessment (how learning is measured). In terms of content and sequencing, teachers should benefit from frequency and range of occurrence as ways of deciding what vocabulary to teach and the order in which to teach it. They should give necessary training in vocabulary learning strategies and sort each vocabulary group according to its difficulty and importance for the learners. Teachers must also give opportunities to learn what is involved in knowing a word avoiding interference by presenting vocabulary in normal use, instead of groupings of synonyms, opposites and free associates on



lexical sets. Moreover, teachers must deal with high-frequency words by concentrating on the words and tackling with low-frequency words by focusing on control of the strategies (Nation, 2001).

In terms of format and presentation, teachers should be certain that high frequency target vocabulary occurs in all the four strands of meaning focused input, language focused learning, meaning focused output and fluency development. Educators must give students the opportunity for spaced, repeated, generative retrieval of words and for using processing activities. As to monitoring and assessment, they should test learners to understand which vocabulary they need to focus on, keep learners motivated through assessment and monitoring, encourage learners to reflect on their learning processes (Nation, 2001).

#### **2.7.2.1. Content and Sequencing**

Content and sequencing involve what vocabulary is focused on and how it is focused on, how it is ordered. One of the most important decisions related to content and sequencing is deciding on the unit of analysis or unit of progression. The unit of progression is what determines progress through a course. While the unit of progression is grammatical constructions in a grammatically based course, the unit of progression is language function in a functionally based course. The course designer needs to decide what unit of language will be used and how the lessons will be ordered. If vocabulary is used as the unit of progression, each unit introduces new vocabulary according to frequency and range. The most important thing for deciding if and when an item should be included in a syllabus is frequency (Nation, 2001).

### 2.7.2.2. Format and Presentation

Format and presentation of vocabulary include the selection of the teaching and learning techniques and their arrangement into a lesson plan. Contact with language in use should be given more importance than decontextualised activities. The vocabulary should occur across the four strands of meaning-focused input, language focused learning, meaning-focused output, fluency development as for high-frequency vocabulary. As a part of format and presentation, a teacher should pay attention to the quality of the teaching and learning techniques and ensure that conditions such as repetition, retrieval, generation, thoughtful processing occur. If they do not occur the techniques should be changed. Teachers should prepare syllabuses mentioning the important parts of a strategy and give importance to repetition and practice so that learners can gain fluent control of the strategy while teaching vocabulary strategies. To sum up, format and presentation deal with organising teaching and learning procedures (Nation, 2001).

New vocabulary should be taught by the help of known structures. The vocabulary items that are taught should be related to one topic. For example, words about drinks should be given in one lesson, words about weather in another.

All the words around a center of interest (food, clothing, recreation, etc.) should not be taught at one time or at one level. Other words within the same “center” can always be added when they fit logically with the other socio-cultural topics being studied or when they are met in reading (Finocchiaro, 1964: 69).

It is important to teach only one context at one time (Finocchiaro, 1964).

New vocabulary items should be presented in known structures, but at the beginning level it is not suitable. The teacher should use the

same topic with a new word so that students can learn to associate the word with the situation in which it was learned. We can practise vocabulary in substitution drills, transformation drills, questions and answers (Finocchiaro, 1973). Activities should be stimulating, motivating and interesting. They should encourage the learners to explore something. Learners learn better by doing, by participating in their learning actively. To illustrate teachers can benefit from tongue-twisters, poems, flashcards, odd one out, acting out, storytelling, jumbled-up sentences, chants/rhymes for vocabulary, stress and intonation, questionnaires, vocabulary jigsaws, songs(Çakır, 2004). According to Philips (cited in Çakır, 2004), games in foreign language teaching facilitate learning by making it more enjoyable and rewarding. “It develops the ability to co-operate, to compete without being aggressive, and to be a good loser” (cited in Çakır, 2004: 108). Through the fun in the games learners can learn without being aware of it. If teachers use them at the right time the games can be very useful. Hangman, word chains, information gap crosswords vocabulary squares, snakes, bingo, scrabble can be used by the teacher (Çakır, 2004).

### **2.7.2.3. Monitoring and Assessment**

Teachers should monitor learners’ progress and the quality of their learning along with learners’ control of vocabulary strategies. Evaluation is also important. It is an indication of how successful a course is. Teachers can decide if goals were reached, if the course gave importance to environment factors and if learners’ needs were met (Nation, 2001).

Teachers should know what the learners’ vocabulary level and needs are; whether the programme is focusing on the most suitable level of vocabulary; whether the vocabulary is sequenced, whether activities help

vocabulary learning, whether there are suitable opportunities to develop fluency with known vocabulary; whether the presentation of vocabulary helps learning; whether learners are excited about their progress (Nation, 2001).

## **2.8. Vocabulary Lessons for Different Levels of Students**

Teachers should be conscious of the different characteristics of elementary, intermediate and advanced levels of students. Each level has important features that should be known. If teachers know their students' levels better, they can guide the students more effectively.

### **2.8.1. Vocabulary Lessons for Elementary Students**

At the beginning level it is necessary to concentrate on the function words and the more frequently used vocabulary items which are needed to give practice in the basic structures and sounds of the language. Vocabulary related to the environment and experiences of the students can be given precedence. The same context should be used with a new word in order that students will learn to associate the word with the situation in which it is used (Finocchiaro, 1964). In the first stage of English, vocabulary lessons usually involve vocabulary about persons and things such as boy, girl, book, pencil etc. because the meanings of such words can be conveyed easily to the learners. These are things they can see while hearing their names. For example, the things in the classroom can be touched. The number of senses used in the learning process increases success. When the learners see, hear and touch something they learn, they have more chance of learning it. Much of this vocabulary is used to define more difficult words (Allen, 1983).

At the beginning level, useful words in making sentences and additional words connected with students' environment and interests should be taught. Words in the first years of English must be chosen carefully in terms of usefulness (French et al., 1975).

Teachers can draw attention to meanings and ideas represented by new vocabulary before drilling words themselves. For example, they can point to a girl or a boy to prepare the students for learning boy and girl. If it causes discomfort because of cultural reasons, then the teacher can use pictures or draw stick figures on the board or want a student to draw it on the board. As soon as the students are paying attention, the teacher can give the meaning. Teachers should give only a short time to this presentation of meanings because having experience with the use of these words is also important for students' communication. The teacher should help the students master the vocabulary and encourage the use of each word for communication (Allen, 1983).

Brown (2001: 98) reminds teachers that,

But you do have to keep in mind that your students' capacity for taking in and retaining new words, structures, and concepts is limited. Foremost on your mind as a teacher should be the presentation of material in simple segments that do not overwhelm your students. Remember, they are just barely beginning!

Students should be able to use new words for real communication. For example, the teacher can make up short dialogues consisting of new words related to objects and persons in the classroom. In the light of the clues used by the teacher in the dialogues, students try to guess the person or the object. The teacher can give clues about the colour, location and clothing. Another good way to encourage learning new vocabulary is to use them with simple commands. The students can so fulfill the commands. They can give commands to each other with the new vocabulary. Real objects can also be used in the classroom during the

teaching of vocabulary whenever possible rather than pictures. Also, students themselves can draw pictures. For example, after teaching the parts of the body, the teacher can read a description about a visitor from Mars. While listening to it, students draw the picture then compare their pictures together. At home they create their own visitors, write descriptions and bring them to the classroom to share with friends. The pictures that students draw are valuable and have certain advantages. First of all, when no other pictures can be found they are available. Poor language learners can draw well; it is a chance to win praise, so they can feel more motivated to learn. Teachers can benefit from student's artistic talents for the introduction of new vocabulary (Allen, 1983).

### **2.8.2. Vocabulary Lessons for Intermediate Students**

Elementary refers to beginners at any age. Advanced students understand most of what they hear but they still need help with materials. At the intermediate level the same kinds of words which elementary students need are taught. Intermediate vocabulary lessons involve many words for things and persons as in the elementary lessons but intermediate learners have a different advantage. Since they have learned a great deal of English words, the teacher can use them to define new vocabulary. Intermediate students should hear solely English during the lessons. Most of the intermediate vocabulary cannot be demonstrated through actions or pictures as in elementary classes, but intermediate level words can be explained with other words which are already known. English words are defined by means of simpler English words. The students and teachers can refer to learner's dictionaries. Such dictionaries also give example sentences using the word. Sometimes an example can be better than a definition or synonym. Teachers should present simple and clear example

sentences for them. Like elementary students, the intermediate students need to learn words about daily lives but in elementary classes only a few words from each category are taught, while in intermediate classes the most commonly used words in different categories can be taught. At the intermediate level, words from different categories can be introduced together in each lesson. They can occur in connection with a simple story or in a part of a grammar lesson (Allen, 1983).

At this level, teachers should give many opportunities to students for communicating in English although they may make mistakes in language use. They should encourage the student. Unlike elementary students, they know sufficient English to experiment with expressing their ideas in the target language (Allen, 1983).

Dividing the class into smaller groups is an important technique at the intermediate and advanced levels. In the elementary level, learners do not have enough English to work together. According to the level of the students, different tasks can be given to groups at the intermediate level. Quicker students may work on difficult exercises while the slower ones work on simpler tasks. After completing tasks, groups should share their results with the rest of the class. They can report their answers. Some of the sentences can be written on the board or on a piece of sheet (Allen, 1983).

Beginners are at the same level. However in intermediate class there are some students who know more than others. Small group work can be applied in intermediate classes. Some groups are given more difficult tasks. For example, while the slower ones focus on making a list of things made of glass, the quicker ones can discuss the things causing trouble between parents and teenagers (Allen, 1983).

Also students can work in small groups with the picture dictionaries. Each member of the group selects a picture and tries to learn

the English names for the objects in the picture. Then they teach these words to the other members in the group. To teach something is one of the best ways to learn. A beginning student feels enthusiastic and interested in English because it is a completely new experience for him; but to sustain the interest of the intermediate level learners is a hard job because the experience of language is no longer new for them, perhaps causing them to feel dissatisfied, unmotivated or disinterested. This constitutes a problem for the teacher who may have difficulty in keeping their minds alert. Discouragement can be reduced when students realise that they can achieve using English. For this purpose, the teacher can use simplified reading passages in the lesson. They can feel more encouraged and motivated when they read a story or an essay without difficulty. The teacher can also use crossword puzzles prepared for learners of ESL. After succeeding in answering the questions students feel more confident and successful at using English. Again, some complex commands can be given which are suitable for the intermediate level. At this level students also need to see how they can cope with English outside the classroom. The teacher should aim to put the student's growing vocabulary to practical use and to introduce vocabulary related to the lives of English speaking people at this level. To practise this, the teacher may ask the students to imagine a foreign family coming to our country. They will help these people and try to solve their problems. After the discussion of the problems students will construct dialogues. As a result, they need to increase their knowledge of vocabulary related to daily experience, but the increasing difficulty of vocabulary can discourage them. They can use simple English to explain new words. Different activities for individuals and small groups should be applied because there are some intermediate students who know more English than others (Allen, 1983).



Hill (cited in Moras, 2001) suggests that teachers should try to increase their collocational competence with the vocabulary.

Working in groups increases learning independence (Moras, 2001).

### **2.8.3. Vocabulary Lessons for Advanced Students**

The teacher aims to prepare students according to English used by native speakers so does not use simplified texts a lot at this level. Also the teacher wants students to become more independent and responsible for their own learning. This level is the end of the language program. If the learners want to go on learning, they should spend effort themselves; they have to depend on their own efforts. Therefore, dictionaries become very important for them. Teachers can train advanced students about dictionary use (Allen, 1983).

In English some words have different grammatical functions in different sentences, such as “book”. A word can function both as a verb and a noun. By being aware of this fact advanced students can increase their vocabulary. Teachers should teach the advanced students how to examine an unfamiliar word in a sentence, how to find the necessary page in the dictionary, how to interpret symbols and abbreviations in the dictionaries, how to decide on the appropriate meaning of the unknown words. Also we should encourage them to use an all-English learner’s dictionary including pictures, example sentences, grammatical information, simple definitions, and explanations of the phrasal verbs (Allen, 1983).

The desire for comprehension can cause vocabulary learning. For example, if someone reads a horoscope and comes across unknown

words, he or she wants to look up the words to understand it better. Derivational suffixes should be taught in advanced classes. Also advanced students can expand their vocabulary by learning prefixes. Advanced learners can also work in small groups but there should be a leader in each group. Teachers should teach students how to deal with words they need. They should be responsible for their learning. Much vocabulary is learned for comprehension of what is read at the advanced level but some words are learned for speaking and writing. For example, paraphrases and summaries require the use of English words for communication. The students can express the main ideas of an article or an essay. Students can write compositions in groups. They can write letters to speakers of English. Also class members can prepare a wall newspaper. They should write articles about various topics such as sports, social editorials, recipes. They should write articles periodically. The newspaper should have a name, editor and a reporter (Allen, 1983).

Teachers should also encourage students to write situational and functional dialogs. They can use imagined or simulated experiences requiring the use of English. The students should be encouraged to discover how much they can say in English, so they have more confidence in their ability to use English and are more eager to go on learning beyond the advanced courses (Allen, 1983).

Advanced learners can communicate better, since they know the basic structures of the language. But they need to expand their vocabulary in order to express themselves more clearly and appropriately in different situations. According to Moras (2001), fostering learner independence is the most important aspect of vocabulary teaching for advanced learners. For this purpose the teacher can resort to guided discovery, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries. Guided discovery includes asking questions or presenting examples which guide students to

guess meanings correctly. Also the teachers can turn their receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary. The productive vocabulary will vary according to the motivation and needs of each student (Moras, 2001).

### **2.9. Vocabulary Activities in the Classroom**

While some believe in the importance of the old-fashioned repetition method for learning vocabulary, others prefer semantic approaches by presenting new words in the company of definition-clarifying synonyms, examples, maps. Mnemonic (memory-enhancing) strategies are also used by the others (Jones et al., 2000).

According to Nation (2001), teachers should deal with vocabulary following these steps:

Pre-teaching, replacing the unknown word in the text before giving the text to the learners., putting the unknown word in a glossary, putting the unknown word in an exercise after the text, giving the meaning quickly, doing nothing about the word, helping the learners use context to guess use a dictionary or break the word into parts, spending time looking at the range of meanings and collocations of the word (93-94).

Sometimes a word is explained to help the learners continue with the task of understanding a text or communicating a message. In this circumstance a quick definition in the form of translation, synonym or a diagram are suitable. But sometimes a word should be given elaborate attention. A short explanation is not enough. Rich instruction should be provided so that learners can use the words more actively. There are a lot of classroom activities related to how vocabulary can be taught. These activities can be done as individual or group work. Teachers should spend time for preparing exercises and giving feedback on the learner's process. There are a lot of words to teach. To have permanent, effective vocabulary

knowledge it is necessary to spend time on learning each word (Nation, 2001).

For better lessons, teachers should pay more attention to vocabulary selection. The most frequent and useful words should be taught by the teacher. Easy ones should be taught before difficult ones (cited in Waring, 2002). Repeating the new vocabulary at spaced intervals in many contexts is very important. The teacher can suggest graded readers except lesson duration. Student should be exposed to easy material rather than difficult, so they can increase their speed and fluency. By means of teaching students how to learn vocabulary effectively and use their dictionaries well, teachers can make their students more independent of teachers, dictionaries and textbooks. Also vocabulary exercises should involve deepening and internalizing knowledge of words (Waring, 2002).

There are various activities to draw students' attention to vocabulary. To illustrate, teachers can benefit from some games and competitions including synonyms and antonyms, whole-part relationship. A function is suggested for each object. An associated stereotypic object can be found for a person. Guessing games can be played. Students can be given weekly tasks like collecting words beginning with a certain prefix, root or derived from colours or numbers, or finding names of places with identifiable meaning. Students can make up stories based on a sequence of words in the order given or in random order. Teachers can use cloze passages with multiple-choice answers. Crosswords and Scrabble are useful for remembering the related vocabulary (Rivers, 1968). Through crossword puzzles, the learners both practise the known words and learn new ones. Riddles also facilitate learning the meaning of a word (Nation, 2001).

Teachers can use games for checking different categories of vocabulary. Games create conditions encouraging the learner's vocabulary

expansion. By means of a suitable game, students can learn English words. Through games students feel that they need certain words because they are important and necessary. Otherwise, the object of the game cannot be achieved. Guessing games can be applied for this level. During games students feel more eager to learn new vocabulary. Although games are useful the teacher should be selective while deciding on the right game. The games should aim to improve a learner's English and help to make some English words seem interesting and important to the learners. For example, in board games like checkers, the players do not need to speak during the game so it does not contribute to vocabulary expansion. Some games including physical activity can be too noisy for the classroom environment. Unfortunately in the excitement of the game players may express their emotions in their first language. As a result, it can be said that not all games are helpful (Allen, 1983).

As well as game-like activities, pictures can be used to encourage students to use English while exchanging information and ideas at the intermediate level. Pictures showing a story and situations can be interesting for intermediate level. Students can delight in imagining making comments on who the people are, where they are, what happened, what might happen next. Also students can try to write a story about these pictures by using their imagination. Their writings can include many errors. Teachers should ignore most of the mistakes so as not to discourage the students (Allen, 1983).

To show the meanings of English words objects in the classroom, objects which can be brought to class, drawings by teachers and students, pictures from the magazines, newspapers and demonstrations to show actions can be used. Also using students as helpers to draw pictures, to prepare displays for the classroom walls or to mime actions is very important in the learning process. By means of all these, students

have the chance of using words communicatively, experiencing communication (Allen, 1983).

One meeting with a word is not enough for learning it because to know a word we should know its form, meaning and use. Through meeting words in meaning focused input, direct study and teaching, meaning focused production and fluency development activities, knowledge of words develops. Learners are capable of dealing with only a limited amount of information at a time, so only limited learning from single meetings with a word should be expected (Nation, 2001).

The effectiveness of the communication and comprehension of word meaning depends on the skill of the teacher, speaker or writer, the skill of the learner and the characteristics of the language (Nation, 2001).

The way of defining a word has an effect on learning. Definitions using simple language encourage learners to use the new word. On the other hand, general or vague definitions have no profound effect on the learner. Too much information makes it difficult for learners to comprehend the meaning of a word. Good definitions should be specific, direct, unambiguous and simple according to Nation. A learner's skill at comprehending a word's meaning affects the amount of learning. Some learners use a holistic model. That is, they abandon the concept if there is conflicting information. On the one hand, some learners use an analytic approach. They develop a concept for a word with separate meaning components so learners can perceive the word in new contexts and the meaning of the word is enriched. The third factor is the language. There are various methods of communicating word meanings such as performing actions, showing objects, showing pictures on diagrams, defining in the first language, providing language context clues (Nation, 2001).

How teachers can help learners comprehend the definitions is also important. Instead of complex and elaborate definitions, teachers

should use clear, simple and brief explanations of meaning. Teachers should draw attention to the generative use of the word. By the help of repeated attention to words, teachers should be able to strengthen and enrich the previous knowledge of a word. Teachers should guide learners to recognise and interpret the definitions. Different aspects of word knowledge like spelling, pronunciation, collocation, restriction, grammatical patterns should be conveyed to the learner. Teachers should help learners remember the meaning of a word. Teachers should avoid teaching a word together with other related words in the early stages of learning. Before teaching an unknown word, a teacher should decide whether it is worth spending time on and how the word should be dealt with. If the word is a high-frequency word and it develops vocabulary strategies, then time should be given for that word (Nation, 2001).

Vocabulary learning can be encouraged by means of visual aids. Pictures which are cut out of magazines and newspapers are also useful. Teachers can bring some pictures and stick them to the board or a flannel. One student changes the order of the pictures according to the instructions. Then the other students can talk about the changes in the picture. The flannel graph is a means of encouraging students to use new vocabulary and review grammar. Flannel graphs are useful for temporary arrangements. When the class mates share the same class, walls can be used for long-term displays of pictures. The teacher can present family members, animals, plants, vegetables, fruits and occupations in the classroom. Each group of pictures should remain on the walls long enough to be noticed by the class members. Then the teacher can change them periodically (Allen, 1983).

To enable the students to notice the wall displays teachers can give certain students the task of preparing the wall displays or give assignments about the pictures to the whole classroom. The verbs can be

taught best by demonstrating an action. The teacher shows their meanings through mime and dramatic presentations. Pictures can also be used to show the meanings of the verbs. Also commands can be used. Many adverbs are usually taught in grammar lessons rather than vocabulary lessons. However some of the adverbs can be taught easily by means of a visual aid: a demonstration of an action. Students can perform imagined acts mime actions during a lesson. There are eager students who enjoy acting in the classrooms. While one student is acting and miming the others can try to guess what he or she is doing in English and pretending to do. For example, teacher can write different actions such as brushing teeth, combing hair on a slip of paper. One student chooses a slip and mimes the actions. Meanwhile the others try to guess (Allen, 1983).

Çakır (2004) also highlights the importance of visual aids in learning vocabulary. To Çakır, “the benefits of the use of visuals in classroom are countless” (105). For example, teachers can support any topic visually by means of big pictures, posters, drawings, puppets, toys, real objects, by dramatising through mime, facial expressions, gestures. The learners can learn the meanings more easily by the help of visual aids which make the learning memorable and fun (Çakır, 2004).

By means of actions, objects, pictures and diagrams, the learner can remember the meaning easily. Translation is a quick and instant way of communicating meaning. It is also simple and easily understood. But it can discourage the learners to use the second language. This method is therefore criticised (Nation, 2001). Beginning speakers usually resort to translating while producing messages in the target language. Translation let the learners use their own language as the basis for understanding the second language. In addition, it facilitates the learners’ production in speech and writing. Despite these good sides, translation can lead to wrong interpretations, slow learners down, force them to go back and forth



between two languages (Oxford, 1990). While McCarthy (1990) thinks that guessing from context is a better way than translation, Nation (2001) believes that translation is more effective than guessing in the early stages of learning.

For defining in the second language, synonym, paraphrase or derivation can be used. Nation points out that definitions should be classified into two categories. 'Embedded definition' aims to help the listener or reader continue to comprehend the text. The words defined are not the main focus. Synonyms or paraphrases are likely to be used. However other definitions are used to introduce a subtopic. In addition to synonym, antonym, analytic definition, taxonomic definition, definition by exemplification, definition by function, grammatical definition, definition by association, defining by classification can be used (Nation, 2001).

As for peer teaching, learners study in pairs. One learner teaches the vocabulary in the list to the other learner. He or she has the word and a picture illustrating its meaning. Acting as a teacher contributes to their development (Nation, 2001).

**Recycled Words:** It has got five stages. Vocabulary is pretaught. After oral reading the meaning of the text is discussed. Word study is done. The teacher benefits from puzzles, quizzes, tests. By means of writing vocabulary is used. This procedure proceeds from receptive use to productive use (Nation, 2001).

**The Second-Hand Cloze:** This includes three steps: The learner reads the text and studies the related vocabulary. Then learners have cloze passages. In this step teachers help learners remember the target words then they try to fill the gaps in the cloze test (Nation, 2001).

**The Vocabulary Interview:** Learners interview the teacher or each other about certain words. By means of this procedure they learn new

words and they are more aware of the aspects of knowing a word (Nation, 2001).

**Computer Assisted Vocabulary Learning:** Computer is an instant and effective way of vocabulary learning process. It provides opportunity for repetition and retrieval. Programs can supply the knowledge of the written and spoken forms of the word, word parts, grammar, collocations and restrictions on use, meaning and association. A variety of exercise types, noticing, retrieval and generative use are encouraged by computers. A concordance is a list of contexts giving example of a words or word family. Use of concordances promotes vocabulary learning. For example, learners come across vocabulary in real contexts. There is rich information or the various aspects of knowing a word such as collocations, grammatical patterns, word family members, related meanings and homonyms. Learners have the chance of the controlling their learning and learning investigative strategies. The use of concordances includes discovery learning. Learners can apply a lot of activities with concordances. The items can be classified in a concordance. Generalisations and rules can be made. It is easier to recall items when the contexts are presented with the concordance (Nation, 2001).

There are on-line dictionaries which are very advantageous in regard to being quick, efficient and precise. They also provide rich graphics and animation (Koren, 1999).

Animated figures or objects can be shown to the learners through the use of the computers in order to illustrate the action or the concept. For example, if students see the word fall down together with the animation of a man falling down, the meaning becomes more permanent in their minds. The same technique can be used to teach the vocabulary related to feelings by benefiting from the animated faces. Also, computers can be used for other types of exercises: After showing a visual clue,

words which are similar in spelling are flashed one after the other and the students are asked to suggest the true answer related to provided visual clue. This shows that computer can also be used at recognition level. Moreover, students can be given visual items which cannot be seen clearly or are not totally given within the frame, so students try to guess the item and provide as many different words as they can. To enrich students' vocabulary games such as bingo, scrabble, puzzles can be played by means of computer. Strategies related to guessing words in context, word building exercises and using dictionaries can be converted into the interactive study with the use of the computer. Computer facilitates learning vocabulary and it has got a lot of advantageous. First of all, the learners feel more motivated thanks to colourful scenes and striking pictures. When they click on the picture, they can hear the person speaking. Also they have the chance of hearing the same sentence several times. Until they master the vocabulary, they can go over the exercises as many times as they can. In addition to these, the students do not feel stressful while answering the questions on the computer, since they do not worry whether they give the right answer or not. Furthermore, they can receive feedback for their answers immediately (Ekmekçi, 2001).

By means of computer presentations of educational content, students have more chance of increasing their vocabulary (cited in Pressley et al., 1995).

Instead of cliches about vocabulary, teachers should deal with more enjoyable and amusing activities which will facilitate student's progress, as explained above.

## **2.10. Vocabulary Learning**

### **2.10.1. Goals of Vocabulary Learning**

Learners should know what vocabulary to learn, how and how much to learn it, how to use it, to what extent it has been learned. They should increase their vocabulary size and reinforce the words they know. They should pay attention to word frequency and personal needs in order to decide on what vocabulary they should learn. They should learn high-frequency words before low-frequency words. Also learners should be aware of the aspects of knowing a word. It includes knowing the written and the spoken forms of the word, using it grammatically correctly with suitable collocations, interpreting and creating other words by using inflectional and derivational affixes, knowing the restrictions on the use of the word for cultural, geographical, stylistic, register reasons, the meanings and associations of the word (Nation, 2001).

They should get feedback on errors they make in vocabulary use. They should be skillful at using dictionary and gathering information from seeing words in context. By means of context, they can gain information about grammar, collocation and derivatives (Nation, 2001).

Cooperative activity in groups and group discussion and analysis contribute to their learning more consciously and encourage their reflection on their process. In addition they should be aware of the generalisable language systems lying behind vocabulary use. Despite the irregularity of many aspects of language use, there are regular patterns that can be used to help understand the languages. Spelling, pronunciation, word-building and collocation are the patterns affecting vocabulary use.

Learners can get information about these patterns sometimes from grammar books and sometimes from the teacher (Nation, 2001).

Baumann and Kameenui (cited in Scott et al., 2003) outline three goals for vocabulary instruction: instructing learners how to learn word independently, teaching specific words to the learners, helping learners appreciate words as means of communication.

### 2.10.2. Planning Vocabulary Learning

It includes deciding on where to focus attention, how to focus attention, how often to give attention to the vocabulary.

- a) **Choosing Words:** Learners should determine their vocabulary goals and choose the suitable vocabulary to focus on according to these goals.
- b) **Choosing Aspects of Word Knowledge to Focus on:** Learners should be aware of the aspects of knowing a word. In order to use a word in the context it is necessary to know its important aspects.
- c) **Choosing Strategies:** Learners need a suitable strategy for learning vocabulary. Also it is important to know how to follow this strategy and when to switch to another strategy. In other words they should know how to control their strategy.
- d) **Planning Strategy:** Repeated attention is necessary for vocabulary learning. The use of spaced retrieval is one of the most important strategies to encourage remembering by the help of computer or word cards previously studied items are returned (Nation, 2001).

Learners should get information about the unknown word. All of the aspects involved in knowing a word are necessary for them.

- a) **Analysing Word Parts:** It helps see connections between related words, strengthening form and meaning connections and guessing the meaning of the words.
- b) **Using Context:** Learners can benefit from the context to guess the meaning of the word.
- c) **Consulting a Reference Source:** Learners can use various reference sources to gain information about the word such as formal sources, written sources, oral sources, including asking teachers, native speakers or other learners.
- d) **Using Parallels with Other Languages:** The similarities and differences between the first and the second language affect learning vocabulary closely.

The third strategy includes ways of remembering such as noticing, retrieving and generating.

- a) **Noticing:** It involves strategies like putting the word in a vocabulary notebook or list, putting the word on a word card, orally repeating the word, visually repeating the word.
- b) **Retrieving:** It means recalling of previously met items. Retrieval makes the connection between the cue and the retrieved knowledge stronger. Retrieval can be receptive, productive, oral, visual, overt, covert, in context, decontextualised.
- c) **Generating:** There are various generation such as receptive, productive, oral, visual, overt, covert, in context, decontextualised. Generation strategies consist of attaching new aspects of knowledge to what is known through visualising examples of the word, word analysis, semantic mapping, using scales and grids, rule-based generation by creating contexts, collocations and sentences including the word, mnemonic strategies like key word

technique, using the words in new contexts through listening, speaking, reading and writing (Nation, 2001).

### **2.10.3. Strategy Choice and Use**

Most learning strategies are useful for vocabulary learning. Learners' skills at using strategies are different. Learners can be trained in strategy use and choice. Monitoring and producing feedback on learners' control of the strategies are important. There are various strategies like guessing from context, using word parts, dictionary use and direct learning (Nation, 2001).

Learners should understand the goal of the strategies and know when it works well, gain the knowledge necessary for using the strategy and enough practice to have proficiency in it. Strategy facilitates coping with the words. Teachers should dedicate time to strategy training. To Nation for the strategy development these things should be done: The teacher presents the strategy as a model for the learners. The steps of the strategies are practised. Learners try to use the strategy in pairs. Then they report back on the use of steps in the strategy. Also they report on their difficulties and successes they have had while applying the strategy. Teachers evaluate learner's success at the strategy use and give them feedback. Learners can take advice where necessary by consulting the teachers. Learners should be aware of the effectiveness of the strategies (Nation, 2001).

All the learners do not have the capability for learning vocabulary, so the teachers should train learners to be more autonomous and take more responsibility for learning vocabulary, practising and evaluating their progress (Akın and Seferoğlu, 2004) because “a good

learner is an independent one, that is, one who can carry on learning when the teacher is absent or when their attention is focused elsewhere” (Akin and Seferoğlu, 2004: 2).

Akin and Seferoğlu (2004: 4) point out Wenden’s principles for strategy training in their studies: “Strategy training should include training in self regulation. Strategy training should be contextualised. Strategy training should be interactive.”

Nation (2001: 223) lists some important points about strategy training like the following:

- a. The teacher models the strategy for the learners.
- b. The steps in the strategy are practised separately.
- c. Learners apply the strategy in pairs supporting each other.
- d. Learners report back on the application of the steps in the strategy.
- e. Learners report on their difficulties and successes in using the strategy outside the class time.
- f. Learners consult the teacher on their use of the strategy, seeking advice where necessary

Learners should be trained about strategy choice and use. If a learner does not know what approach to take with strategies, he cannot guide his vocabulary learning process very well.

#### **2.10.4. Learners’ Use of Strategies**

Learners can be observed during their strategy use in several ways. Strategy use can change from one learner to other one: self-initiation strategies, activation strategies, dictionary-look-up strategies, extended dictionary strategies, meaning oriented note-taking strategies (Nation, 2001).

Some learners approve of learning through natural exposure as in reading is more useful. They focus on the useful words in the context.



On the other hand, some attach importance to memorisation, dictionary use or guessing from the text as well as natural exposure. There are memorisation strategies like association, imagery, visualising the form of a word and breaking the word into parts. In contrast to active strategy users there are also passive strategy users who strongly believe in memorisation (Nation, 2001).

Researchers show that learners usually use strategies such as guessing from context, memorisation and the keyword technique in a bad way. Therefore, learners should be trained about strategy techniques so that they can use them consciously and effectively. Personal needs and goals affect learners making decision about what vocabulary was important for them. Memorisation should not be the only aim. It should be a means for learning. Learning should be balanced across learning from meaning-focused input, direct learning, learning from output and fluency development. Elaboration strategies, repetition and word feature analysis strategies, mnemonic strategy are the other strategies used by the learners, but repetition is the most frequently used strategy by them. Researchers show that learners who are good at recalling words they have learned are the ones who use strategies. A poor awareness of what is involved in learning a language, limited control of language learning strategies, expectations and strategies from previous learning experience can cause bad vocabulary learning whereas the learners should know their purpose of learning, understand their needs and be aware of the strategies (Nation, 2001).

Learners can select some words to learn. They can write these words on index cards together with a synonym, antonym, translation and example sentence. Also the translation can be written on the back. They can share this knowledge with each other. The other can ask questions about the word or make suggestions. They can work in pairs. Later, each

learner is tested. Learners can use their words in their writing. Learning from context consists of learning from extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversation, learning from listening to stories, films, television, radio (Nation, 2001).

#### **2.10.5. Types of Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

By means of the strategies, the efficiency of vocabulary learning can be increased (Nation, 2001). English language teachers should employ a variety of vocabulary learning techniques such as situations, demonstrations, games, songs, keyword method, association, context, paraphrase, collocations (cited in Aksungur, 2000). Students should both know these strategies and learn to apply them. Pressley et al. (1995) also believe that “vocabulary instruction makes good sense if teachers and students use powerful strategies for increasing student vocabulary” (103). As Akin and Seferoğlu (2004) point out, the results of several studies demonstrate that “learners who are able to use various strategies and therefore control their own vocabulary learning effectively are more successful than the ones who are not” (3).

To Yazar (1997), teachers can teach students some strategies they can use to practise new vocabulary. Since students do not know the necessary learning strategies, they cannot continue learning vocabulary on their own. Students can use picture cards. They illustrate the item on one side of the card via drawing or pictures from magazines. On the other side, the names of the item together with the pronunciation are added. Part-Whole relations diagrams are useful. The learner writes the parts of a whole in a diagram such as parts of the body. Vocabulary flash cards can also be used. On one side the new word, its part of speech and other forms

of the word are written. On the other side, a short description, sample sentences are written. Besides, words can be written in a list form with a noun, verb, adjective and adverb columns. Word category charts can be used. Related words are listed below a chosen area or place through semantic mapping method. First concepts and relations are arranged on paper to constitute a semantic map. The key concepts are highlighted in a diagram and linked with related concepts by the help of arrows or lines. Aside from these, learners can make a list of words they know and write the synonyms or antonyms of the words opposite to their lists. Hyponyms are also beneficial. Learners should learn the collocations of the words they learn. Association, dictionaries, crossword puzzles and reading may help learning vocabulary.

To McCarthy (1990), there are various strategies employed by learners coping with the new vocabulary. He believes that guessing and inferences about the new words are the most common strategies. He adds that there are also other strategies such as asking classmates, asking teacher, overlooking, asking about meaning by demanding English paraphrase or synonym, asking for Turkish equivalent, group work, using dictionary, paraphrasing and helping each other. To him, one single method is not enough. Instead, learners should operate various techniques.

By means of the diversity in methods and techniques, students can be guided and motivated better.

#### **2.10.5.1. Guessing from Context**

Guessing from context is one of the most important vocabulary learning strategies. Pressley et al. (1995) refer to Sternberg who states that most of the vocabulary words are learnt incidentally within the context as part of reading and conversation. Learners need to know a large amount of

the words in the text in order to be able to guess from context effectively. An important factor influencing guessing is learner's vocabulary size, because it determines the density of unknown words in a text. Another important factor in guessing is learner skill. The form of the word, affixes and the stem help the learner to guess the meaning of the word. They are useful steps (Nation, 2001).

To Nation (2001): "Learning from context is a cumulative process where meaning and knowledge of form are gradually enriched and strengthened" (236). As for Russell he believes that the first and the most valuable skill a learner can get is the ability to understand the meaning of a word from the context. The context of a word consists of the other words surrounding it in the sentence, the other sentences surrounding it in the paragraph, and the whole situation in which the word is used. They all clarify the meaning. Sometimes a synonym can occur together with an unfamiliar word in the same sentence. These synonyms can be used as clues to the meaning of the unfamiliar word. Also some phrases like "that is, in other words, refers to and for instance" can help the learners to guess the meaning of the word. On the other hand, some sentences give clues about the meaning of the unfamiliar word by telling what the word does not mean. In other words the clues give the opposite or contrasting meaning of the word (Russell, 1982).

Incidental vocabulary learning occurs when learners read. They learn both new words and enrich known ones, improve their grammatical structure, reading skill so reading becomes an enjoyable activity (Nation, 2001).

Pressley et al. (1995) refer to the study of Carnine, Kameenui and Coyle who found out that "learning was optimal when the distance between the unknown word and contextual information was minimal" (104).

Both direct vocabulary learning and incidental learning are useful. By the help of vocabulary learning from context, reading becomes more enjoyable activity for learners (Nation, 2001).

The word form, its meaning, the part of speech of the word and its collocates can be learned from context. The knowledge of the word and the analysis of the linguistic context are also important for guessing (Nation, 2001).

Seeing the word in a context and then looking at its definition facilitates vocabulary learning (Nation, 2001).

Context clues should be followed easily. Teachers should try to draw learner's attention to these clues and train them to recognise and use the clues. Nation (2001) indicates Carton's three categories as "interlingual clues based on L1, loan words in L1 or knowledge of other languages, intralingual cues based on knowledge of English, contextual cues based on the text or informant's knowledge of the world" (242). The use of italics, quotation marks, bolding, picture, diagrams can help guessing. To Jenkins and Dixon (cited in Nation: 243), number of occurrences, proximity of recurrence, variability of context, presence of relevant clues, proximity of relevant clues, number of relevant clues, explicitness of relevant clues, density of unknown words, importance of the unknown word to understanding the text, prior knowledge of the topic, familiarity of the referents, concrete and abstract referents, amount of polysemy affect the chance of guessing and learning from context.

Studies about guessing from context show that there is a connection between guessing skills and vocabulary knowledge, reading skill, reading comprehension and verbal IQ. An important difficulty in the process of guessing words from context is the form of the word. By applying faulty approaches learners can misinterpret the text. Another

important factor affecting guessing from context is the similarity between the first and the second language of the learner (Nation, 2001).

There are several variables affecting guessing such as the context, the word to be guessed, the number of times the word is repeated, the distance between the clues. There are also variables related with the person trying to guess. Learners have different abilities, knowledge. A good guesser benefits from various clues. Proficiency in L2 is a factor affecting guessing. Learners approach guessing in a different way. They should bring their background features to guessing. Teachers can help learners improve learning from context. To Nation (2001), there are four ways:

Helping them to find and choose reading and listening material of appropriate difficulty, encouraging them to read a lot and helping them gain a lot of comprehensible spoken input, improving their reading skills so that they read fluently and with good comprehension, providing training in guessing from context (250).

Good readers can guess better. Presenting words to learners before reading and defining words as they occur in context contribute to vocabulary learning. Drawing attention to words enables the learners to learn the words better. Attention drawing has some steps. First, the word is drawn attention by the help of pre-testing, pre-teaching, seeing a list before reading, highlighting, having a list while reading. Then the teacher can provide access to the meaning through glossing, definition through pre-teaching, definitions while listening to the text, hyper-text look-up and dictionary look-up. Later teachers motivate attention to the word by means of follow-up exercises, noting contexts while reading. Also dictionaries are the important contributors to the process of vocabulary learning. Glossing increases comprehension. Learners are affected by the form of the word if the word resembles a known word, the learner can guess the meaning wrongly. If the form contains familiar parts this may guide the guess.

Sometimes collocation facilitates the guessing. The density of unknown words and the size of the context also affect success at guessing. Words representing unfamiliar concepts are more difficult to guess than words representing known concepts (Nation, 2001).

There are major exercise types for practising guessing from contexts such as matching a given synonym with a word in the text, filling a blank with a suitable word, providing words before reading and then seeing if the learner can use context to find the meanings of the words; developing awareness of text features that could help guessing (Nation, 2001).

The aim of guessing procedures is to make learners fluent and skillful at guessing. Some procedures approach the guess in an inductive way, while the others approach in deductive way. According to inductive procedure, learners decide on the part of speech of the unknown word examine the immediate context of the word together with relationships between the sentences or clauses in the wider contexts. After these steps they guess and check if the guess is logical. On the other hand, according to deductive procedure, learners first guess the meaning then justify the guess and read just the guess when necessary. As a result, guessing from context is a sub-skill of reading and listening. It depends on reader's proficiency and ability. Teachers should involve the class working together in groups, pairs. Teachers should model the procedure first. They can apply regular guessing from context tests. By means of this strategy, a lot of words can be learned; it contributes to reading and listening comprehension. It is one of the significant ways of increasing vocabulary (Nation, 2001).

Çakır (2004: 106) also thinks that

Contextualised activities facilitate learning any topic as it makes them work out the meanings of unknown language from a situation or a context. Thus, the unknown language becomes more meaningful when contextualised than when presented in a single sentence having no explanation that helps to make the meaning clear. If the language to be introduced in the classroom is accompanied with visuals along with the contexts, retention would be longer.

Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum (cited in Pressley et al.: 104-105)

proposed some strategies for guessing from the context:

1. Substitute a word or expression for the unknown word.
2. Check the context for clues that support your idea.
3. Ask if the substitution word fits all context clues.
4. Need a new idea\_ a new substitution word?
5. Revise your idea to fit the context, probably resulting in a different substitution word.

If the surrounding text is too difficult, students have difficulty in guessing the meaning of an unknown word (Waring, 2002) whereas readers should know 95% of the words in the text so as to comprehend a text (cited in Koren, 2004).

According to researches, intentional vocabulary learning is more effective than incidental vocabulary learning. While the intentional vocabulary learning is an intended learning activity, incidental vocabulary learning does not include such an intention and conscious effort (Koren, 1999).

According to Knight's (cited in Koren, 1999) study, inferred meanings are recalled better than given meanings, but it also leads to some problems. Readers can make wrong inferences and learn the words incorrectly. For example, they can make mistakes because of deceptive morphological structure or multiple meanings, idioms, false cognates.

Students should look at the whole sentence first to detect the unfamiliar word. They should try to learn to what extent they can understand the sentence without knowing the word. Then they can try to



guess the part of speech of the word. Later they can try to find possible meanings for the word. So students should not look up in their dictionaries for every unknown word. First they should try to guess the meaning. Students should think about the sentence before looking up the word. Students can work together on the different definitions of the words and they can discuss if the words are suitable for the sentence and which meaning fits context best. In English-English dictionaries there is valuable information. By means of a learner's dictionary students can see which word accompanies the word looked up by the students. Also learner's dictionaries can include pictures. At the advanced level students learn the new meanings of the old words they have learned before such as head, square, market (Nation, 2001).

While good language learners make educated guesses when they come across with unknown word, poor language learners prefer looking up every unfamiliar word (Oxford, 1990). Not only beginners but also the advanced learners and even native speakers benefit from guessing because "Guessing is actually just a special case of the way people typically process new information, that is, interpreting the data by using the immediate context and their own life experience" (Oxford, 1990: 48).

All these show that most researchers believe in the benefits of guessing from context which is an easy and practical strategy.

#### **2.10.5.2. The Word Part Strategy**

It includes two steps. Learners break the unknown word into parts. Of course learners should recognise prefixes and suffixes in the words for doing this. Then they try to understand the relationship between the meaning of the word parts and the meaning of the word (Nation, 2001). Long words consist of small word parts such as prefixes, suffixes, roots. In

Russell's (1982) opinion, the meaning of any unfamiliar word is the sum of its parts, so by breaking a word down into its parts and knowing the meaning of common prefixes, suffixes and roots a learner can guess the meaning better. Understanding the meaning of common prefixes, suffixes and roots can help the learner perceive the unfamiliar words encountered during reading and be aware of the word origins. However, understanding a word's meaning does not ensure that the word will be remembered when you need it in a conversation (Russell, 1982).

By adding prefixes or suffixes we can change the form of words. These affixes can be categorized into two groups as inflectional, derivational. While inflections do not change the part of speech of the word, derivational ones change. Building new words by gaining control of prefixes and suffixes can increase vocabulary. Inflected and derivational relationships affect the speed of recognition. According to the area of specialisation, specific prefixes or suffixes can be studied. Learners need to know some important things so as to make use of word parts. For receptive use learners should know a complex word is made up of parts and they can occur in other words. Also, learners should know the meanings of the parts. They should recognize how the meanings of the stem and affix come together to make a meaningful unit. For productive use, the learner needs to be aware of the formal change to the stem and the affix that can occur when they are combined to form a complex word. These changes can influence the pronunciation and the written form. Also, the learner needs to know which form class of stem can take certain affixes. Dealing with one affix at a time is better. Frequency is important for learning word-parts. Some of the words do not rely on regular, frequent patterns. It is better to learn them as unanalysed wholes (Nation, 2001).

As well as external context clues, internal context clues are also important. There are significant findings emphasizing the importance of

these internal clues. To illustrate, Graves and Hammond (cited in Pressley et al., 1995) taught nine-prefixes about three days to the seventh-graders. These learners could infer the meanings of the words more easily, since they knew some of the prefixes. In a similar study, Nicol, Graves and Slater (cited in Pressley et al., 1995) reached the same results with fourth, fifth and sixth graders.

To Pittman (2003: 1), “By slowly and steadily studying the most prominent prefixes, roots, and suffixes, students can acquire a vocabulary that is far greater than the sum of its parts.” The new words which seem complex are in fact made up of simple word parts such as prefix, suffix and root.

There are various game-like activities that can be applied after students learn certain affixes such as ‘word-making and ‘word-taking’, Bingo type games and analysis activities. In word-making and word-taking activity learners use cards with affixes and stems on them and they try to put them together to make words. As to analysis activities, learners break the words into parts, group words with similar parts and then match parts and meanings. Furthermore, learners can teach one another prefixes and suffixes in pair work. One of the learners acts as a teacher, so has a list of words with their prefixes and meanings of prefixes. The other learner folds the paper thus he can only see the meanings. The teacher waits for the learner to find the meaning after saying a word and its prefix. The learner has three chances to find the meaning. Teachers should present the analysis of words as model and re-express word meanings as much as possible. The word part strategy is beneficial for high-frequency and low-frequency words. Prefixes, bases, suffixes are important for learning vocabulary. As a result, teachers should decide on which affix learners should learn. In order to check what they know about them, the teachers should test the learners. Also they should arrange some activities to

facilitate their learning affixes. They should be aware of the factors causing difficulty in recognising and using word parts (Nation, 2001).

### **2.10.5.3. Dictionary Use**

Another important strategy is dictionary use. Russell (1982) believes that “the dictionary has been, and will continue to be, the most valuable tool ever invented for improving vocabulary” (163). Dictionaries are used for comprehension, production, learning. Comprehension (decoding): We can look up unknown words in the process of reading, writing, translating; confirm the meanings of some words and guesses from context. Production (encoding): We can look up unknown words to speak, write or translate. We can get information about the spelling, pronunciation, meaning, grammar, constraints on use, collocations, inflections and derivatives from dictionaries. It is also possible to check the existence of a word, find a different word rather than a known one and correct an error (Nation, 2001).

It is possible to enrich knowledge of partly known words. Dictionary use takes time. It is especially useful for the learners who aren't good at guessing from context (Nation, 2001).

Receptive use of dictionaries includes looking up the word's meaning which was met during reading or listening. First learners try to get information about the word. For this purpose they try to decide on the part of speech of the word if the word is inflected or derived. Then they try to guess the general meaning of the word. They decide if the word is worth looking up. The next step is to find the dictionary entry. Skills needed for this step involves knowing the order of the letters of the alphabet; knowing the dictionary symbols for different parts of speech; knowing alternative

places to search such as separate entries, sub-entries, word groups, derived forms, appendixes. In the dictionaries we can get information about the part of speech, the meaning, a sample sentence, variant spellings of the word, if the word is countable or uncountable, derivation, the phonetic guide to the pronunciation, spelling of the word, the year or century in which the word was first used in English. The third step includes choosing the right sub-entry. For this reason, all the sub-entries are scanned. In the last step the meaning is related to the context and learner decides if it fits (Nation, 2001).

On the other hand, productive use of dictionaries includes finding word forms to express message. There are important steps to follow such as finding the wanted word form, checking that there are no constraints on the use of the word, working out the grammar and collocations of the word and checking the spelling or pronunciation of the word before using it (Nation, 2001).

According to Russell (1982: 164), a good dictionary should answer these questions:

How are the entry words separated into syllables—by dots or by spaces? Does the key to the pronunciation symbols appear at the bottom of every page? Do you understand how to use this key to help you pronounce each symbol? Do the accent marks appear before or after each accented syllable? Do you understand what a secondary accent means? When more than one spelling or pronunciation is given, which is listed first- the one that is most commonly used by most people, or the one that is preferred by most authorities? Do you understand how to read the symbols and abbreviations that tell you the origin of a word? Do you understand the meanings of the usage labels that this dictionary uses?

There are three kinds of dictionary as monolingual, bilingual, bilingualised. Monolingual dictionaries were written in one language. They contain more information than bilingual dictionaries. On the other hand, bilingual dictionaries use two kinds of language. A bilingual

dictionary includes little information about each word, but also bilingual dictionaries have some advantages. First of all they provide more understandable meanings and have easy access to vocabulary for productive use. Bilingualised dictionaries include the information that is in a monolingual dictionary and a translation of the head word. Monolingual dictionary shows that meaning can be expressed by a definition as well as by a single word. Bilingual dictionaries meaning should be conveyed through a single word and so discourage the use of the paraphrase. Nation claims that a word cannot be learned in one meeting. Each meeting is a small contribution to learning. Learning a word should involve four strands of meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency development. Dictionary use is a sort of language-focused learning, a deliberate study words (Nation, 2001).

Bilingual dictionaries are often considered as inferior to monolingual dictionaries. Bilingual ones provide simple one-to one relationship between words in the source language and target language. In other words, there is limited information. However, if they are used skilfully and intelligently, they can be successful in McCarthy's (1990) opinion.

According to Carter (cited in Ekmekçi, 1999), the use of bilingual dictionaries is favourite especially for the beginning and intermediate students, but dependence can give harm to these students. However, monolingual dictionaries are preferred by the native speakers. Also, there are monolingual dictionaries which were designed for the ESL students.

#### **2.10.5.4. List Learning**

List learning is one of the most common types of word learning. Pairs of words are put in the list together with the translation, but it is better to cover one side of the list and make the necessary mental effort to recall the words before looking at its translation. If we do not force our brains to remember the word, this method becomes inefficient. In this type of learning, it is necessary to learn the words in turn because list learning does not let us change the order of the words, so the learner can sometimes waste time while looking at the words already known. Also this method has got another disadvantage. The things are recalled best in the way that they are learned. If learners demonstrate their knowledge in another way, the words may not be remembered. List learning is usually regarded as translation dependent, behaviourist, boring. It is criticised since it does not suit all the learners. It only gives opportunity to get a grip on the form and meaning. It does not help the learner to learn how to use the word (Waring, 2004).

Rote learning includes items' mental storage which has little or no association with existing cognitive structure (cited in Ekmekçi, 1999).

#### **2.10.5.5. The Keyword Technique**

It is a mnemonic technique in which mental imagery is used (Pressley et al., 1995). The keyword technique is a way of constructing a strong connection between the form of an unknown word and its meaning. After meeting the unknown word and finding its meaning the learner thinks of first language keyword which resembles the beginning part of the word or the whole unknown word. Then the learner tries to think of a

visual image where the meaning of the unknown word and the meaning of the keyword is connected (Nation, 2001). In other words, the learner constitutes a visual image in which the keyword and the definition interact (Pressley et al., 1995).

Lucas (2001: 190) outlines five steps to make this technique clear:

1. Read the word and its meaning to be familiar with it.
2. Develop a sound-alike word picture for the vocabulary word or term if necessary.
3. Develop sound-alike word pictures for the meaning to make it tangible.
4. Analyse the material you are learning to decide which learning method to apply.
5. Develop a memory aid picture and record it for later review.

Pressley et al. (1995) present a concrete example about the Spanish word *pato* which means duck: The learner can use the English word *pot* as the keyword and imagine a duck hiding under a flower pot. On the other hand, Oxford (1990) refers to the example of a person called Brian who links the French word *froid* (cold) with *Freud* and imagines Freud standing outside in the cold.

Psychological principles drawn upon by the keyword method are those:

- a. meaningful stimuli are far more reliably encoded than nonmeaningful stimuli;
- b. interacting items are more reliably associated than noninteracting items;
- c. The greater the similarity between two stimuli, the more reliably one will evoke the other; and
- d. Thematic interactions are reliably retrieved from appropriate cues (cited in Pressley et al., 1995: 109).

This technique has positive effects. It is effective for recall of definitions, sentence completion tasks, story comprehension, in productive recall, learning verbs, abstract nouns, and adjectives (Pressley et al., 1995). It is also enjoyable technique. To be effective learners need training with



this technique. Finding a keyword can sometimes be difficult. Learner's imagination plays an important role in this technique. Whenever a word is difficult to remember this technique can be applied. Learners should know how important retrieval is in learning. By not letting the word form and meaning occur simultaneously, word cards encourage this. They should give importance to repeating and spacing learning long term review. Learners should try to transfer the learning from word cards to meaning focused language use (Nation, 2001).

Some researchers compared the keyword method with the learning-from-context method. According to findings, the keyword method was at least as effective as and generally more effective than learning-from-context method. To illustrate, Levin et al. (cited in Pressley et al., 1995) studied with fourth and fifth graders to compare these methods. While one group received the mnemonic keyword method, the other group received a contextual-analysis strategy. As a result, the group using keyword method recalled the definitions of vocabulary words 50% more than the learners applying the contextual analysis.

In another study, also Pressley et al., Ross, Levin, and Ghatala (cited in Pressley et al., 1995) proved that the keyword method was superior to another contextual approach. They presented a list of 22 low-frequency English nouns and definitions to ten-to-thirteen –year-olds. Half of the items were studied through the keyword method, while the half of them was studied by forming sentence contexts with the target words. The findings revealed that “definitions of 51% of the keyword items were recalled in contrast to 8.5% of the context definitions. Definition recall of keyword items exceeded that of context items for 93% of the children” (Pressley et al., 1995: 110).

Moreover, the keyword method can increase vocabulary learning in “poor learners, including learning disabled students, low verbal

ability children, and mentally retarded children” (Pressley et al., 1995: 110).

Mnemonics are ‘memory tricks’ allowing the learner to remember words easily. The foreign word’s meaning is connected with a sound and an image. To accomplish this, the learner can create a story about the new word. As researches show, it is the most effective method to learn word pairs. Mnemonic techniques can also be used to remember the names, places, dates. Due to the multiple connections the bonds between the new vocabulary and the rest of the lexicon are strengthened (Waring, 2004).

#### **2.10.5.6. Contextual Redefinition**

This strategy was developed by Tierney, Readence, Dishner (1995). This strategy has five steps such as selecting unfamiliar words, writing a sentence, presenting the words in isolation, presenting the words in a sentence, dictionary verification. First, the teacher identifies the words which are central to understanding the important concepts. The teacher writes a suitable context for each word with clues to its meaning. Then the students provide a meaning for the unfamiliar word and they come to an agreement about the best meaning. Later, the teacher presents the word in a sentence and asks the students to provide a meaning for the unfamiliar word again. The students provide the rationale for it in order to defend their guess. So as to verify the guesses volunteers can look up the word in the dictionary (Bushman, 2001).

### **2.10.5.7. Possible Sentences**

Possible Sentences is a vocabulary strategy which is based on students' examination of new vocabulary terms by using prior knowledge and prediction. This strategy includes five steps: listing key vocabulary, eliciting sentences, reading and verifying sentences, evaluating sentences, generating new sentences. After reading selection's previewing, the teacher lists the vocabulary terms and pronounces them. By using at least two words from the list the students try to make up sentences that they believe might be found in the text. Meanwhile the teacher writes the sentences on the board and highlights the vocabulary items from the list. The teacher goes on until the words from the list have been used at least once. Students read the sentences on the board to verify their accuracy. The teacher uses the text as a reference and prompts discussion as each sentence is evaluated. Incorrect and unrelated sentences are erased or changed according to the text. Students should read the text carefully so as to make a judgement on the accuracy of their sentences. After the evaluation of the sentences on the board, the teacher encourages the students for new sentences using the vocabulary in the list. This strategy enables students to engage in oral communication, listening comprehension, written communication. A text which will include a lot of unfamiliar words for the students is unsuitable. Instead, "a text that provides definition of terms within the context is best suited for use with this strategy" (Bushman, 2001: 178). As seen, this strategy is an enjoyable one which facilitates vocabulary learning.

### **2.10.5. 8. Vocabulary Self Collection Strategy**

This strategy was developed by Haggard in 1986. She thought that students will be interested in vocabulary which is in the text they are reading. This strategy aims to build students' capabilities of vocabulary usage by enabling them to generate vocabulary terms. It involves four strategies:

1. Select the words. As students read through their text assignments, they are to identify one word that they would like to learn more about. The teacher should also select a word.
2. Define the word. Students are then asked to present the selected words to the class. The teacher records the words on the board, and each word is defined, used in context, and supplied with a reason for suggesting that this word should be learned. A discussion is led by the teacher to clarify each word's meaning and to generate additional information from other students in the class or from the teacher.
3. Finalizing the Word Lists. After the discussion of the words generated by the students, the list of words is reviewed. During the review, words that are familiar to the students or duplicated by other suggestions are discarded, and a final list of new words remains.
4. Extending Word Knowledge. Activities that use the new words should be included in the lessons to develop students' proficiency in using the new vocabulary words (Bushman, 2001; 179).

Before the students start to read, they should be aware of the important vocabulary in their reading material.

### **2.10.5. 9. Semantic Mapping**

It is an effective teaching strategy which contributes to vocabulary learning. After presenting vocabulary to the students, the teacher enables the students to do brainstorming the related vocabulary. Then these related associations are organized into meaningful categories. Each word is introduced in connection with other words which are similar

in meaning. The teacher also records the similarities and differences between the familiar concepts on the semantic map. Finally, the accuracy of the students' predictions is checked through dictionaries. Some researches show that students who benefited from semantic mapping during vocabulary learning process demonstrated more immediate and long-term retention for target vocabulary than the learners who tried to learn the same words in context. Also, they had more superior knowledge of target vocabulary items and were more successful at tests (Pressley et al., 1995).

Hague (cited in Ekmekçi, 1999: 15) describes six steps for creating a semantic map:

1. Write the target word on the chalkboard or transparency.
2. Have the class members brainstorm words related to the topic.
3. Write/list the words by categories in the form of a map.
4. Have the students provide labels for each category (optional)
5. Discuss the words on the semantic map. Students should be encouraged to discover how the concepts are related to each other.
6. Revise the map after discussion.

On the other hand, according to Oxford (1990: 61-62), "This strategy involves arranging concepts and relationships on paper to create a semantic map, a diagram in which the key concepts (stated in words) are highlighted and are linked with related concepts via arrows or lines." This strategy involves various memory strategies such as grouping, using imagery, associating. Oxford believes that this strategy is valuable, since it improves memory and comprehension of new expressions. It is possible to benefit from semantic mapping in pre-reading, pre-listening or entire reading and listening activities. Semantic mapping also requires a good note-taking format. There is not one specific right answer in exercises relying on semantic mapping, since students have different approaches about ideas (Oxford, 1990).

#### **2.10.5.10. Note-Taking**

Note-taking includes noting a new vocabulary item during reading, trying to learn its meaning through looking it up and asking, using it several times, keeping a notebook for the new vocabulary (cited in Saltuk, 2001).

A vocabulary notebook is the most common written record for students. It is easy to carry these small notebooks and study at any time. Some students have more organized notebooks. The more organized a notebook is, the more efficient learning is. Teachers can learn a lot about their learning process and performance by examining their written records, problems with spelling, mistranslations, their strategies because they are important feedbacks (McCarthy, 1990).

McCarthy (1990) thinks that “The very act of writing a word down often helps to fix it in the memory and written records of vocabulary items can take different forms, such as L2 vocabulary notebook” (1990: 127). Oxford (1990) states that writing a word down facilitates memorizing.

McCarthy (1990) believes that note-taking about new vocabulary is an important part of language learning for many students. Writing down a word strengthens the word meaning in the memory.

#### **2.10.5.11. Association**

Knowing the associations of the word causes understanding the full meaning, remembering the word form or its meaning in a suitable context. The association is the result of meaning systems that the word fits

into. It includes synonyms, antonyms, words in a part, whole relationship and superordinate. Learners can find substitutes of the words in a text. They can explain the connections between some related words either in pairs or in small groups. They can make a semantic map together with the teacher. They can classify the words into groups according to their characteristics. They can find opposites. They can try to perceive the cause and effect relationship between the words. Students try to produce as many words as possible for a listed category (Nation, 2001).

### **2.11. Language Learning Strategies**

Many scholars investigated the language learning strategies and attempted to identify them in certain frames. They aimed to find the most effective ones which help the learners more efficiently. Notable studies were conducted such as Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco's (1978) study, Rubin's (1981) study, O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985), Oxford's (1990) study. Various types of data collection were used such as observation and interviews, student self-report and diaries, self-report through questionnaires. Oxford created a comprehensive classification system. There was no clear consensus about the definition and the classification of the strategies. However, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) gained currency in various learning environments. Ellis (cited in Bremner, 1999: 539) praises this classification by saying "perhaps the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date".

Having information about language learning strategies can help learners to get over the obstacles hindering their vocabulary learning.

### **2.11.1. Rubin's Classification of Language Learning Strategies**

Rubin (1981) categorized the language learning strategies into two general categories as strategies contributing the language learning directly and strategies contributing the language learning indirectly. In these two categories, there are three sub-categories which include learning strategies, communication strategies, social strategies (Hismanoğlu, 2000).

Learning strategies can also be grouped into two types as cognitive learning strategies, metacognitive learning strategies. They contribute to language learning directly. Cognitive learning strategies consist of the steps which are used in problem solving requiring direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin classifies six metacognitive learning strategies: clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, monitoring. On the other hand, metacognitive learning strategies are used for regulating language learning. They include some steps such as planning, prioritising, setting goals and self-management (Hismanoğlu, 2000).

Communicative strategies contribute to language learning less directly because they focus on the participation in a conversation, getting your message across, comprehending what you are being told in a conversation. Communication strategies are used in the event of difficulty in communication or misunderstanding (Hismanoğlu, 2000; Saltuk, 2001).

Social Strategies contribute to learning indirectly. They include activities which provide learner's exposure to language and opportunities to practise their knowledge (Hismanoğlu, 2000; Saltuk, 2001).



### 2.11.2. Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

“Learning is a relatively permanent change in the ability to exhibit behaviour; this change occurs as the result of successful or unsuccessful experience” (Klein, 1987). The origin of the word *strategy* arose from the ancient Greek term *strategia* which means generalship or the art of war (Oxford, 1990). Brown (1994) defines strategies as “specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information”(104). Oxford (1990: 1) describes learning strategies as “steps taken by students to enhance their own learning” and “tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence” and “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations” (8).

The characteristics of the language learning strategies are highlighted in a list consisting of 12 items by Oxford (1990: 9):

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teachers.
4. Are problem-oriented.
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. Are not always observable.
9. Are often conscious.
10. Can be taught.
11. Are flexible.
12. Are influenced by a variety of factors.

Learning Strategies facilitate learner's participation in communication and development of communicative competence. There

are a lot of important factors affecting the choice of strategies such as awareness degree, learning stage, learning style, the requirements of task, the expectations of the teacher, age, gender, nationality, personality characteristics, motivation, and the aim of language learning. To illustrate, older learners can use more different strategies than younger ones. Also, recent studies demonstrate that females may use more different language learning strategies than males. Besides, motivated learners want to try a greater range of language learning strategies than the ones who are unmotivated.

Oxford classifies language learning strategies into two main categories as direct strategies and indirect strategies. While direct strategies consist of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, indirect strategies are composed of metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

#### **2.11.2.1. Direct Strategies**

Language learning strategies which involve the target language directly are called direct strategies. Mental processing of the language is necessary for all direct strategies, but this process is accomplished differently and for different purposes (Oxford, 1990).

##### **2.11.2.1.1. Memory Strategies**

It is also called mnemonics. In ancient times before literacy, people used to use memory strategies to remember the necessary information. Memory strategies help learners to store verbal material and then retrieve it when needed for communication. Although memory

strategies are very powerful, they are rarely used by the language students according to some researches.

Memory strategies can be categorised into four groups as creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing actions. Each has subcategories: Grouping, associating/elaborating, using context are the strategies for creating mental linkages. Classifying language material into meaningful units is called grouping. Through grouping, the learner can make the material easier to remember. Groups can be organized according to type of word, topic, practical function, linguistic function, similarity, dissimilarity or opposition. Relating new information to concepts existing in memory is called associating. Placing new words in a meaningful context is another strategy in this group. It helps learners to remember it.

Applying image and sounds involves four strategies: using imagery, using keywords, semantic mapping and representing sounds in memory. Using imagery requires relating new piece of information to concepts in memory through meaningful visual imagery. Semantic mapping involves making an arrangement of words into a picture which has a key concept at the center. Related words are linked with the key concept through lines and arrows. Using keyword requires remembering the words by using auditory and visual links. At the first stage, the new word is identified with a familiar word in one's own language in regard to the pronunciation. After this auditory link, visual link is established by generating an image of some relationship between the new word and a familiar one. Linking the verbal with the visual is very useful for language learning. There are several reasons: Mind's storage capacity increases. Information is transferred to long-term memory through visual images. Visual images facilitate recalling verbal material. There are different types of learners. They can link verbal material with sound, motion or touch.

(cited in Oxford, 1990). The last strategy involves remembering new language information according to its sound. For example, learner can link the new word with another word which sounds like the target word and resort to phonetic spelling or accent marks or rhymes so as to remember the word.

Reviewing has got only one category, structured reviewing. Target language word should be reviewed for remembering better. For structured remembering, the target word is reviewed in spaced intervals. As for employing action, it includes using physical response or sensation, using mechanical techniques. Using physical response requires relating a new expression to a physical feeling or sensation. Using mechanical techniques is also important. Through creative and tangible techniques, target language can be remembered easily.

#### **2.11.2.1.2. Cognitive Strategies**

Cognitive strategies involve manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner. There are four types of cognitive strategies: Practising, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, creating structure for input and output. The most important strategy in this group is practising. It includes repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, practising naturalistically. Repeating means saying something again and again. For this purpose the learner can listen to something several times, rehearse and imitate the native speaker. For the second strategy in this group, the learner can practise sounds through pronunciation, intonation, register or practise the new writing system of the target language. Recombining includes known elements in new ways in order to produce a longer sequence. The last strategy in this

group is also important. The learner should practise the new language in natural, realistic setting. For example, they can participate in conversation, read a book or article, listen to a lecture and write a letter in the new language.

The second cognitive strategy includes getting the idea quickly and using resources for receiving and sending messages. The former one benefits from two techniques to extract ideas: skimming and scanning. By means of this strategy learners can understand what they read and hear more quickly. The latter includes using a variety of resources for understanding or producing meaning. For this purpose, the learner can use print or non print resources.

The third cognitive strategy is analysing and reasoning. This strategy includes five strategies: reasoning deductively, analysing expressions, analysing contrastively, translating and transferring. Reasoning deductively refers to top-down strategy leading from general to specific. It requires using general rules and applying them to new target language situations. The second one includes deciding on the meaning of new expression by breaking it down into parts. The third one requires comparing elements of the new language such as sounds, vocabulary and grammar with the elements of one's own language to determine similarities and differences. As for translating, it involves converting a target language expression into the native language or vice versa. Transferring is the last strategy in this group which is based on applying knowledge of words, concepts or structures from one language to another.

Creating structure for input and output is another strategy in this group. It has got subcategories such as taking notes, summarizing, highlighting. They are all necessary for comprehension and production in the new language. Taking notes involves writing the main idea or some specific points. Summarizing means making a summary or abstract of a

longer passage. As for highlighting, it means using emphasis techniques to focus on important parts in a passage such as underlining, starring, color-coding.

#### **2.11.2.1.3. Compensation Strategies**

Compensation strategies help learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production in spite of limitation in knowledge. They enable learners to produce spoken or written expression in the new language with no complete knowledge. There are two major compensation strategies: guessing intelligently in listening and reading, overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. The former consists of two strategies, using linguistic clues, using other clues. In the absence of complete knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, other language elements, the learner can try to guess the the meanings of what is heard or read by means of language-based clues. These clues can be gained from the target language or learner's own language. Also, the clues which are not language-based can be used to guess the meanings of what is heard or read in the target language in the absence of complete knowledge of the target language. These clues can be gained from the knowledge of context, situation, text structure, personal relationships, topic or general world knowledge.

There are eight strategies to be used for overcoming limitations in speaking and writing: switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, using a circumlocution or synonym. Learners should demand help from someone to provide the missing expression in the target language. Instead of an expression a physical motion can be used such as mime and gesture. When difficulties are anticipated, the learner can avoid

communication partially or totally, sometimes in general or certain topics, specific expressions. Choosing the topic of conversation is another important strategy which is used to direct the communication to one's own interest and knowledge. Adjusting or approximating the message involves changing the message by omitting some items of information, making ideas simpler or saying something different which means almost the same thing. Coining words include making up new words to express the desired idea. As for the last strategy in this group, circumlocution means getting the meaning across by describing the concept, while synonym means using a word which means the same thing.

#### **2.11.2.2. Indirect Strategies**

Indirect strategies consist of metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies help learners to control their own cognition; affective strategies regulate emotions, attitudes and motivations; social strategies enable learners to learn through interaction. They all support language learning without involving the target language directly, so these are called indirect strategies.

##### **2.11.2.2.1. Metacognitive Strategies**

It includes three strategies: centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, evaluating your learning. The first one consists of three strategies, overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, delaying speech production to focus on listening. A key concept, principle or set of materials are overviewed and then associated with what is already known. Three strategies can be followed to

accomplish this strategy: learning the reason of the activity, building the necessary vocabulary, making the associations. Also, learners should pay attention to the specific aspects of the language. Another important thing to do is to delay speech production till listening comprehension skills are better developed.

In arranging and planning the learning strategy, there are six strategies. Finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, seeking practice opportunities. The learners should find out how language learning works by means of reading books and talking with other people and so try to improve their language learning. Organizing is another important strategy. A learner can organize schedule, physical environment, language learning notebook. Setting long-term goals or short-term objectives is also necessary for language learning. The fourth strategy in this group requires deciding on the aim of a particular language task. For example, writing a letter to persuade a friend not to do something rash is a purposeful writing task. Planning for a language task involves four steps: defining the task or situation, detecting the requirements, checking the linguistic resources, determining the necessary language elements and functions. The last strategy in this group is seeking practice opportunities. The learner can go to the foreign language cinema or join an international social club to create opportunities for practising the new language in natural way.

Evaluating the learning is made up of two strategies: self-monitoring, self-evaluating. Both of them are useful for checking the language performance. The former one requires determining the errors in understanding or producing the new language, identifying the important errors and trying to eliminate them. The latter includes evaluating overall progress.



#### **2.11.2.2.2. Affective Strategies**

The term affective is related to emotions, attitudes, motivations, values. These affective factors influence language learning. Language learners can control these factors by means of affective strategies. They consist of lowering anxiety, encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature. Good language learners are the ones who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning. While positive feelings make language learning more effective, negative feelings can damage progress. Teachers can influence the emotional atmosphere of the classroom in three ways: by giving responsibility to the students, providing natural communication, teaching affective strategies.

Self-esteem is one of the important affective elements. It influences the learner's motivation to go on learning. As for anxiety, a certain amount can help learners to reach their ideals. On the other hand, too much anxiety give harm to language learning. Worry, self-doubt, frustration, helplessness, insecurity, fear are the different types of anxiety.

To lower anxiety, three types of strategies can be listed. The first one is using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation. It is possible to tense and relax all the major muscle groups for relaxing. Also, breathing deeply from the diaphragm can make people easy. In addition to this, meditating by focusing on a mental image or sound is another method for relaxing. Aside from these, using music and using laughter are the other strategies used for reducing anxiety.

Encouraging yourself is another important strategy which is necessary for language learners. It includes three strategies. These are making positive statements, taking risks wisely, rewarding yourself.

The last strategy in this group is taking your emotional temperature. It consists of four strategies: listening to your body, using a

checklist, writing a language learning diary, discussing your feelings with someone else. Through these strategies learners can assess their feelings, motivations, attitudes and relate them to the language tasks. If learners do not know how they are feeling, they cannot control their affective side. Learners can observe the signals given by the body. They can also use checklists to discover feelings, attitudes, motivation related to language learning. Besides, a diary or journal can be written to keep track of the events and feelings during language learning process. Moreover, learners can talk with other person in order to discover feelings about language learning.

#### **2.11.2.2.3. Social Strategies**

Social strategies consist of three strategies: asking questions, cooperating with others, empathizing with others. Asking question involves asking for clarification or verification, asking for correction. The learner can ask the speaker to repeat, paraphrase, explain, slow down, give examples. All these are related to clarification or verification. Also the learner can ask someone for correction in a conversation.

Cooperating with others requires interacting with one or more people to develop language skills. It consists of two strategies: cooperating with peers, cooperating with proficient users of the new language. By means of these strategies, learners can both increase their language performance but also self-worth and social acceptance. For example, cooperating with peers can improve language skills. Cooperation can be accomplished with a regular learning partner, a temporary pair or small group. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language such as native speakers can be also very helpful for the development of the language.

Empathizing with others is an important ability to improve language learning. This strategy includes two strategies: developing cultural understanding, becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings. If the learner understands the culture better through empathy, he or she can improve the new language better. Becoming aware of the others' thoughts and feelings, observing their behaviours are the other important strategy in this group (Oxford, 1990).

### **2.11.3. O'Malley's Classification of Language Learning Strategies**

O' Malley in 1985 grouped the language learning strategies into three categories as metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, socioaffective strategies. Metacognitive strategies are necessary for planning learning, considering the learning process, monitoring the learner's production, evaluating learning after completing an activity. Overlooking the processes of language use and learning is important for metacognitive strategies. The advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation are the main metacognitive strategies (Hismanoğlu, 2000; Şener 2003).

Cognitive Strategies are related to specific learning tasks. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualisation, elaboration, transfer, inferencing, can be regarded as the most important cognitive strategies (Hismanoğlu, 2000; Saltuk, 2001).

Socioaffective strategies refer to the social activities and transacting and working with others, in other words, interpersonal relationships. It is possible to include cooperation and question for

clarification as the main socioaffective strategies (cited in Hismanoğlu, 2000; Saltuk, 2001; Şener, 2003).

## **2.12. Personal Characteristics Affecting Second Language Learning**

Learning is an individual process and all the learners do not learn in the same way (Moore, 2001). Learners have certain characteristics which influence their performance and success at language learning. Teachers should take the different personal characteristics of the learners into account (Lightbown & Spada, 1999) and try to meet the needs of the children who bring their diversity to the classroom atmosphere (Cruickshank et al., 2003). Learner characteristics play a vital role in determining and predicting L2 learning speed and success (Els et al., 1984). Cruickshank et al. (2003: 52) emphasize this situation like this:

We must realize that our personal learning style and teaching style generally match. Consequently, we often assume that all of our students enjoy the same kinds of learning experiences we do. Wrong! To be effective, we will have to provide many different kinds of learning activities. In the classroom, variety truly is ‘the spice of life.

In the light of these, it can be said that learner differences should be taken into consideration for better lessons.

### **2.12.1. Intelligence**

Many studies benefiting from various intelligence tests and different methods of evaluating language learning process are good means of determining how successful a learner would be. Some studies showed that intelligence may be related to certain kinds of second language

abilities. For instance, in a study with French students in Canada, it was found that intelligence was related to the development of second language reading, grammar, vocabulary. According to the results of the same study, intelligence was not related to oral productive skills (cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999). On the other hand, some researches pointed out that intelligence might be a strong factor as measured by verbal IQ tests. However, language analysis and rule learning were concerned, intelligence had less important factor (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

### **2.12.2. Aptitude**

Aptitude is a special talent or a kind of gift for L2 learning (Els et al., 1984). There are evidences proving that some individuals have exceptional aptitude for language learning. Learning quickly is the important characteristic of aptitude (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Neufeld (cited in Els et al., 1984: 109) states that “linguistic aptitude as such most certainly exists, for without it language learning as we know it would be quite impossible.” However the researcher also points out that this special talent cannot emerge independently of the intelligence factor. The aptitude factor was investigated through the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) and the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (PLAB) by the researchers who aimed to find out the relationship between the aptitude and second language learning. According to both tests, aptitude consists of four different types of abilities: “the ability to identify and memorize new sounds; the ability to understand the function of particular words in sentences; the ability to figure out grammatical rules from language samples; memory for new words” (Lightbown & Spada, 1999: 31). Earlier research indicated that there is a strong relationship between performance on the MLAT and performance in foreign language learning at a time

when grammar translation and audio-lingual methods were very common, whereas many researchers found that aptitude was irrelevant factor to the language acquisition after the communicative approach was adapted (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Such tests were criticized and believed to be unsuitable, since they do not measure anything except general intellectual ability. Also, some researchers thought that aptitude tests only distinguish the most intelligent students from the least intelligent ones regardless of the students between these two extremes. Moreover, students who score badly on aptitude tests can feel de-motivated and experience failure as a result of this bad result (Harmer, 2001). The belief related to irrelevancy of aptitude is also emphasized in the article written by Els et al. (1984). According to Els et al., these tests cannot indicate what constitutes a special L2 aptitude, if there is such a thing. Also these tests only predict success in foreign language instead of measuring language aptitude.

Successful language learners may not have all the abilities of aptitude. For example, some individuals may have strong memory, while they do not have the other components of the aptitude. However, it is better for the teachers to know the aptitude profiles of the students because they can shape classroom activities for particular groups of students (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

Moreover, aptitude can also differ according to gender. Researches indicate that girls and boys are different in regard to their cognitive characteristics. As the studies report, girls are better at vocabulary, verbal fluency, spelling, writing, reading and mathematical computation, while the boys are more successful at mathematical reasoning, spatial relationship, insight problems (Cruickshank, 2003).

Little research explored that there is a strong relationship between aptitude and language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

### 2.12.3. Personality

A number of personality characteristics are thought to be effective in language learning such as extroversion, inhibition, self-esteem, empathy, dominance, talkativeness and responsiveness. For instance, it is usually believed that an extrovert person can be successful at learning language easily, since they are more active and more willing to take risks with language (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Willis, 1996). Assi (1997) states that they are easygoing, enthusiastic, creative and sociable people. As a result, they can excel in the language easily. They are not afraid to talk to people; they are good at improvising and finding ways to say sentences, trying new and various ways of enhancing their language ability. Nevertheless, some researchers do not agree with this conclusion. They claim that many successful learners do not get high scores on being extrovert (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). For example, in the Toronto study of the 'good language learner' conducted by Naiman et al. in 1978, it was found that there is no relationship between French proficiency and scores on Eysenck's Introversion-Extroversion Skale (Els et al., 1984).

Also, people who are tolerant of ambiguities have tendency to do well in Willis' (1996) opinion. However, introverts are silent in class, listen well, think hard but do not interact and participate sufficiently to improve their language level. Besides, shy and too anxious students cannot gain a lot of success (Willis, 1996). Unlike Willis (1996) who thinks that being introvert is disadvantageous for language learning, Assi (1997) claims that introversion is advantageous for second language learning in her M. A. Thesis. To illustrate, she points out:

Shyness is not a defeat to language learning. With this attitude, you know very well that you are perceptive and orderly. You have, then, the opportunity to observe things. This is how you can easily understand grammatical structures of a language. In other words, you have the

patience to learn in detail. As you apply that attitude to the learning of a language, you will picture the alphabet or characters in the case of an Asian language. The concentration you have will not evaporate since you can be focused on what you want (89).

Brown (1994) thinks that whether extroversion or introversion helps or hinders the process of second language acquisition is not certain because he believes that the extrovert person may behave in an extroverted way in order that he/she can protect his or her own ego. Besides he claims that the introverted people, who are accepted as quieter and more reserved, may show an emphatic understanding and apprehension of others. As for inhibition, it is suggested that inhibition decreases risk-taking which is needed for progress in language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Through the removal of inhibition, a learner can promote language learning (Brown, 1994). The importance of risk-taking is emphasized by Brown (2001: 63):

Successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to become “gamblers” in the game of language, to attempt to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty.

Assi (1997) claims that persistence is an important factor affecting language learning in a good way. Learners should persist in language learning so that they can defy and overcome distraction or discouragement. For this purpose, the learner should focus on what he or she aims to do. They should even challenge themselves in knowing the mistakes. Through trying to improve the weaknesses and to work regularly for the better, ignoring the negative criticism, they can vindicate their willingness to learn the language. According to her, aggressiveness is a good attitude which helps the learner to force themselves for learning “with an unshaken desire to possess something” (Assi, 1997: 85).



Aggressiveness enables the learner to speak out loud. It also gives the learner a feeling of competition and an eagerness to improve and succeed.

Some degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, knowledge of yourself are necessary for carrying out successful cognitive or affective activity (Brown, 1994). Self-esteem is described by Coopersmith (cited in Brown, 1994: 137) like this: "Self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour." As a result of the accumulation of the experiences and assessments of the external world, people constitute their sense of self-esteem. Adelaide Heyde (cited in Brown, 1994) investigated the effects of self-esteem on the performance of American college students learning French for an oral production task. As a result of this study, it was found that self-esteem correlated with performance on the oral production task positively. In addition to this study, Watkins et al. (1991), Brodkey and Shore (1976), Gardner and Lambert (1972) studied the influence of self-esteem on success in language learning. As a result of these, it can be said that self-esteem is an important variable in second language learning (Brown, 1994).

Anxiety is another important factor. It is related to the feelings of uneasiness, frustration and self-doubt. Anxiety has various levels. Trait anxiety is a permanent state of being anxious. It is not useful for second language achievement. However, facilitative anxiety is thought to be a positive form of being anxious because the learner shows some concern for the task in order to be able to accomplish it. This type of anxiety keeps the learner alert. Bailey (cited in Brown, 1994) found that facilitative anxiety was an opening door to success and it is associated with

competitiveness. Brown (1994) believes that too much or too little anxiety can give harm to the process of successful second language learning.

In spite of contradictory results, many researchers believe that personality has an important influence on success in language learning. This relationship does not result from only personality but also from other factors which combine with personality (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

#### **2.12.4. Motivation and Attitudes**

The overall findings indicate that positive attitudes and motivation affect the second language learning in a good way (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Most theorists believe that the term 'attitude' is related to an individual's response to an object or class of objects (cited in Els et al., 1984). On the other hand, Fishen and Ajzen (cited in Els et al., 1984: 116) describe attitude as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object." According to the most of the studies, motivation is a key for learning. It refers to an inner drive or desire which moves a person to a particular action (Brown, 1994). Also, Motivation can be described in terms of two factors as learner's communicative needs and attitudes towards the second language community as some psychologists suggest. To illustrate, if learners need to speak the foreign language, in a range of social situations or to accomplish professional ambitions, they will feel more motivated to learn it. Besides, if learners get favourable attitudes towards the speakers of the language, they can feel more motivated to learn it (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Ausubel (cited in Brown, 1994: 152-153) depicts six needs necessary for motivation as "the need for exploration, the need for manipulation, the need for activity, the need for stimulation, the need for knowledge, the need for ego enhancement." On the other hand, Maslow, in

1970, identified hierarchical human needs such as physical necessities, the needs related to security, identity, self-esteem, the fulfillment of which brings about *self-actualization* (Brown, 1994). Gardner and Lambert (cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) created the terms *integrative motivation* for learning language due to personal growth, cultural enrichment, and *instrumental motivation* which refers to language learning for practical short-term goals. In other words, integrative motivation includes the effort to integrate with the culture of the foreign language and to become part of that culture whereas in case of instrumental motivation, the language is acquired as a means for reaching instrumental goals such as advancing in the occupation (Brown, 1994). One factor affecting motivation is the social dynamic or power relationship between the languages. It means that members of minority group who are learning the language of majority group may have different attitudes and motivation from the members of majority group who are learning a minority language (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

In educational psychology, there is a distinction between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation. The former refers to long-term success, while the latter refers to short-time success. Intrinsic motivation can be described as “motivation which is guided by an interest in the task itself in which one is engaged” (Els et al., 1984). However, the extrinsic motivation is “guided by external stimuli, such as parental approval, offer of a reward, threat of punishment and a good grade” (Els et al., 1984). Most of the researches report that intrinsic motivation is superior to extrinsic, especially for long-term retention (Brown, 1994).

A teacher usually regards the motivated students as the ones who participate in the lessons actively, are interested in subject-matter, study a lot. Teachers can increase the motivation of the students, if they organize their lessons as more interesting and relevant to the students’

age and ability, set manageable and clear learning goals, supportive and non-threatening atmosphere. Graham Crookes and Richard Schmidt (cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) reported the factors increasing motivation. For example, if the teachers point out the forthcoming activities at the beginning of the lessons, students can feel more interested. Varying the activities, tasks and materials can also increase the interest levels of the students. Besides, if the students learn in a co-operative atmosphere instead of competitive atmosphere, they can feel more self-confident and so more motivated according to the findings (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Ur (1996: 274) defines motivated learner “as one who is willing or even eager to invest effort in learning activities and to progress.” If the learner is motivated, then the learning becomes easier, more pleasant and more productive. She describes the characteristics of the motivated learners as “positive task orientation, ego-involvement, need for achievement, high aspirations, goal orientation, perseverance, tolerance of ambiguity” (Ur, 1996: 275).

According to Byrne (1980), “good motivation leads not only to perseverance but to a heightened concentration or intensity of attention that produces more rapid learning” (75).

According to Willis (1996), success and satisfaction are the important factors for sustaining motivation. If they feel themselves successful enough after their individual efforts, they can be more eager to participate in the lessons, so the teacher should achieve goals which will increase students’ success and try to raise their motivation through praise and encouragement. As for Ur (1996), increasing the motivation of the students and strategies to increase the likelihood of success in learning activities should be given importance in the lessons by the teacher.

### 2.12.5. Learner Preferences

Learners can have different preferences about how they are going to learn the new material because they learn language by means of different learning styles. Learning style can be described as “the way an individual begins to process, internalize and concentrate on new materials” (Moore, 2001: 30). Kefe and Ferrell (cited in Çekiç, 2003: 60) define learning style as “cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment.” On the other hand, Dunn (cited in Çekiç, 2003: 60) depicts learning style as “a combination of environmental, emotional, sociological, physical, and psychological elements that permit individuals to receive, store, and use knowledge or abilities.” Some people cannot learn without seeing the material. These are ‘visual’ learners. Some people can be ‘aural’ learners who need to hear something several times before they know it. In contrast to these, some learners can prefer to add a physical action to the learning process, since they are ‘kinesthetic’ learners (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). While some learners learn slowly, the others can learn quickly. Also, some learners need teacher assistance whereas others can learn on their own better. Dunn and Dunn (cited in Moore, 2001) think that learning styles are connected with a person’s preference in four main areas such as environmental, emotional, sociological, physical. They have a profound impact on students’ learning (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). People’s styles emerge as a result of internalizing the total environment (Brown, 1994). Tony Wright describes four different learner styles. The ‘enthusiast’ regards teacher as a point of reference and is enthusiastic about the goals of learning group. The ‘oracular’ has more tendency towards the satisfaction of personal goals. The ‘participator’ focuses on group goals and the ‘rebel’ is more

orientated towards his or her own goals. On the other hand, Keith Willing defines four different types of language learning styles: Convergents like being solitary, avoid groups, can impose their own structures while learning. Conformists prefer learning about language to learning to use it; feel happy to work in non-communicative classrooms. Concrete learners take delight in the social aspects of learning and prefer learning from direct experience. Finally, communicative learners can take risk while learning, are more interested in interacting with the other speakers of the language (Harmer, 2001). Reid identifies six style preferences as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile styles of learning, preferences for group or individual learning (cited in Çekiç, 2003). Unfortunately, little research investigated the interaction between different learning styles and success in language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Students should examine their own needs and goals; teachers should change their teaching styles so as to match the students' stated preferences. Successful and unsuccessful students have different kinds of perceptual learning style preferences. Çekiç (2003) claims that students' achievement and attitude towards subject matter increase significantly, when students are given chance for learning in their preferred mode of instruction.

#### **2.12.6. Learner Beliefs**

Learners have some beliefs and opinions about how their instruction should be given. All these generally result from previous learning experiences and the assumption that a certain type of instruction is the best way for their learning. Little work was done in this area. Nevertheless, available research shows that learner beliefs are effective in the experience of the students in the classroom. Learner beliefs also influence the kinds of strategies the learners choose so as to learn the new

material. Teachers can benefit from this information to expand the learning strategies of the learners (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

#### **2.12.7. Age**

One of the major factors affecting what to teach and how to teach is the age of the students. People have different needs, abilities and cognitive skills according to their ages. For example, children perceive the foreign language generally through play, while adults use abstract thoughts more frequently (Harmer, 2001). The relationship between the learner's age and the success in second language acquisition was the main concerns of the researchers. Many adult second language learners can communicate successfully in the language, but they are not as successful as native speakers and younger second language learners at accent, word choice or grammatical features as studies report (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Most of the researchers claim that children can learn second language more easily and more proficiently than adults (Els et al., 1984). The conditions for language learning are very different in regard to the young and adult learners. Younger learners can have more time to devote to learning language than adult learners. Younger ones have more opportunities to hear and use the language. Also, younger ones do not experience strong pressure to speak fluently and their imperfect efforts are praised and accepted whereas older learners have to deal with more complex language and the expression of more complicated ideas. They feel embarrassed in the event of deficiency in the mastery of the language and so develop a feeling of inadequacy after frustration in trying to say exactly what they mean (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Willis (1996) states that adults differ from children in that they learn faster to begin with because of their cognitive and metacognitive strategies. As to children, they have better

memories but less cognitive strategies. With children, teachers usually use more active methods to reveal their ability to imitate, rote-learn and to speak without being self-conscious. Although adults and children make use of games and problem-solving activities, they benefit from different types. Mark Patkowski (cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) found that age of acquisition is very important for the development of native-like mastery of a second language and native-like mastery of the spoken language is attained by older learners difficultly. In 1978, Catherine Snow and Marian Hoefnagel-Höhle conducted a research to investigate whether success increases according to age. For this purpose, they studied the language development of the English students who are learning Dutch as a second language. The research included young children, adolescents and adults. They were tested in terms of success at pronunciation, auditory skill, morphology, translation, story comprehension, story telling. As a result of testing three times at four-to-five months intervals, the adolescents were the most successful learners who retained the highest levels of performance (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). On the other hand, some experts believe that children learn a new language before puberty better and it becomes more difficult to obtain native-like fluency and pronunciation after puberty, so it can be seen that it is better to begin second language as early as possible according to most of the researchers (Willis, 1996).

The neurologists Penfield and Roberts (cited in Els et al., 1984) claim that the child's greater ability to learn a language results from the brain's greater plasticity. This brain plasticity was found to diminish with age. In order to prove this, they point out that children have a capacity of re-learning language skills even after injury or disease destroys the speech areas in the hemisphere, but adults cannot achieve this because of the loss of brain plasticity. Moreover, Lenneberg (cited in Els et al., 1984) claimed that natural language learning can emerge between age 2 and puberty,



which is called ‘critical period for language acquisition’. Because of the maturation of the brain, language learning is impossible before 2.

According to the study conducted by Fathman (cited in Els et al., 1984), younger children (6-10) were better at pronunciation, while the older children (11-15) were more successful at morphology and syntax. On the other hand, Krashen et al. (cited in Els et al., 1984) reported that even though adolescents and adults have initial advantage over children, children reach the highest level of success.

Harmer (2001) sheds light upon different beliefs about adolescents and adults: Adolescents are usually thought to be unmotivated and uncooperative and so poor language learners. As for the adults, they are believed to have so many barriers hindering learning. To enlighten this fact, he gives the portrait of adults’ characteristics which make learning second language problematic. To Harmer (2001), adults can criticize the teaching methods and feel uncomfortable with the unfamiliar patterns because of their previous learning experiences. Also, owing to the failure or criticism at school experienced in the past, they can feel anxious and under-confident about learning a language.

Ur (1996) expresses the other assumptions about age and language learning. Adults are thought to have longer concentration span than the children. According to other belief, it is suggested that it is easier to motivate children. Ur agrees with this assumption and also adds that it is possible to lose motivation of the children easily because monotonous, ordinary activities can bore and demotivate the children easily, while the adults have more capacity to show tolerance. As a result, Ur (1996: 288) explains this fact by stating that “Younger learners’ motivation is more likely to vary and is more susceptible to immediate surrounding influences, including the teacher; that of older learners tends to be more stable.” As a result of these, it can be seen that there are noticeable

differences between older and younger learners in regard to second language learning processes.

#### **2.12.8. Family Characteristics**

The family of the child is one of the important factors affecting the subsequent success in school. Socioeconomic status, family structure, attitudes and the behaviours of the family members affect academic success both directly and indirectly. For example, the higher the socioeconomic status of the student's family is, the higher his academic achievement is. The relationship was proved through various studies. The socioeconomic status is related to family size which is independently related to achievement. Lower socioeconomic status children frequently start school with a verbal disadvantage, since they are more likely to be born in large families. In these kinds of families, children have limited opportunities for verbal communication with adults. Also, mothers and older children usually spend less time at home, since they are working (Boocock, 1972). As a result of this, it can be said that low socioeconomic status children are educationally disadvantaged (Cruickshank, 2003). The relationship of socioeconomic status with the factors such as birth order, mother's age also affects the achievement (Boocock, 1972).

High-achieving children have tendency to come from families who have high expectations for them. Another factor influencing the academic success is the high level of parent-child interaction. According to the some studies, high achievers have relatively greater warmth, closer relationships and many shared activities in the family. In addition to these, the presence or absence of both parents, their employment status can be also effective in students' success (Boocock, 1972).

### 2.12.9. Cognitive Style

The individual's methods of selecting and processing information are called cognitive or conceptual style. It has the function of linking the school system's expectations and children's characteristics brought from various social backgrounds (Boocock, 1972). Ausubel (cited in Els et al., 1984: 170) describes cognitive style as "self-consistent and enduring individual differences in cognitive organization and functioning." Three kinds of cognitive styles which are related to L2 learning are field dependence (sensitivity)/independence, reflectivity/impulsivity and broad/narrow category width. Field dependence and field independence are the cognitive styles which have been researched more extensively than the others (Els et al., 1984). A field dependent (field sensitive) person sees the forest instead of seeing the trees in it. In other words, these people view situations in their totality (Cruickshank et al., 2003). They are dependent on the total field and cannot perceive the parts within the field easily (Brown, 1994). Therefore, they have difficulty in reading the diagrams. On the other hand, a field independent person sees the trees in a forest, that is to say the details, more easily (Cruickshank et al., 2003). It was also found that there is a connection between field dependency/independency and some personal traits. That is, field dependent people are generally more emphatic and show a stronger 'social orientation', while field independent ones are more individualistic and usually show 'impersonal orientation' (Els et al., 1984). Field-sensitive people are more successful at learning material with social content like social studies, social sciences and literature. Cruickshank et al. (2003) state that "these learners are more responsive to praise and other kinds of reinforcement and more adversely affected by criticism" (52). However, field

independent learners are more curious and self-reliant, less obedient. They get better results at unstructured tasks like problem solving. They have difficulty in working with others. "They need less praise and are less affected by criticism" (Cruickshank et al., 2003: 52). Field dependence and field independence are usually measured by Witkin et al.'s the Embedded Figures Test (cited in Els et al., 1984). Certain degree of both field independence and field dependence is necessary for solving the cognitive and affective problems the learners face according to Brown (1994).

An impulsive person usually makes quick, risky guesses, do the things without thinking seriously, while reflective person have tendency to make slower, more calculated decisions (Els et al., 1984). Consequently, the impulsive people usually tend to complete the tasks incorrectly, since they neglect to read and listen carefully. They are not successful at school tasks requiring analysis and attention, as they rush. Unlike the impulsive students who like to work quickly, reflective students spend considerable time on their work. They have difficulty in making up their minds because they need to consider possible responses before answering. They give more importance to accuracy than speed (Cruickshank et al., 2003). Reflectivity and impulsivity is generally measured by means of the Matching Familiar Figures Test developed by Kagan et al. in 1964. When compared affectively, reflectives are more anxious than the impulsives about their performance. Also reflectives can sustain their attention more than the impulsives. Also, some studies report that impulsive learners make more errors than reflective ones in regard to L1 reading. Els et al. (1984) point out that too much impulsivity can damage L2 learning. Another research conducted by Kagan et al. (cited in Els et al, 1984) reports that reflective people are better at inductive reasoning than the impulsive ones.

People's tendency to categorize items broadly or narrowly is related to the third cognitive style. Broad categorizers have tendency to accept a wide range of items or instances as part of the category and so take the risk of including the items that is not suitable for the category. On the other hand, narrow categorizers have tendency to accept a limited range of items and so take the risk of excluding the items which fit the category. Category width is usually measured by means of Pettigrew's Width Scale (cited in Els et al, 1984). It was found that broad categorizers produce overgeneralization errors whereas the narrow categorizers cannot make the necessary generalizations for the efficient L2 learning. Naiman et al. (cited in Els et al., 1984) who researched the relationship between broad or narrow categorization and second language learning success suggest that the learners should neither generalize too much nor too little for being successful (Els et al., 1984).

### **2.13. Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, vocabulary-related topics, language learning strategies and personal characteristics affecting second language learning have been examined briefly. Firstly this chapter provides an insight into vocabulary teaching and learning in the light of the related research and literature. As a result of this, the chapter emphasizes that vocabulary teaching and learning play a vital role in language which should not be ignored or neglected. The chapter is also important in terms of highlighting the fact that vocabulary teaching and learning can be facilitated by means of convenient strategies.

In addition to this, it is possible to acquire overall information about the language learning strategies proposed by Rubin, Oxford, and O'Malley.

Moreover, the chapter reflects the significance of learners' personal characteristics in second language learning so as to prepare the reader for the study in which vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders and the relationship with their personal characteristics will be investigated.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHOD**

The research model, the participants in the study, data collecting instruments used in this research, the analysis of the data gathered by means of measurement instruments and the statistical process have been defined and examined in this chapter. Also, the distributions of the students in the sample in regard to their personal characteristics are demonstrated in the tables.

#### **3.1. The Model of the Research**

This is a descriptive study which is based on survey.

#### **3.2. The Participants**

The participants of this research include all the ninth graders of Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School, İzmir in the spring term of 2005-2006 academic year. There are totally 21 ninth grades in the school. 504 ninth graders whose level of proficiency is elementary participated in this study. The students who have not marked one of the choices or have marked more than one choice in the “Personal Information Form” or “Vocabulary Learning Questionnaire” have not been taken into consideration and these invalid responses have been ignored in the analysis of data.

The distribution of the participants in regard to their gender, mothers’ educational background, fathers’ educational background, the

number of the brothers and sisters in the family, mothers' occupation, fathers' occupation, income, success at English, having a computer and having a room is shown in the tables below.

**Table 3.2.1.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to their Gender

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Female	276	54.8
Male	226	44.8
Total	502	99.6

**Table 3.2.2.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to their Mothers' Educational Backgrounds

<b>Mother's Educational Background</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Primary School Graduate	279	55.4
Secondary or High School Graduate	77	15.3
University Graduate	4	0.8
Illiterate	102	20.2
Literate but without Diploma	40	7.9
Total	502	99.6



**Table 3.2.3.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to their Fathers' Educational Backgrounds

<b>Father's Educational Background</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Primary School Graduate	256	50.8
Secondary or High School Graduate	168	33.3
University Graduate	35	6.9
Illiterate	15	3.0
Literate but without Diploma	28	5.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>502</b>	<b>99.6</b>

**Table 3.2.4.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to the Number of the Brothers and Sisters in the Family

<b>The Number of the Brothers and Sisters in the Family</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
One	124	24.6
Two	150	29.8
Three	99	19.6
Four and More	123	24.4
No Sisters and Brothers	7	1.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>503</b>	<b>99.8</b>

**Table 3.2.5.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to Their Mothers' Occupation

<b>Mother's Occupation</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Housewife	451	89.5
Civil Servant or Worker	28	5.6
She works in her own company	3	0.6
Manager	2	0.4
Others	19	3.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>503</b>	<b>99.8</b>

**Table 3.2.6.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to Their Fathers' Occupation

<b>Father's Occupation</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Unemployed	31	6.2
Civil Servant or Worker	217	43.1
He works in his company	115	22.8
Manager	8	1.6
Others	127	25.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>498</b>	<b>98.8</b>

**Table 3.2.7.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to Income Acquired by the Family Members

<b>Monthly Income</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Less than 500 YTL	174	34.5
500-1000 YTL	253	50.2
More than 1000YTL	58	11.5
Total	485	96.2

**Table 3.2.8.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to their Success at English in the First Term of the Year

<b>English Marks in the First Term</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
1	56	11.1
2	61	12.1
3	137	27.2
4	135	26.8
5	113	22.4
Total	502	99.6

**Table 3.2.9.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to Having Computer At Home

<b>Having a Computer at Home</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
I have one	115	22.8
I have none	384	76.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>499</b>	<b>99</b>

**Table 3.2.10.** The Distribution of the Students in the Sample in regard to Having a Room at Home

<b>Having a Room at Home</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
I have one	321	63.7
I have none	176	34.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>497</b>	<b>98.6</b>

### **3.3. Data Collecting Instruments**

In order to investigate the relationship between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders and their personal characteristics, the data have been acquired through the administration of a personal information form and vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire. The latter scale in which the statements are based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy was developed by Şener (2003). Both the personal information form and vocabulary learning strategies

questionnaire were prepared and administered in Turkish lest the students should misunderstand and misinterpret the statements in the questionnaire. The personal information form was added to the vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire; the items of the personal information form were followed by the items of latter scale, as a result they together constituted one separate scale consisting of 70 items.

In the personal information form, ten questions were asked to the ninth graders to gather information about their personal characteristics such as gender, mother's educational background, father's educational background, the number of the brothers and sisters in the family, mother's occupation, father's occupation, income acquired by the family members, success at English in the first term of the year, having a computer at home, having a room at home. The data gained about these personal characteristics play a vital role on determining whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of personal characteristics of the ninth graders.

The second scale aims to detect what kinds of vocabulary learning strategies are employed by the ninth graders. It consists of 60 items. These 60 items include 58 vocabulary learning strategies along with the 2 check items. The students have expressed their level of agreement or disagreement on the items by means of a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from "Never" to "Always".

The scale consisting of the personal information form and vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire is presented in Appendix.

### **3.4. Data Collection Procedure**

All data were collected during the spring term of 2006, in May. In the first step, the researcher got permission first from Sabriye

Şener who developed the vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire and then from the manager of Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School. Next, the researcher asked her colleagues to help with the administration of the personal information form together with the vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire to the ninth graders. As a result, the scale was administered by the researcher and her colleagues to 504 ninth graders at Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School simultaneously. The aim and the importance of this research were explained to the students before distributing the materials. Before the students began to answer the questions, instructors gave them brief information about how to answer the questions and reminded the important points which should be paid attention during the process of answering. Students were given forty minutes to answer the questions. They marked their answers of 70 items in KPSS form which consists of five choices from “a” to “e” so that the researcher could analyse the scores by the help of optical scanner. It took one day to complete data collection procedure.

### **3.5. Analysis of Data**

The collected data were analysed first by means of optical scanner and then SPSS 11.0 Statistics Programme. Frequency, Mean, Percentage and Standard Deviation have been used to define and express the data. In addition to these, t-test was used to compare and contrast two groups. On the other hand, the Analysis of Variance was employed in the comparison of more than two groups. Aside from these, the researcher benefited from LSD test in order to determine the origin of the differences between groups. The reliability ( $\text{Alpha} = 0.9435$ ) of the statements in the questionnaire was high.

### **3.6. Chapter Summary**

The chapter has depicted the methodology of the research in detail by focusing on the research model and participants. The reader has also been enlightened about the distributions of the students in regard to their different personal characteristics. In the next step, data collecting instruments and data collection procedure have been clarified. Finally, the analysis of data has been explained.

This chapter performs the function of constituting a connection between the findings and the conclusions of the research. In other words, this detailed information in the chapter aims to enable the reader to interpret the findings and conclusions more easily.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS**

In this part of the study, the findings and the interpretations are presented with regard to each research problem in tables. The aim of giving this information is to inform the reader about the relationship between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by ninth graders and their personal characteristics.

#### **4.1. The Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed By the Ninth Graders**

The first research question aims to find out what learning strategies the ninth graders employ.

The Arithmetic Means and Standard Deviations were calculated through SPSS 11.0. Then the Means were arranged from the highest one to the lowest one. As a result of this, it is possible to see the most and least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies by the ninth graders.

The findings are shown in table 4.1.1.



**Table 4.1.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations of the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Employed By the Ninth Graders

No	S. No	Strategy	$\bar{X}$	Sd
11	43	When I read or hear the explanation of a word, I remember the word I have learned before.	3.9802	1.1330
12	25	I learn the meaning of a word better when I look it up in a Picture dictionary	3.8829	1.2485
13	12	When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a bilingual dictionary (e.g. Turkish-English)	3.8651	1.1837
14	19	If I do not know the word in a written text, I try to guess the meaning of it from the surrounding sentences.	3.7242	1.1852
15	37	When I match pictures with words I have to learn I memorize better.	3.6310	1.2778
16	54	When I learn new words in the class, I write them anywhere available.	3.5437	1.2588
17	69	When I encounter a new word in a text, I stop reading and look it up in a dictionary.	3.5317	1.2826
18	65	Answer this question as you did in the 54th question.	3.4980	1.2736
19	14	When I do not know a word, I ask the teacher to translate it into Turkish.	3.4524	1.3112
20	36	To learn a new word I try to visualize it.	3.4484	1.1903
21	50	When I learn a new word, I say it many times to remember its pronunciation and meaning.	3.4226	1.2104
22	17	If I do not know a word, I ask my classmates for meaning.	3.3929	1.2342
23	11	If I do not know the meaning of a new word, I try to guess the	3.3829	1.0858

		meaning by means of its root, prefix or suffix.		
24	29	I try to remember words by connecting them to something in Turkish (e.g. chasm / Kazım)	3.3810	1.2037
25	30	When I learn a new word or a phrase, I try to associate it with the words that I already know.	3.3710	1.2126
26	20	When I am watching TV, I try to guess the meaning of a word by paying attention to gestures.	3.3671	1.3354
27	33	I try to remember the sample sentences including the new words or phrases.	3.3274	1.1358
28	45	I learn the lyrics of songs, which help me to learn more words.	3.3194	1.4040
29	28	I remember groups of words which are connected in some way. (e.g. colours)	3.2897	1.2640
30	55	I do exercises in the special vocabulary sections of the text books.	3.2679	1.2959
31	66	I review the new words I learned after a certain time. (e.g. a day, a week, a month later)	3.1964	1.2736
32	22	I make a list of words with their meanings to memorize them.	3.1687	1.3675
33	18	If I do not know the meaning of a word, I try to discover the meaning through group work activities.	3.1369	1.3969
34	27	In order to remember words or phrases I think of imaginary pictures in my mind. (e.g. "grin" reminds me a funny character, Kemal Sunal.)	3.1270	1.3985
35	38	I group the words I want to remember (e.g. by colour, size, function, good/ bad or any feature that makes sense to me)	3.0913	1.2997
36	61	I pay attention to the words of native speakers when I speak with	3.0853	1.4179

		them.		
37	49	I write the new words several times not to forget their meanings and spellings.	3.0278	1.3088
38	21	When I am listening to a native speaker, I try to guess the meaning of a word or expression by paying attention to his/her intonation.	3.0139	1.3278
39	31	To remember the adjectives, I try to set them in a scale. ( e.g. huge/big/medium/sized/small/tiny)	3.0020	1.3663
40	26	I learn the meanings of the new words better by looking at the pictures than reading definitions.	2.9802	1.3419
41	40	I remember the pronunciation of a word by connecting it to other words with the same sound.	2.9623	1.2374
42	42	I pay attention to the root or prefix, suffix to reinforce its meaning.	2.9563	1.3007
43	62	I test myself to check my progress in learning the new words.	2.9028	1.2422
44	51	I write the new words on cards which contain the English word on one side and its Turkish meaning on the other side.	2.8571	1.3595
45	56	I study the vocabulary lists at the end of the text book.	2.8552	1.2472
46	63	When I read a newspaper or magazine in English, I underline the new words.	2.8512	1.3360
47	16	When I do not know a word, I ask the teacher to make a sentence including the new word.	2.8452	1.2922
48	15	When I do not know a word, I ask the teacher to explain the meaning of the word in English.	2.8214	1.3669
49	67	I look for opportunities to assemble new words.	2.8194	1.2296
50	34	When I learn a number of words, I imagine them in different places in a room so that I can remember	2.8095	1.3477

		their meanings.		
51	39	When I learn new words, I link them together into a sentence or a story to create a connection with the ones that I already know.	2.8056	1.28992
52	70	When I read an English text, I do not look each new word up in a dictionary but only when I meet it again.	2.7996	1.4685
53	58	I write notes and messages in English using the new words.	2.7837	1.3709
54	44	I try to memorize the names of the English films to increase my vocabulary or to retrieve the words.	2.7758	1.3740
55	23	When I do not know a word, I try to guess it by connecting it to a word in Turkish.	2.7480	1.3068
56	46	When learning a new word, I physically act it out to remember its meaning. (e.g. blink my eyes to learn "blink")	2.7381	1.3578
57	64	I try to learn a number of new words each day.	2.7282	1.1962
58	35	I use a combination of sounds and images to remember the new word.	2.7183	1.3226
59	48	Answer this question as you did in the 32nd question.	2.7024	1.2902
60	53	When I have free time, I read one side of these cards and try to remember the meaning on the other side.	2.6925	1.3040
61	57	I write different forms of the new words in a note-book (e.g. verb, noun, adjective)	2.6111	1.2905
62	32	I arrange the words into a diagram with a key word at the top and related words as branches linked to the keyword.	2.6091	1.2861
63	24	I try to use the words or expressions I learned either with	2.5952	1.4095

		my friends or native speakers not to forget them.														
64	41	I use rhyming to remember new words. (e.g. This old man he played one. He played nick nack on my thumb.)	2.5655	1.2936												
65	68	I set long term goals to increase my vocabulary. (e.g. I will have learned 1500 new words by the end of the term.)	2.5635	1.2705												
66	47	When I learn new words with similar meanings, I draw a grid to remember the meaning. E.g. <table border="1" data-bbox="566 884 997 996"> <tr> <td></td> <td>hands</td> <td>sky</td> <td>weather</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Clean</td> <td>√</td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Clear</td> <td></td> <td>√</td> <td>√</td> </tr> </table>		hands	sky	weather	Clean	√			Clear		√	√	2.3968	1.2441
	hands	sky	weather													
Clean	√															
Clear		√	√													
67	59	While watching TV, I write down the words I heard and remembered.	2.3750	1.3197												
68	13	When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a monolingual dictionary. (e.g. only English)	2.2639	1.2998												
69	52	I take the cards which contain English words on one side and Turkish meaning on the other side.	2.1865	1.2880												
70	60	I keep a diary in English	1.9246	1.3444												
Total			181.1726	37.2625												

The three most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies are strategy 43 “When I read or hear the explanation of a word, I remember the word I have learned before.” (M= 3.9802), strategy 25 “I learn the meaning of a word better when I look it up in a picture dictionary.” (M=3.8829), and strategy 12 “When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a bilingual dictionary” (M=3.8651).

On the other hand, the least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies are strategy 60 “I keep a diary in English.” (M= 1.9246), strategy 52 “I take the cards which contain English words on one

side and Turkish meaning on the other side.” (M= 2.1865), and strategy 13 “When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a monolingual dictionary” (M= 2.2639).

#### 4.2. The Ninth Graders’ Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Gender

The second research question aims to find out whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of gender or not.

As for the analysis of the problem, having taking the scores of the female and male students in the sample group into account, the Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors were calculated. Afterwards, t-test was applied so as to determine whether the differences between the means of the male and female students are significant or not.

The findings are shown in table 4.2.1.

**Table 4.2.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Error Means, t Values, p Values and the Levels of Significance of the Scores of The Ninth Graders’ Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Gender

Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	Sd	S. Error	t	Sig.	Level of Significance
Female	276	180.090	36.962	2.224	0.578	0.704	P > 0.05
Male	226	182.017	37.408	2.488			

The findings reveal that the means of the female and the male students are very close to each other. While the Mean of the female students is 180.090, the Mean of the male students is 182.017. This shows that the Mean of the male students is a little bit higher than the Mean of the female students. The findings also indicate that the Standard Deviation of the female students is 36.962, as different from the Standard Deviation of the male students which is 37.408.

T-test was applied in order to find out whether the differences between the vocabulary learning strategies of the male students and female students are significant or not. The calculation results show that t-value is 0.578. This value reveals that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies and gender at the level of 0.05.

#### **4.3. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Mother's Educational Background**

The third research question aims to investigate whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of mother's educational background. The Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors were calculated as follows:

**Table 4.3.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors of the Scores of The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Mother's Educational Background

<b>Mother's Educational Background</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
Primary School Graduate	279	181.620	37.470	2.243
Secondary or High School Graduate	77	183.532	40.164	4.577
University Graduate	4	185	48.476	24.238
Illiterate	102	177.764	32.239	3.192
Literate but Without Diploma	40	182.250	42.112	6.658
Total	502	181.207	37.269	1.66

The findings in this table reveal that the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders whose mothers are university graduates whereas the lowest Mean belongs to the ninth graders whose mothers are illiterate. Later on, variance analysis was applied so as to investigate whether there is a significant relationship between ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and mother's educational background or not. The findings gathered from this analysis are shown below.



**Table 4.3.2.** The Results of Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Mother's Educational Background

<b>Source of Variance</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>The Level of Significance</b>
Between Groups	1773.705	4	443.426			
Within Groups	694110.75	497	1396.601	0.318	0.866	P > 0.05
Total	695884.45	501				

The figures in this table demonstrate that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies and mother's educational background.

#### **4.4. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Father's Educational Background**

The fourth research question aims to investigate whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of father's educational background. First of all, the Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors of the scores obtained from this research were calculated. The findings are shown below.

**Table 4.4.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors of the Scores of The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Father's Educational Background

<b>Father's Educational Background</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
Primary School Graduate	256	178.773	38.143	2.383
Secondary or High School Graduate	168	181.761	36.170	2.790
University Graduate	35	187.257	38.275	6.469
Illiterate	15	190.600	40.763	10.525
Literate but Without Diploma	28	184.964	33.210	6.276
<b>Total</b>	<b>502</b>	<b>181.063</b>	<b>37.296</b>	<b>1.664</b>

According to the findings in table 4.4.1. the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders who have illiterate fathers, while the lowest Mean belongs to the ninth graders whose fathers are primary school graduates.

The variance analysis was applied to detect whether or not the differences between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and father's educational background are significant. The findings are shown in table 4.4.2.

**Table 4.4.2.** The Results of Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Father's Educational Background

<b>Source of Variance</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>The Level of Significance</b>
Between Groups	4557.375	4	1139.344	0.818	0.514	P>0.05
Within Groups	692354.59	497	1393.068			
<b>Total</b>	<b>696911.96</b>	<b>501</b>				

The figures in table 4.4.2. show that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and father's educational background.

#### **4.5. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of the Number of the Brothers and Sisters in the Family**

The fifth question aims to find out whether or not vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of the number of the brothers and sisters in the family.

As to the analysis of this problem, the Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors were calculated. The findings are shown in the table 4.5.1.

**Table 4.5.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors of the Scores of the Relationship Between the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of the Number of the Brothers and Sisters in the Family

<b>The Number of the Brothers and Sisters</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
One	124	174.919	39.538	3.550
Two	150	183.813	36.383	2.970
Three	99	181.949	35.711	3.589
Four and More	123	184.902	36.163	3.260
No Brothers and Sisters	7	155.142	43.375	16.394
Total	503	181.121	37.281	1.662

The findings in table 4.5.1. reveal that the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders who have got four or more brothers and sisters. On the other hand, the ninth graders with no brothers and sisters have the lowest mean.

Afterwards, variance analysis was applied in order to find out whether or not there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and the number of the brothers and sisters in the family.

The findings gathered from that process are presented in table 4.5.2.

**Table 4.5.2.** The Results of Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of the Number of the Brothers and Sisters in the Family

Source of Variance	SS	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.	The Level of Significance
Between Groups	12407.202	4	3101.800			
Within Groups	685340.40	498	1376.186	2.254	0.062	P > 0.05
Total	697747.60	502				

The figures in table 4.5.2. indicate that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and the number of the brothers and sisters in the family.

#### **4.6. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Mother's Occupation**

The sixth research question aims to find out whether or not the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of mother's occupation. So as to investigate this, the Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Errors were calculated. The findings are shown below.

**Table 4.6.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Mother's Occupation

<b>Mother's Occupation</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
Housewife	451	183.044	36.663	1.726
Civil Servant or Worker	28	161.964	34.560	6.531
She works in her own company	3	154.666	40.918	23.624
Manager	2	225.500	4.949	3.500
Others	19	163.210	42.917	9.846
<b>Total</b>	<b>503</b>	<b>181.121</b>	<b>37.281</b>	<b>1.662</b>

According to the findings in table 4.6.1. , it can be seen that the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders whose mothers are managers whereas the lowest mean belongs to the ninth graders who have mothers working in their own company.

The variance analysis was applied to determine whether the differences between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and mother's occupation are significant or not.

The findings are shown in table 4.6.2.

**Table 4.6.2.** The Results of Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Mother's Occupation

Source of Variance	SS	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig	The Level of Sig.
Between Groups	24077.200	4	6019.300			
Within Groups	673670.40	498	1352.752	4.450	0.002*	P<0.01
Total	697747.60	502				

\*The mean difference is significant at 0.01 level.

The findings in this table reveal that there are significant differences between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and mother's occupation.

Afterwards, LSD test was applied to determine the origin of the difference which occurred as a consequence of Variance Analysis.

**Table 4.6.3.** The Results of the LSD Test According to The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Terms of Mother's Occupation

Mother's Occupation		Mean Difference	S. Error	Sig	The Level of Sig
1	→ 2	21.080*	7.163	0.003	P<0.05*
1	→ 3	28.377	21.305	0.183	p>0.05
1	→ 4	-42.455	26.064	0.104	p>0.05
1	→ 5	19.833*	8.613	0.022	P<0.05*
2	→ 3	7.297	22.343	0.744	p>0.05
2	→ 4	-63.535*	26.920	0.019	P<0.05*
2	→ 5	-1.245	10.932	0.909	p>0.05
3	→ 4	-70.833*	33.575	0.035	P<0.05*
3	→ 5	-8.543	22.849	0.709	p>0.05
4	→ 5	62.289*	27.341	0.023	P<0.05*

The mean difference is significant at 0.05 level.

Abbreviations:

1. Housewife
2. Civil Servant or Worker
3. She works in her own company.
4. Manager
5. Others

The findings in table 4.6.3. show that there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and their mother's occupation. To illustrate, there is a significant difference between the ninth graders whose mothers are housewives and the ninth



graders whose mothers are civil servants or workers. Also, there are significant differences between the ninth graders whose mothers are housewives and the ninth graders with mothers who have other jobs; between the ninth graders with civil servant or worker mothers and those with manager mothers; between the ninth graders with manager mothers and the ones with mothers who work in their company; between the ninth graders with manager mothers and those with mothers who have other jobs.

#### **4.7. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Father's Occupation**

The seventh research question aims to investigate whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of father's occupation.

The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors were calculated. The findings obtained from this process are presented in table 4.7.1.

**Table 4.7.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Father's Occupation

<b>Father's</b>				
<b>Occupation</b>	<b>N</b>	$\bar{X}$	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
Unemployed	31	186	31.818	5.714
Civil Servant or Worker	217	179.668	38.278	2.598
He works in his company	115	187.800	35.011	3.264
Manager	8	184	35.852	12.675
Others	127	175.732	38.295	3.398
<b>Total</b>	<b>498</b>	<b>181.006</b>	<b>37.272</b>	<b>1.670</b>

According to these findings it can be observed that the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders with fathers who work in their company, while the lowest Mean belongs to the ninth graders with fathers who have other jobs.

The variance analysis was applied to detect whether the differences between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and father's occupation indicate a significance difference or not.

**Table 4.7.2.** The Results of Variance Analysis of the Scores of the the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Father's Occupation

<b>Source of Variance</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>The Level of Sig</b>
Between Groups	10073.574	4	2518.393			
Witin Groups	680381.41	493	1380.084	1.825	0.123	P > 0.05
<b>Total</b>	<b>690454.98</b>	<b>497</b>				

Taking the findings into consideration, it can be seen that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and father's occupation.

#### **4.8. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Income Acquired by the Family Members**

The eighth research problem tries to find answer to whether or not the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of economic conditions of their families. For this purpose, the Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors were calculated. The findings are shown in the table.

**Table 4.8.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Economic Conditions of their Families

<b>Monthly Income</b>				
	<b>N</b>	$\bar{X}$	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
Less than 500 YTL	174	183.885	34.714	2.631
500YTL-1000 YTL	253	177.367	38.647	2.429
More than 1000 YTL	58	188.327	38.484	5.053
<b>Total</b>	<b>485</b>	<b>181.016</b>	<b>37.405</b>	<b>1.698</b>

According to the data shown in the table, the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders whose families earn more than 1000 YTL, while the lowest Mean belongs to the ninth graders whose families earn between 500 YTL and 1000YTL.

The variance analysis was applied to reveal whether there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and the economic condition of their families or not.

**Table 4.8.2.** The Results of Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies with regard to the Economic Conditions of Their Families

<b>Source of Variance</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>The Level of Sig.</b>
Between Groups	7900.577	2	3950.288			
Within Groups	669303.29	482	1388.596	2.845	0.059	P > 0.05
Total	677203.87	484				

The findings show that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and the economic conditions of their families.

#### **4.9. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of their Success at English in the First Term of the Year**

The ninth research problem aims to find out whether the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies vary significantly in terms of their success at English in the first term of the year.

As for the analysis of the problem, first the Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors were calculated. They are shown in the table below.

**Table 4.9.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Errors of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in regard to Success at English

<b>English</b>				
<b>Marks in the</b>				
<b>First Term</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>
1	56	172.178	32.970	4.405
2	61	184.295	33.639	4.307
3	137	177.912	40.235	3.437
4	135	182.540	34.411	2.961
5	113	186.177	40.232	3.784
Total	502	181.153	37.312	1.665

According to these findings in the table, the highest Mean belongs to the ninth graders who got 5 from English lesson in the first term whereas the lowest Mean belongs to ninth graders who got 1 from English Lesson in the first term.

The variance analysis was applied to determine whether the difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and their success at English is significant or not.

The findings are shown in the table.

**Table 4.9.2.** The Results of the Variance Analysis of the Scores of the Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Their Success at English in the First Term of the Year

Source of Variance	SS	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig	The Level of Sig
Between Groups	9663.351	4	2415.838			
Within Groups	687823.84	497	1383.951	1.746	0.139	P > 0.05
Total	697487.19	501				

According to these findings it can be seen that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and their success at English in the first term of the year.

#### **4.10. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Having a Computer at Home**

The tenth research question aims to investigate whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of having a computer.

In the analysis of the problem, in the light of the scores related to the ownership the computer, Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Error Means were calculated. Afterwards, t-test was applied so as to determine whether or not there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and having a computer.

The findings are shown in the table.

**Table 4.10.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Error Means, t Values, p Values and the Levels of Significance of the Scores of Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Having a Computer

<b>Having a Computer at Home</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>S. Error</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>The Level of Sig</b>
I have one	115	185.756	37.248	3.473	1.603	0.166	p>0.05
I have none	384	179.427	37.115	1.894			

According to the findings, the Mean of the ninth graders with computers is 185.756, while the Mean of the ninth graders without computer is 179.427. The findings also reveal that the Standard Deviation of the ones with computers is 37.248, while the Standard Deviation of the ones without computer is 37.115. Afterwards, t-test was applied to find out whether there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and having a computer. The calculation results showed that t-value is 1.603. This value indicates that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and having a computer at the level of 0.05.



#### 4.11. The Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Having a Room at Home

The eleventh research question aims to find out whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of having a room.

In the analysis of the problem, in the light of the scores related to having a room at home, Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations and Standard Errors were calculated. Afterwards, t-test was applied so as to determine whether or not there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and having a room.

The findings are shown in the table.

**Table 4.11.1.** The Arithmetic Means, Standard Deviations, Standard Error Means, t Values, p Values and the Levels of Significance of the Scores of Ninth Graders' Vocabulary Learning Strategies in terms of Having a Room at Home

Having a Room at Home	N	$\bar{X}$	Sd	S. Error	t	Sig.	The Level of Sig
I have one	321	179.492	38.566	2.152	-1.038	0.306	P>0.05
I have none	176	183.108	34.380	2.591			

According to the findings, the Mean of the ninth graders with rooms is 179.492, while the Mean of the ninth graders without rooms is 183.108. The findings also reveal that the Standard Deviation of the ones with computers is 38.566, while the Standard Deviation of the ones without computer is 34.380. Afterwards, t-test was applied to find out whether there is a significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and having a room. The calculation results showed that t- value is -1,038. This value indicates that there is no significant difference between the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies and having a room at home at the level of 0.05.

#### **4.12. Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the ninth graders' vocabulary learning strategies in terms of their gender, mothers' educational background, fathers' educational background, the number of the brothers and sisters in the family, mothers' occupation, fathers' occupation, income, success at English, having a computer and having a room were presented through the findings shown in the tables. Also, they were interpreted in order to inform the reader about the relationship between the vocabulary learning strategies and the personal characteristics.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

In this chapter, the conclusions gained from the findings of the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders and the relationship of these strategies to their personal characteristics, discussions of these conclusions and some suggestions related to this investigation will be presented.

#### **5.1. Conclusions and Discussions**

At the end of this investigation, the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders at Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School were identified. As a result, it can be seen that the three most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies are strategy 43 “When I read or hear the explanation of a word, I remember the word I have learned before.” (M= 3.9802), strategy 25 “I learn the meaning of a word better when I look it up in a picture dictionary.” (M=3.8829), and strategy 12 “When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a bilingual dictionary” (3.8651).

On the other hand, the three least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies are strategy 60 “I keep a diary in English.” (M= 1.9246), strategy 52 “I take the cards which contain English words on one side and Turkish meaning on the other side.” (M= 2.1865), and strategy 13 “When I do not know the meaning of a word, I use a monolingual

dictionary” (M= 2.2639). These results were gained through the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire developed by Şener (2003).

Şener (2003) aimed to find out whether there is a significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary size of Turkish EFL Students. This study which was conducted by means of survey search methodology included one pilot and two main studies. In the first main study, 304 Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University ELT department students participated in this study, while 313 students participated in the second main study. According to the results, the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies were guessing from textual context (M= 4.0921), taking notes in the class (M= 4.0460) and interacting with native speakers (M= 3.9835). On the other hand, the least frequently used ones were using semantic feature grids (M= 1.7631), keeping a diary (M= 1.875) and reviewing flashcards (M= 1.9013). When compared, there is a parallel between the results gained by Şener’s (2003) study and this study which relies on the same data collecting instrument. To illustrate, keeping a diary in English is one of the least frequently used strategies in both studies. While the mean score of keeping diary is 1.875 in Şener’s study, the Mean score is 1.9246 in this study. As for the other findings, they are not similar, since the level of proficiency is different in each study.

Sanaoui (cited in Akın and Seferoğlu, 2004) conducted a study about vocabulary learning strategies of French Learners and categorized her subjects into two groups as the ones using a structured approach and the ones not using a structured approach. The learners in the first group took responsibility for their vocabulary learning instead of relying on the teacher or the course book. They practised the words through listening to the radio, watching film, speaking with friends and doing self-study. Also, they recorded the words they learned regularly and revised them several times a week. On the other hand, the other group following an unstructured

approach did not practise the words they learned and relied on the teacher and the coursebook. The results indicated that the first group advanced better than the second group.

Another study about vocabulary learning strategies was designed by Moir (cited in Nation, 2001). He observed the vocabulary learning behaviours of 10 adult learners. These learners, who were hardworking students, worked on vocabulary several hours a week, but he found out that only one student was aware of the vocabulary learning. As for the rest of the learners, they were less effective because

they had a limited control of language learning strategies; they focused on the meaning of the words in copied sentences rather than also exploring the range of collocations and using their own sentences, and they did not revise the words anymore after the weekly test (cited in Akin and Seferoğlu: 3).

Akin and Seferoğlu (2004) aimed to investigate whether an approach creating strategy awareness and recycling words will lead to better vocabulary learning of selected words than teaching vocabulary following the course book alone. Two intermediate level EFL classes at Hacettepe University Preparatory School were the participants in this study. While the experimental group consisted of 27 students, the control group was composed of 24 students. The study took 6 weeks to conduct. A pre-test of vocabulary was given by Akin and Seferoğlu to both groups. Through a t-test, the mean scores of the control and experimental groups were compared. While the mean of the pre-test scores of the experimental group was 8.1 out of 87 points, the mean of the pre-test scores of the control group was 8.2. When Akin and Seferoğlu compared two means through a t-test, the difference did not appear significant. On the other hand, the mean scores of the post-test results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental group's scores. While the mean of the post-test scores of the experimental

group was 36.19 out of 46 points, the mean of the post-test scores of the control group was 11.08 according to the t-test. As a result of this study, Akin and Seferoğlu (2004) claim that students can learn the selected vocabulary better through an approach which combines creating strategy awareness and recycling words.

Aksungur (2000) conducted a study on English vocabulary learning and teaching at Anatolian High Schools. For this purpose, four different Anatolian High Schools participated in the survey. She used a questionnaire developed by Taylor, R. P. in 1998. The questionnaire included 27 questions. According to the result of this study, translation, memorisation, writing the new words many times have been found to be the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies at these schools. Also, the data gained from this study demonstrated that students almost always used a bilingual dictionary, while they hardly ever benefited from monolingual dictionaries. Aksungur (2000) states that written repetition is the most popular learning strategy which is used by the students while memorizing new words. According to research related to how students learn new vocabulary, Turkish students were found to use rote-learning techniques, which include memorising new words from bilingual lists through oral or written repetition. She believes that the dependence on translation is evidence to frequent use of bilingual dictionaries. Also she points out that this situation results from the popularity of grammar translation method in Turkey. Thus, teachers should equip both their students and themselves with the communicative ways of learning English and try to get rid of the negative effects of grammar-translation method on their students. The application of the different teaching techniques for presentation in the classroom can help students to use a wider variety of strategies.

Taylor (cited in Aksungur, 2000: 178) also emphasizes the bad effects of the translation method:

The long term effects of the use of translation as a teaching technique are evident in the fact that even when students go to university and they are taught by native English speakers or native teachers educated in English-speaking countries and they are exposed to Western methods techniques of teaching that are not dependent upon the grammar translation method or the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction, their dependency on translation is not easily overcome and continues to be the main method in acquiring new vocabulary.

Saltuk (2001) investigated the vocabulary learning strategies of 8th grade students at Ted Ankara College. She administered a questionnaire on the use of vocabulary learning strategies to 63 subjects in her study. The questionnaire included seventeen items. She also used 13 students' interviews on vocabulary learning along with the use of RVPMR and students' vocabulary section samples. The results of her findings indicated that students used various strategies instead of a single strategy while learning new words in English. The most frequently used ones are looking for similar words in their own language, trying to connect the sound of a newly learned word to a Turkish word, using rhymes to learn words, connecting the new words with what they already know in English, saying or writing new words, learning words by dividing them into meaningful parts and grouping words according to their relationship.

Şahin (2003) investigated the importance of vocabulary learning strategies in English teaching. Uludağ University preparatory classes constituted the universe of this study. She benefited from a vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire and a vocabulary level test. According to her, teaching vocabulary learning strategies influences the frequency of students' vocabulary learning strategy application because she has found that the application of vocabulary learning strategies increased after teaching vocabulary learning strategies. Using a dictionary,

guessing from context and guessing from word parts are the most frequently used learning strategies.

Griffiths and Parr (2001) aimed to investigate how language learning strategy theory relates to its practice in terms of learners' and teachers' perceptions. A large sample of students of English for speakers of other languages (n=569) were chosen from New Zealand. The research consisted of males and females ranging from beginning to advanced levels, in ages from 14 to 64. The basic instrument for this study was a self-scoring paper-and-pencil survey. Students were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. In addition, 30 teachers participated in this study to express which of the strategy groups their students used most. For this purpose, they responded to a survey called the "inventory of language learning strategies". They ranked on a scale from 6 to 1. While 6 referred to the most frequent, 1 referred to the least frequent. According to the results, memory strategies were used least. Most frequently used strategies were the social strategies, followed by metacognitive strategies. Compensation and cognitive strategies were in the middle-frequency range. Affective strategies were only one rank higher than memory strategies. According to the other results, it was found that teachers believed students used memory strategies most frequently, and then cognitive strategies. On the other hand, compensation and affective strategies were used least by students according to the comments of the teachers.

Karahan (1991) aimed to identify the learning strategies employed by beginning and intermediate level students in the English Section of the Department of Foreign Languages of Gazi Faculty of Education. The student interview guide designed by O'Malley et al. was used. Twenty-six students were interviewed in five groups. According to the results, it was found that intermediate students used more



metacognitive strategies than beginners. Not only beginners but also intermediate students used more cognitive strategies than metacognitive strategies. Finally, beginners used more socioaffective strategies than intermediate students. The three most frequently used strategies overall were repetition, note-taking and resourcing. In both groups, elaboration, transfer and deduction were used rarely. She concluded that,

These results showed that beginner language learners preferred certain strategies for certain language tasks, while more proficient language learners tended to use a variety of strategies for different language tasks (Karahan, 1991: 22).

Karahan's (1991) study shed light upon Turkish students' learning habits: Note-taking has an important impact in the Turkish education system. Aside from this, memorization, simplification and use of the mother tongue are the other typical learning strategies of the students in Turkey who are accustomed to rote learning.

Akın and Seferoğlu (2004) think that students have different learning strategies, even though they experience the same teaching material under the same conditions. It is necessary for teachers to help learners explore the learning strategies which suit them best because of the individual differences between the students in regard to their learning styles and preferences. Nunan (cited in Akın and Seferoğlu, 2004: 3) highlights this fact with this statement:

It is a mistake to assume that learners come into the language classroom with a natural ability to make choices about what and how to learn. Whatever the language or the level, the point is that we cannot assume that learners will acquire strategies automatically.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of gender or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant gender-imposed difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders.

This study also aimed to investigate whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of mother's educational background or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders attributable to the mother's educational background.

The aim of this study is also to investigate whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of father's educational background. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders with regard to father's educational background.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of the number of brothers and sisters in the family. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to the number of brothers and sisters in the family.

This study also aimed to investigate whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of the mother's occupation. According to the results, it was found that there is a significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to the mother's occupation.

Weizman and Snow (cited in Scott et al., 2003) found a strong connection between sophisticated word use by low-income mothers and their children's vocabulary performance in school.

Also, Tracey and Young (2002) point out that children's home literacy experiences and parent's involvement in children's school

activities are very important; there is a connection between literacy use in families and student's academic achievement. These two researchers investigated the impact of the mother's educational level on at-home reading practice. They aimed to investigate the impact of the mother's educational level on at-home reading practice. For this purpose, they implemented a large-scale, quantitative investigation in order to examine the interactions between mothers and children during children's at-home, oral-reading practices. In this research, instead of fathers, mothers were chosen since mothers tend to help their children with schoolwork, including at-home reading, more often than do fathers (cited in Tracey & Young, 2002). At the end of this research, it was thought that educational level may be a significant factor influencing mothers' interactions with their children and may be connected to academic achievement (cited in Tracey & Young, 2002).

Vygotsky (cited in Tracey & Young, 2002: 729) states that "children's construction of knowledge is strongly affected by others with whom they interact." This shows that there is a link between the parent's language and children's construction of literary knowledge. Since mothers play an important role on meeting the psychological and physical needs of their children, they may be affecting children's construction of literary knowledge more than fathers.

Au (cited in Tracey & Young, 2002: 729) indicated that:

Both success and failure in literacy learning are the collaborative social accomplishments of school systems, communities, teachers, students and families. Linguistic differences and children's home-language experiences are central social constructivist factors that affect children's academic achievement.

Since these "home-language experiences" mentioned by Au are shaped especially by housewife mothers who have more leisure to devote

to their children, it may be said that mothers affect the children's success at language learning more than the fathers.

Hill & Craft (2003) state that parental involvement in education and academic achievement of the children bring about positive outcomes. Both at school and at home, parental involvement in education is related to improvements in school behaviour and performance. They point out that students' competence and motivations for achievement increase and their academic and social competencies develop.

In addition to these, Berger (1987) claims that parent involvement in education of the children is very important. They should be interested in the development of the children, enrichment activities, and the promotion of creativity. To support her ideas, she states that

Parents are teachers of their own children. Whether sufficiently appreciated or not, parents have always reared and educated their children until informal education was supplemented by formal education. There is now emerging an increasing awareness of the link between informal and formal instruction. Parents can enhance the informal education of their children by knowledge of the formal educational process. Daily incidental teaching of language and problem solving encourages the development of intelligence in the young child. (Berger, 1987: 103).

In the light of all these comments, it may be said that the significant differences between the vocabulary learning strategies in regard to mother's occupation may be resulting from the fact that mothers, especially housewives, have more leisure to look after their children than fathers. The more parents look after their children, the more successful children are. Since mothers generally spend more time at home in comparison with fathers, it may be said that mothers may affect their children's success at language learning more than fathers.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in

terms of the father's occupation or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to the father's occupation.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of the economic condition of the family or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to the economic condition of the family.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of success at English in the first term of the year or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to success at English in the first term of the year.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of having a computer at home or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to having a computer at home.

This study also aimed at investigating whether the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders vary significantly in terms of having a room or not. According to the results, it was found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to having a room.

## 5.2. Suggestions

Vocabulary learning is regarded as a nightmare by most of the students who intend to learn English as a second language. Teachers can facilitate this hard and demanding task of vocabulary learning by helping their students. That is to say, if teachers know the personal characteristics of their students such as their personality, learning styles, learning preferences, family characteristics and the difficulties experienced by their students in the process of vocabulary learning, they can guide them to get over the obstacles hindering their vocabulary learning. After all, being a teacher is not an easy job, since it requires patience and self-sacrifice. Whitman's (cited in Chenfeld, 1978: 85) quotation "Behold, I do not give lectures or a little charity, when I give, I give myself." summarizes the difficulties and necessities of being a teacher vividly.

A teacher encounters miscellaneous students in the classroom atmosphere which is the embodiment of a wide spectrum of values, interests, attitudes resulting from the diversity in the school. Exploring a new piece in the jigsaw of students' characteristics will give teachers an opportunity to shape their lessons, methods and activities. In this term, this study aims to be a model for the teachers who advocate a student-centered approach. In addition, this research intends to inform EFL teachers related to the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders as well as the relationship between these strategies and the students' personal characteristics. However, this study's scope is restricted to the elementary level of students, so other investigations can be conducted to enlighten the vocabulary learning strategies of other levels of students.

Moreover, the researchers can add new personal characteristics to the ones in the Personal Information Form of this study so as to find out

the relationships between vocabulary learning strategies and other personal characteristics.

In addition to these, it is possible to investigate the relationship between the personal characteristics of the students and other aspects of the foreign language learning or the relationship between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the students and other student-centered variables to enlighten the path of learning English as a second language. Whatever the topic is, it should not be forgotten that students take place at the core of both teaching and learning processes.

The investigation identified the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders at Buca Hoca Ahmet Yesevi High School. The findings demonstrate that the students are better at memory strategies, while they have deficiencies in cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Unfortunately, Turkish students have tendency towards using the mother tongue, memorization, repetition and note-taking while learning vocabulary, as most researchers express. In order to help the learners go beyond their boundaries of vocabulary learning and abolish their embedded routines and cliches related to vocabulary, the teachers should inform their students about cognitive strategies such as using flashcards, studying word lists at the end of coursebooks, making word charts, using visual English language media. Teachers should also give information about metacognitive strategies like interacting with native speakers, testing with word tests, using written English language and setting goals. Only giving information is not enough. Teachers should provide opportunities for their students to practise these strategies by taking their levels into consideration.

At the end of this research, it was found that there is a significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to the mother's occupation, so, by taking this

result into consideration, it is suggested that mothers should do their best to look after their children and devote more time to their needs whatever their jobs are because mothers' contribution to the development of their children in every step of their life is an inevitable truth.

According to the results, it was also found that there is no significant difference between the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the ninth graders in regard to their gender, mothers' educational background, fathers' educational background, the number of the brothers and sisters in the family, fathers' occupation, income, success at English, having a computer and having a room, so it can be suggested that teachers should convince their students that they can be successful at vocabulary learning strategies regardless of the educational backgrounds of their parents, the number of the brothers and sisters in their family, economic conditions of their parents, their success at English in the first term of the year, their having a computer and a room at home. Knowing that they can succeed in vocabulary even though they do not have a separate room where they will study and revise their lessons and a computer which is an indispensable necessity today may be a good stimulus which may increase their success at vocabulary learning. These results may benefit the teachers who want to help their students to explore the potential suppressed inside them and to feel more self-confident about their advance in English vocabulary.

I hope this study will be useful for colleagues and researchers who are interested in vocabulary.



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## APPENDIX

### SEVGİLİ ÖĞRENCİLER,

Tüm yanıtlarınızı size verilen formun **sadece eğitim bilimleri** bölümüne kurşun kalemle kodlayınız. Formun diğer bölümlerini, ad-soyad bölümü de dahil olmak üzere boş bırakınız. Doğru kodlama şekli formun sol alt köşesinde gösterilmiştir. Lütfen formu teslim ederken **ortadan katlamayınız** ve **kenarlarının kıvrılmamasına dikkat ediniz**. Yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

### KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1. Cinsiyetiniz?
  - a) Kız
  - b) Erkek
2. Annenizin eğitim durumu?
  - a) İlkokul mezunu
  - b) Ortaokul ya da lise mezunu
  - c) Üniversite mezunu
  - d) Okuma-yazması yok
  - e) Diploması yok, ama okuma-yazma biliyor
3. Babanızın eğitim durumu?
  - a) İlkokul mezunu
  - b) Ortaokul ya da lise mezunu
  - c) Üniversite mezunu
  - d) Okuma-yazması yok
  - e) Diploması yok, ama okuma-yazma biliyor
4. Ailenizde sizden başka kaç kardeşiniz var?
  - a) 1
  - b) 2
  - c) 3
  - d) 4 ya da daha fazla
  - e) Başka kardeşim yok
5. Annenizin mesleği nedir? (Emekliyse, emekli olmadan önce ne iş yapıyordu?)
  - a) Ev kadını
  - b) Memur ya da işçi
  - c) Kendi işyerinde çalışıyor
  - d) Yönetici
  - e) Diğer (Belirtiniz:.....)

6. Babanızın mesleği nedir? (Emekliyse, emekli olmadan önce ne iş yapıyordunuz?)
- a) İşsiz
  - b) Memur ya da işçi
  - c) Kendi işyerinde çalışıyor
  - d) Yönetici
  - e) Diğer (Belirtiniz.....)
7. Evinize ayda toplam kaç para giriyor? (Kira gelirleri ve diğer gelirler dahil)
- a) 500 YTL'den az
  - b) 500-1.000 YTL
  - c) 1.000 YTL'den çok
8. Karnenizdeki birinci dönem İngilizce notunuz nedir?
- a) 1
  - b) 2
  - c) 3
  - d) 4
  - e) 5
9. Evde bilgisayarınız var mı?
- a) Var
  - b) Yok
10. Evinizde kendinize ait çalışabileceğiniz bir odanız var mı?
- a) Var
  - b) Yok

## KELİME ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ

Bu bölüm öğrencilerin kelime öğrenme ve kelime öğrendikten sonraki stratejilerini belirlemek üzere düzenlenmiştir.

Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyun ve size ne kadar yakın olduğuna karar veriniz. **a'dan e'ye** kadar olan seçeneklerden sadece bir tanesini işaretleyin.

**Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur.**

- a. Hiçbir zaman
- b. Nadiren
- c. Bazen
- d. Genellikle
- e. Her zaman

	STRATEJİ	SIKLIK				
		a.	b.	c.	d.	e.
		a	b	c	d	e
11	Eğer bir kelimenin anlamını bilmiyorsa, ön ek, son ek ve kelimenin kökünü inceleyerek tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
12	Bir kelimenin anlamını bilmiyorsa, İngilizce-Türkçe sözlük kullanırım.	a	b	c	d	e
13	Bir kelimenin anlamını öğrenmek için sadece İngilizce yazılmış sözlük kullanırım.	a	b	c	d	e
14	Bir kelimeyi bilmiyorsa, öğretmenden onu Türkçe'ye çevirmesini isterim.	a	b	c	d	e
15	Bir kelimeyi bilmiyorsa, öğretmenden o kelimenin anlamını İngilizce olarak açıklamasını isterim.	a	b	c	d	e
16	Bir kelimeyi bilmiyorsa, öğretmenden onu bir cümlede kullanmasını isterim.	a	b	c	d	e
17	Bir kelimeyi bilmiyorsa, anlamını sınıf arkadaşlarıma sorarım.	a	b	c	d	e
18	Bir kelimenin anlamını bilmiyorsa, onu sınıf içi grup çalışmaları yaparken öğrenmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
19	Yazılı bir metinde geçen kelimeyi bilmiyorsa, onun anlamını etrafındaki cümlelerden	a	b	c	d	e

	çıkarmaya çalışırım.					
20	Televizyon seyrederken anlamını bilmediğim kelimeleri hareketlere bakarak tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
21	Anadili İngilizce olan birini dinlerken bir kelimenin ve deyimnin anlamını ses tonuna dikkat ederek tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
22	Yeni kelimelerin anlamlarını ezberlemek için kelime listesi yaparım.	a	b	c	d	e
23	Bir kelimenin anlamını bilmiyorsam, onu Türkçe’de bildiğim bir kelimeye benzeterek tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
24	Öğrendiğim yeni kelimeleri ve deyimleri unutmamak için yabancılarla konuşarak onları kullanmaya gayret ederim.	a	b	c	d	e
25	Bir kelimenin anlamını resimli sözlükten bulursam, onu daha iyi öğrenirim.	a	b	c	d	e
26	Yeni kelimelerin açıklamalarını (tanımlarını) okumak yerine resimlerine bakarak daha iyi öğrenirim.	a	b	c	d	e
27	Kelime ve deyimleri hatırlamak için kafamda hayali resimler canlandırırım. (örn: sırtmak kelimesinde Kemal Sunal’ı hatırlarım.)	a	b	c	d	e
28	Birbirleriyle bir şekilde bağlantılı kelimeleri grup halinde hatırlarım. (örn: mavi-yeşil-sarı)	a	b	c	d	e
29	Kelimeleri akılda tutmak için Türkçe’deki kelimelerle bağlantı kurmaya çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
30	Bir kelime veya deyimini öğrenince onu daha önce bildiklerimle ilişkilendirmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
31	Sıfatları hatırlamak için onları büyükten küçüğe ya da şiddetliden hafife doğru sıralarım. (örn: kocaman-büyük/orta-küçük gibi)	a	b	c	d	e
32	Öğrendiğim kelimeleri üstte bir anahtar kelime, aşağıda onunla ilgili kelimeleri yazarak şema halinde düzenlerim.	a	b	c	d	e
33	İçinde yeni kelime veya deyimlerin kullanıldığı örnek cümleleri hatırlamaya çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
34	Yeni kelimeler öğrendiğimde onları kafamda bir odada değişik yerlere koyarak anlamlarını akılda tutarım.	a	b	c	d	e
35	Bir kelimeyi hatırlamak için değişik sesleri ve imajları kullanırım.	a	b	c	d	e
36	Bir kelimenin anlamını öğrenmek ve hatırd tutmak için onu gözümün önünde canlandırmaya çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
37	Kelimelerle, resimlerini eşleştirirsem onları	a	b	c	d	e

	kolayca ezberlerim.								
38	Öğrenmek istediğim kelimeleri renk, biçim, fonksiyon, iyi, kötü gibi gruplara ayırarak öğrenmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e			
39	Yeni kelimeleri öğrenirken daha önce bildiğim kelimelerle yeni kelimeler arasında bir bağ yaratmak için o kelimeleri bir cümle ya da hikaye içinde kullanırım.	a	b	c	d	e			
40	Bir kelimenin telaffuzunu aynı sese benzeyen diğer kelimelerle bağlantı kurarak hatırlarım.	a	b	c	d	e			
41	Yeni kelimeleri hatırlamak için kafiye kullanırım.	a	b	c	d	e			
42	Kelimenin anlamını akılda tutmak için köküne ve ön-ek son-ekine dikkat ederim.	a	b	c	d	e			
43	Daha önceden öğrendiğim bir kelimenin açıklamasını duyarsam veya okursam, bildiğim o kelimeyi hatırlarım.	a	b	c	d	e			
44	Kelime hazinemi geliştirmek ya da kelimeleri hatırlamak için İngilizce film isimlerini ezberlemeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e			
45	Şarkı sözlerini öğrenmem benim daha fazla kelime öğrenmeme ve hatırlamama yardımcı olur.	a	b	c	d	e			
46	Bir kelimeyi öğrenirken onun anlamını hatırlamak için onu hareketlerle yaparım. (örn: göz kırpmak)	a	b	c	d	e			
47	Anlamca yakın olan kelimeleri öğrendiğimde anlamını hatırlamak için şema çizerim. Örneğin.	a	b	c	d	e			
							hands	sky	weather
	Clean						✓		
	Clear							✓	✓
48	Bu soruya 32. soruya verdiğiniz cevabı veriniz.	a	b	c	d	e			
49	Yeni kelimelerin anlam ve yazılışlarını unutmamak için defalarca yazarım.	a	b	c	d	e			
50	Bir kelime öğrendiğimde anlamını ve telaffuzunu hatırlamak için birçok kez söylerim.	a	b	c	d	e			
51	Küçük küçük kâğıtlara bir yüzüne kelimenin Türkçe diğer yüzüne İngilizce anlamını yazarım.	a	b	c	d	e			
52	İngilizce ve Türkçe anlamlarını yazdığım küçük kâğıtları nereye gidersem yanıma alırım.	a	b	c	d	e			
53	Kelimelerin anlamlarını hatırlamak için boş vakitlerimde küçük kartların bir yüzünü okur anlamını hatırlamaya çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e			

54	Sınıfta yeni kelime öğrendiğimde not tutarım.	a	b	c	d	e
55	Kitapların kelimeyle ilgili olan bölümlerindeki alıştırmaları yaparım.	a	b	c	d	e
56	Kitabın sonundaki kelime listesini çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
57	Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri bir deftere değişik halleriyle yazarım. (isim/fiil/sıfat gibi)	a	b	c	d	e
58	Yeni kelimeleri kullanarak İngilizce kısa notlar ve mesajlar yazarım.	a	b	c	d	e
59	Televizyon seyrederek ve dinlerken hatırladığım sözcükleri bir yere yazarım.	a	b	c	d	e
60	İngilizce günlük tutarım.	a	b	c	d	e
61	Yabancılarla konuşurken onların kullandığı kelimelere dikkat ederim.	a	b	c	d	e
62	Yeni kelimeleri öğrenmedeki ilerlememi kontrol etmek için kendi kendimi test ederim.	a	b	c	d	e
63	İngilizce dergi veya gazete okuduğumda yeni kelimelerin altını çizerim.	a	b	c	d	e
64	Her gün belli bir miktar kelime öğrenmeye çalışırım.	a	b	c	d	e
65	Bu soruyu 54. soru gibi cevaplayınız.	a	b	c	d	e
66	Öğrendiğim yeni kelimeleri belli bir süre sonra tekrar ederim. (örn: bir gün-bir hafta-bir ay sonra)	a	b	c	d	e
67	Yeni kelime öğrenmek için fırsatlar yaratırım.	a	b	c	d	e
68	Uzun vadede kelime hazinemi geliştirmek için amaçlar belirlerim. (örn: yıl sonuna kadar 500 kelime)	a	b	c	d	e
69	Bir parçada yeni kelimeye rastlarsam, durup onu sözlükten ararım.	a	b	c	d	e
70	Bir parçada yeni kelimeyle karşılaşırsam, onu hemen sözlükten aramam fakat onu tekrar görürsem ararım.	a	b	c	d	e