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**THE EFFECTS OF STORY TELLING AND ROLE
PLAYING ON YOUNG LEARNERS' VOCABULARY
LEARNING AND RETENTION**

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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ON YOUNG LEARNERS' VOCABULARY LEARNING
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Bu tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadarki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel etiğe ve akademik kurallara özenle riayet edildiğini, tez içindeki bütün bilgilerin etik davranış ve akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde edilerek sunulduğunu, ayrıca tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanan bu çalışmada başkalarının eserlerinden yararlanılması durumunda bilimsel kurallara uygun olarak atıf yapıldığını bildiririm.

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ABSTRACT

Since vocabulary learning is one of the most vital aspects of language proficiency, coping with the heavy load of vocabulary items has always been problematic for English language learners. Thus, this experimental study aims at helping the learners of English to improve their vocabulary learning and retention skills. We wanted to see the effects of an integrated approach which combines storytelling and role playing on young learners' vocabulary learning and retention. For this purpose, we combined the story telling and role playing techniques to teach the target vocabulary items in the treatment of the experimental group. For the control group, regularly implemented techniques were used to teach the same target words. For the data collection, pre-recall, pre-recognition; post-recall, post-recognition; and delayed recall, delayed-recognition tests were used. To analyze the differences between the experimental and the control group, T-Test calculations were used. According to the findings of the T-test calculations, the students in the experimental group who learned the words through story telling-role playing technique scored significantly higher in the immediate recall, recognition tests and delayed-recall, recognition tests than the students in the control group who learned the same words through present implemented English curriculum.

The first chapter of this study introduces a general background to the study. The statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions and the limitations of the study are also presented in this chapter. The second chapter: "Review of the Literature" introduces learning strategies, teaching young learners, vocabulary teaching techniques, and finally storytelling and role playing in ELT.

The third chapter constitutes the methodology of the study. The fourth chapter gives information about the data analysis procedure and the results of the study. In the conclusion chapter; discussion part, pedagogical implications of the study and recommendations and suggestions for further research are presented.

KEY WORDS: Story Telling, Role Playing, Teaching Young Learners, Vocabulary Teaching, Language Learning Strategies

ÖZET

Kelime öğrenimi, dilde yetkin olabilmenin en önemli ve can alıcı durumu olduğu için, kelime öğrenme sürecinde kelimelerle baş edebilmek dil öğrencileri için her zaman büyük bir problem olmuştur. Bu sebepten dolayı, bu deneysel çalışma İngiliz dili öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenimi ve öğrenilen kelimeyi ihtiyacı olduğunda hatırlayabilme becerilerine katkı sağlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada, hikaye anlatım ve rol oynama yönteminin genç dil öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenimi ve öğrenilen kelimeyi uzun vadede hatırlayabilme becerisine olan etkisini görmek istedik. Bu amaçla, deney grubu üzerinde yapmış olduğumuz uygulamada belirlenen hedef kelimeleri öğretmek için hikâye anlatım ve rol oynama tekniklerini birleştirdik. Kontrol grubuna yapmış olduğumuz uygulamada ise, aynı hedef kelimeleri öğretmek için normal öğretim tekniklerini kullandık. Veri toplama sürecinde ise, ön- hatırlama, ön-tanıma; yakın-hatırlama, yakın-tanıma; uzak-hatırlama ve uzak-tanıma testleri kullanıldı. Deney grubu ile kontrol grubu arasında oluşan farkları analiz edebilmek için T-Test istatistik hesaplamaları kullanıldı. T-Test hesaplamaları sonucu elde ettiğimiz verilere göre, kelimeleri birleştirilmiş hikâye anlatım ve rol oynama teknikleriyle öğrenen deney grubundaki öğrenciler yakın hatırlama-tanıma ve uzak hatırlama-tanıma testlerinde; aynı hedef kelimeleri normal kelime öğretim teknikleriyle öğrenen kontrol grubundaki öğrencilere göre daha başarılı sonuçlar sergilemişlerdir.

Birinci bölümde, çalışma hakkında genel bilgiler verilmiştir. Ayrıca, problem, çalışmanın amacı, araştırma soruları ve araştırmanın sınırlılıkları sunulmuştur. İkinci bölümde, öğrenme stratejileri, çocuklara yabancı dil öğretimi, kelime öğretim teknikleri, ve son olarak hikaye anlatımı ve rol oynama tekniklerinin İngiliz dili öğretimindeki yeri ele alınmıştır. Üçüncü bölüm çalışmanın yöntemini oluşturmaktadır. Dördüncü bölümde, veri analiz süreci ve çalışmanın sonuçları hakkında bilgiler sunulmaktadır. Beşinci bölüm sonuç kısmıdır. Eğitsel bulgulara ve önerilere yer verilmiştir.

ANAHTAR KELİMELEER: Hikaye Anlatımı, Rol Oynama, Çocuklara Dil Öğretimi, Kelime Öğretimi, Dil Öğrenim Stratejileri

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ABBREVIATIONS

CD: COMPACT DISC

EFL: ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

ESL: ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

L1: NATIVE LANGUAGE

L2: SECOND LANGUAGE

M: MEAN

N: NORM

SD: STANDARD DEVIATION

SEM: STANDARD ERROR MEAN

STD: STANDARD

UG: UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR

ZPD: ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

This chapter begins with a general background of the study. The purpose and research questions of the study follow the problem statement. The next part is devoted to the limitations of the study.

1.2. A General Background to the Study

As the world grows globally day by day, the need of learning a foreign language rises accordingly. People with different native languages come into contact with each other for many different purposes such as, politics, trade in business world, education, sports, and health services and so on. The need for such kind of relations forces people living in the same world to learn a common language, English. As English becomes more popular as the language of the world, learning and teaching this language gains more importance all over the world.

Vocabulary teaching was neglected for much of the 20th century; however, it has gained importance since the last quarter of 20th century. This neglect of vocabulary is intriguing because of the fact that vocabulary competence is a central part of communicative competence, so it has a great importance for learning language. Harmer (1991:153) emphasizes the great importance of vocabulary with this phrase “if language structures make up the skeleton of language then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh”.

In his article the linguist Decarrico (2001:285) proposes that vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition, whether the language is first, second, or foreign. Although vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching, interest in its role in second language (L2) learning has grown rapidly in recent years and specialists now emphasize the need for a systematic and principled approach to vocabulary by both the teacher and the learner. The increased interest in this topic is evidenced by a rapidly expanding body of experimental

studies and pedagogical material, most of which addresses several key questions of particular interest for language teachers. For example, what does it mean to know a word? Which words do learners need to know? How will they learn them? These questions reflect the current focus on the needs of learners in acquiring lexical competence and on the role of the teacher in guiding them toward this goal.

Having such importance, vocabulary learning may be really difficult for adult learners as well as young learners. Bearing this problem in mind, language teachers need to find effective and enjoyable ways of teaching vocabulary, especially when teaching young learners. At this point, we can say that storytelling technique is a powerful tool in language classes. When integrated with role playing activities, story-based lessons provide a rich exposure to comprehensible input which improves vocabulary learning.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Like most of the foreign language learning communities, there are a lot of problems in language education in Turkey. The biggest challenge for language learners is that they try to learn a foreign language in isolation. However, success in language learning lies in getting enough input in an authentic context. As it is impossible in learners' daily life, language teachers should present the language especially the vocabulary items in a meaningful context. In this study, the main aim is to search the effectiveness of the integrated approach which combines storytelling and role playing in vocabulary learning. Therefore, this study intends to find answers to the following questions:

How is the implementation of teaching vocabulary to young learners through an integrated approach which combines storytelling and role playing at the 8th grades of primary school?

What is the result of teaching vocabulary to young learners through an integrated approach which combines storytelling and role playing at the 8th grades of primary school?

1.4. The Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

This study aims to quest for the role of the integrated approach which combines storytelling and role playing techniques in vocabulary learning; that is, vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary retention level of the young learners. It is intended to see whether the treatment which includes story telling-role playing techniques makes any significant distinction in young learners' vocabulary knowledge and their word retention level. The results of the immediate and the delayed tests which were given after the presentation of the selected vocabulary items will help us to examine students' learning and retention.

The study seeks to find answers to the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between immediate-recall of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?
2. Is there a significant difference between immediate-recognition of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?
3. Is there a significant difference between delayed-recall of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?
4. Is there a significant difference between delayed-recognition of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The study was carried out with the 8th grade students at Aliye Hüseyin Tekbaş Primary School in Karatay Konya. The study was applied on only one level of learners. Students of other levels like intermediate, upper intermediate or advanced do not exist in this primary school.

This study covers only 20 content vocabulary items such as nouns, adjectives, verbs. The study focuses on only the recognition and retention of vocabulary items.

The study is limited to 28 students of two 8th grade students. The total number of the 8th grade students in this primary school is 68. The number of the male students is lower than the female students. The researcher was able to elect just 14 male students who are at the same level and interested in school and studying and 28 female students who are at the same level. As the number of the male and female students to be equal, 14 students for the experimental group (7 males 7 females) and 14 students for the control group (7 males 7 females) participated in the study. All the students who participated in the study were more or less at the same level group of English, but they come from different parts of Turkey and have different educational backgrounds. Conducting the study with a larger group of subjects would permit a greater certainty about the findings.

The treatment is limited to an integrated approach which combines storytelling and a role playing techniques. The treatment duration of the study is limited to 80 minutes because of the disciplinary problems of the remaining students, yearly schedule of the Ministry of Education and administrative conditions.

Since the school is a newly built one, the lack of technological equipment at school such as computer, projector, CD player, or smart board limited the variation of the activities implemented in the classroom.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language

Here in this part, first of all, we should mention about the term English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Learning EFL can be clearly defined in case of a Turkish who is learning English in Turkey with few opportunities to use English language. So one can say foreign language is a term that refers to the language learnt in a country where people do not use it in their daily life.

As for theories of how a foreign/second language is learnt, they have relied on the theories of first language acquisition. Detailed information on language learning theories is not given here, just an outline of some theories are presented with their implications for second language learning.

According to *Behaviorism* (Bloomfield, 1933; Skinner, 1957), that was very popular in 1940s, language is learnt through practice and imitation. Habit formation is crucial for language learning and it can be achieved through reinforcement. Learners copy what they hear, and through practice they gain habit. Listening and speaking have a priority in this theory.

Linguistic theory of “*universal grammar*” (*UG*) proposed by Noam Chomsky claims that there is a set of principles which exist in all languages. These principles are biologically determined and specialized for language learning. Originally, *UG* theory referred to the first language learning. But its principles were adopted by second language researchers and applied in this field. Second language researchers explain the existence of developmental sequences in inter-language using *UG*. According to them language learners have the knowledge of *UG*, they use it in the development of foreign language competence.

Socio-cultural theory emphasizes the importance of “social interaction” in language learning. The originator of this theory is Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934). This theory proposes the view that listening to a language is not enough to learn that

language. Learners should interact with their environment. So, Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in every learner is the most popular concept by Vygotsky. ZPD is the distance between learners' existing development state and their potential development. Put another way, the ZPD describes tasks that a learner has not yet learned but is capable of learning with appropriate stimuli. (Brown, 2007: 13)

In the last quarter of 20th century, Stephan Krashen proposed his *Input Hypothesis* (1981). His hypothesis have different names: in the early years “Monitor Model” or “Acquisition- Learning Hypothesis”, in recent years “Input Hypothesis”. This model consists of five interrelated hypotheses: *Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, Monitor Hypothesis, Natural Order Hypothesis, Input Hypothesis, and Affective Filter Hypothesis.*

Krashen states that “adults have two distinct independent ways of developing competence in a second language; *language learning* and *language acquisition*” (1987: 10). *Language learning* comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge 'about' the language. In this process learners are aware of the rules and able to talk about them. On the other hand, *language acquisition* is a subconscious and intuitive process in which learners are not aware of the acquisition or the rules. They use the language for communication. So it is like the process used by children to acquire their first language. The differences between these two terms can be seen below.

Table 1: Continuum between learning and acquisition

	LEARNING	ACQUISITION
1	Conscious intake	Unconscious intake
2	Attention to form	Attention to meaning and function
3	Instructed	Naturalistic/Partly instructed
4	No possibilities of using language	Possibilities for using language
5	Learner is adolescent or young adult	Learner is younger
6	Negotiation of meaning is absent	Negotiation of meaning is present

(Çelik, 2007: 413)

Monitor Hypothesis is a matter of language learning not acquisition. It is a device used to guard and warn the language learners output for editions, correction. According to Krashen (1987), the acquisition system is the utterance initiator, while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' or the 'editor'. The 'monitor' is only used when three conditions are met: that is, the second language learner has sufficient time at his/her disposal, he/she focuses on form or thinks about correctness, and he/she knows the rule. According to Krashen, the role of the monitor is - or should be - minor, it should be used only to correct deviations from 'normal' speech.

In *Natural Order Hypothesis*, Krashen claimed that we acquire language rules in a predictable or “natural” order. They are acquired in a fixed way, pre-established, and determined by innate mechanisms. Some of them are early-acquired and some are late-acquired.

The *Input Hypothesis* explains how learners move from one stage i (*current competence*) to the next one $i+1$ during the learning process. This can be achieved only by being exposed to comprehensible input containing $i+1$. In other words, the language learners exposed to should be just beyond their current competence. So they can understand some of this input but also find it a bit challenging for progress. According to Krashen (1987), receiving comprehensible input is the only way that can lead to the acquisition of a second language.

Affective filter Hypothesis considers the role of several affective factors such as motivation, self-confidence, or anxiety in language acquisition. Affective filter acts as a barrier to the input. Lack of motivation or self-esteem and anxiety ‘RAISE’ the affective filter so that comprehensible input is not able to reach the innate mechanism “Language Acquisition Device” to be processed. This makes the acquisition unavailable. But if a learner is motivated, self-confident and relaxed, than the affective filter is low and acquisition is possible.

For language acquisition two conditions are crucial: comprehensible input, a bit beyond the learner's current level ($i+1$) and a low affective filter to allow the input in. Finally Krashen (1987: 33) asserts that:

“... comprehensible input and the strength of the filter are true causes of second language acquisition. Other variables may relate to second language success; that is, we may see positive correlations between other variables and measures of achievement in second language, but in all cases in which language acquisition is attained, analysis will reveal that the relationship can better be explained in terms of comprehensible input plus filter level.”

2.2. Learning Strategies

The word *strategy* derives from the Greek "στρατηγία" (*strategia*). *Strategy*, a word of military origin, refers to a plan of action designed to achieve a particular goal. (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Strategy) This term has a military origin, but we use it in all areas.

In the field of education, students use learning strategies to help them understand or solve problems in the learning process. Students who use appropriate learning strategies when needed learn actively and are usually more successful than those who do not.

Then, what are learning strategies? Chamot (2004:1) defines learning strategies as “...conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal”. In an early definition, Weinstein and Mayer (1986 in Lessard- Clousten, 1997:2) describe learning strategy as “behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning”.

Rubin (1987) defines learning strategies as: “any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information... that is, what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning. (in Hedge, 2000:77)

Learning strategies are involved in all learning whatever the content and context are. Thus, learning strategies are used not only in classroom settings, but everywhere learning takes place, in learning and teaching history, science, math, languages, etc.

2.2.1. Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies are techniques that are used by language learners to learn and use language. A very clear definition of language learning strategies offered by Oxford (1999) is “specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language.” (in Dörnyei, 2005:163). Andrew Cohen offered a more specific definition of language learning strategies:

Language learning strategies include strategies for identifying the material that needs to be learned, distinguishing it from other material if needed, grouping it for easier learning (grouping vocabulary into nouns, verbs and so forth), having repeated contact with the material (through classroom tasks or homework), and formally committing the material to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally (through memory techniques such as repetition, mnemonics etc.). (Cohen, 1998:5)

After a detailed definition of language learning strategies, it will be helpful to have a look at the characteristics of these strategies for better understanding. According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies:

- contribute to main goal, communicative competence
- allow learners to become more self-directed
- expand the role of teacher
- are problem oriented
- are specific actions taken by the learner
- involve many actions taken by the learner, not just the cognitive
- support learning both directly and indirectly

- are not always observable
- can be taught
- are flexible
- are influenced by a variety of factors (in Nunan, 1999:172)

The first interest in learning strategies emerged from a desire to find out the characteristics of the “good language learner”. What people who are good at language learning have in common? Naiman *et al.* (1995, in Cook, 2001: 130) tried to find some answers to this question, and they found these broad strategies.

1. Find a learning style that suits you.
2. Involve yourself in the language learning process.
3. Develop an awareness of language both as system and communication.
4. Pay constant attention to expanding your language.
5. Develop the second language system.
6. Take into account the demands that L2 learning imposes.

Classification of the language learning strategies is another issue in this field. Many classification schemas for language learning strategies have been developed by scholars. The most cited two taxonomies are O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990). A summary of two taxonomies of language learning strategies can be seen as follows:

Table 2: Two taxonomies of language learning strategies

O’Malley and Chamot (1990)	Oxford (1990)
<p>A. Cognitive Strategies, e.g. ‘inferencing’ (using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information)</p> <p>B. Metacognitive strategies, ‘selective attention’ (deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input)</p> <p>C. Social/affective strategies, e.g. ‘question for clarification’ (asking a teacher or another native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation and/or examples)</p>	<p>A. Direct</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Memory Strategies, e.g. ‘grouping’ (classifying or reclassifying materials into meaningful units) 2. Cognitive strategies, e.g. ‘practising’ (repeating, formally practising, recognizing, and using formulas, recombining, and practising naturalistically) 3. Compensation strategies, e.g. ‘switching to mother tongue’ <p>B. Indirect</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Metacognitive Strategies, e.g. ‘setting goals and objectives’ 2. Affective strategies, e.g. ‘taking risks wisely’

	3. <i>Social strategies</i> , e.g. ‘asking for clarification or verification’
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(Ellis, 2009:707)

First classification by O’Malley and Chamot, is divided into three; *Cognitive Strategies* (analysis, transformation, note-taking, etc.), *Metacognitive Strategies* (planning learning, monitoring speech, self- evaluation, etc.), and *Social/Affective Strategies* (working with fellows, asking the teacher’s help, etc.). Details can be seen below in Table 3.

Table 3: Language learning strategies by O’Malley and Chamot

Learning Strategy	Description
Meta-cognitive Strategies	
Advance Organizers	Making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity
Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distracters
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input
Self-management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions
Functional planning	Planning for rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task
Self-monitoring	Correcting one’s speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present
Delayed production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension
Self-evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one’s own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy
Cognitive Strategies	
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language
Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying, and perhaps labeling the material to be learnt based on common attributes

Note taking	Writing down the main important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing
Deduction	Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language
Recombination	Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way
Imaginary	Relating new information to visual concept in memory via familiar easily retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations
Auditory representation	Retention of the sound or a similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence
Keyword	Remembering a new word in the second language by (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sound like or otherwise resembles the new word and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word and the familiar word
Contextualization	Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence
Elaboration	Relating new information to other concepts in memory
Transfer	Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information
Socio-affective strategies	
Cooperation	Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity
Question for clarification	Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples

(O'Malley et al., 1985 in Brown, 2007:134-135)

Oxford's taxonomy is based on two general distinctions *Direct* and *Indirect Strategies*. Direct strategies involve the language learning directly and require mental processing. The details of Direct Strategies are as follows:

Table 4: Oxford’ Strategy Classification System; Direct Strategies

<p>I. Memory Strategies</p>	<p>A. Creating mental linkages</p> <p>B. Applying images and sounds</p> <p>C. Reviewing well</p> <p>D. Employing action</p>	<p>1. Grouping</p> <p>2. Associating/elaborating</p> <p>3. Placing new words into a context</p> <p>1. Using imagery</p> <p>2. Semantic mapping</p> <p>3. Using keywords</p> <p>4. Representing sounds in memory</p> <p>1. Structured viewing</p> <p>1. Using physical response or sensation</p> <p>2. Using mechanical techniques</p>
<p>II. Cognitive Strategies</p>	<p>A. Practising</p> <p>B. Receiving and sending messages strategies</p> <p>C. Analyzing and reasoning</p> <p>D. Creating structure for input and output</p>	<p>1. Repeating</p> <p>2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems</p> <p>3. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns</p> <p>4. Recombining</p> <p>5. Practicing naturalistically</p> <p>1. Getting the idea quickly</p> <p>2. Using the sources for receiving & sending messages</p> <p>1. Reasoning deductively</p> <p>2. Analyzing expressions</p> <p>3. Analyzing contrastively (across languages)</p> <p>4. Translating</p> <p>5. Transferring</p> <p>1. Taking notes</p> <p>2. Summarizing</p> <p>3. Highlighting</p>
<p>III. Compensation Strategies</p>	<p>A. Guessing Intelligently</p> <p>B. Overcoming Limitations</p>	<p>1. Using linguistic clues</p> <p>2. Using other clues</p> <p>1. Switching to the mother tongue</p> <p>2. Getting help</p> <p>3. Using mime or gesture</p> <p>4. Avoiding communication partially or totally</p> <p>5. Selecting the topic</p> <p>6. Adjusting or approximating the message</p> <p>7. Coining words</p> <p>8. using a circumlocution or synonym</p>

(Oxford, 1990 in Brown, 2007:141)

Oxford’s Indirect Strategies provide indirect support for language learning and enable the learner to engage with the L2, such as focusing, planning, seeking opportunities, etc. The details of Indirect Strategies are as follows:

Table 5: Oxford' Strategy Classification System; Indirect Strategies

<p>I. Meta-cognitive Strategies</p>	<p>A. Centering your learning</p> <p>B. Arranging and planning your learning</p> <p>C. Evaluating your learning</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Overview and linking with already known material 2. Paying attention 3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening 1. Finding out about language learning 2. Organizing 3. Setting goals and objectives 4. Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful listening/ reading/ speaking/ writing) 5. Planning for a language task 6. Seeking practice opportunities 1. Self-monitoring 2. Self-evaluating
<p>II. Affective Strategies</p>	<p>A. Lowering your anxiety</p> <p>B. Encouraging yourself</p> <p>C. Taking your emotional temperature</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or mediation 2. Using music 3. Using laughter 1. Making positive statements 2. Taking risks wisely 3. Rewarding yourself 1. Listening to your body 2. Using a checklist 3. Writing a language learning diary 4. Discussing your feeling with someone else
<p>III. Social Strategies</p>	<p>A. Asking questions</p> <p>B. Cooperating with others</p> <p>C. Empathizing with others</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Asking for clarification or verification 2. Asking for correction 1. Cooperating with peers 2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language 1. Developing cultural understanding 2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

(Oxford, 1990 in Brown, 2007:142)

What makes a strategy positive and helpful for the learners? Rebecca Oxford (1990) one of the leading researchers in this field argues that: “A strategy is useful if the following conditions are present: a) the strategy relates well to the L2 task attend; b) the strategy fits the particular student’s learning style preferences to one degree or another; and c) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies. Strategies that fulfill these conditions “make learning easier faster

more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations.” (in Celce-Murcia, 2001:362)

Language learners who use a wide variety of language learning strategies can improve their language skills in a better way. Developing skills in meta-cognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective areas can help the language learners build up *learner independence* and *autonomy* and they can take control of their own learning. Rebecca Oxford (1990) argues that strategies are important for two reasons. In the first place, strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Secondly, learners who have developed appropriate learning strategies have greater self-confidence and learn more effectively. (in Nunan1999:172)

2.3. Teaching English to Young Learners

Scott and Ytreberg (1990:176) claim that young learners can be grouped according to their ages rather than their growth level; five to seven years old and eight to ten years old. However, some researchers group young learners as *child*, *preteen* and *young teenagers*. Young learners pass through these three levels of growth and then become teenagers. In this study, this grouping is taken into consideration and our study deals with the last group of young learners, *young teenagers*. The children of this age are relatively mature , and they have both adult and child characteristics. Halliwell (1992) says that they bring with them an already well-established set of instincts, skills and characteristics, which will help them to learn another language.

Scott and Ytreberg (1997) list the characteristics of young learners as following.

- Their key concepts are formed. They have very decided views of the world.
- They are aware of the difference between fact and fiction.
- They can understand abstracts

- They always ask questions.
- They are able to decide about their own learning.
- They have certain preferences about what they like and what they do not like doing.
- They have a developed objectivity about what happens around and begin to criticize teacher's decisions.
- They can understand symbols (beginning with words)
- They can generalize, systematize.

Young learners love to play and use their imagination. They are naturally curious and they like repetitions. They are imaginative, creative, and energetic. They have emotional needs; they want to be the centre of the teacher's interest and also they always try to please their teacher. If they enjoy in the learning situation, they like dealing with language. On the contrary, young learners lose interest more quickly, and they are not able to keep themselves motivated on the tasks they find difficult.

Scott and Ytreberg (1990) indicate that due to the short attention span of young learners variety is a must. Variety of activity as well as variety of materials in the language lesson will provide young learners concentrate for longer periods of time. So it is necessary that materials and activities used with young learners involve variety and fun.

As Harmer (2001) states that age of our students is a main factor in our decisions about how and what to teach. So the language activities and materials in the language class should meet young learners' needs in order to be successful. Teachers should create a joyful and anxiety-free language learning atmosphere for them. Activities and materials are also crucial for presenting and practicing meaningful language in context. Especially when integrated under a theme, they can contextualize what the teacher is saying.

To conclude, language learning materials and activities must be well prepared that they can engage students mentally and make them analyze and synthesize the

information during the language learning process. Development of receptive skills (listening and reading) takes place earlier than productive skills (speaking and writing), so storytelling activities and materials used with them, not only to create a joyful atmosphere in language classes, also to develop students' receptive skills.

2.4. Vocabulary Teaching

Vocabulary teaching was neglected for much of the twentieth century in favor of pronunciation and grammar. However, it has been the center of the interest in language teaching field since the 1980s.

Nunan (1999:103) explains this shift by giving two reasons: “In recent years, the teaching of vocabulary has assumed its rightful place as a fundamentally important aspect of language development. This is partly due to the research efforts of influential applied linguists (for example, Carter and McCarthy, 1988), and partly due to the existing possibilities opened up by the development of computer based language corpora (Sinclair and Renouf, 1988)”.

In fact, the vocabulary field has been especially productive in the last two decades. We have seen a number of classic volumes on theories (e.g., Carter, 1987; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 1990), research (e.g., Arnaud & Bejoint, 1992; Gass, 1987; Meara, 1989; Nation & Carter, 1989), and practical tips (e.g., Gairns & Redman, 1986; McCarthy & O'Dell, 1994). Recent volumes that handles different aspects of vocabulary acquisition include Huckin, Haynes, and Coady (1993), Harley (1995), Hatch and Brown (1995), Coady and Huckin (1997), Schmitt and McCarthy (1997), Atkins (1998), Wesche and Paribakht (1999), Read (2000), Schmitt (2000), and Nation (2001)

Ellis (2008: 99) points out the growing interest to vocabulary teaching in this way: “There has been a notable growth of interest in the acquisition of L2 vocabulary in the last ten years, as evidenced by the publication of a number of single authored books (for example, Nation 2001; Singleton 1999) and collections of articles (Bogaards and Laufer 2004; Schmitt an McCarthy 1997; Wesche and Paribakht 1999).”

2.4.1. Vocabulary in the Approaches to Language Teaching

The importance given to vocabulary and the way it is taught within the approaches are briefly discussed in the next part. The major approaches in language teaching are classified into eight titles, namely, Grammar-Translation, Direct, Audiolingualism, Cognitive, Humanistic, Comprehension-Based, Communicative, and Lexical.

2.4.1.1. Grammar Translation Approach

Grammar- Translation Approach dominated foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s. The fundamental goal of learning a foreign language in Grammar Translation Approach is to be able to read its literature. In order to do so, students are expected to learn the grammatical rules and vocabulary of the target language.

Memorizing vocabulary items in vocabulary lists are a part of the lesson in this approach. Students are expected to translate lexical items or sentences from the target language into their mother tongue using dictionaries (or vice versa). Students are given a list of words that are used in a text to find their antonyms or synonyms or define them. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:20).

The main objection to this approach was that student is not able to use the language for communication, because this approach lacks realistic communication.

2.4.1.2. Direct Approach

By the end of the nineteenth century *Direct Approach* emerged as a reaction to the Grammar Translation Approach and its failure to produce learners who could communicate in the foreign language. The goal of this approach is learning how to use a foreign language to communicate rather than analyzing it. According to Diller (1978) Direct Method has one very basic rule: No translation is allowed. In fact, this method receives its name from the fact that meaning is to be conveyed *directly* in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the students' native language. (in Larsen-Freeman, 2000:23)

In this approach, vocabulary is much more important than grammar. Objects, pictures, visuals, etc. are used to help students understand the meaning of the vocabulary items. It is supposed that vocabulary can be acquired naturally through interactions during the lesson; therefore, vocabulary is presented in context.

Students should learn to think in the target language as soon as possible. Vocabulary is acquired more naturally if students use it in full sentences, rather than memorizing word lists. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:27)

There were some objections to The Direct Method that: Teachers who were native speakers or had native-like fluency in the foreign language, were needed, and it may not be always possible. What's more, sometimes, it may be very difficult to convey the meaning through demonstration, and translation may be needed.

2.4.1.3. Audiolingualisms

The Audio-Lingual Method which was dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s, is a Behaviorist model of learning. It is an oral-based approach like the Direct Method, and speech is more important than Written form. But it is very different in that, this method drills the learners in the use of grammatical sentence patterns, it does not emphasize the vocabulary in use like Direct Method.

Language learning is a process of “habit- formation” with the use of ‘Stimulus-Response-Reinforcement’ model. The importance of repetition is emphasized in Larsen- Freeman (2000:43): “The more often something is repeated, the stronger the habit and the greater the learning... It is important to prevent learners from making errors. Errors lead to the formation of bad habits... Positive reinforcement helps the students to develop correct habits.”

The main emphasis in this approach is placed on the grammar of a language which should be “over learned”, it means students should answer automatically without stopping to think. The major objective is to acquire the structural patterns, vocabulary is kept to a minimum in the process as it can be learned afterwards.

The new grammatical points and vocabulary are presented through dialogues. These dialogues are learned through repetition. Most of the drills and exercises pay no attention to content. In this approach, new words are selected according to their familiarity to make the grammar practice possible. Vocabulary was "restricted" in this method because it emphasized the phonological aspects of language learning.

After a long period of widespread popularity, this approach faced criticism on two fronts. Harmer (2001:80) argues that in Audio-Lingual Method the language is de-contextualized and carries little communicative function. Second, by its best to banish mistakes, so that students only use correct language, such teaching runs counter to a belief among many theorists that making (and learning) from errors is a key part of the process of acquisition. Indeed Audio-Lingual methodology seems to banish all forms of language processing that help students sort out new language information in their own minds.

2.4.1.4. Cognitive Approach

The idea in Audio-Lingual Method that language learning is a process of "habit-formation" was challenged in 1960s. *The Cognitive Approach* offered relief to the criticisms for the behaviorist features of the Audio-lingual Approach.

Linguist Noam Chomsky (1959) argued that language acquisition could not possibly take place through habit formation. Since people create and understand utterances they have never heard before. Chomsky proposed instead that speakers have knowledge of underlying abstract rules, which allow them to understand and create novel utterances. Thus, Chomsky reasoned, language must not be considered a product of habit formation, but rather of rule formation. (in Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 53)

According to this approach, learners are responsible for their learning and they formulate hypotheses to discover the rules of the language. Errors are signs that learners are active in the learning process and that they test their hypotheses.

2.4.1.4.1. Silent Way

Although no teaching method directly stems from the Cognitive Approach, Gattengo's *Silent Way* (1976) shares certain principles with it. The silent way is a learner centered method, not teacher centered. So the teachers do not enter into conversation with the learners. It is believed that remembering and repeating the dialogues are not enough for language acquisition. Learners facilitate language learning better if they discover the language themselves with the use of their “inner resources” (perception, awareness, cognition, imagination, creativity, etc.).

In the procedure of this method, the teacher models sounds while pointing at a phonemic chart or to an arrangement of Cuisenaire rods. A student imitates the teacher and the teacher indicates (silently) if he or she is correct. If not, another student is prompted to help the first student. The class continues with the teacher pointing to different phonemes while the students work out what they are and then how to combine them... The teacher indicates by gesture or expression what the students should do and whether or not they are correct. Examples and corrections are only given verbally if no student can do it. (Harmer, 2001: 89)

In this method, vocabulary is a bit restricted at first; it is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels. A distinction is made between several classes of vocabulary items. As cited in Richards and Rodgers (1986), the first class consists of common expressions in the daily life, the second class consists of words used in communicating more specialized ideas such as politics and the last class consists of more functional words of language.

To some, the silent way has seemed somewhat inhuman, with the teacher's silence acting as a barrier rather than an incentive. But to others, the reliance, students are forced to place upon themselves and upon each other, is exciting and liberating. It is students that should take responsibility for their learning; it is the teacher's job to organize this. (Harmer, 2001: 89)

2.4.1.5. Humanistic Approach

As a reaction to the Audio-Lingual and Cognitive Approach, in which there is no affective consideration, *Humanistic Approach* emerged which emphasizes respect for the learners' feelings. In this approach, learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization process. Peer support and interaction are necessary for learning, so much of the activities involve pair-work and group-work.

2.4.1.5.1. Suggestopedia

A teaching method which can be categorized under this approach is Lozanov's *Suggestopedia* (also known as *Desuggestopedia*) (1978). Learning atmosphere has a vital importance for this method. To talk about language learning, students' 'affective filter' must be lowered. This depends on students' being comfortable, confident, and relaxed thereby on the atmosphere in the classroom.

A Suggestopaedic lesson has three main parts; 1- oral review section in which previously learnt material is used for discussion, 2- presentation and discussion of new dialogue material and its native language equivalent, 3- "séance" or "concert" session, in which students listen to relaxing music while the teacher reads the new dialogue material in a way which synchronizes with the music. (Harmer, 2001:90)

In this method, vocabulary is emphasized. The success of the method depends on the huge amount of vocabulary, acquired by the learners. Target words are usually followed by its translation to make the meaning of the dialogues clear. In this method, lexis is emphasized and lexical translation is emphasized more than contextualization. Grammar is kept at the background and dealt minimally.

2.4.1.5.2. Community Language Learning

Another humanistic teaching method is Curran's *Community Language Learning* (1976). According to Curran (in Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 53) adults often feel threatened by a new learning situation. It can be dealt for teachers by becoming 'language counselors'. If the teacher is sensitive to the students' fears and understands them, he/she can help students feel confident and relaxed.

In this method students sit in a circle and the teacher stands outside the circle as a counselor. At the beginning students decide what they want to talk about. Teacher provides the target language statements when the students have problem doing so. The job for the teacher is to ‘facilitate’ not to ‘teach’. When the students are ready to express themselves and are more comfortable, they can do pair works.

This method is most often used in the teaching of oral proficiency. In the early stages, students decide what to talk about, so they generate the topic, materials etc. But later on, the teacher prepares the materials.

Particular grammar points, pronunciation patterns, and vocabulary are worked with, based on the language the students have generated. The most important skills are; understanding and speaking the language at the beginning, with reinforcement through reading and writing. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 101)

2.4.1.6. Comprehension-based Approach

Comprehension-Based Approach, as it can be inferred from its name, gives importance to listening comprehension. This approach argues that listening comprehension allows speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time, given the right conditions.

Second language learners, like first language learners, should be exposed to a great deal of authentic language, pass through a pre-production period and during this period they can internalize how the target language works. They can respond nonverbally in meaningful ways and learn grammar sub-consciously and speaking will occur spontaneously.

2.4.1.6.1. Total Physical Response

Asher's *Total Physical Response* (1977) is the result of the Comprehension-Based Approaches. On the basis of his research, Asher reasoned that the fastest, least stressful way to achieve understanding of any target language is to follow the directions uttered by the instructor (without native language translation.). (in Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 108)

In this method, grammatical structure and vocabulary are more important than other aspects. Spoken language is emphasized over written language. It requires initial attention to meaning rather than the form of the items.

It seems with the shift to generative linguistics in the 1960s, vocabulary in the Cognitive, Affective-Humanistic, and Comprehension-Based Approaches was afforded somewhat more importance, but the focus on rules of grammar was still served to reinforce the idea that lexis was somewhat secondary (Carter & McCarthy, 1988). Vocabulary teaching was treated more or less in the same way. It wasn't a focus of instruction in L2 classrooms for much of 20th century and this area was neglected. However, after the 1970s, as Communicative Approach emerged, vocabulary teaching suddenly gained importance.

2.4.1.7. Communicative Approach

The method which has dominated the last several decades of this century is the *Communicative Language Teaching* (Hymes, 1971; Halliday, 1973). This approach focuses on language functions rather than forms. Fluency is emphasized over accuracy. According to this approach, language is as a system for communication, so communicative competence is very important.

With its emphasis on fluency over accuracy, and a focus on encouraging learners to communicate their messages and intentions using the linguistic resources available to them, vocabulary has not been a primary concern of this methodology and was given secondary status, taught mainly as a support for functional language use (Decarrico, 2001). As in previous approaches, it was generally assumed that vocabulary would take care of itself; therefore, it is assumed that there is no real need for direct vocabulary instruction (Schmidt, 2000).

This method gives importance to vocabulary, but there is not direct vocabulary instruction. Vocabulary is taught in context not in isolation. The functional use of words is taught to the learners in dialogues. Communicative and social functions are presented along with the dialogues. Vocabulary is taught in context through skill

integration and information gap activities, using maps, pictures, graphs and charts. Vocabulary is not the focus of attention in CLT as communication is more important.

2.4.1.8. The Lexical Approach

The Lexical Approach as an alternative to grammar based approaches, popularized by Lewis (1993, 1997) has a lot in common with communicative approach. According to Lewis, language consists of not grammar and vocabulary but of multi-words prefabricated “chunks”. Lexical phrases, such as collocations, idioms, fixed and semi-fixed phrases play an important role in language. Lewis (1997) proposes that “fluency is the result of the acquisition of a large store of fixed and semi-fixed prefabricated items which are available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity.” (in Harmer, 2001: 91)

Lewis (1993) argues that vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching. He regards vocabulary as a basic to communication. But lexical phrases are more important than individual words. Lewis (1997) also suggests that exposure to enough suitable input, not formal teaching, is the “key to increasing the learner’s lexicon” and that most vocabulary is acquired, not taught.” (in Harmer, 2001: 92)

2.4.2. Definition of Vocabulary

From a broad perspective, vocabulary is an element of the language. To form the sentence “It is hot today.” the speaker has to put together the elements of the language that are *grammar*, *vocabulary* and *pronunciation*. The topic of this part is *vocabulary* so other two elements won’t be handled here.

What is vocabulary? The first answer that comes to mind to this question is perhaps “knowledge of a language’s words”. Here are the dictionary definitions of the word “vocabulary”: “A vocabulary is a set of words known to a person or other entity, or that are part of a specific language” (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vocabulary); “all the words in a particular language”. (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2000:1334)

Ur (1996:60) defined vocabulary as “the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, post office and mother-in-law, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea.”

2.4.3. The Importance of Vocabulary in Language Teaching

Learning a foreign language cannot be accomplished without learning the vocabulary of that language. Vocabulary knowledge is very crucial for successful second language acquisition. Everybody would agree that the most frustrating experiences in speaking another language are the times when you cannot find the word you need to express yourself.

Many linguists emphasized the importance of vocabulary learning. For example, Read suggests that (2001:1) “words are the basic building blocks of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures like sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed.” As Scrivener (1994:73) states, “The more words I have, the more precisely I can express the exact meanings I want to” The linguist David Wilkins summed up the importance of vocabulary learning in his book *Innovations* as ‘Without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.’

Gürsoy (2001: 182) points out the importance of vocabulary in this way: “It is clear that the knowledge about the structures of the language is not enough for efficient communication. Certain amount of vocabulary is essential to everybody learning a second/foreign language. Without the knowledge of vocabulary, it would be impossible to talk, read, and understand written and oral material.”

Finally one of the best known methodologist Harmer (2001: 153) emphasizes the value of vocabulary as: “If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is the vocabulary that provides the vital organ and flesh. An ability to manipulate grammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used... for example, the student who says ‘yesterday... I have seen him yesterday.’ Is committing one of the most notorious tense mistakes in

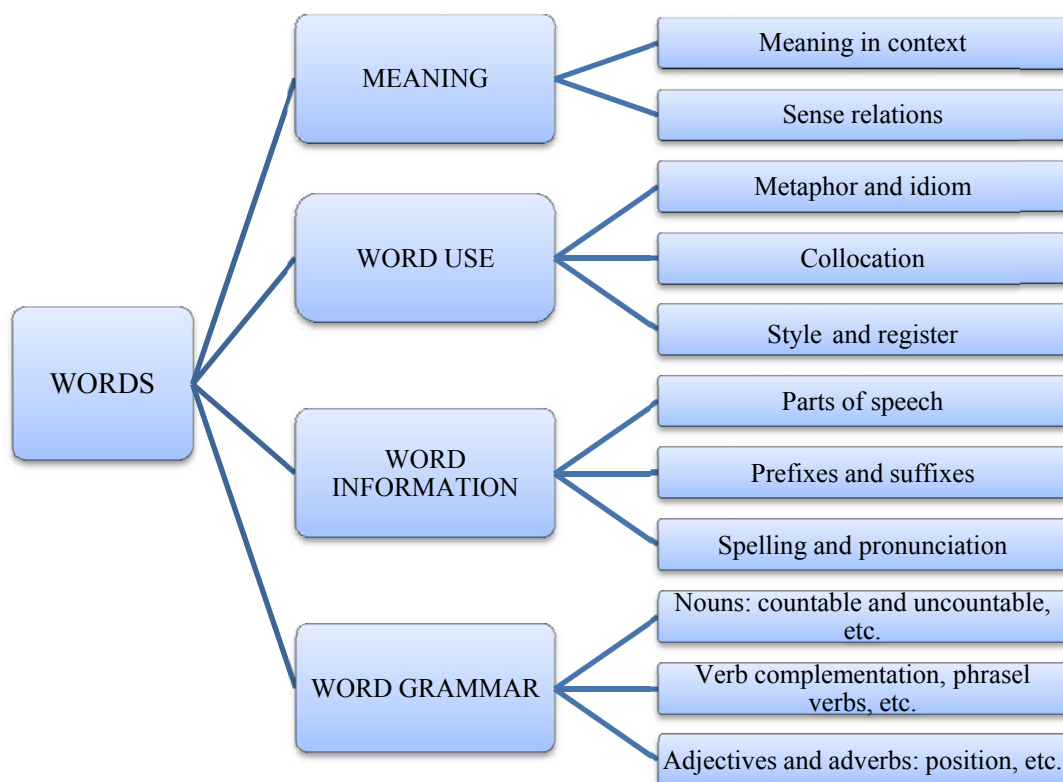
English but he/she will still be understood as having seen him yesterday because of the word 'yesterday'.

2.4.4. Knowing a word

One can simply define knowing a word as understanding its meaning when it is seen. Knowing a word is more than its meaning. Vocabulary learning also includes the ability to recall the learnt word when needed, pronounce it properly, use it in correct form, spell it correctly, etc.

Then, what do students need to know about a vocabulary item? Harmer (1991) suggests four criteria: *meaning*, *word use*, *word formation*, and *word grammar*. In terms of *meaning* learners need to know about vocabulary items is that they have more than one meaning according to the context they are used and that they have meanings in relation to other words (antonyms, synonyms etc.). Meaning of a word can also be changed by *how it is used* (metaphor, idiom, collocation etc.). Students also need to know *word formation* that: knowing how words can change their form (in different grammatical context or with the use of prefixes and suffixes) and how they are written and pronounced. Lastly they need to know *word grammar*. Harmer (1991) summarizes 'Knowing a Word' in the following way:

Figure 1: Knowing a word



(Harmer, 1991:158)

Nation (1990:30-31) claims that the answer to the same question above is two-fold as the learning of a word can serve two purposes: *receptive use* (listening or reading) or *receptive and productive use* (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

Receptive knowledge of a word involves “being able to recognize it when it is heard (what does it sound like?) or when it is seen (what does it look like). It also includes “being able to recall its meaning when we meet it and “being able to make various associations with other related words”. (Nation, 1990:31-32)

Productive knowledge of a word, however, includes receptive knowledge and extends it. It includes “knowing how to pronounce the word, “how to write and spell

it”, “how to use it in correct grammatical patterns along with the words it usually collocates with and also “not using the word too often if it is typically a low-frequency word” and “using it in suitable situations”. (Nation, 1990:32)

Another distinction made in vocabulary knowledge is active and passive vocabulary. The first one is the vocabulary that the learners can recognize and understand in a text or speech but cannot use in their own sentences. However, the second term is the vocabulary that the learners can understand and also use in their speech or writing. So passive vocabulary knowledge of a learner is naturally richer than active vocabulary knowledge. Schmit (2000) states that active and passive are alternative terms for productive and receptive. Read (2001) describes passive vocabulary as having knowledge of a word; and active vocabulary as being able to use this knowledge in speaking or writing.

During the last three decades, researchers have shown great interests towards vocabulary teaching. A major debate on vocabulary teaching and learning among vocabulary researchers focuses on *implicit (incidental)* and *explicit vocabulary learning*.

Decarrico (2001: 289) defines *Implicit (incidental) vocabulary learning* as “learning that occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as on understanding a text or using language for communicative purposes.” Communicative approach, in the 1970s and 1980s, focused on incidental learning. Students were encouraged to infer the word meanings from the context and to use monolingual dictionaries.

In *explicit vocabulary learning*, on the other hand, students are taught vocabulary through activities in which attention is on vocabulary. There are some principles of explicit vocabulary learning about what and how to teach. They include elaborating word knowledge, encouraging independent learning strategies, promoting a deep level of processing, developing fluency, and using vocabulary learning techniques, etc.

Nation (1990) argues for a systematic rather than an incidental approach to the teaching of vocabulary and asserts that such a focus is an essential part of a language course. On the other hand, some researchers recommend the combination of *implicit (incidental)* and *explicit vocabulary learning*. And also they emphasize the need for strategy training. Decarrico (2001:289) explains the situation in this way; “while acknowledging that exposure to words in various contexts is extremely important to a deeper understanding of a word meaning, most researchers recognize that providing incidental encounters with words is only one method of facilitating vocabulary acquisition, and that a well-structured vocabulary program needs a balanced approach that includes *explicit teaching* together with activities providing appropriate contexts for *incidental learning*.”

2.4.5. Vocabulary and memory

Forgetting the vocabulary items is the main problem of language learners. Naturally this is also the main point about vocabulary teaching for the teachers. So it is an important task for teachers to help their students to remember or rather, to code the vocabulary items properly so that they can be sent to the *long term memory*.

It must be recognized that words are not necessarily learned in a linear manner, with only incremental advancement and no backsliding. All teachers recognize that learners forget material as well. This forgetting is a natural fact of learning. We should view partial vocabulary knowledge as being in a state of flux, with both learning and forgetting occurring until the word is mastered and "fixed" in memory. (Schmitt, 2000: 129)

Gairns and Redman (1986:86) claims that understanding how information in the memory is stored and why some of the information is recorded in mind and some is flown away is important for language teachers to help students learning words. This information is useful for language teachers in order to teach vocabulary effectively and for the retention of new language items.

Most of the forgetting occurs in the learners' *receptive vocabulary knowledge* which involves “being able to recognize a vocabulary item when it is heard (what

does it sound like?) or when it is seen (what does it look like?).” *Productive words*, which learners are able to use in correct grammatical patterns along with the words they usually collocate with, are less prone to forgetting.

Forgetting occurs possibly, if the learners do not use a foreign language for a long time. Furthermore, if students do not review newly learnt vocabulary items soon after the learning session, forgetting is inevitable. Because results of research on shorter-term forgetting, shows that most forgetting occurs soon after the end of the learning session and forgetting rate decreases as time goes on. So it is critical to have a review session soon after the learning session. Word frequency is also an important factor in vocabulary learning that affects remembering. It is much more difficult to remember the vocabulary items that are not frequently used.

Schmitt (2000: 131) states that, memory comes in two basic types: short-term memory (also known as working memory) and long-term memory. Long-term memory retains information for use in anything but the immediate future. Short-term memory is used to store or hold information while it is being processed. It normally can hold information for only a matter of seconds. However, this can be extended by rehearsal, for example, by constantly repeating a phone number so that it is not forgotten. Short-term memory is fast and adaptive but has a small storage capacity. Long-term memory has an almost unlimited storage capacity but is relatively slow.

Short -term memory, as Decarrico (2001: 289) states, has a small storage capacity and simply holds information temporarily while it is being processed, usually for only a matter of seconds. The importance of promoting a deep level of processing is to transfer information from short-term memory to long-term memory, which has almost unlimited storage capacity.

It is known that, to be able to talk about vocabulary acquisition, lexical information must be transferred from the *short-term memory* to the more permanent *long-term memory*. To achieve this some preexisting information in the long-term memory is needed to "attach" the new information to. And frequency of using the new information is also crucial for permanent learning. Because, as Decarrico (2001:

289) states, “the more students manipulate and think about a word, the more likely it is that the word will be transferred into long-term memory.”

2.5. Vocabulary Teaching Techniques

There are different, techniques and strategies to teach vocabulary. These techniques are different ways of teaching selected and used by the teacher. This choice depends on the learners (their need, interest, level, etc.). At the elementary level for example, teachers usually use visual materials for vocabulary teaching but at more advanced levels students do not need extra support for vocabulary learning, because they can guess the meaning of a word from the context. So which technique to use is a complex duty for the teachers. In this part vocabulary teaching techniques are handled into these categories: “visual techniques, verbal techniques, translation, mnemonics, and games

2.5.1. Visual Techniques

In this technique new vocabulary items are presented with the help of a visual material, mimes or gestures. Everybody acknowledge that visual materials are much more effective than audio materials.

2.5.1.1. Visuals

Visuals include pictures, realias, diagrams, photographs etc. Bringing realias (the things that words represent) into the classroom is an effective way of presenting some concrete words such as “ruler” or “ball”, etc. but sometimes it is hard to bring realias for some vocabulary items, then we can use other visuals; pictures, flashcards, graphs, drawings etc. to explain the meanings of vocabulary items. Pictures may be the most useful “aids” in language teaching since they are used in different ways. There are pictures, blackboard drawings, wall pictures, charts, photos from magazines. Those “aids” are used to explain the meaning of words or to create a situation and concept. This is incredibly efficient for the reason that they facilitate the process of learning for children. You can teach them animals merely throughout showing them pictures of animals.

2.5.1.2. Mime and Gesture

Mimes and gesture are also helpful to convey the meaning of vocabulary items. They are really practical, easy to use everywhere and every time. Actions are particularly used for concepts such as “swimming” “sleeping”, etc. Teachers can convey the meaning of some adjectives of feelings through mime and gesture. Mime and gesture are the techniques used to show the meaning of vocabulary items with facial or body movements without speaking.

All techniques introduced above are good for presenting new vocabulary to students at the beginner level because they are very interesting and involving for them. The following several techniques can be used only with those students who have some knowledge of English, so those techniques can be used at the upper-beginner level

2.5.2. Verbal Techniques

It isn't always possible to convey the meaning through visuals. Sometimes teachers need to use speech in vocabulary teaching. Verbal techniques include Using Explanation, Using Definition, Using Description, Teaching Sense Relations, Scales, Word map, Vocabulary Network, Using Context, and Word Parts Technique

2.5.2.1. Using Explanation

Explanation technique is more useful with upper-beginners, who already have some knowledge of English. It is essential for the teacher to bear in mind that while explaining certain words he should use the language that is comprehensible for the students.

2.5.2.2. Using Definition

Definition is a suitable method for upper-beginners and relies on giving the definition of given word. It can be simple, or scientific definition given by the teacher, or can be the definition from the dictionary. A definition gives the meaning

of words. The key words used for a definition are: —are/is known as, —are /is described as, —are/ is defined as.

2.5.2.3. Using Description

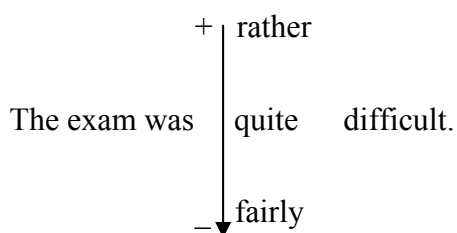
Description technique can be used in addition to the definition for detailed information about the vocabulary item. Appearance, qualities or size of concrete things can be given. When describing a thing, relative pronouns (who, which, that, etc.) can be used.

2.5.2.4. Teaching Sense Relations

Teaching *sense relations* (synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, etc) strengthens students' concept of words and develops their vocabulary. But these techniques can only be effective when synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms that are used to present a new item are already known by the students. *Synonyms* are words with identical meaning. Use of *synonyms* technique relies on explanation of meaning of new word by giving its synonym. For example: little-small, huge-big etc. *Antonyms* are items that mean the opposites. It refers to a notion of semantic opposition or unrelatedness. In this technique teacher gives a vocabulary item with the use of antonyms. For example, rich-poor, long-short, interesting-boring, etc. *Hyponyms* refers to the items that are specific examples of a general lexical item. For example, “cow, chicken, snake” are hyponyms of “animal” which is a *super ordinate/umbrella term*.

2.5.2.5. Scales

Scales technique can be used to teach the gradable vocabulary items. Three adverbs of degree “fairly, quite, and rather” can be present in a scale as below for better understanding of students.



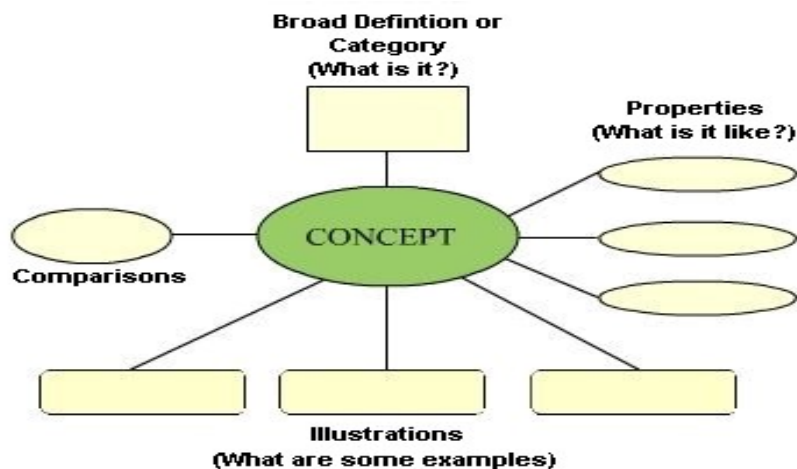
2.5.2.6. Grouping

Grouping or classifying vocabulary items into meaningful units contributes to the retention of the vocabulary. Vocabulary items can be grouped by function, topic, similarity, etc.

2.5.2.7. Word Map

Word map is an excellent method for analyzing a new vocabulary item in detail. For a new vocabulary item, the teacher can create a map, at the top or centre of the map is the vocabulary item, and some categories around the vocabulary item for extra information. This technique is more effective for reading classes. Word maps help readers develop complete understandings of words in the text being handled. Here is an example of a word map taken from internet.

Figure 2: Word Map

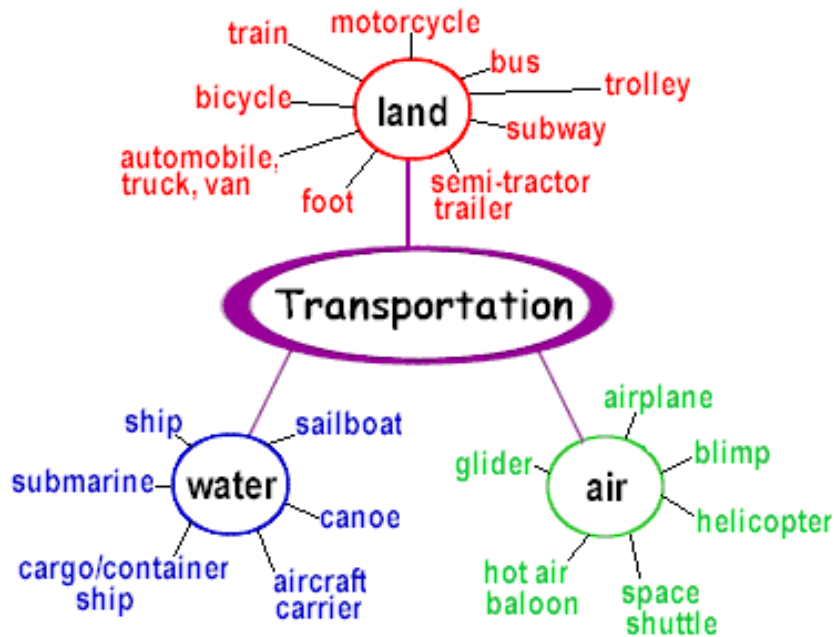


(<http://www.rit.edu/~w-sea/readingwritingcontent/rw6vocabbuilding.html>)

2.5.2.8. Vocabulary Network

Vocabulary network is a kind of graphic, or diagram used for presenting a vocabulary item with its collocations. Words that relate to this item are written around the new item. The key word is at the top or centre and related words as branches are linked to the key word and to each other by means of lines or arrows. Here is a vocabulary map for the word “transportation” taken from internet:

Figure 3: Vocabulary Network



(<http://www.kidbibs.com/learningtips/lt38.htm>)

2.5.2.9. Using Context

Language teachers can convey the meaning of a new vocabulary item *using the context*. Researches show that vocabulary teaching in context is far more successful than teaching vocabulary items in isolation. Texts are full of “clues” about the meanings of words. Other words in a sentence or paragraph, captions, illustrations and titles help readers to determine the meaning of an unknown word. Students should be taught to find and use these clues for vocabulary learning.

2.5.2.10. Word Parts Technique

Word parts (root words, suffixes and prefixes) can be used to determine the meaning of an unknown vocabulary item. Teaching prefixes, suffixes, and base words can enhance a learner’s ability to decode a word's meaning. Many of the words in the English language are derived from Latin or Greek roots. They either contain a “core” root (the primary component of the word) or use prefixes or suffixes that hold meaning. Teachers should teach their students the most common roots, prefixes and suffixes in the English language. For example, the root word "port"

means "to carry." Attaching "ex," a prefix meaning out, gives us the word "export," meaning "to carry out."

Learning and reviewing high frequency affixes will equip students with some basic tools for word analysis, which will be especially useful when they are prompted to apply them in rich and varied learning contexts. The charts below summarize some of the affixes worth considering depending on your students' prior knowledge and English proficiency. (Kinsella et al, 2002)

Prefix	Meaning	% of All Prefixed Words	Example
un	not; reversal of	26	uncover
re	again, back, really	14	review
in / im	in, into, not	11	insert
dis	away, apart, negative	7	discover
en / em	in; within; on	4	entail
mis	wrong	3	mistaken
pre	before	3	prevent
a	not; in, on; without	1	atypical

Similarly, a quick look at the most common suffixes in the following chart reveals a comparable pattern of relatively few suffixes accounting for a large percentage of suffixed words.

Suffix	Meaning	% of All Suffixed Words	Example
-s, -es	more than one; verb marker	31	characters, reads, reaches
-ed	in the past; quality, state	20	walked
-ing	when you do something; quality, state	14	walking
-ly	how something is	7	safely

-er, -or	one who, what, that, which	4	drummer
-tion, -sion	state, quality; act	4	action, mission
-able, -ible	able to be	2	disposable, reversible
-al, -ial	related to, like	1	final, partial

2.5.3. Translation

In *translation technique* the teacher gives the equivalence of an unknown word in the native language. The translation is the quickest way of conveying the meaning of vocabulary items. However, overuse of this technique, may discourage students from using the target language.

According to Harmer (1991:162), this technique is a quick and easy way to present the meaning of words but it is not without problems. In the first place, it is not always easy to translate words, and in the second place, even where translation is possible, it may make it a bit too easy for students by discouraging them from interacting with the words.

There are also linguists such as Gairns & Redman that support the use of this technique. They argue that: "It can save valuable time, that might otherwise be spent on a tortuous and largely unsuccessful explanation in English, and it can be a very quick way to dispose of low frequency items that may worry the students but do not warrant significant attention" (Gairns & Redman, 1986:75).

After all, as Harmer (1991:162) states; "Where translation can quickly solve a presentation problem it may be a good idea. But we should bear in mind that a consistent policy towards the use of the mother tongue is helpful for both teacher and students."

2.5.4. Mnemonics

Mnemonics is a memorization technique which is known as "memory tricks". Mnemonic" means "aiding memory." In this technique, developing a retrieval plan,

the words are encoded in the memory and they are recalled later through verbal and visual clues.

Sarıgül & Ercan (2007), describe the technique as: “Mnemotechnics is based on the similarities in saying of the words in two different languages. Mnemotechnics is a kind of finding appropriate stories about those similarities to stick them into mind. In this way, students get rid of the ‘fish memory’ situation.”

There are four types of Mnemonics: *Linguistic Mnemonics* include two methods: The Peg Method (linking items in a list with a set of pegs), and The Keyword Method (linking the new word with an image involving a related word that serves as a "key"). *Spatial Mnemonics* are The Loci Method (placing the items in an imaginary location in a line, and taking an imaginary walk to remember the items.), Spatial Grouping (rearranging words on a page to form triangles, squares, columns etc. to remember easily) and The Finger Method: (associating each item with a finger). *Visual Mnemonics* include: Pictures (linking words with pictures), and Visualization (visualizing a word needed to remember instead of using real pictures). And finally *Physical Mnemonics*, in which learners enact the information in a word or a sentence which helps better recall.

2.5.5. Games

Using games can also be an effective and funny technique for vocabulary teaching. They can be used as warm-ups or for vocabulary review. Teachers should use a variety of fun vocabulary activities that have game-like features. They are very motivating for students and funny. As Decarrico (2001: 289) states, “teachers can add variety to the techniques employed in the classroom by alternating other activities with language games that recycle vocabulary, e.g., Scrabble, Word Bingo, Concentration, Password, Jeopardy. Language games have the added advantage of being fun, competitive, and consequently, memorable. These games are also activities that students can be encouraged to do on their own.”

2.5.6. Dictionary Use

Dictionary use is another technique used to for vocabulary teaching. But this technique is a bit controversial among linguists, some of them are against this technique, others support. According to Baxter (2009) the continuous and extended use of bilingual dictionaries slows down a student's vocabulary development. However, Summer (1993) argues that dictionaries can be valuable tools in vocabulary acquisition when properly used. (in Mukoroli, 2011: 31)

Dictionaries are really useful and in hand resources for students; however, their use should be limited and students must be taught how to use a dictionary and choose the right definition. The following suggestions from the Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts (2002) are cited in Sedita (2005: 8):

To choose the right definition, the student must:

- use background knowledge about the content in the text
- have a sense of the grammatical use in the text
- read and understand each definition

2.6. Storytelling

Story is described in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as, "description of events and people that the writer or speaker has invented in order to entertain people". (2000:1180) Stories are a part of every culture and they are not only used for entertainment, are also used for education, cultural preservation and instilling moral values.

2.6.1. Storytelling in ELT

Stories are also used in language classes as a powerful means of language teaching. Foreign language learners, especially at early stages need practice in listening comprehension. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1987), receiving comprehensible input, which he defines as the language that is "a little beyond" (i+1)

learners' current level of competence, is the only way that can lead to the acquisition of a second language.

Considering Krashen's hypothesis we can say, storytelling is an excellent vehicle for providing comprehensible input in the foreign language classroom. What Story-based teaching and Input Theory have in common is the argument that foreign language process should present a context in which students can link their previous knowledge with the new information by using any clues and information.

According to Krashen's *Affective filter Hypothesis* (1987), lack of motivation or self-esteem and anxiety 'RAISE' the affective filter, which acts as a barrier to the input, so comprehensible input is not able to reach the innate mechanism "Language Acquisition Device" to be processed. This makes the acquisition unavailable. At this point, stories act as an effective tool to lower the affective filter. They can motivate the language learners and make them relaxed, consequently affective filter is lowered and acquisition is made possible.

Hendrickson (1992:13) lists three types of storytelling in the language classrooms: *traditional storytelling*, *story reading* and *interactive storytelling*. In *traditional storytelling*, the teacher uses some visuals to help the students understand the meaning. Teachers can use pictures, puppets, flannel boards, slides or overhead transparencies. In *story reading*, the teacher reads familiar stories aloud to students. Language teachers who choose this format should rehearse reading the story several times before the class. In *interactive storytelling*, the teacher begins telling a story then asks the students to interact with it by elaborating on incidents, incorporating characters and information from other sources and varying the plot. This type of storytelling is a kind of cooperative venture, but as well as being enjoyable it isn't always predictable.

2.6.2. Value of Stories

As an Indian proverb says, "Tell me a fact and I'll learn. Tell me a truth and I'll believe. But tell me a story and it will live in my heart forever." Stories enhance students' comprehension and long term memory. So, all kinds of learning, including

language learning, become more effective and permanent through stories. Story telling expands students' four skills, (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and also expands vocabulary knowledge if it is well organized with suitable follow-up activities. A constructivist linguist, Palmer (2001), explains how storytelling affects the language learning process in the following:

...storytelling is a rich interactive process that facilitates imagination creative thinking, language abilities, and cooperative learning. Learners actively construct their own understanding, building upon their current knowledge base. Working with others (social interaction) on meaningful tasks enhances learning. Storytelling offers a limitless opportunity for developing a more authentic awareness of respect for children with diverse language and cultural background.

Stories are effective tools to contextualize language instruction. They create a natural, relevant and enjoyable context for language learning. Meaning can be conveyed through visuals, mime, gesture, voice, intonation, etc. Stories are also effective in developing students' learning strategies or thinking skills. Students learn how to use these kinds of skills such as hypothesizing, guessing, and inferring meaning, etc. Listening to stories, as Hendrickson (1992: 7) proposes, helps students develop their ability to understand the spoken language, become aware of cultural values different from their own, sharpen their memory skills, develop their ability to predict upcoming actions and events, and discriminate different story genres and storytelling styles.

As Garvie (1990:31) states, the advantage of story as a stimulus over topics introduced through chart, poster, picture, model, etc. or simply discussion is that it is structured. It is going somewhere and the learner wants to reach the end of the journey. In addition, the staging-posts on the journey offer the kind of growth-points just mentioned, potential development sources for learning and teaching. Scott and Ytreberg (1990) express the importance of listening to stories:

- Listening is the skill that children acquire first; this is mainly the case when children start to learn a foreign language. Together with facial expressions, movement, mime, and pictures, what the pupils hear is their main source of language.
- Listening to stories should be part of growing up for every child. Educationalists and psychologists have shown that stories have a vital role in the child's development, and, not least, in the development of language.
- Listening to stories allows children to form their own inner pictures.

Brewster et al.(2002) propose that teachers may contextualize language work through stories and construct mini- syllabuses which would involve pupils personally, creatively and actively in a whole curriculum approach". Garvie (1990: 26) explains the value of stories in language classes in the following:

I see story as being helpful in all varieties of the EFL situation. It helps to contextualize the items of the syllabus/course, offering a field of learning which is meaningful, interesting and motivating, while at the same time it covers the English work that has to be done. It can also give cohesion to the work. Above all it brings a more informal, lively and communicative component to what at times can be a highly structured and often tedious program. The structure would still be there but so would the other side of the language equation, giving the balance of the eclectic approach.

According to Hendrickson (1992:8), linguistic, paralinguistic, discourse and cultural features blend together in stories, providing valuable comprehensible input that facilitates language acquisition. And he explains these features in detail in the following way:

Linguistic features; according to Halliday (1975, in Hendrickson, 1992), storytelling is one of the first and most productive uses of language. The students also acquire a sense of how the grammatical features of a language communicate meaning.

Paralinguistic features; a story teller's gestures, facial expressions and body movements help listeners to understand a story and to acquire the language in which it is told. In addition, students learn that word stress can communicate various shades of meaning, whereas intonation patterns convey many emotions such as, suspense, surprise, grief, and joy.

Discourse features; all stories contain a variety of discourse attributes that aid comprehension and facilitate language acquisition. For instance, chronological organization and sequential cues help students connect the events and actions in a story. Redundancy aids the clarification and recall of key concepts, and it enhances students' ability to predict logical outcomes. Use of dialogue helps listeners interpret imagery within the story context.

Cultural features; story telling is an excellent way to teach students about the target culture and to understand how it functions. Through stories they can learn about the lives of historical people and events, the names of geographical locations, dialectal variations, as well as the local customs, traditions and values of the target language community.

2.6.3. Story-based Teaching and Young Learners

Story telling is a powerful linguistic and psychological technique in the hands of a language teacher. This technique can be used with people of any culture and any age. It is one of the most enjoyable and effective techniques to teach language, especially to young children. Slattery and Willis (2003: 96), summarize the reasons for using stories in young learners' language classes under two headings:

The educational value of stories: Stories;

- help children relate new thing to what they know already
- help children to look at real life from different viewpoints and imagine what it feels like to be someone else
- can introduce the child other cultures and attitudes
- let children share their experiences with the group – everyone listens and feels sad or happy

- can link to other subjects the child is learning about in school
- help children develop their thinking skill
- are interesting and enjoyable, and can be fun.

Stories for language teaching: Stories;

- can be told with pictures and gestures to help children understand
- help children enjoy learning English
- introduce new language in context
- help children revise language they are familiar with
- help children become aware of the structures of the language
- help children acquire intonation and pronunciation by listening
- can help bring English into other subjects
- can lead on to lots of activities using listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

When the teachers read or tell stories to children, they help them to be exposed to language in context. This technique is the best language experience for young learners, which leads to higher levels of sophistication in speech and literacy. As Pellowski (1977) states, stories also give emotional satisfaction to children and can help them to cope with their psychic and intellectual growth. (cited in Hendrickson, 1992:6)

Young children who have been exposed to a variety of stories on a consistent basis exhibit improved listening skills, vocabulary development and increased ability to organize narrative thought. In addition to these confirmations, the increases in attention span, listening skills, accuracy of recall, sequencing ability and fluency in writing have also been documented (McGrath and Taylor, 2004)

Pedersen (1995, cited in Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm, 1998:23) advocates teachers as storytellers and storytelling as a pedagogical method, especially when working with ESL children. Stories help to communicate literary and cultural heritage while also helping learners better develop a sense of rhetorical structure which assists in the study of literature and in their own writing. Pederson explains that stories enable

ESL children to” have an experience with the powerful real language of personal communication, not the usual “teacherese” of the foreign language classroom... the full range of language is present in stories. The benefits he found in telling ESL children stories were that listening skills were developed and more natural and complete language input was possible. Affective benefits include helping the children to develop emotionally and socially.

As Ur (1996) states, children have a greater immediate need to be motivated by the teacher or the materials in order to learn effectively. He proposes that young children love having stories told to them and older ones begin to read for themselves. Moreover stories, in contrast to pictures or even games are pure language: telling a story in the foreign language is one of the simplest and richest sources of foreign language input for younger learners.

2.6.4. Story-based lessons

Choosing the most suitable story to be handled in the classroom is the first step in story telling process. Language teachers can select stories from a range of sources, including graded readers, story websites on the internet or picture books for children. Whatever the source, the first and important thing that teachers should bear in mind is that the story must be suitable for the students. When choosing the story, teachers need to check whether the content is relevant, memorable, interesting; whether the language level of the story is appropriate for the syllabus, whether the visuals in the story are attractive and clear, and so on. Moreover, the discourse pattern of the story should be repetitive and cumulative, and the story should promote learner participation, as well as aid memory and practice a particular language pattern. Garvie (1990: 70) summarizes the criteria for choosing a story as following:

Whichever category the story will come from and whatever the special issues affecting the choice, there are certain general criteria which must be borne in mind. The final narrative (story) presented to the children must be motivating. It must stimulate interest and give enjoyment. This suggests that special care should be taken with the level of both concepts

and language so that the narrative really is comprehensible input from which the children can anticipate and predict. It also suggests that there should be a strong story-line with very clear staging-posts and possibly repetitions of language and of shape, inviting the listeners to participate. A narrative with these properties is likely to carry the children along and to become a cohesive device for a whole package of learning, a key stimulus to all the rest.

Brewster (1991) advises the authentic stories which are written for English-speaking children. Because they are also appropriate for those who are learning English. The reason of advising these stories is that they offer examples of 'real' language and help to bring the real world to the classroom. Also the linguistic level of the story, the length of the story, the amount of repetition, and the use of illustrations, and layout should be considered by the teacher (Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 2002)

Story-based lessons can be planned following the three stages of *before*, *while* and *after*. Before telling the story teachers should create interest, motivation and attention in the story by asking students to predict what it is about.

While telling the story, the teacher needs to be sure that every student can see and hear him/her. If any visuals are used while telling the story, they should be held up and each illustration should be shown slowly round the classroom. Maintaining frequent eye-contact with the children during the process is crucial in order to help them stay focused and attentive.

As Peck (2001:144) states, the teacher can easily vary the presentation, for instance, he/she can tell the story using a picture book or a flannel board and movable characters. She/he can tell or read the story while children move puppets or dolls, or as they wear masks and act out the story. She/he can tell the story while children draw it.

Harmer (2007:143) proposes a number of things we can have students do when they listen to people telling stories. Perhaps they can put pictures in the order in which the story is told. Sometimes we can let students listen to a story but not tell them the end. They have to guess what it is and then, perhaps, we play them the recorded version. A variation on this technique is to stop the story at various points and say ‘what do you think happens next?’ before continuing. These techniques are appropriate for children and adults alike.

After the storytelling section, a number of activities can guide students through the learning of the new element. These activities may include retelling the story, recycling the storyline through picture displays, acting out, and writing a script for the story. In some cases, the storytelling cycle may lead to students producing their own versions of the story or dramatizing some aspect of it in a role play.

Ellis and Brewster (1991) also emphasize the importance of follow-up activities in bridging the gap between language study and language use and to link classroom learning to the world outside. Follow-up activities consolidate language introduced through a story, integrate skills work and foster independent learning. Information-gap activities, role-playing, dramatizations, games, authentic writing projects, paired interviews, class survey, or simulations of real-life situations are proposed as ideal activities for a final product.

The storytelling activities follow the following guidelines in their design. The development of the guidelines is based on the theories of how children think and learn and owe much to the work of Wood (1998, cited in Loukia (2006).

Table 6: Guidelines for storytelling activities

DESIGN PRINCIPLES	RESULT
they are enjoyable/motivating	create a desire to continue learning
they exercise imagination	development of useful strategies (predicting, hypothesizing, planning, sequencing, classifying)
they exemplify language features in use	real life use of language
they allow frequent repetition	Language items are acquired/reinforced
they build up the child's confidence	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• non-threatening context for learning• familiar genre raises background knowledge
they encourage social interaction/social skills	pair/group work, cooperation/sharing
they present/practice through concrete objects, following the child's conceptual development	illustrations, visuals, touch-and-see things enhance comprehension/long term memory
they exploit the child's enormous amount of physical energy	action games, action songs, creative activities are ways to learn-by doing
they consider the short concentration span of a child at this age	planning feasible lessons, good management of the class

(Wood, 1998, cited in Loukia (2006:9)

2.6.5. Role of the teacher

Telling stories is a complex activity which needs elaboration. The teacher must be equipped with some skills and techniques to catch the students' interest and attention. Supporters of a story-based methodology like Ellis and Girard (2002), Hendrickson (1992), Wright (1995), Ellis and Brewster (1991), and Garvie (1990), propose strategies for efficient story- based lessons. Hendrickson (1992:11) proposes some guidelines for teachers to tell stories in the foreign language classroom in the following:

- It is essential that the story teller knows the story well by listening to it or reading it several times.
- Begin by thinking about the setting of the story: the location and time it takes place, the weather conditions, the smells, the sounds.
- Map the story by breaking it down into major segments such as, introduction, the main body, and the conclusion.
- Think about the characters, what they look like and how they interact with each other.

- Try to choose key phrases in the story that you would like to emphasize and say these phrases with appropriate intonation.
- Plan and practice your gestures, body language and sound effects.
- Avoid speaking too fast, too slowly or in a high-pitched voice.
- Use plenty of eye contact with your students.
- Time the story to be sure it fits well into your lesson plan.

Garvie (1990: 86-87) explains several factors necessary for the good telling of a story, “The teacher has to be something of an actress, able to use her whole body but particularly eyes and voice to create a good effect. What kinds of skills are available to the teacher? The teacher has a very live audience! Can she respond to their needs and moods, can she hold them by the turn of her head or the rolling of her eyes? Is she pacing her narration in such a way that the children are hanging on every word and waiting with eager anticipation for the dénouement? These are some of the skills of good story tellers, the best of which virtually make themselves disappear so that the story might take precedence”.

Students need to think, comment, ask or respond to questions during the story telling cycle. So they should be given enough time to do so. At the end, it would be a good follow up to ask students if they like the story, or have had similar experiences or feelings, etc. According to Garvie (1990:78), teachers need to have materials in the story kit relating to activities of listening, speaking, reading and writing; bearing in mind also the importance of the influence each has on the other and the need for work which helps to integrate the skills.

A similar list to Hendrickson’s (1992) guidelines for teachers to tell stories is proposed by Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002). They describe the techniques below which could be used by the teachers to provide further support for students’ understanding:

- If the students are not familiar to storytelling activities, start with short stories which do not challenge their concentration span.

- Make sure that everyone in the class can see you and your illustration and hear your voice easily.
- Read or tell slowly and clearly. Make sure that the students can link what they hear and see in the pictures. Give enough time to understand, to ask question, to make comments.
- Make the students focus on the illustrations and commend about them.
- Encourage the students to participate, by repeating the key vocabulary items and phrases, to the activity.
- Utilize the gestures, mime, and facial expressions to help convey the meaning.
- Vary format of the activity, tone and volume of your voice in order to give the meaning you intended to tell.
- Use different voice tones for different characters to indicate which character is speaking to convey the meaning.

To vary the story-based lessons, teachers can use some other techniques to present stories. At this point technology is an invaluable tool. Audio, visual, or audio-visual components such as, audio cassettes, CD-ROMs, animations can be used to aid comprehension. Using these techniques may propose an efficient alternative to storytelling carried out by the teacher.

2.6.6. Storytelling and role play

Stories and drama activities share a number of features as in the following list (Read, 2008). So integrating and combining storytelling and role playing in foreign language lessons with children, constitute an efficient technique:

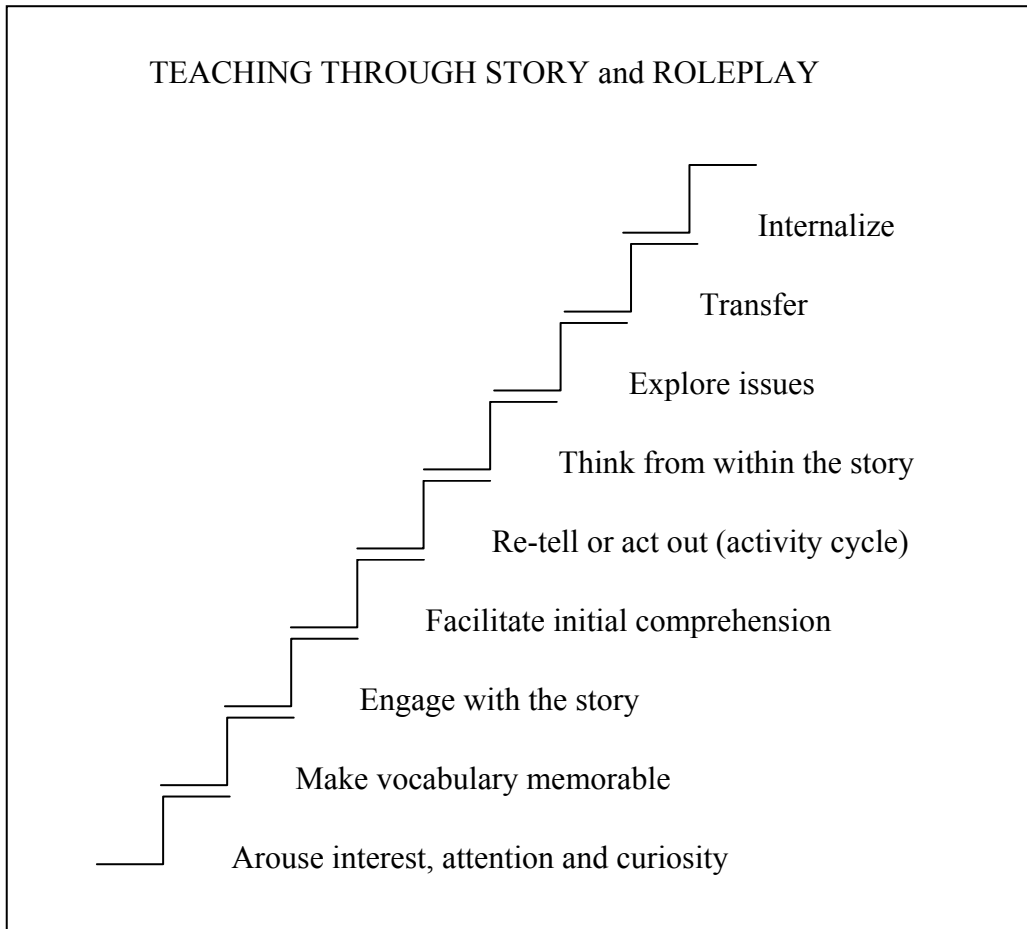
- They build on children's capacity for play. Events that happen in both stories and drama are playful.
- They deal with significant issues. Stories and drama both deal with issues that touch children's own lives closely, often in highly significant ways.
- They engage Multiple Intelligences. In a pedagogical context, stories and drama provide opportunities for children to use different combinations of

their Multiple Intelligences (linguistic, visual-spatial, musical, kinesthetic, logical-deductive, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalist) (Gardner, 1983) as “entry points” to learning (Gardner, 1999).

- They appeal to different learning styles. Stories and drama provide a wide appeal to children with predominantly different learning styles, whether visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or a combination of these.
- They suspend norms of time, place and identity. Stories and drama both involve participants in colluding in the temporary suspension of time, place and identity. The fantasy element intrinsic to both stories and drama helps to make learning memorable in the short and longer term.
- They are social and communal. Both stories and drama are shared classroom events, which take place in real time. This feature of stories and drama provides a framework for developing social skills such as cooperation, collaboration, listening and turn taking and helps to create appropriate affective conditions for learning to take place.
- They have rules and conventions. As social events, stories and drama have inherent rules and conventions to guide them.

In an integrated approach, which combines storytelling and role play techniques, the aim is to make the students come back to the story several times in enjoyable ways. During this procedure, students’ understanding of the story enable them to act out and re-tell the story, to explore relevant issues it raises, and to personalize and transfer some of the language it contains to their own lives.

Figure 4: Story-Based Lesson Integrated With Role Play



(adapted from Read, 2008: 7)

Students' producing their own versions of the story or dramatizing some aspect of it in a role play, after the storytelling cycle make learning more effective and permanent. Adair-Hauck et al. (in Shrum&Glisan, 1994), states that role-playing scenarios can be used to deepen comprehension. The learners eventually glean the function and the meaning of the forms working within the framework of the story.

To sum up, story and role play share features which can be combined to enhance children's learning in language lessons in enjoyable and creative ways. During this process, a wide range of storytelling and role play activities allow for appropriate support and development at each stage and students gain in confidence. Above all, this experience leads children to the internalization of learning which has taken place.

2.6.7. Vocabulary Teaching and Storytelling

The main concern of our study is to implement storytelling and role-play to facilitate students' vocabulary learning and retention. And it is a bit hard for language learners to learn and recall vocabulary items, memorized words are easily forgotten. As we have mentioned in previous chapters, effective vocabulary learning requires repetition, and internalizing the words with the use of some vocabulary learning strategies. This can be possible through stories which activate visual imagery mnemonic device, as they are full of auditory, visual and kinesthetic support.

There are studies which proposed the fact that the development of vocabulary and syntactic complexity in language are more advanced in children who are frequently exposed to a variety of stories (Speaker, 2000; Allison and Watson, 1994; Roney, 1989; Philips, 2000 in McGrath and Taylor, 2004).

Nation (1990) suggests that a new word needs to be met at least five or six times in order to be learnt. At this point it is needed to remind the repetition and recycling features of storytelling activities and its crucial role in teaching and learning vocabulary. As it is desired, storytelling activities has a regular repetition style while presenting the story, retelling the story, and in all kinds of storytelling activities. Cameron (2001, p. 84) emphasizes the importance of repetition with a definite sentence as “recycling makes recall more probable”

Students learn the vocabulary items indirectly in story based lessons when they are concentrating on the content of the story because vocabulary items are presented in a contextualized language patterns within the stories. Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 84) explain how contextualization helps learning, “the children can associate words, functions, structures and situations with a particular topic. Association helps memory and learning language in context clearly helps both understanding and memory”

When students listen to stories as Hendrickson (1992:8) states, they learn the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases through context, thereby expanding their

lexical repertoire of idiomatic and colloquial expressions as well as slang, jargon, and other figurative language.

Stories are rich in vocabulary, and vocabulary items are introduced in context. Visuals and gestures are used to convey the meaning in a story-based lesson. Stories allow frequent repetition of new words in an enjoyable atmosphere. When listening to a story, students are exposed to words which they already know as well as presented new words. Therefore stories enable the synthesis of new and existing vocabulary knowledge. Keeping in mind these aspects of story-based lesson, we can readily say that story-telling is a powerful technique in vocabulary teaching, learning and retention.

In conclusion, storytelling technique is a very powerful tool that makes our students explore the language, and promotes learning and recalling the new vocabulary items. In this paper it is inferred that an integrated method which combines the storytelling and role play techniques can enhance vocabulary learning and retention in foreign language classes.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this study is to examine whether integrated approach which combines story telling and role playing techniques help students to enhance their vocabulary knowledge and to retrieve when needed. This study also aims at determining if the words presented in a context are effective in terms of improving students' knowledge of vocabulary. This is an experimental study focusing on the effectiveness of alternative methods in teaching second language vocabulary. An integrated approach of a combined story telling and role playing techniques was compared to present implemented English lesson curriculum. In this experimental study we aim at finding the answers to the following questions:

- Is there a significant difference between immediate-recall of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?
- Is there a significant difference between immediate-recognition of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?
- Is there a significant difference between delayed-recall of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?
- Is there a significant difference between delayed-recognition of vocabulary level of young learners, instructed through story telling-role playing and the mainstream?

Accordingly, this research tests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis: Difficulties with learning vocabularies and retrieving them when needed have been observed for some time by the researcher. The researcher predicts that the students in experimental group who learn the vocabulary items through story telling and role playing techniques will score higher on the immediate post tests and delayed retention tests than the students in control group who learn the vocabularies through regularly applied techniques.

In order to find answers to the questions above, our experimental study has focused on teaching vocabulary to the 8th grade primary school students at Aliye Hüseyin Tekbaş Primary School in Karatay Konya.

Consequently, this chapter describes the research design, subjects, materials, and the data collection procedure.

3.2. Research Design

In order to test the hypothesis of the study, an experimental and a control group were formed among 68 students. An achievement test (See Appendix H) was administered to determine the level of the students. The test included twenty-five questions which are parallel to SBS exam questions in the form of a multiple choice test with four options. The students who got above sixty marks were thought to be successful. Forty-two students got over sixty marks, 14 male students and 28 female students. So a random selection was implemented and two groups were formed, seven males and seven females in the experimental group, seven males and seven females in the control group. The number of male and female students were equal in both groups. Each group consisted of fourteen students at the same level.

The study was implemented in 80 minute session on the same day in a week. Before the application of methods, the students from both groups were given a pre-recall test and a pre-recognition test including 20 target vocabulary items. In the recall test, the students were asked to give the Turkish equivalents of the vocabulary items. In the recognition test, multiple choice test was applied. The target vocabulary items shouldn't have been known before by the students in order to sustain the validity of the experiment. In the session, the experimental group studied the story of Cinderella which included twenty target vocabularies, and did the worksheet activities and role played the story. In contrast, control group studied the same vocabularies through regularly applied English curriculum. The teaching process was all conducted by the same teacher, the researcher himself.

After the teaching process, immediate recall and recognition tests were applied. The same tests in different word orders were applied to both of the groups

after four weeks, and then the results of the tests were collected and evaluated. The analysis of immediate test and delayed test results were used to verify the hypothesis of this experimental study. Table 1 displays this research design:

Table 7. Experimental Design

		EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	CONTROL GROUP
PRE TESTS	Recall	the Turkish equivalents of 20 target words were asked	the Turkish equivalents of 20 target words were asked
	Recognition	20 multiple choice questions	20 multiple choice questions
SESSION	Session	New treatment	No new treatment
IMMEDIATE TESTS	Recall	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked
	Recognition	20 multiple choice questions in different order	20 multiple choice questions in different order
DELAYED TESTS	Recall	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked	The Turkish equivalents of the target words in different order were asked
	Recognition	20 multiple choice questions in different order	20 multiple choice questions in different order

According to this research design, the same vocabulary test in different order was used as the post test and retention test. The total number of the target words are twenty. In fact, the teacher selected more than 20 words which he thought the students saw them first time, according to the plot of the story. The researcher used

those words in his speech during the teaching sessions of English and realised that the students didn't know most of them. He didn't make any explanations for the unknown words, went on his teaching, and excluded the known words from the study. The researcher consulted to other three English teachers for the suitability of the words. So the target words used in the study were fifteen nouns, three adjectives and two verbs.

3.3. Subjects

A total of 28 pre-intermediate 8th grade students of Aliye Hüseyin Tekbaş Primary School participated in the study. The subjects were all 8th class students, and they all took part in this study according to the random selection after the results of achievement test (See Appendix H). The programme they followed gives equal importance to all four skills; listening, speaking, reading, writing. The participants were randomly divided into two groups. The subjects were all at the age of fourteen. In control group there were seven male and seven female students. Also in experimental group there were seven male and seven female students. The students come from different parts of Turkey, Erzurum, Aksaray, Niğde, Konya, Van, Karaman. They live in the neighbourhood and their economic and social standards are more or less the same. The school is located in the city centre and it is a new school which has not a stable regularity. Technical and physical conditions of the school can be defined as poor because of the lack of technological equipments. The researcher, who has been teaching at the school for a year, is their English teacher.

3.4. Materials

3.4.1. Instructional Material

The materials used with the experimental group throughout the teaching process were a story and its activities. The story was Cinderella. The target words were written in boldface so that the students were aware of what vocabulary items they would learn. As we mentioned above, the twenty target vocabulary items were new words for the students in this experiment. These vocabulary items were selected from the text according to the story integrity, frequency in the story and their

importance for the plot of story. The story already existed in the further units of the students' coursebook, Spot On Grade 8 by Cemile Bacanlı Kurt, İpek Sayiner, Meltem Sarandal, Ömür Çoban, Pınar Ü. Buldur and Serpil Tekir. But another version of the story was chosen from the internet, <http://www.bgfl.org> (See Appendix A). Some flashcards for the words (See Appendix Q), character pictures (See Appendix B), scene pictures from the story (See Appendix C), story setting pictures (See Appendix D), story sequence cards (See Appendix P) were used to make the story more attractive. Story sequence activity (See Appendix E), vocabulary word unscramble (See Appendix G), role playing activity (See Appendix R) and comprehension questions activity (See Appendix F) were used to comprehend the story deeply.

The materials used with the control group during the teaching process were a list of the same target vocabularies (See Appendix O) which were used in experimental group, the same flash cards used in experimental group (See Appendix Q), the same vocabulary word unscramble activity which was used for the experimental group (See Appendix G), sentence production activity and writing five times activity. Also, the students were provided with bilingual dictionaries during the process so that the students could learn the meanings of unknown words immediately. The activities for the control group were chosen by the researcher as a result of observation of four different classes of four different 8th grade teachers to find out what techniques were being implemented in English lessons. Four different teachers and their vocabulary teaching processes in four lessons were observed in Şarkikaraağaç Isparta by the researcher. The teachers generally used traditional methods while teaching the vocabulary items. All the teachers wrote the unknown words from the coursebooks and wanted students to find their Turkish equivalents or wrote the meanings themselves. All of the four teachers pronounced the words and students repeated after them. One of the teachers used vocabulary word unscramble activity, and one of them used sentence production activity. The most prepared teacher used some flashcards which were prepared beforehand. All of the teachers assigned the students to write the English forms and the Turkish equivalents of the vocabulary items. After the observation of these four classes' vocabulary teaching

sections, the researcher decided to use the same activities for the control group and named it as traditional (regularly applied) method.

3.4.2. Testing Material

Testing material used in this experimental study included two tests, a recall and recognition test for each pre, post and delayed tests. The recall test was a list of the 20 target vocabulary items and the students were asked to write the Turkish equivalents of the given words (See Appendices I, K, M). The recognition test was a multiple choice test covering the target vocabulary items with a correct answer and three distractors to the test (See Appendices J, L, N). Most of the distractors were chosen among the remaining target words. The word orders of the questions and distractors of the tests were presented in a different order each time the test was applied because the students could memorise the places of the words and use this for the following tests, and this would affect the validity of the study.

To ensure the reliability of the recognition tests, the test was piloted to 200 different 9th grades High School students in Şarkikaraağaç Isparta. According to the test results, the number of questions was reduced from 40 to 20 questions to increase the level of reliability. The tests were examined by three English teachers and an academician.

The pre test aimed at measuring the existing recall and recognition of the 20 vocabulary items in order to be able to control for pre existing differences. The recall and recognition post tests were applied after the experiment to measure the immediate recall and recognition of the target vocabulary items. The delayed (long term retention) tests were applied to measure 4 week retention of the vocabulary items both for recall and recognition.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Before the main implementation of the study, a pilot study was carried out at İnönü Primary School in Şarkikaraağaç Isparta. Therefore, story telling and role playing activities, pre, post and delayed recall and recognition tests were piloted. A

representative experimental and control groups were formed. The subjects of the groups were chosen randomly according to the results of the achievement test. 35 of the total 52 students got over 60 points according to the results of the achievement test. 17 students were chosen for both of the groups. 11 female, 6 male students for the control group, 10 male 7 female students for the experimental group. These two groups of students were applied the same pre-recall, recognition tests, the treatments of the techniques, post-recall, recognition and delayed-recall, recognition tests. The aim of piloting was to see the applicability of story telling and role playing techniques and to check the appropriateness of the language and layout of the activities. In piloting, the researcher also had a chance to observe his ability to use mime, gestures and body language in story telling, and the student's role playing of the story. The piloting procedures showed that the vocabularies and activities used in the treatment sessions didn't need any modification. But the number of the male and female students in the both groups needed to be equal. The number of the female students in both groups were higher than the male students and they were very dominant during the experiment process. As a result, the number of the male and female students were equal in the main implementation of the study.

This study aimed to investigate the effect of an integrated approach which combines story telling and role playing on young learners' (8th grades) vocabulary learning and retention in a primary state school of Turkey. The subjects of our study were 28 students from Aliye Hüseyin Tekbaş Primary School in Karatay Konya. They were all at the same level. Two groups were chosen for the experimental and the control group. There were 14 students in each group, 7 males and 7 females. Both experimental and control groups were applied pre-tests of the 20 target vocabulary items before the instruction of the treatments. Immediate recall and recognition tests were applied after the treatments, and delayed recall and recognition tests were applied 4 weeks after the treatments for the long term retention.

The pre test included two tests, recall and recognition tests. The pre tests were applied to both of the groups in order to understand the appropriateness of the chosen vocabulary items before the application of the methods. At first, pre-recall test and

then pre-recognition test were applied. The students were given 15 minutes for the pre-recall tests and 25 minutes for the pre-recognition tests. 40 minutes were spent for the pre-tests.

After the evaluation of the pre-test scores, the story telling and role playing methods were applied to the experimental group. The teacher showed some scene and character pictures of the story and asked the students what was the story about. After the warm up activity, he distributed the Cinderella story paper to the students and wanted them to skim the story for 5 minutes. And then the teacher told the story by using mimes and gestures, body language, by showing story setting pictures, story character pictures and some flashcards for the vocabulary items. This part of the treatment lasted 15 minutes. Then the story sequence activity was done by the students and the answers were checked with the story sequence pictures (See Appendix P). That part of the treatment lasted 10 minutes. After the story sequence activity, the students did the vocabulary word unscramble activity. The words were in different order and the students wrote the correct forms. Then the answers were checked by the teacher. The activity lasted 10 minutes. After these activities, the first lesson was over. The teacher wanted the students to use the 10 minutes of the break time and 10 minutes of the next lesson for the preparation of role playing activity. There were seven main characters in the story, a stepmother, two stepsisters, a prince, a princess (Cinderella), a cat and a fairy. So the students were divided into two groups, there were 7 students in both of the groups. They chose their roles and prepared a short role playing activity in 20 minutes. They could use the sentences in the story and their own sentences. The students used the target words while preparing their speech. For the role playing activity each group had 10 minutes and 20 minutes were spent for this section of the experiment. After this role playing activity, the comprehension questions papers were distributed and the students answered the comprehension questions about the story. And for this last activity, 10 minutes were spent and the experiment was over. The treatment for the experimental group lasted 80 minutes in total. For the 3rd lesson immediate recall and recognition tests were applied. The two tests were given separately. The subjects had 15 minutes for the

recall test and 25 minutes for the recognition test. The implementation of the immediate tests lasted 40 minutes.

The control group were presented with a list of the same 20 target vocabulary items. The researcher wanted the students to use their bilingual dictionaries for the Turkish meanings of the words. The teacher wrote the words to the blackboard while they were looking up the dictionaries. After a while the teacher asked the students the meanings of words and wrote on the board. The teacher told the meanings of some words which didn't exist in the dictionaries. This part of the experiment lasted 15 minutes. Then the teacher pronounced the words one by one, and the students repeated after the teacher, and the teacher showed the flashcard related to the word to the students. This activity was repeated for the second time and it lasted 15 minutes in total. And then the same vocabulary word unscramble activity used for the experimental group were distributed to the students. The participants did the activity and the teacher checked the answers. 10 minutes of the experiment was spent for the activity. At the end of the activity, the first lesson was over. For the second lesson the teacher wanted the students to produce sentences for the target words. They could use two or more target words in a sentence. Some of the students read their sentences to the class. The activity lasted 20 minutes. Lastly, the students wrote the target words and their Turkish meanings 5 times to the plain papers. They had 20 minutes for the activity and the lesson was over again. The treatment for the control group lasted 80 minutes in total. For the 3rd lesson, the same recall and recognition post tests which were given to experimental group were applied to the control group. They had 15 minutes for the post-recall test and 25 minutes for the post-recognition test. 40 minutes were spent for the post tests.

The same recall test in a different ordering of the words and recognition test in a different ordering of the questions and distractors were applied to both the experimental group and the control group 4 weeks later. The delayed tests were applied to the groups in order to measure long term retention. The teaching and the testing processes were all conducted by the same teacher, the researcher himself.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Data Analysis Procedures

First, the pre test scores of experimental and control groups were compared to see whether both groups were at the same level when the study started. Then, the results of the immediate-recall and recognition tests of the groups were collected and compared to see the difference of the short-term vocabulary learning. The scores of the delayed-recall and recognition tests of the groups were collected and compared in order to see the difference of the long term retentions. After getting the raw scores, the means and standard deviations of the experimental and control groups for both tests were calculated, and then t-test was used to compare the two groups on pre-tests, immediate-tests and delayed-tests. Statistical analysis of this study was carried out in the following three stages:

In the first stage, all of the recall and recognition tests of the twenty vocabulary items were scored. For each correct answer of a target vocabulary item, one point was given. No point was given to the wrong and no answers.

In the second stage, means and standard deviations were calculated for each group for recall and recognition tests. Results of the pre test, post test and delayed tests of the target vocabulary items were analysed separately in the study.

In the third stage, means of all tests belonging to the control and experimental groups were compared and statistical analysis was made by using t-test results.

Procedures:

1- Analysis of the pre-recall test scores of the control and the experimental group.

2- Analysis of the pre-recognition test scores of the control and the experimental group.

3- Analysis of the immediate-recall test scores of the control and the experimental group.

4- Analysis of the immediate-recognition test scores of the control group and the experimental group.

5- Analysis of the delayed-recall test scores of the control group and the experimental group.

6- Analysis of the delayed-recognition test scores of the control group and the experimental group.

4.2.Results of the Study

The groups, the number of subjects, the arithmetic means, standard deviations of the groups in the tests, and the results of the samples of the t-test are given in the following tables.

4.2.1. Analysis of the Pre Test Results for Recall

In this part, t-test was used in order to see whether vocabulary scores of the experimental and control group were significantly different. In this study, it was necessary to include pre-tests to determine whether the experimental and the control group were equivalent at the beginning of the experiment. Pre test mean scores for recall test (Control Group: M: 1,5714 SD: 1,65084 SEM: 0,44121 ; Experimental Group: M: 1,4286 SD: 1,01635 SEM: 0,27163) showed no significant differences between the control and the experimental group.

Table 8. Paired Samples Statistics

Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	1,5714	14	1,65084	,44121
Experimental Group	1,4286	14	1,01635	,27163

Table 9. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
Control group & Experimental Group	,14286	1,91581	,51202	-,96330	,24901	1,279	13	,785	

P>,05

The table showed that with 95 % degree of confidence ($p>0,05$) there existed no significant difference between the control and the experimental group. As a result, both groups were equal in terms of their vocabulary knowledge prior to the experiment.

4.2.2. Analysis of the Pre Test Results for Recognition

Pre test mean scores for recognition test (Control Group: M: 1,8571 SD: 0,77033 SEM: 0,20588 ; Experimental Group: M: 1,7857 SD: 1,05090 SEM: 0,28087) showed no significant differences between the control and the experimental group.

Table 10. Paired Samples Statistics

Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	1,8571	14	,77033	,20588
Experimental Group	1,7857	14	1,05090	,28087

Table 11. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	Mean	Std. Deviation		Std. Error Mean		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Mean	Std. Deviation		Std. Error Mean	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower					Upper	Lower		Upper
Control Group & Experimental Group	,07143	1,20667	,32250	,62528	-,76814	,76814	,221	13	,828					

p>,05

The table showed that with 95 % degree of confidence ($p>0,05$) there existed no significant difference between the control and the experimental group. As a result, both groups were equal in terms of their vocabulary knowledge prior to the experiment.

4.2.3. Analysis of the Immediate-Recall Test Results

Immediate-recall test mean scores (Control Group: M: 11,5000 SD: 2,62386 SEM: 0,70125 ; Experimental Group: M: 17,5714 SD: 2,79324 SEM: 0,74653) showed the differences between the experimental and the control group.

Table 12. Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	11,5000	14	2,62386	,70125
Experimental Group	17,5714	14	2,79324	,74653

Table 13. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Control Group & Experimental Group	-6,07143	3,02462	,80836	-7,81779	-4,32506	-7,511	13	,000

p<.05

The table showed that with 95% degree of confidence (p<0,05) there existed a statistical difference between the two groups. In this comparison, immediate-recall test values of the experimental group was found to be significantly higher than the immediate-recall test values of the control group.

4.2.4. Analysis of the Immediate-Recognition Test Results

The table below showed that a meaningful level of difference was observed between the arithmetic means of the scores of the control and the experimental group in the immediate-recall test. While the mean of the control group was 11,6429 ±

3,20113, the mean of the experimental group was $16,8571 \pm 2,03270$. This led to the conclusion that the experimental group succeeded better than the control group.

Table 14. Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	11,6429	14	3,20113	,85554
Experimental Group	16,8571	14	2,03270	,54326

Table 15. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean				Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
				Lower	Upper						
Control Group & Experimental Group	-5,21429	3,21484	,85920	-7,07048	-3,35810	-6,069	13	,000			

$p < .05$

The figures in the table above indicated that the difference between the arithmetic means of scores of both groups in the immediate-recognition test was statistically significant with a 95% degree of confidence ($p < 0,05$). Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the control and the experimental group.

4.2.5. Analysis of the Delayed-Recall Test Results

According to the table below, the average delayed-recall test scores of the control group were calculated as $8,0714 \pm 3,36187$, the experimental group as $15,5714 \pm 2,84779$. A large amount of difference was observed between the arithmetic means of the scores of the control and the experimental group in the delayed-recall test. This showed that the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control group.

Table 16. Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	8,0714	14	3,36187	,89850
Experimental Group	15,5714	14	2,84779	,76110

Table 17. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Std. Deviation				Std. Error Mean
				Lower	Upper					
Control Group & Experimental Group	-7,5000	3,58951	,95934	-9,57252	-5,42748	-7,818	13	,000		

$p < .05$

The table above showed that the difference between the arithmetic means of

the delayed-recall scores of the experimental and the control group was statistically significant in favour of the experimental group with a 95% degree of confidence ($p < 0,05$).

4.2.6. Analysis of the Delayed-Recognition Test Results

The table below exhibited that a large amount of difference was observed between the arithmetic means of the delayed-recognition test scores of the control and the experimental group. While the mean of the control group was $9,3571 \pm 2,73460$, the mean of the experimental group was $13,6429 \pm 2,95107$. This led to the conclusion that the experimental group succeeded better than the control group.

Table 18. Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	9,3571	14	2,73460	,73085
Experimental Group	13,6429	14	2,95107	,78871

Table 19. Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean				Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
				Lower	Upper						
Control Group & Experimental Group	-4,28571	3,60403	,96322	-6,36662	-2,20481	-4,449	13	,001			

$p < .05$

The figures in the table above indicated that the difference between the

arithmetic means of the scores of the both groups in the delayed-recognition test was statistically significant, ($p < 0,05$). Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1 Presentation

This chapter discusses the results and conclusions according to research findings. Then some pedagogical implications and recommendations are presented. The chapter also gives suggestions for further studies.

5.2 Discussion

In this study, an integrated approach which combines storytelling and role playing technique was compared to a present implemented English lesson curriculum in order to see the effects on young learners' vocabulary learning and retention. Therefore, it examined the test results and the difference between the two groups of students- a group taught vocabulary items through story telling-role playing techniques and the other group taught the same vocabulary items through the regularly applied techniques.

As a result, the study tested the following hypothesis:

The students in experimental group who learn the vocabulary items through an integrated approach which combines story telling and role playing techniques will score higher on the immediate post tests and delayed retention tests than the students in control group who learn the vocabularies through regularly applied techniques.

Thus, the study investigated the answers to the research questions. T-test was used to analyze the data from the vocabulary tests. T-test results of the pre-recall and recognition tests showed that the existing vocabulary knowledge of the target new words was not statistically significant between the students of the experimental and the control groups. An improvement was observed in both of the groups after the treatments. According to the t-test results of the immediate- recall tests of both groups, the experimental group got higher mean scores than the control group. This

difference between the groups was thought to be statistically significant. This showed a substantial improvement in the experiment group's ability to learn the target words through story telling- role playing technique. The differences between the experimental and the control group were observed according to the t-test results of immediate-recognition, delayed-recall and delayed-recognition tests and they were all thought to be statistically significant.

As a summary, the performance of the subjects in the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group. The findings of the study confirmed the hypothesis of the study. In short, "teaching words through an integrated approach which combines story telling- role playing technique is a more successful technique than the regularly applied technique" hypothesis was tested.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

The findings of this study reveals the contribution of implementing the story telling- role playing technique to vocabulary learning and retrieving. In relation to findings in general, the students who were in the experimental study showed that the process of learning vocabulary items through whom they went during the story telling-role playing based teaching was more like acquisition-type process rather than learning when compared to the students learning process in the control group. Findings from the immediate and delayed-recall tests showed that the students in the experimental group could make comments on the Turkish meaning of the target words or in other words wrote the different Turkish synonyms. For example; "servant: sarayda çalışan adam, hizmetçi, saray işçisi, köle; disaster: çok kötü bir durum, kötü olay". These are some of the examples. That is the result of learning the words in a meaningful context (here that is the story) and using the words in role playing activity. But the students in the control group who could give the right meanings of the words wrote the exact dictionary meanings and didn't make any comments on the Turkish equivalents of the words. For instance; "servant: köle, disaster: felaket". These findings show that they memorized the words out of context.

The findings of the delayed-recall and recognition tests showed that the amount

of the words retrieved by the students in the experimental group was still very high but the amount of the words retrieved by the students in the control group remained very low.

The present implemented English curriculum of vocabulary teaching in second and foreign language setting is to concentrate on decontextualized units of vocabulary. Teachers do not give enough importance to the teaching of vocabulary in words in lists. So the students just memorize the words and cannot associate them in their minds and cannot remember when they need.

The teachers may plan the vocabulary teaching sessions of their lessons by choosing an appropriate story, its activities, and necessary materials for the story and also by organizing the students for a short role playing of the story with the materials that are available in the teaching environment. Teachers should present new vocabulary items in a meaningful and interesting teaching environment. Learners learn the words by seeing, hearing and using. So, they should be encouraged to take part in the activities of the story and role playing of it.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

The present study was conducted on the subjects who were 8th grade students of Aliye Hüseyin Tekbaş Primary School. Thus, the effects of storytelling-role playing techniques on vocabulary learning and retention can be explored at high school or university level of classes.

Generalizing the findings of this study requires more studies with further points of views. And also it is needed to conduct the studies with a larger sample sizes. Larger sample sizes may give more reliable results.

The treatment part of the study was carried out in two English lessons. The time was not long enough to look into the long term effects of the treatment. For further studies, the duration of the treatment can be prolonged.

The study only focused on the vocabulary learning and recognition. Thus, the effectiveness of storytelling-role playing technique on vocabulary production can be investigated by future researchers.

There are some materials that teachers should use during the implementation of the treatments, such as computer, projection machine, or CD players. Therefore, school administrators should provide teachers with the necessary materials and administrative permissions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A



Cinderella

Once upon a time there lived an unhappy young girl. Her mother was dead and her father had married a **widow** with two daughters. Her **stepmother** didn't like her one little bit. All her kind thoughts and loving touches were for her own daughters. Nothing was too good for them - dresses, shoes, delicious food, soft beds, and every home comfort. But, for the poor unhappy girl, there was nothing at all. No dresses, only her stepsisters' hand-me-downs. No lovely dishes, nothing but **scraps**. No rest and no comfort. She had to work hard all day. Only when evening came was she allowed to sit for a while by the fire, near the **cinders**. That's why everybody called her Cinderella.

Cinderella used to spend long hours all alone talking to the cat. The cat said, "Miaow", which really meant, "Cheer up! You have something neither

of your **stepsisters** has and that is beauty." It was quite true. Cinderella, even dressed in old rags, was a lovely girl. While her stepsisters, no matter how **splendid** and **elegant** their clothes, were still **clumsy**, lumpy and ugly and always would be

One day, beautiful new dresses arrived at the house. A **ball** was to be held at the palace and the stepsisters were getting ready to go.

Cinderella didn't even dare ask if she could go too. She knew very well what the answer would be: "You? You're staying at home to wash the dishes, scrub the floors and turn down the beds for your stepsisters." They will come home tired and very sleepy. Cinderella **sighed**, "Oh dear, I'm so unhappy!" and the cat murmured "Miaow."

Suddenly something amazing happened. As Cinderella was sitting all alone, there was a burst of light and a **fairy** appeared. "Don't be alarmed, Cinderella," said the fairy. "I know you would love to go to the ball. And so you shall!" "How can I, dressed in rags?" Cinderella replied. "The **servants** will turn me away!"

The fairy smiled. With a flick of her **magic wand** Cinderella found herself wearing the most beautiful dress she had ever seen. "Now for your coach," said the fairy; "A real lady would never go to a ball on foot! Quick! Get me a **pumpkin!**" "Oh of course," said Cinderella, **rushing away**. Then the fairy turned to the cat. "You, bring me seven mice, and, remember they must be alive!"

Cinderella soon returned with the pumpkin and the cat with seven mice he had caught in the cellar. With a flick of the magic wand the pumpkin turned into a sparkling coach and the mice became six white horses, while the seventh mouse turned into a **coachman** in a smart uniform and carrying a whip. Cinderella could hardly believe her eyes.

"You shall go to the ball Cinderella. But remember! You must leave at midnight. That is when my **spell** ends. Your coach will turn back into a pumpkin and the horses will become mice again. You will be dressed in rags and wearing clogs instead of these glass **slippers**! Do you understand?" Cinderella smiled and said, "Yes, I understand!"

Cinderella had a wonderful time at the ball until she heard the first stroke of midnight! She remembered what the fairy had said, and without a word of goodbye she slipped from the Prince's arms and ran down the steps. As she ran she lost one of her slippers, but not for a moment did she dream of stopping to pick it up! If the last stroke of midnight were to sound... oh... what a **disaster** that would be! Out she fled and vanished into the night.

The Prince, who was now madly in love with her, picked up the slipper and said to his **ministers**, "Go and search everywhere for the girl whose foot this slipper fits. I will never be content until I find her!" So the ministers tried the slipper on the foot of every girl in the land until only Cinderella was left.

"That awful untidy girl simply cannot have been at the ball," snapped the stepmother. "Tell the Prince he ought to marry one of my two daughters! Can't you see how ugly Cinderella is?"

But, to everyone's amazement, the shoe fitted perfectly.

Suddenly the fairy appeared and waved her magic wand. In a flash, Cinderella appeared in a splendid dress, shining with youth and beauty. Her stepmother and stepsisters gaped at her in amazement, and the ministers said, "Come with us Cinderella! The Prince is waiting for you."

So Cinderella married the Prince and lived happily ever. As for the cat, he just said "Miaow!"



APPENDIX B

Cinderella - Characters



APPENDIX C

CINDERELLA ILLUSTRATIONS



APPENDIX D

Cinderella - Story Settings

The story of Cinderella is set in...



APPENDIX E

STORY SEQUENCE

Use the numbers 1-10 to sequence the story.

_____ Cinderella's fairy changed a pumpkin into a fine coach.

_____ Cinderella's stepmother made her do all the household tasks.

_____ Cinderella's stepsisters were invited to the ball.

_____ Cinderella cried because she wanted to go to the ball.

_____ The prince and Cinderella danced at the ball.

_____ Cinderella lost her glass slipper when she was running from the castle.

_____ The prince found Cinderella when the glass slipper fit her foot.

_____ The clock struck midnight.

_____ The prince and Cinderella were married at the castle.

_____ Cinderella's father got married again after her mother died

APPENDIX F

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

Answer the questions using complete sentences. .

1. How did Cinderella feel when her stepsisters were invited to the ball at the castle?

2. How did Cinderella's stepsisters treat her?

3. How did Cinderella feel when her fairy came to see her?

4. What happened when Cinderella arrived at the ball?

5. What did the king and queen think about Cinderella during the ball?

6. Why was it important for Cinderella to be home by midnight?

7. What did the prince do when he found Cinderella's glass slipper?

8. What happened when the glass slipper fit Cinderella's foot?

APPENDIX G

stepmother	stepsisters	minister	widow	cinder	splendid	
castle	prince	servant	rush away	slipper	clumsy	
sigh	fairy	coachman	midnight	ball	elegant	magic
wand	pumpkin	spell	disaster	scraps		

Vocabulary Word Unscramble

1. peicnr _____
2. stepomrteh _____
3. psreilp _____
4. albl _____
5. gicma ndwa _____
6. tnaserv _____
7. yawa hurs _____
8. irfya _____
9. mhgtinid _____
10. anhcamoc _____
11. etspsiesrts _____
12. elastc _____
13. etisnimr _____
14. wiowd _____
15. nriedc _____
16. Sdidlenp _____
17. tganele _____
18. lumcsy _____
19. gish _____
20. nikpump _____
21. lleps _____
22. tersasdi _____
23. psscra _____

c) As soon as we waited d) Until we waited

15. I feel fine this morning but Ivery tired lastnight.

- a) was b) is
c) am d) were

16. It was hot in the room, so I.....thewindow.

- a) open b) am opening
c) opened d) opens

17. Imy passport. I can't find it.

- a) have lost b) was losing
c) am losing d) were lost

18. He..... to his teacher at the moment.

- a) is speaking b) speaks
c) spoke d) speak

19. My dog always with meon the beach.

- a) run b) is running
c) runs d) runned

20. I'm going to trees in this garden.

- a) make b) plant
c) do d) give

Verilen cevabın uygun sorusunu bulunuz

21. "No, of course not. We have a dishwasher."

a) Does anybody want more dessert?

b) This is delicious. Can you give me the recipe?

c) can you help me?

d) Do you want help with the washing-up?

22-25. soruları, paragrafa gorecevaplendiriniz.

Last summer, we decided to spend our vacation at the beach because the weather was very hot in the mountains. The travel agent said that travelling by bus was the cheapest, but we went by plane because it was faster. We wanted to have more time to spend at the beach. The weather was beautiful and we had a great time.

22. We decided to go to the beach because.....

- a) it was cheaper than going to the mountains
b)the travel agent said that it was the cheapest
c)of the hot weather in the mountains
d)we wanted to spend time at the beach

23. The bus was the way to travel.

- a)best b)easiest
c)cheapest d)slowest

24. Travelling by plane was than by bus.

- a) more fun b) cheaper
c) expensive d) faster

25. We had very weather during our vacation.

- a) good b) bad
c) cold d) handsome

APPENDIX I

PRE- RECALL TEST

Scores from this test will not affect your grades. (Bu testten alacağınız puanlar hiçbir şekilde notlarınızı etkilemeyecektir.)

Write the Turkish meanings of the following words. (Aşağıdaki kelimelerin Türkçe anlamlarını yazınız.)

WIDOW	_____
STEPMOTHER	_____
STEPSISTER	_____
CINDERS	_____
SPLENDID	_____
ELEGANT	_____
CLUMSY	_____
BALL	_____
SIGH	_____
FAIRY	_____
SERVANT	_____
MAGIC WAND	_____
PUMPKIN	_____
RUSH AWAY	_____
COACHMAN	_____
SPELL	_____
SLIPPERS	_____
DISASTER	_____
MINISTER	_____
SCRAPS	_____

APPENDIX J

PRE-RECOGNITION TEST

- 1) A “widow” is a woman
 - a) who is married
 - b) who has got a child
 - c) whose husband has died
 - d) whose husband is rich
- 2) The woman who marries your father is your.....
 - a) stepsister
 - b) stepmother
 - c) coachman
 - d) minister
- 3) The dog was too hungry to eat all the
 - a) old rags
 - b) scraps
 - c) slippers
 - d) cinders
- 4) I must stay and wait until every.....in the fire burnt out.
 - a) minister
 - b) slippers
 - c) cinder
 - d) widow
- 5) During his performance the magician used a.....while conducting magic tricks.
 - a) castle
 - b) wall
 - c) disaster
 - d) magic wand
- 6) Our class visited Joe’sfarm yesterday.
 - a) pumpkin
 - b) spell
 - c) fairy
 - d) clumsy
- 7) Thearrived his home late because there was a problem with his horse’s leg.
 - a) scraps
 - b) disaster
 - c) minister
 - d) coachman
- 8) The witch put aon him and it became a magic night for the prince.
 - a) word
 - b) spell
 - c) servant
 - d) sigh
- 9) Many people prefer to wearin the house rather than shoes.
 - a) splendid
 - b) disaster
 - c) slippers
 - d) scraps
- 10) Jack’s losing his job will be af or him.
 - a) clumsy
 - b) servant
 - c) pumpkin
 - d) disaster
- 11) I had atime with my family at the weekend.
 - a) splendid
 - b) fairy
 - c) clumsy
 - d) hardly

- 12) She looked veryin her new dress.
a) disaster
b) elegant
c) fairy
d) difficult
- 13) Theboy fell down and broke his arm while he was walking on the road.
a) widow
b) minister
c) clumsy
d) splendid
- 14) After the soldiers learnt the news about the war, they.....deply at the thought.
a) swam
b) flied
c) sighed
d) played
- 15) A fairy is
.....
a) a small creature with wings and magic powers
b) a big wild animal
c) a green plant with white flowers

d) a bad, lazy person,

16.-18. sorularda verilen sözcüklerden hangisinin farklı olduğunu bulup işaretleyiniz.

- 16)
a) splendid b) awful
c) servant d) clumsy

- 17)
a) minister b) stepsister
c) grandparents d) aunt

- 18)
a) hardly b) suddenly
c) perfectlyd) fairy

- 19) The princess wore her best clothes because she was going to the
a) match
b) castle
c) ball
d) pool

- 20) The taxi driver
..... in the traffic jam and crashed into a motorbike.
a) played
b) rushed away
c) got on
d) climbed up

APPENDIX K

IMMEDIATE- RECALL TEST

Scores from this test will not affect your grades. (Bu testten alacağınız puanlar hiçbir şekilde notlarınızı etkilemeyecektir.)

Write the Turkish meanings of the following words. (Aşağıdaki kelimelerin Türkçe anlamlarını yazınız.)

SCRAPS _____

MINISTER _____

DISASTER _____

SLIPPERS _____

SPELL _____

COACHMAN _____

RUSH AWAY _____

PUMPKIN _____

MAGIC WAND _____

SERVANT _____

FAIRY _____

SIGH _____

BALL _____

CLUMSY _____

ELEGANT _____

SPLENDID _____

CINDERS _____

STEPSISTER _____

STEPMOTHER _____

WIDOW _____

APPENDIX L

IMMEDIATE-RECOGNITION TEST

- 1) **The taxi driver in the traffic jam and crashed into a motorbike.**
 - a) climbed up
 - b) got on
 - c) rushed away
 - d) played
- 2) **The princess wore her best clothes because she was going to the**
 - a) match
 - b) castle
 - c) pool
 - d) ball
- 3) **During his performance the magician used a..... while conducting magic tricks.**
 - a) magic wand
 - b) castle
 - c) wall
 - d) disaster
- 4) **A fairy is**
 - a) a bad, lazy person
 - b) a small creature with wings and magic powers
 - c) a big wild animal
 - d) a green plant with white flowers
- 5) **Our class visited Joe'sfarm yesterday.**
 - a) pumpkin
 - b) spell
 - c) clumsy
 - d) fairy
- 6) **The witch put aon him and it became a magic night for the prince.**
 - a) sigh
 - b) spell
 - c) servant
 - d) word
- 7) **Many people prefer to wearin the house rather than shoes.**
 - a) splendid
 - b) disaster
 - c) scraps
 - d) slippers
- 8) **I had atime with my family at the weekend.**
 - a) clumsy
 - b) fairy
 - c) splendid
 - d) hardly
- 9) **She looked veryin her new dress.**
 - a) difficult
 - b) elegant
 - c) fairy
 - d) disaster
- 10) **The arrived his home late because there was a problem with his horse's leg.**
 - a) scraps
 - b) disaster
 - c) coachman

- d) minister
- 11) **Jack's losing his job will be afor him.**
a) disaster
b) servant
c) pumpkin
d) clumsy
- 12) **Theboy fell down and broke his arm while he was walking on the road.**
a) minister
b) widow
c) splendid
d) clumsy
- 13) **After the soldiers learnt the news about the war, they.....deeply at the thought.**
a) swam
b) sighed
c) flied
d) played
- 14) **I must stay and wait until every.....in the fire burnt out.**
a) cinder
b) slippers
c) minister
d) widow
- 15.-17. sorularda verilen sözcüklerden hangisinin farklı olduğunu bulup işaretleyiniz.
- 15)
a) clumsy b) awful c) servant d) splendid
- 16)
a) aunt b) stepsister c) grandparents d) minister
- 17)
a) perfectly b) fairy c) hardly d) suddenly
- 18) **The woman who marries your father is your.....**
a) stepmother
b) stepsister
c) coachman
d) minister
- 19) **The dog was too hungry to eat all the**
a) old rags
b) cinders
c) slippers
d) scraps
- 20) **A "widow" is a woman**
a) whose husband is rich
b) who has got a child
c) whose husband has died
d) who is married

APPENDIX M

DELAYED- RECALL TEST

Scores from this test will not affect your grades. (Bu testten alacağınız puanlar hiçbir şekilde notlarınızı etkilemeyecektir.)

Write the Turkish meanings of the following words. (Aşağıdaki kelimelerin Türkçe anlamlarını yazınız.)

STEPSISTER	_____
CINDERS	_____
WIDOW	_____
STEPMOTHER	_____
CLUMSY	_____
BALL	_____
SPLENDID	_____
ELEGANT	_____
SERVANT	_____
MAGIC WAND	_____
SIGH	_____
FAIRY	_____
COACHMAN	_____
SPELL	_____
PUMPKIN	_____
RUSH AWAY	_____
MINISTER	_____
SCRAPS	_____
SLIPPERS	_____
DISASTER	_____

APPENDIX N

DELAYED-RECOGNITION TEST

- 1) **A fairy is**
 - a) a big wild animal
 - b) a small creature with wings and magic powers
 - c) a bad, lazy person
 - d) a green plant with white flowers
 - 2) **The taxi driver in the traffic jam and crashed into a motorbike.**
 - a) rushed away
 - b) got on
 - c) climbed up
 - d) played
 - 3) **Our class visited Joe'sfarm yesterday.**
 - a) fairy
 - b) spell
 - c) clumsy
 - d) pumpkin
 - 4) **The princess wore her best clothes because she was going to the**
 - a) match
 - b) castle
 - c) ball
 - d) pool
 - 5) **During his performance the magician used a..... while conducting magic tricks.**
 - a) wall
 - b) castle
 - c) magic wand
 - d) disaster
 - 6) **She looked veryin her new dress.**
 - a) fairy
 - b) elegant
 - c) difficult
 - d) disaster
- 7.-9. sorularda verilen sözcüklerden hangisinin farklı olduğunu bulup işaretleyiniz.
- 7)
 - a) aunt
 - b) stepsister
 - c) minister
 - d) grandparents
 - 8)
 - a) clumsy
 - b) servant
 - c) awful
 - d) splendid
 - 9)
 - a) suddenly
 - b) hardly
 - c) fairy
 - d) perfectly
- 10) **The witch put aon him and it became a magic night for the prince.**
 - a) servant
 - b) spell
 - c) sigh
 - d) word

- 11) I had atime with my family at the weekend.
- clumsy
 - fairy
 - splendid
 - hardly
- 12) Many people prefer to wearin the house rather than shoes.
- splendid
 - disaster
 - scraps
 - slippers
- 13) I must stay and wait until every.....in the fire burnt out.
- cinder
 - slippers
 - minister
 - widow
- 14) The arrived his home late because there was a problem with his horse's leg.
- scraps
 - disaster
 - minister
 - coachman
- 15) Jack's losing his job will be afor him.
- servant
 - disaster
 - pumpkin
 - clumsy
- 16) Theboy fell down and broke his arm while he was walking on the road.
- clumsy
 - widow
 - splendid
 - minister
- 17) A "widow" is a woman
- whose husband is rich
 - whose husband has died
 - who has got a child
 - who is married
- 18) After the soldiers learnt the news about the war, they.....deeply at the thought.
- sighed
 - swam
 - flied
 - played
- 19) The woman who marries your father is your.....
- minister
 - stepsister
 - coachman
 - stepmother
- 20) The dog was too hungry to eat all the
- cinders
 - old rags
 - scraps
 - slippers

APPENDIX O

WORD LIST

WIDOW

STEPMOTHER

STEPSISTER

CINDERS

SPLENDID

ELEGANT

CLUMSY

BALL

SIGH

FAIRY

SERVANT

MAGIC WAND

PUMPKIN

RUSH AWAY

COACHMAN

SPELL

SLIPPERS

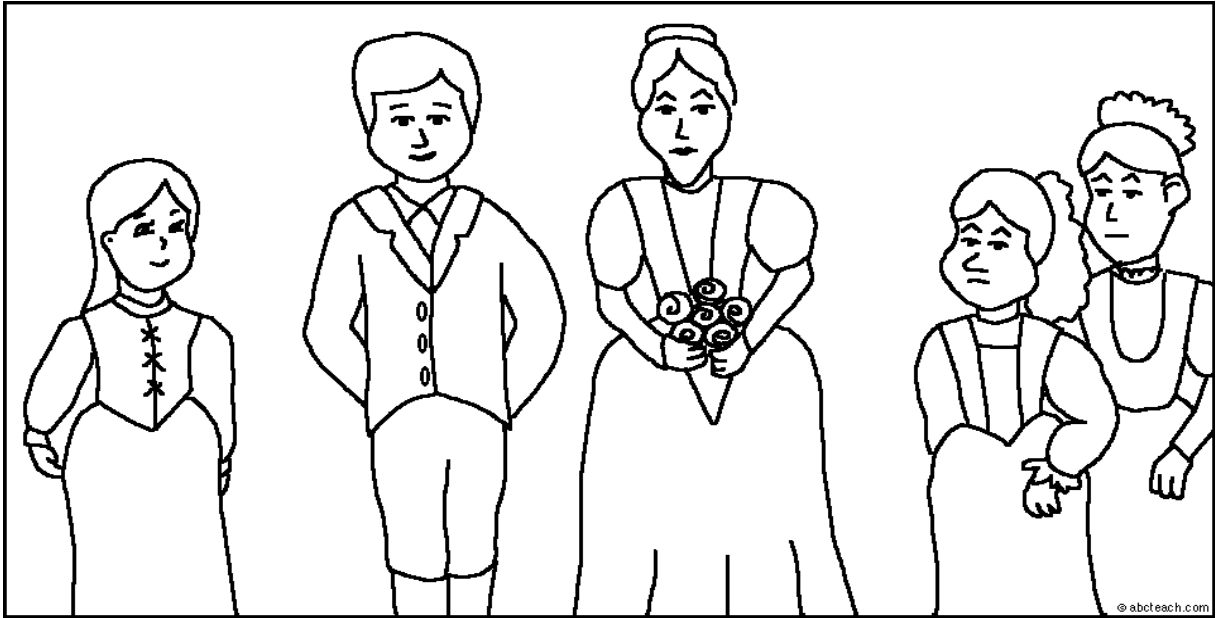
DISASTER

MINISTER

SCRAPS

APPENDIX P

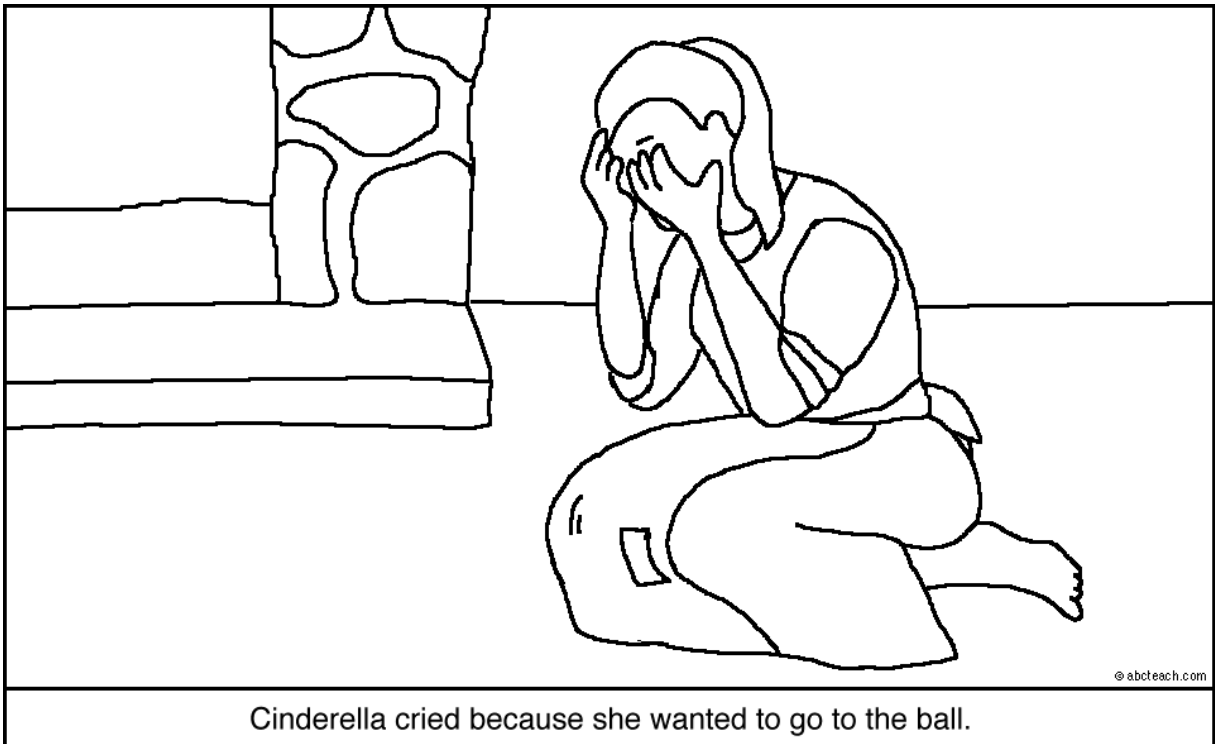
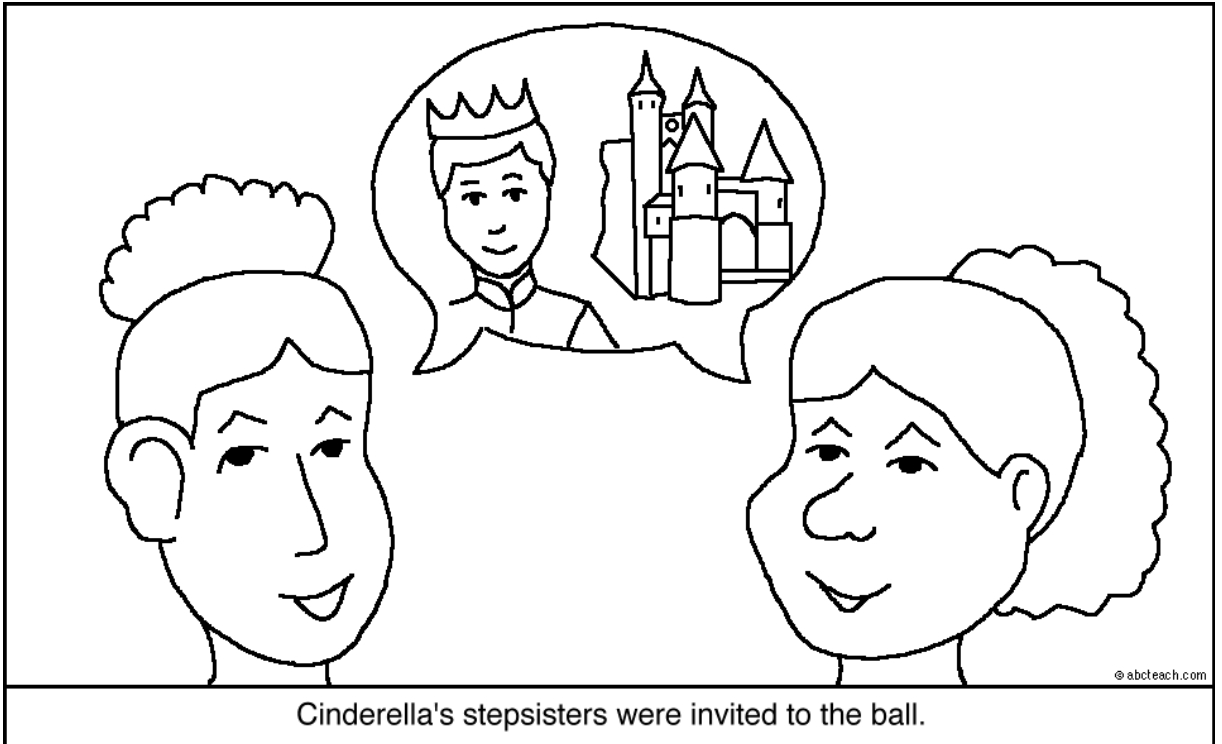
CINDERELLA SEQUENCE CARDS



Cinderella's father got married again after her mother died.

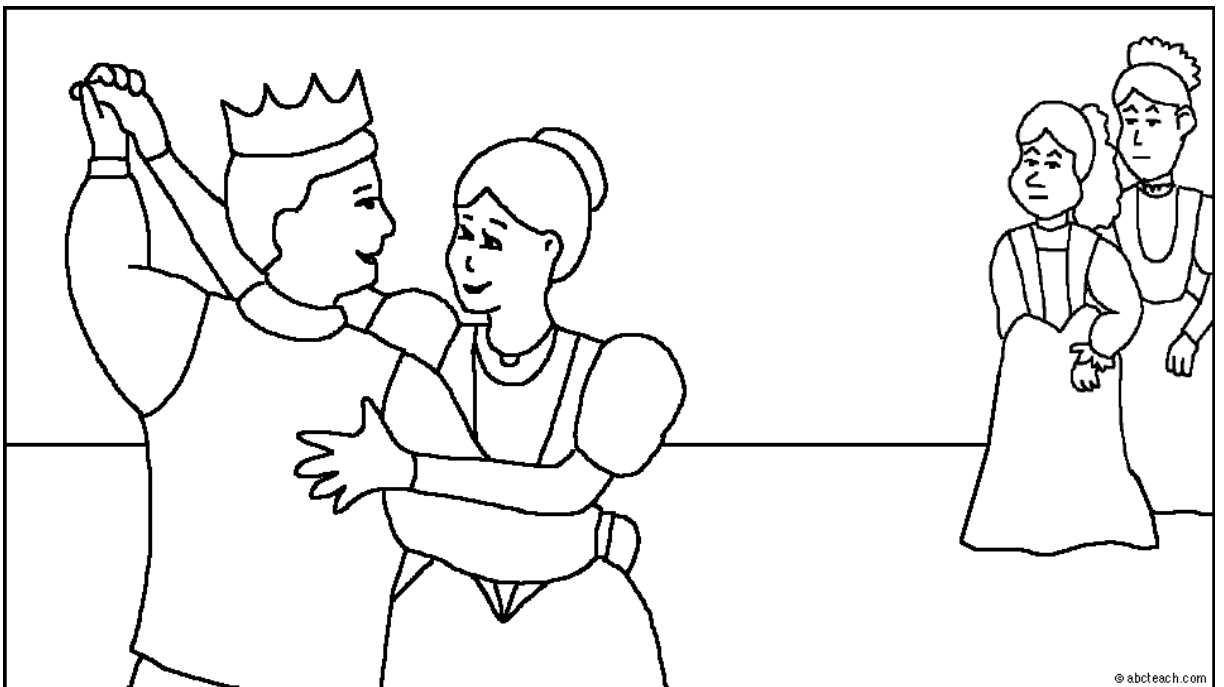


Cinderella's stepmother made her do all the household tasks.

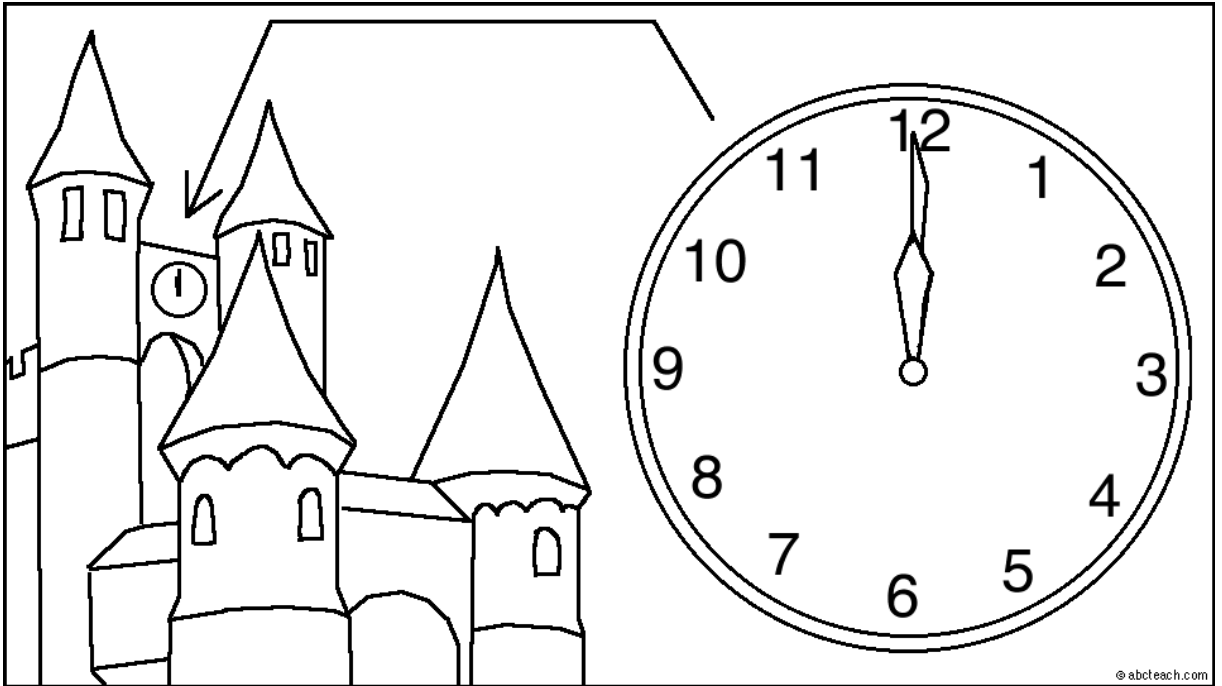




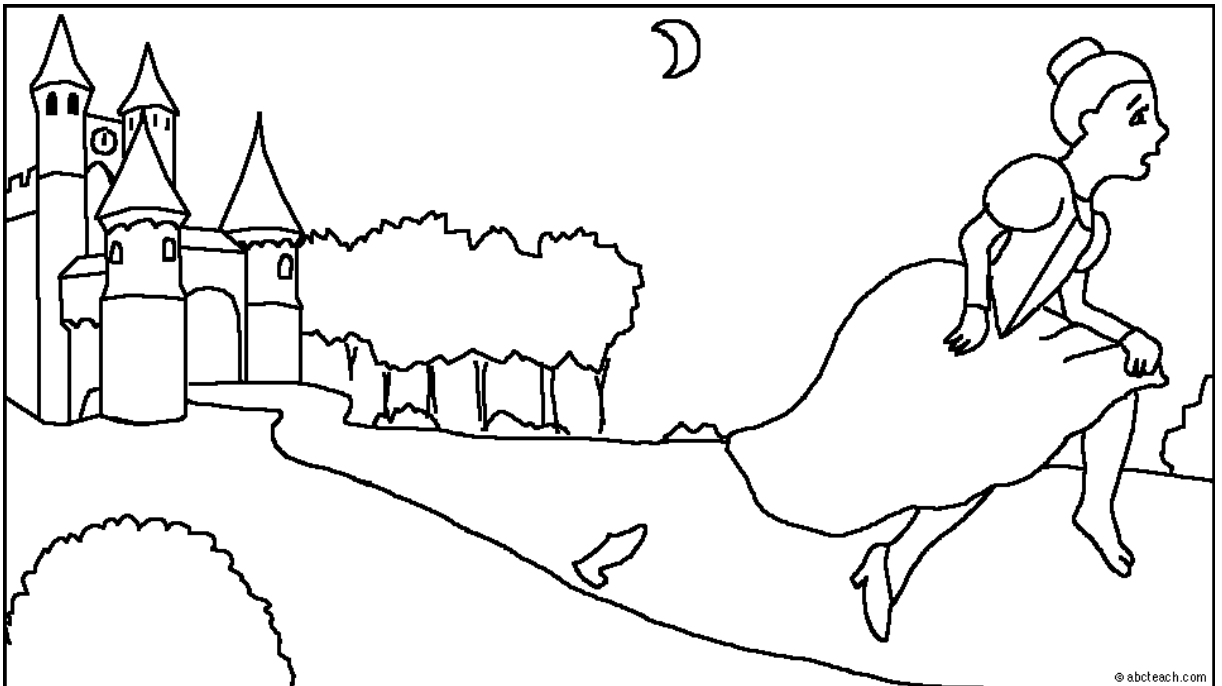
Cinderella's fairy godmother changed a pumpkin into a fine coach.



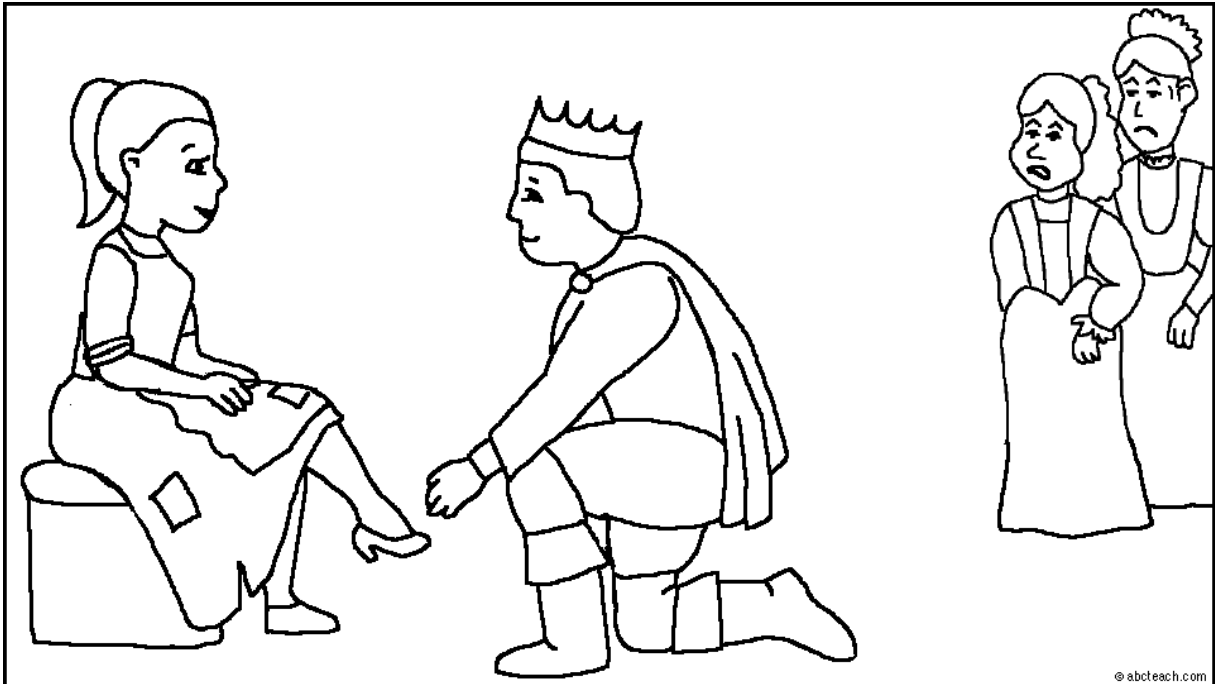
The prince and Cinderella danced at the ball.



The clock struck midnight.

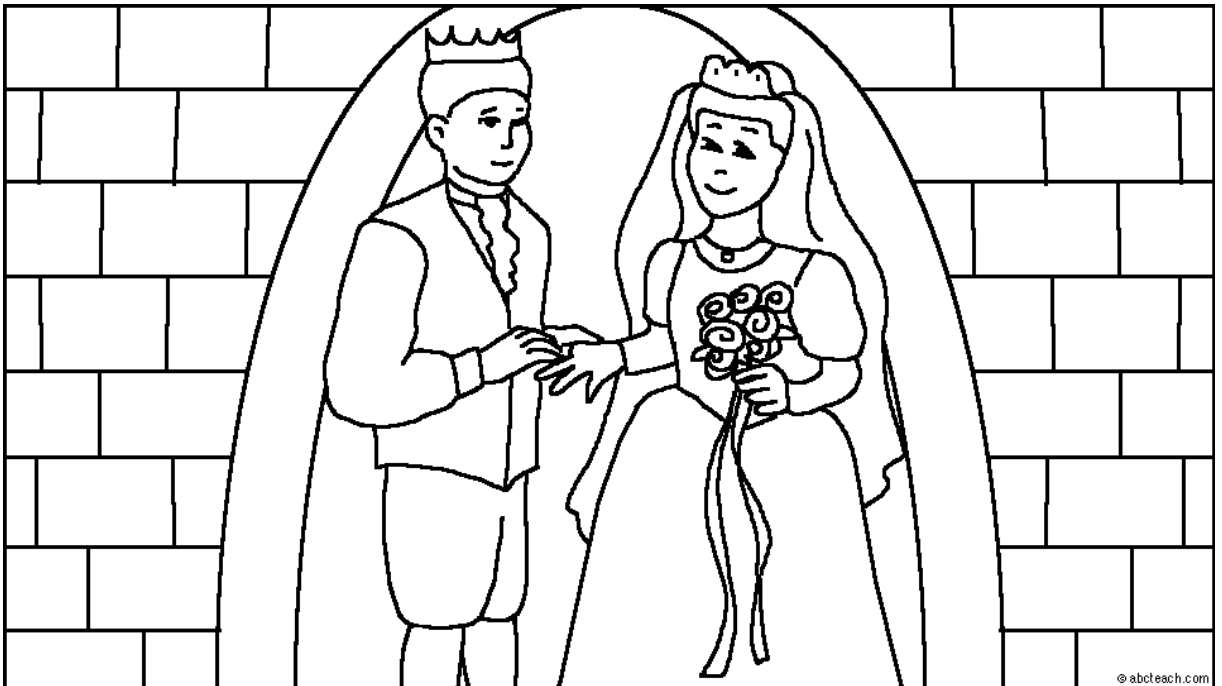


Cinderella lost her glass slipper when she was running from the castle.



© abcteach.com

The prince found Cinderella when the glass slipper fit her foot.



© abcteach.com

The prince and Cinderella were married at the castle.

APPENDIX Q

FLASH CARDS









APPENDIX R
ROLE PLAYING ACTIVITIES









T. C.
KONYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü
Özgeçmiş



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Doğum Tarihi:	10.08.1986		
Medeni Durumu:	Evli		

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Yüksek Lisans	Selçuk üniversitesi	İngilizce öğretmenliği	Konya	2012

Becerileri:	
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