

Miray ÖCAL

**THE USE OF "ROBIN HOOD" IN THE COMPARISON OF
TWO METHODS IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

VOCABULARY:

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE AND GRAMMAR

TRANSLATION METHOD

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For my family, my husband and me

APPROVAL PAGE

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1. The material included in this thesis has not been submitted wholly or in part for any academic award or qualification other than that for which it is now submitted.

2. The program of advanced study of which this thesis is part has consisted of:

i) Research Methods course during the undergraduate study

ii) Examination of several thesis guides of particular universities both in Turkey and abroad as well as a professional book on this subject.

3. I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis or major Research Paper.

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ABSTRACT

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The use of “Robin Hood” in the comparison of two methods in teaching foreign language vocabulary: TPR and GTM

The aim of this study was to see whether there was significant difference between vocabulary learning of young learners instructed through Total Physical Response Method (TPR) and Grammar Translation Method (GTM) by comparing their vocabulary knowledge scores based on “Robin Hood” story book.

The sample group for this study consisted of 37 students from a private elementary school in Istanbul. The students were chosen randomly and divided into two as control and the experimental groups. In order to determine students’ vocabulary knowledge a vocabulary pre-test was applied to both groups. During the treatment of six weeks, experimental group was instructed through TPR based English lessons while the control group was instructed through GTM based English lessons. After six weeks time the same vocabulary test was applied again as a post-test to the students of both groups.

Results of the study revealed that both TPR based and GTM based English instruction increased vocabulary knowledge of the students

significantly. However, comparing students' test scores from experimental and control group showed that story-based instruction using TPR method was much more effective than using GTM. When the mean scores of the TPR and GTM are compared, it was found that students, who had had TPR based instructions, scored significantly better in vocabulary test than students who had had GTM based instruction.

Key word: Total Physical Response, Grammar Translation Method, Vocabulary teaching.

ÖZET

Miray ÖCAL

Mart 2011

Yabancı dilde kelime öğretiminde iki metodun "Robin Hood" hikâyesinin kullanılarak karşılaştırılması: Tam Fiziksel Yanıt ile Geleneksel Gramer Çeviri Metodu

Bu çalışmanın amacı yabancı dilde kelime öğretiminde Tam Fiziksel Yanıt (TFY) ile geleneksel Gramer Çeviri Metodu (GÇM) arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığı, hangi metodun kelime öğretiminde daha verimli olduğunu bulmaktır.

Çalışma için İstanbul İlinde faaliyet gösteren özel bir ilköğretim okulunun iki sınıfındaki 8. Sınıflarında okuyan 37 öğrenci örneklem olarak seçilmiştir. Sınıflardan biri deney, biri ise kontrol grubu olarak rastgele seçilmiştir. Öğrencilerin kelime bilgisini tespit etmek üzere 100 soruluk bir kelime testi ön-test olarak uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra deney grubuna TFY metodu ile ve kontrol grubuna GÇM ile 6 haftalık İngilizce dersler, Robin Hood hikâye kitabı kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Derslerin bitiminden sonra öğrencilere daha önce uygulanmış olan kelime testi tekrar, son test olarak yeniden uygulanmıştır.

Öğrencilerin ön ve son kelime testlerinden aldıkları skorlar bize her iki metodun da kelime öğretiminde faydalı olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğrencilerin

kelime bilgileri anlamlı olarak artmıřtır. Bununla birlikte, TFY metodu ile ders alan ğrencilerin kelime bilgisi test skorlarının, GÇM ile ders alan ğrencilerden anlamlı olarak daha yüksek olduėu bulunmuřtur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Tam Fiziksel Yanıt, Gramer eviri Metodu, Kelime ğretimi.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

T.P. R. : Total Physical Response

G.T. M. : Grammar Translation Method

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As the world is getting more and more connected economically, technologically and culturally, knowing a foreign language (mostly it is English) has become not just important but almost necessary. In Turkey, for example, foreign language teaching now begins at elementary school level (4th grade) and extends to the university level. Just looking at the current national curriculum shows us how important a role foreign language teaching plays in our schools. It is expected, hopefully, that eventually students will be able to read, write and speak in English adequately at some point of time that takes many years.

Knowing a foreign language means being able to communicate in that language whether this communication involves reading, listening, writing or speaking. According to Wilkins (1974) grammar is very important in language but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. Similarly McCarthy (1991) states that "No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sound of L2 are mastered, without word to express a wide range of meanings,

communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way”(1). This means that without vocabulary we are not able to communicate even if we know the structure (grammar) of that language. As we acquire new vocabulary we broaden our ability to express our message. This is a result of different kinds of knowledge that a foreign language learner must master to know a word. Nation (1991) suggests the following list about knowing a word:

- The meaning(s) of the word
- The written form of the word
- The spoken form of the word
- The grammatical behavior of the word
- The collocations of the word
- The register of the word
- The associations of the word
- The frequency of the word (31).

According to Wittgenstein's Meaning of 'Meaning' (1959) he mentions that “A sign -- a sound, an ink mark -- as such is without meaning.”(65) Wittgenstein's logic is only concerned with "verbal definitions" and never with "real definitions".

Schmitt (2000) names this list as 'types of word knowledge' and claims that “most or all of them are necessary to be able to use a

word in the wide variety of language situations one comes across” (5). Schmitt suggests that these word-knowledge types are learnt incrementally and some may develop before others with different degrees of mastery.

According to Carroll (1971) importance of teaching vocabulary to students “...cannot be denied, it must be taught effectively, so that students experience the enrichment of knowing, understanding, and using new, more definite words” (378). He sees vocabulary as an integral part of personal growth. Krashen (1989) also says a special attention must be paid to vocabulary teaching:

A large vocabulary is, of course, essential for mastery of a language. Second language acquirers know this; they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that lack of vocabulary is a major problem (440).

Although the importance of vocabulary teaching is accepted by most of the foreign language teachers today, how it is taught differs widely. Allen (1983) states that from 1940 to 1970 vocabulary was neglected and teachers were discouraged to teach words. Allen explains why vocabulary teaching was neglected “Specialists in methodology feared that students would make mistake in sentence

construction if too many words were learned before the basic grammar had been mastered" (3).

In recent decades, the focus has been shifted from grammar and pronunciation (as in Audio-Lingual Method-ALM and Grammar Translation Method-GTM) to the comprehension and production in foreign language teaching.

More recent teaching methods/approaches such as Total Physical Response (TPR), Natural Approach, Communicative Approach, Functional Approach, Silent Way, and Suggestopedia promise a more active role for the students and encourage them to be more productive and increase their knowledge of vocabulary through communication. Activities such as picture matching, dialogues, scrambled letters, situation activities, problem solving, using stories and dramatization, storytelling, word maps, role playing, collocation activities, association activities, word formation, giving commands, stories for miming, using songs, completing picture stories, using drawings, demonstrating real objects etc. are used intensively in those approaches with different degrees and purposes.

Traditional methods like ALM and GTM, which are still used in many foreign language classrooms, are not efficient and sufficient in providing active vocabulary storage for students or learners in

general. GTM or classical method, in general emerged when people in Europe wanted to learn Latin and Greek. The main characteristic of the method is learning the rules of grammar and their applications in translating texts from one language into the other. GTM instructs language learners in grammar, and provides vocabulary with direct translation to memorize. It is more about analyzing a foreign language than learning it. With this method, in classes, the objective is students control the features of the language they study like vocabulary, grammar and the orthography, to be able to read, understand and write texts in different contexts. In practice, reading and writing are main focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening. Students are mostly passive in learning process and teachers are accepted as an authority. TPR, on the other hand, wants students to be active and focus on more language acquisition than 'knowing' the language in question. (Brown, 52-53)

The wasted time is only one negative aspect of the traditional methods, the other one is its negative impact on learners' courage to continue to invest in foreign language education. That is why some new methods have been proposed from the field of foreign language education. Asher (1966), for example, proposed such a method in order to overcome the shortcomings of the traditional methods that mentioned above.

TPR as a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activities, Asher (1966) suggests that learners have unusual long-term retention when they listen to foreign language and then require making a total physical response. In this respect, stories are especially appropriate for teaching and learning vocabulary with TPR in which there are many opportunities for the learners to be directly involved. Interesting stories with lots of action will be well received by the young learners and keep their interest for a long time. Not only in TPR but also in GTM stories with full of action keep the students' interests alive during the learning period and also cause a high attention on the story. The main reason to use the book Robin Hood in this experimental thesis is based on Asher's ideas of using stories in teaching and learning new vocabularies. According to Warren; True language learning and conversation of the target language occur because of real life applications. A strategy for teaching real life applications is Total Physical Response by storytelling (TPRS) (Warren, 2006). TPR is mainly taught through commands, however, when it also includes storytelling by the teacher it gets more effective (Slavic, 2007). Phillips (1993) argues that:

Vocabulary is best learned when the meaning of the word(s) is illustrated, for example by a picture, an action, or a real object. The children should then meet and use

the words in relevant contexts, in order to 'fix' them in their minds (68).

Stories are good for providing interaction for the second language learners which involves both comprehension and production. Especially young learners love playing, acting, moving around or using their bodies. Thus TPR method through stories will provide a very good opportunity combining physical activities with teaching vocabulary for an instructor. Rivers (1986), for example, argues that learners are willing to comprehend because the content presented is important or learners' curiosity is aroused.

For this reason giving orders in the classroom to which students respond physically as proposed by Asher has long been considered useful as an initial learning device, especially if the response required is unexpected or slightly ridiculous and therefore amazing (Rivers, 1986, 3).

According to Asher (1972) the most important period of teaching a second language is the listening period as children learn their first language. He claims that children can understand very complex sentences even before they cannot utter more than one-word. The initial focus of the method Asher suggests is on the

comprehension of the language, first or second, not production. The method is based on an abundance of comprehensible input and the use of learners' body. Thus, instead of using just the left hemisphere of the brain, the whole brain is used. Vocabulary teaching with TPR then should involve:

- To give interactive experience of rich, meaningful and comprehensive input,
- To help students develop positive attitude towards the learning of English,
- To help students to acquire the basic receptive competence on which they can grasp the communication skill at the end (Asher, 1982, 20).

Teacher demonstrates a command and then students follow the command. For example, teacher **picks-up a pencil** and **writes her/his** (will be **your** in teacher's command) **name on the black-board**. The example above shows how key words (written in bold) can be taught easily. After some objections about TPR's command techniques, Asher (1974) argues that even the abstractions, verb tenses and function words and other linguistic features can be taught to the second language learner with different kind of manipulation as objects (25-31).

In order to prove his point, Asher (1974) reports a field test about teaching German to adults. He claims that most grammatical features of German can be nested into the imperative form and some difficult abstractions can be taught via cardboard written in German and in English on each side of it. He gives the following examples of the teaching process:

For example, the future tense can be imbedded into a command as, "When Luke walks to the window, Marie will write Luke's name on the blackboard!"...As to the present tense, these were nested in the imperative such as, for instance, "When Luke walks to the window, Mary will write Luke's name on the blackboard!"

...the German was written on one side of a cardboard card and English on the other. Then abstractions as "honor," "justice," and "government" were manipulated as objects. For instance, the instructor said in German, "Luke, pick up 'justice' and give it to Josephine." "Abner, throw 'government' to me." (26).

Whether Asher or the others are right about the limitation of the method, one of the best activities to free TPR from the limitations would be using stories. Instead of giving learners commands in

teaching vocabulary, a teacher can work through a story using learners as actors. The story can be translated into real life, observable action which can be acted by learners. For example, instead of giving the command 'Jump', the teacher may use a line from a story like 'The king jumped with fear'. The main advantage of incorporating a story in vocabulary teaching within TPR method is that it allows a very enjoyable learning environment for the learners. This enjoyable environment will decrease learners' stress while learning new words which is one of the most important obstacles that prevents learners' language acquisition according to Asher (1972). Since TPR focuses on the acquisition of language rather than the learning of language by presenting items in a meaningful and observable way, stories seem to be very well suited for that purpose.

Word association is a great way for students to learn a variety of vocabulary words. In addition, TPR is a great way to practice vocabulary. TPR, created by James Asher is where a word is introduced to the class and then that word is placed into commands. For example, "apple" is the new vocabulary word. The teacher holds up a real or plastic apple and explains that this is an apple. Then, the teacher gives commands using an apple. For instance, give the apple to Jesse, bite the apple, or throw the apple on the floor. This technique keeps the students engaged because they do not know what is going to happen next and it helps students to remember the word because of repetition. If a student misses a few days of school the student

may quickly fall behind depending on the enthusiasm of the student when they return. This method does not require homework because it is hard when students are at home completing homework that they do not understand. The students' job is strictly in the classroom. Most students can recover from a day's absence however; it is difficult to receive the same instruction as the day before. Lastly, it is important that the student is creative in the process of telling stories. Being creative brings the stories to life and helps keep the class interesting (Oller et al., 1993). This method helps students to think for themselves and figure out the problem either alone or as a class which makes the lesson more meaningful (Harris, 1989).

This study aims to compare TPR and GTM in terms of their effectiveness of teaching vocabulary through a story in a real language teaching situation. Comparing TPR and GTM in a real classroom setting, using adventures of Robin Hood, will hopefully provide some bases for the effectiveness of teaching vocabulary through literature which we hope might lead to other studies using different methods.

Robin Hood has been chosen for comparing the two methods mainly because of its familiarity to our target students. But aside from this, it is also very well suited to the comparison of both approaches to compare because of the nature of the adventures (lots of actions

that can be played by the students) of Robin Hood. Phillips (1993) argues that "It is common sense that if an activity is enjoyable, it will be memorable; the language involved will 'stick', and the children will have a sense of achievement which will develop motivation for further learning" (3). Wright (1995) agrees that stories are rich in language experiences and enable students to participate in the process of learning the language as active subjects. Besides motivating students, teaching vocabulary through stories, with a careful setting, will increase students' participation and decrease their level of stress (anxiety) in class. In this sense stories can be cohesive. According to Houston (1997), stories give humans a sense of belonging and teachers can use this feature as a strong motivational force for teaching language skills. Slattery and Willis (2003) mention two important aspects of stories in language teaching in classes:

a) The educational values of stories

- help children relate new things what they know already
- help children to look at real life from different viewpoints and image what it feels like to be someone else
- can introduce the child other cultures and attitudes
- let children share their experience 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.

b) Stories for language teaching

- 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 (96).

Kaufman (1987), using TPR method in language teaching, concludes that literature reading has very practical applications.

Students gain an insight and appreciation for different social, cultural, economic, or physical milieu which permits creative students to use their imagination in order

to communicate in a meaningful manner with an increased vocabulary and enjoyment (833).

Using stories in the classroom attendance is also important because TPR method requires observation of the teacher for their pronunciation of the words and for the word associations.

In the following chapter we will focus on vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary teaching and vocabulary teaching strategies, how literature can be cooperated in vocabulary teaching and vocabulary teaching with TPR and GTM.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, first, we will try to explain what we mean by word and vocabulary. Then, vocabulary teaching and vocabulary teaching strategies will be mentioned. Next, how literature can be incorporated in vocabulary teaching will be explained. In the last section of the chapter, we will try to explore vocabulary teaching with TPR and GTM.

2.1. Vocabulary Knowledge

Before talking about teaching vocabulary in L2 it will be useful to explain what we mean by word and vocabulary.

Miller (1991) defines word as "A sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing, that symbolizes and communicates a meaning and may consist of a single morpheme or of a combination of morphemes" (91), while vocabulary is defined as the total number of words that you know in a particular language in Collins Dictionary (1994: 1164).

According to Thornbury (2002), a word is a more complex phenomenon than it might initially appear. He says that;

- words have different functions, some carrying mainly grammatical meaning, while others bear a greater informational load
- the same word can have a variety of forms
- words can be added to, or combined, to form new words
- words can group together to form units that behave as if they were single words
- many words commonly co-occur with other words
- words may look and/or sound the same but have quite different meanings
- one word may have a variety of overlapping meanings
- different words may share similar meanings, or may have opposite meanings
- words can have the same or similar meanings but be used in different situations or for different effects (12).

So, then, what is it to know a word? Thornbury (2002) proposes that, in general, "Knowing the meaning of a word is not just knowing its dictionary meaning, it also means knowing the words commonly associated with it (collocations) as well as its connotations, including

its register and its cultural accretions" (15). In short, he summarizes that knowing a word involves knowing its form and its meaning.

There is one more difficulty about the word(s) other than its definition that must be addressed: how many words are there in any language? According to McCarten (2007) it is almost impossible to say exactly how many words there are in English. She goes on and says that especially tracking language trends The Global Language Monitor reported almost a million words. She says counting words in English is a tricky and complicated business (1). This impossible number of words brings to mind another problem then. If there are so many words in English or any other language, how many and which words are going to be taught? The answer for this of course, will be not all of them but some of them. One way to determine which words have to be taught to students of second language is to looking at native speakers of that language. According to McCarten, the numbers of words that native speakers know vary from 12,000 to 20,000 depending on their level of education. In order to decide how many and which words are important to teach she suggests using a corpus "...basically a collection of texts which is stored in a computer" (2). A corpus, she argues, can tell us about:

- frequency: Which words and expressions are most frequent and which are rare

- differences in speaking and writing: Which vocabulary is more often spoken and which is more often written
- contexts of use: The situations in which people use certain vocabulary
- collocation: Which words are often used together
- grammatical patterns: How words and grammar combine to form patterns
- strategic use of vocabulary: Which words and expressions are used to organize and manage discourse (3).

Schmitt (1997) also believes that a resource list of high frequency words is required to decide what vocabulary a language learner needs. He says that the following factors should be considered in the development of a resource list of high frequency words.

1. Representativeness,
2. Frequency and range,
3. Word families,
4. Idioms and set expressions,
5. Range of information.

Nation and Newton (1996) also ask the question about what vocabulary provide the best return for learning. They, examining previous studies, conclude that with 2,000 headwords (or core

vocabulary) it is possible to use English in any normal ways. Once learners can use them, the decision as to which level to move next depends basically on learners' purpose. They admit that the division between high-frequency words and low-frequency words is arbitrary and researchers do not agree about where the division should be made, although they agree that the distinction can be most usefully made somewhere between the most frequent 1,500 words and the most frequent 7,000 words (278-9). Based on written academic text, they show a division for the levels of vocabulary as follows (278):

Table 1: Word frequency and text coverage

Level	Number of words	Text coverage (%)
High-frequency words	2,000	87.0
Academic vocabulary	800	8.0
Technical vocabulary	2,000	3.0
Low-frequency words	123,200	2.0
Total	128,000	100.0

Nation (2003) suggests instructors to pay special attention to high frequency words in his four strands course model; meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. He continues advising that:

1. If the word is a high frequency word or one that will be of continuing importance for the learners, a) give it attention, preferably focusing on its learning burden, b) make sure the learners will come back to it again. If the word is a low frequency word, pass over it without comment or give some brief attention to it focusing on what is needed in that instance.
2. Direct teaching should be clear and simple. Rely on repeated meetings to develop an understanding of the complexities of a word. Do not try to deal with the complexities by intensive teaching (7).

Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) suggest that the second language learner will know a large proportion of the words in English if they learn the 3000 or so most frequent words, and knowing those words will allow them to understand a great proportion of texts and communication in English. Before concentrating on more specialized vocabulary, the high frequency vocabulary must be learned. Only if the learner has academic ambitions, academic vocabulary or specialized vocabulary is important.

If we go a step further from what is a word and how many or which word(s) should be taught, we need to address another

question: what do we mean by knowing a word? Schmitt (2000) states that there is a relationship between a word and its referent, i.e. the person, thing, action, condition, or case it refers to in the real or imagined world. This relationship is arbitrary and not inherent in the word itself. Often this is not a direct relationship, but refers to a class or category. In this connection Schmitt uses the word 'dog' as an example.

There are many different kinds of dogs: big, small, black, white, with long or short fur, but still we will agree on what to call a dog. To determine the characteristics of a dog, it is useful to find which semantic features belong to the category. Some dogs will have many features belonging to the category, while other dogs will have few, but still be a dog (23).

Especially idioms and words with more than one meanings present serious difficulties for the language learner. Bryson (1990) says that English language is "full of booby traps for the unwary foreigner... For example, take the word 'fly'. The word may signify 'an annoying insect, a means of travel, and a critical part of a gentleman's apparel.'" (1). As it can be seen from the example above there is not necessarily a one-to-one correspondence between a word and its meaning, and the challenges for a language learner can be very difficult.

According to Carter (2001), knowing a word involves knowing it actively and productively as well as receptively. Read (2000) describes passive vocabulary as having knowledge of a word, and active vocabulary as being able to use this knowledge in speaking or writing. Nation (2004) agrees that when applied to vocabulary, these terms cover all the aspects of knowing a word. Table 2, below, shows aspects of knowing a word.(27)

Table 2: What is involved in knowing a word (Nation 2004, p.27)

Form	Spoken	P	What does the word sound like?
		R	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (registry, frequency...)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

R= Receptive knowledge, P= Productive knowledge

Nation (2004) describes receptive vocabulary as “perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning”; productive vocabulary as “wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate

spoken or written word form” (25). It is clear from the above table that knowing a word cannot be limited to just knowing the dictionary meanings of words. In order to know a word, a learner must master different kinds of knowledge:

- The meaning(s) of the word
- The written form of the word
- The spoken form of the word
- The grammatical behavior of the word
- The collocations of the word
- The register of the word
- The associations of the word
- The frequency of the word (Nation,26).

From Carter’s (1998) perspective, it seems that knowing a word is a process, which takes time and progress is mostly incremental and situational.

Kitao & Kitao (2003), on the other hand, divide vocabulary knowledge into four dimensions;

- Speaking : active
- Listening : passive
- Reading : passive
- Writing : active (1)

According to them active speaking vocabulary includes words that the speaker is able to use in speaking whereas passive listening vocabulary includes the words that the listener recognizes but can not necessarily produce when speaking. In passive reading vocabulary a reader recognizes the words but can not necessarily produce them and active writing vocabulary includes the words that a writer is able to use in writing.

Nagy and Scott (2000) also state that readers need to have many exposures to a word in different contexts before they “know” it. According to them it is not enough to be able to guess the right meaning of the word just in one special context, it is necessary to be able to use the word productively before knowledge of a word can be admitted. Another important aspect, they stated, is how well the language user understands and uses words in different modes (for example receptive versus productive language).

Knowing words is only part of second language. Read (2000) points out that:

...being proficient in a second language is not just a matter of knowing a lot of words, but also being able to exploit that knowledge effectively for various communicative purposes. Learners can build up

impressive knowledge of vocabulary and yet be incapable of understanding radio news or asking for assistance at an enquiry counter. An important aim for language learners must be that they can use words appropriately in their own speech and writing, rather than just demonstrating that they understand what a word can mean (3).

After looking into word and vocabulary knowledge, now we can move to issue of vocabulary teaching and vocabulary teaching strategies in the next section.

2.2. Vocabulary Teaching

The following section deals with the questions of why vocabulary teaching is important and which strategies can be employed teaching vocabulary in foreign language classrooms.

2.2.1. Vocabulary Teaching

While grammatical and syntactical knowledge is very important in language teaching, lexical knowledge is not less important and challenging. Schmitt (2000) for example says that "...whereas the grammar of a language is largely in place by the time a child is 10 years old, vocabulary continues to be learned throughout one's life

time" (4). Wilkins (1977) argues that to communicate seriously and adequately, a command of both grammar and vocabulary is needed. Cook, on the other hand, describes the situation as "grammar provides the overall patterns, the vocabulary is the material put into the patterns" (37). Thus both grammar and vocabulary should be taught without sacrificing one for the other. As McCarthy (1990) states, communication in second language without words will not be meaningful in any way. Wallace explains how frustrating is this saying that "...not being able to find the words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language whereas if we have the vocabulary we need it is usually possible to communicate after a fashion." (9).

The most recognized way of teaching second language was the GTM and Reading Approach. The main purpose of these approaches' was recognition of words. Learners were expected to comprehend written materials in the foreign language. In order to do that learners were spending most of their times looking up words in the dictionary, translating texts, and memorizing lists of words intensively. One main purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in the target language. Students need to learn about the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. It is believed that studying a foreign language provides students with good mental exercise which helps develop their minds. The student's native

language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language. According to Nation (1990), the structuralist movement in linguistics was responsible for that kind of foreign language teaching.

Its neglect is in part due to a special focus on syntax, especially coming from the movement named Structuralism which affected the whole linguistic world between the years 1950-60s.. Although the shift to generative (transformational) linguistics in the 1960s brought about revolutionary changes in linguistic theory, triggered by Chomsky (1957), it did little changes to challenge the idea that the role of lexis was secondary to that of grammar.(75)

Direct Method and the Audio-lingual Approach arose in reaction to the basic failure of GTM that students were not able to learn and understand the nature of L2. In 1950s with Direct Method vocabulary had been taught in contexts. Audio-lingual Approach, on the other hand, advocated the teaching of vocabulary only in later stages. This approach was proposing that students had to acquire structural patterns first and only then they should learn vocabulary (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, 137). After 1970s, vocabulary teaching began to be done in communicative contents with the introduction of Communicative Approach.

Theorists of communicative methodology, such as Wilkins (1977), Widdowson (1978) and Rivers (1983) asked special attention to the importance of vocabulary. They proposed that learners could master the lexical systems in the same way as they master the syntactic system with considerable exposure to the target language. The L2 vocabulary would develop with natural communicative exposure in the target language, just as L1 vocabulary.

The Natural Approach, developed by Krashen (1989), emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful input instead of grammatically correct production. According to Krashen, comprehensible input is crucial to acquire the language and comprehensibility relies on the meaning of vocabulary items; therefore, without comprehension of vocabulary items, acquisition will not occur. It has been recommended in the Natural Approach that interesting and relevant vocabulary input should be provided to language learners to help them achieve the mastery of language. Krashen (1989) explains the significance of vocabulary to the language learning process:

Excellent reasons exist for devoting attention to vocabulary and spelling. First, there are practical reasons. A large vocabulary is of course, essential for mastery of a language. Second language acquirers know this; they

carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly report that lack of vocabulary is a major problem (440).

In the 1980s, researchers started lexicographical studies in order to provide a more accurate language description. One of the most known projects of such studies was COBUILD project (The Collins-Birmingham University International Database (1987), an extensive computer analysis. This project of computer processing of language text and computational linguistics have shifted interest from single words to large chunks of language that are called lexical items, lexical phrases, or prefabricated units, chunks, etc.

These works led to a significant departure from previous understanding of lexicon. They placed vocabulary in a more central position. Maybe more importantly, through accurate description of vocabulary they introduced the concepts of lexical phrases or multiword chunks rather than individual words. Schmitt (2000) acknowledging this finding claims that:

Although vocabulary has conventionally been conceptualized as individual words, it has now become clear that much of lexis consists of sequences of words which operate as single units...There is a good

psycholinguistic basis for believing that the mind stores and processes these chunks as individual wholes (400).

According to Schmitt (2000) lexical chunks are beneficial for both the speaker and the listener and require little or no additional processing once they are learned. There is less demand on cognitive capacity of the students. For example "ready to go" or lexical chunks with slots such as "___ (person) thinks nothing of ___ing (verb)" provide quick and flexible language use.

Similarly, after carrying out a systematic analysis of extensive samples of actual language, Nattinger and De Carrico (1992) concluded that multiword chunks have a central role in language use, and thus pragmatic competence of a language learner in his ability to access and adapt the chunks in language. In that respect, they claimed that multiword chunks, i.e., lexical phrases, should be central to language teaching.

Before moving to literature and vocabulary teaching, it will be useful to mention some of the most important vocabulary teaching strategies in the next section.

2.2.2. Vocabulary Teaching Strategies

Teaching or learning vocabulary requires a sound strategy. Therefore, which strategies have been proposed for vocabulary teaching is investigated in the following section.

Incidental vocabulary learning is maybe the best known method that comes to mind among the vocabulary learning strategies which is based on contextualization and suggest that learning occurs without paying a specific attention to vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Krashen (1989) also believes that vocabulary learning best can be carried out in context rather than in isolation. His well known Input Hypothesis assumes that there is an internal language acquisition device (LAD), which must be fed from outside sources and context provides these sources as comprehensible input for vocabulary learning. It is said in the Natural Approach that interesting and relevant vocabulary input should be provided to learners which can be done best with a meaningful context of course.

A L2 learner will develop her/his vocabulary knowledge subconsciously while being engaged in any language activities, mainly reading, listening stories, and watching TV, etc. Ellis (1996) acknowledging the premise that vocabulary is mostly learned

incidentally, claims that, extensive reading is the best way for incidental learning.

Laufer's study (1998) shows that incidental vocabulary learning provides the learners with a good amount of vocabulary, but she emphasizes those learners of L2 need for a follow-up task to reinforce retention and vocabulary use.

According to Schmitt (2000), incidental learning heavily depends on learners' exposure to L2. For example, in order to achieve oral fluency, an intensive exposure of the spoken form of that language is needed. This can be achieved by:

- a. Maximizing the amount of English used in the classroom.
- b. Using group work, where learners can learn new words from each other during their interactive discussions.
- c. Encouraging communication with proficient English users whenever possible
- d. Spending time in an English-speaking country or environment (834).

Within the literature of incidental learning it is believed that repetition of new knowledge is crucial if one wants it to be preserved

in long-term memory. Stahl (1999) explains why repetition is important:

In ordinary encounters with a word in context, some of the information that is remembered will be reinforced. With repeated exposures, some connections become strengthened as that information is found in repeated contexts, and become the way the word is defined (14).

Similarly, Baddeley (1991) integrates repetition within the incidental learning process. But he does not emphasize that learners must actively intend to commit the new information to memory. He says that "It is important that the learner attends to the material, but it is not crucial that he/she is actively intending to commit it to memory, provided the material is processed appropriately" (173).

Some writers, on the other hand, such as Schmitt (2000) give credit to intentional learning process too, which is called 'meaning-focused output' learning. The meaning-focused output learning, in contrast to incidental learning, involves intentional, intended and planned learning. According to Schmitt intentional learning can be facilitated through:

- a. The learning of word pairs
- b. Teaching groups of words together and cross-association

- c. Teaching the underlined meaning of a word
- d. Teaching word families instead of words
- e. Teaching word pairs
- f. Presenting sequences of words together (837).

Even though many writers, separately, claim that the best learning method is incidental method or intentional if applied appropriately, some other writers like Zimmerman (1997) suggest that when incidental and intentional learning of vocabulary is combined, a far superior vocabulary acquisition could be possible.

There are other vocabulary learning strategies that involve memory. Among the memory strategies, mediation strategies, which involve the new L2 word in some form of meaningful association, come in two varieties, imagery mediation (including keyword method which involves visualizing a mental picture or image of the second language word) and semantic mediation (Brown and Perry, 1991). Yet, in another vocabulary learning strategy called semantic mapping, learners arrange words into a picture that has a key concept at the center of the page. The words around the key concept are then linked visually and gradually to it through lines (Svenconis and Kerst, 2006). Maybe one of the most known and used vocabulary learning strategies involves memory in inferring/guessing the meanings of words from context. The strategy is based on two main assumptions.

The first one assumes that the learners are able to follow the ideas in the text they are reading. The learners have sufficient command of vocabulary, grammar and reading skills in order to achieve basic comprehension of the text. And the second one assumes that the learners bring some background knowledge to the text. Carter and McCarthy (1987) explain the strategy as:

1. Finding the part of speech of the unknown word,
2. Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary,
3. Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences,
4. Guessing the meaning of the unknown word,
5. Checking that the guess is correct (105).

Nation (1990) also proposes a guideline for guessing from context in three steps as follows:

1. Look at the unknown word and decide its part of speech. Is it a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb?
2. Look at the clause or sentence containing the unknown word. If the unknown word is a noun what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near? Is it modified by an adverb?

3. See that the part of speech of the guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word. Replace the unknown word with the guess. If the sentence makes sense, guessing is probably correct (Nation, 1990, 30).

Kruse (1987), as a proponent of guessing strategy, advises teachers to encourage students to make guesses about word meanings. However Nagy (1997) suggests that only if some conditions are met before, then a successful guessing will occur. These are:

1. The familiarity of the reader with the subject matter of the text;
2. The richness of the context in terms of the clues about the meaning of the word;
3. The closeness of the clues to the unknown word (the closer, the easier to guess);
4. The similarity of the L1 (in terms of its syntactic structures and words) to L2 (Nagy, 1997, 80).

Laufer (1997) states that at least 3,000 to 5,000 word families (5,000-8,000 lexical items) should be known for a general reading comprehension. Otherwise guessing words from the context will be ineffective. Thus, to overcome shortcomings of the guessing strategy, she suggests that explicit instruction is needed (even necessary),

especially for the beginners. Explicit instruction of vocabulary involves teaching vocabulary directly using different kinds of techniques and activities. Coady's (1997b) beginners' paradox perfectly states the problem of guessing strategy and incidental learning strategy. He says that:

Since the empirical evidence in support of incidental acquisition of vocabulary is somewhat ambiguous, it would seem that we must pay more serious attention to the problem facing those language learners who are beginners and who face a truly paradoxical situation. How can they learn enough words to learn vocabulary through extensive reading when they do not know enough words to read well? (Coady, 1997b, 229).

According to him, only after learners are given explicit instruction and practice in the 3000 most common words in the language, they can engage in reading tasks they find interesting through which they can acquire vocabulary incidentally.

As we will see in the following section, using literature in teaching foreign language vocabulary involves both incidental and intentional learning strategies.

2.3. Literature and Vocabulary Teaching

Using literature in language classroom seems very logical and convenient for teaching both grammar and vocabulary. It provides an invaluable resource for teaching new words, expressions and structure in meaningful, realistic and memorable contexts. O'Donnell (2009) explains why language teachers have long recognized the potential benefits associated with the use authentic literary texts.

Many appreciate the power inherent in works of literature, as these texts not only present learners with models of linguistic excellence but also have the potential to transmit cultural knowledge and sensitivity to readers who otherwise might never experience the culture first hand (O'Donnell, 2009, 513).

Similarly, Lazar (1993) writes, "A good novel or short story may be particularly gripping in that it involves students in complicated adult dilemmas. A poem may elicit a powerful emotional response from students" (1993, 16).

Carter and Long (1991) proposed that the goals and objectives of reading courses using literary materials can be described using three models:

1. The cultural model
2. The language model
3. The personal growth model.

The cultural model provides a means of transmitting important ideas and feelings and through this model the learners acquire knowledge of a culture and ideology other than their own. With regard to the language model, literature is used as a tool to teach certain vocabulary or structures. In brief literature is used for language development. The personal growth model emphasizes the learners' connection to the text. It is student centric. Its aim is to motivate the students to read by selecting themes related to their own experiences and their like. The models are not necessarily clean cut from one to another. The instructors may use one of them or all of them according to their purposes.

Collie and Slater (2003) propose that literature offers authentic material and not material intended for teaching a language. Thus, learners gain familiarity with different linguistic uses and forms. Literary works provide rich context that shows lexical and syntactical items in use and thus makes them more memorable. Then, they suggest instructors should consider two basic criteria when choosing a literary text: language difficulty according to the level of the students,

and meaningfulness which is able to stimulate personal involvement of learners. But, according to O'Donnell (2009), it is not clear which texts best enhance overall language competence, authentic texts or elaborative modified texts. She points out that:

Those who advocate the use of authentic readings contend that texts produced by and for those who speak the target language are the only true representations of L2 discourse. Others believe that authentic materials are often too difficult for students with limited language proficiency and, therefore, that learners should be reading texts that have been created or modified to support their pedagogical needs (O'Donnell, 2009, 512).

Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002) states that 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. Maybe the most detailed literature selection criteria can be found in their work as given below. As an educational potential, following three tiers (linguistic, psychological and cultural) of using a literature work, they try to answer the question of "What is the learning potential of the story in terms of learning subjects, the target culture, the world and learning about learning?" (Ellis and Girard, 2002, 62).

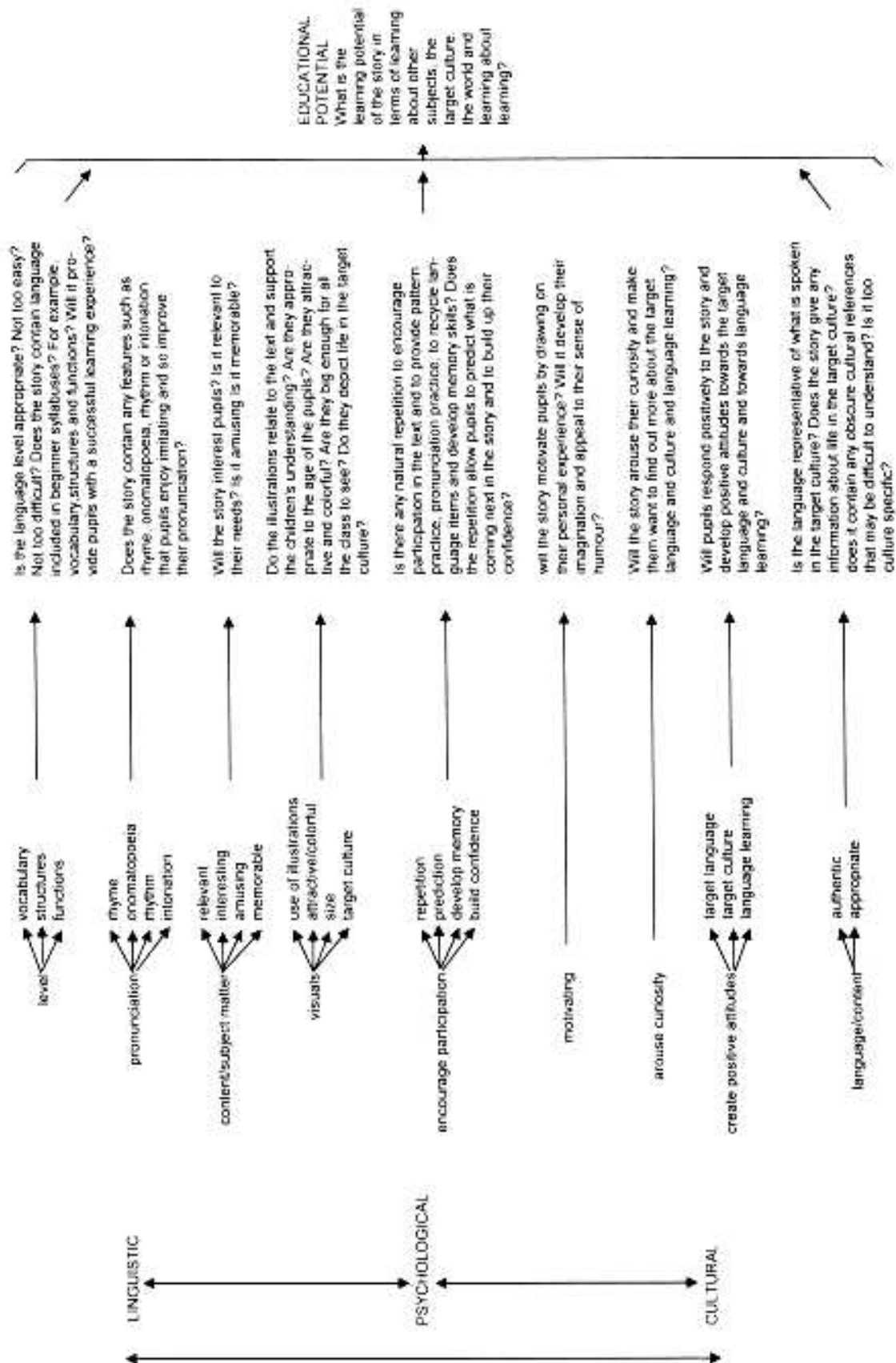


Figure 1: Literature selection criteria

According to Collie and Slater (1990), there are four main reasons why a language teacher may want to use literature in her/his classroom:

1. **Valuable Authentic Material:** Literature is authentic material. Most works of literature are not created for the primary purpose of teaching a language. Thus, in a classroom context, learners are exposed to actual language samples of real life/real-life-like settings. Because students have also to cope with language intended for native speakers, they become familiar with many different linguistic forms, communicative functions and meanings.
2. **Cultural Enrichment:** Though the world of a novel, play, or short story is an imaginary one, it presents a full and colorful setting in which characters from many social/regional backgrounds can be described. A reader can discover the way the characters in such literary works see the world outside (i.e. their thoughts, feelings, customs, traditions, possessions; what they buy, believe in, fear, enjoy; how they speak and behave in different settings). This colorful created world can quickly help the foreign learner to feel for the codes and preoccupations that shape a real society through visual literacy of semiotics.
3. **Language Enrichment:** Literature provides learners with a wide range of individual lexical or syntactic items. Students become

familiar with many features of the written language, reading a substantial and contextualized body of text. They learn about the syntax and discourse functions of sentences, the variety of possible structures, and the different ways of connecting ideas, which develop and enrich their own writing skills.

4. Personal Involvement: Literature can be useful in the language learning process owing to the personal involvement it fosters in the reader. Once the student reads a literary text, he begins to inhabit the text. He is drawn into the text. Understanding the meanings of lexical items or phrases becomes less significant than pursuing the development of the story. The student becomes enthusiastic to find out what happens as events unfold via the climax; he feels close to certain characters and shares their emotional responses (Collie and Slater, 1990, 3).

It can be concluded from Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002) and Collie and Slater (1990) that literature works provide, if selected appropriately, a very meaningful context for L2 learners. New words and structures can be implicitly and explicitly taught to students while keeping their interest and attention most of the time. While some of the pre- and post-literature activities can be characterized by explicit vocabulary teaching, in-process activities seem to share common processes and principles of implicit vocabulary teaching. New words are explicitly taught students before the story, novel or play;

however, these vocabulary items are implicitly repeated through the literature text. Cameron (2001), for example, points out that vocabulary needs to be met and recycled at intervals, in different activities, with knowledge and new connections developed each time the same words are met again.

One of the advantages of literature based vocabulary teaching is that it presents words not separately but in an integrated plot of a story. Stevick (1982) states that the basic result of research on human memory suggests that what we think of as separate items are not stored as separately. Bringing back one item in an image also tends to bring back the other items in that same image. Therefore, a well chosen literature text that arouses and sustains interest of the students will not only increase their vocabulary knowledge but will also strengthen their long term memory. As Stevick points out:

In acquisition the image from which we reconstruct what we are after is rich and well integrated; while in learning it is impoverished and unintegrated. The higher the quality of the image – that is, the richer and better integrated it is – the more easily we will be able to get back one part of it when we encounter another part (Stevick, 1982, 25).

Literary texts naturally contain many repetitions of words and sometimes sentences along with structural forms. Therefore, they offer good opportunities for the students to learn new words and structures in context and to store this knowledge in long-term memory. Nation (2004) suggests that a new word needs to be met at least five or six times in order to be learnt. The table below shows the different kinds of knowledge and the most effective kinds of learning suggested by Nation:

Table 3: Kinds of vocabulary knowledge and learning (Nation 2004, p.35)

Kinds of Knowledge		Kinds of Learning	Activities
Form		Implicit learning involving noticing	Repeated meetings as in repeated reading
Meaning		Strong explicit learning	Depth of processing through the use of images, elaboration, deliberate inference
Use	Grammar collocation	Implicit learning	Repetition
	Constraints on use	Explicit learning	Explicit guidance and feedback

Knowing a word involves receptive and productive aspects. While the former is about recognizing a word, the latter concerns actively producing the word. The distinction can also be made for passive and active knowledge formulation. At basic level any word has three dimensions: form, meaning, and use. Each dimension requires receptive and productive knowledge. If literature is used with different

teaching strategies, it can be a very good resource for both receptive and productive knowledge.

Since language learning is an ongoing process, the students will have many opportunities to acquire new words and structure as they progress reading literature. Lao and Krashen (2000) report the results of a comparison study between a group of students who read literary texts and a second group that read non-literary texts at a university in Hong Kong. They found out that the group who read literary texts showed significantly much more improvement in vocabulary learning and reading skill.

Stahl's (1999) model of effective vocabulary instruction also indicates how students can benefit from literature. His model of effective vocabulary instruction implies similar characteristics with literature based vocabulary teaching. He suggests that a vocabulary instruction should:

- a. Include both definitional information and contextual information about each word's meaning,
- b. Involve children more actively in word learning,
- c. Provide multiple exposures to meaningful information about the word (Stahl, 1999, 14).

Literature is not only useful or enjoyable for the students but for language teachers too. Brumfit and Carter state that "As enjoyment plays an important factor in any learning process, literature is potentially a useful aid to the language teacher" (1986, 110). Brumfit and Carter explain the opportunities literature can provide to learners:

A literary text is authentic text, real language in context, to which we can respond directly. It offers a context in which exploration and discussion of content leads on naturally to examination of language. Literary texts provide examples of language resources being used to the full, and the reader is placed in an active interactional role in working with and making sense of this language. Thus, literature lessons make for genuine opportunities in group work and/or open-ended exploration by the individual student. Literature also helps them to explore the nature of the object itself and learn about it as a communication. It is a basis for students to work out why they like reading what they read, and for extending their language into the more abstract domains associated with increasingly advanced language competence (Brumfit and Carter, 1986, 15).

The next section explains how Total Physical Response and Grammar Translation Method deal with vocabulary teaching and how they cooperate with literature to this purpose.

2.4. Vocabulary Teaching with TPR and GTM

The Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching method developed by Dr. James Asher, a professor of psychology, in the early 1960s. Richards and Rodgers (1987) defines TPR as a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity and they say that it is linked to "trace theory" of "memory in psychology (e.g., Katona 1940), which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be recalled" (87). Asher (2003) in explaining classroom application of TPR, however, says that he does not see TPR as a method. He states that method implies a formula which is in the domain of science but teaching, is a fine art not science.

Asher (2003) suggests that TPR has three distinctive features. It is aptitude-free (the approach is effective for everyone in the normal curve of ability, not just those with a high academic ability), it is has no age barriers and it is stress-free because it is 'brain

compatible' rather than traditional 'brain antagonistic' approaches which start with production or memorization or explicit grammar instruction (4).

Asher, in his writings, gives examples of efforts of failures of language teaching before explaining how a second language can be taught. Some of his examples are as follow; "...an instructor ... remarked that '...after 12 months of intensive language training for 8 to 10 hours a day in small classes of six students, only one in twenty graduates was what one may describe as 'fluent'" (79), "Americans seem to be underachievers in foreign language learning. After studying a foreign language in school for two years, the average American not only has almost zero fluency, but negative learning may have resulted if the individual now has a fearful attitude towards second language learning" (3). He questioned why so many people have a hard time learning a second language when almost no one has any trouble learning his first language.

Asher's (2004) premise is based on Chomsky's theory of Language Acquisition Device, which insists "humans are born with a special biological brain mechanism. This theory supposes that the ability to learn language is inborn, that nature is more important than nurture"(2). Asher believes that the human brain has a

biological program for acquiring any language spoken. This, he says, can be seen when we observe how infants internalize their first language. Asher (1969) puts listening skill into the center of his teaching approach which comes before speaking, reading and writing skills.

This approach has some similarity to how children seem to learn their first language. For example, young children in America acquire a high level of listening fluency for English before they make English utterances. This listening fluency can be demonstrated by observing the complexity of commands which the young child can obey before he learns to speak; and even as speaking develops, listening comprehension is always further advanced. The strategy of the total physical response is to have the students listen to a command in a foreign language and immediately obey with a physical action (3-4).

Richards and Rodgers (1987) say that Asher, working as a researcher in 1960s with epileptic volunteers whose right and left brain hemispheres were surgically severed, investigated some interesting relationships between language and movement that eventually led him to theorize TPR. Following Hart's human learning

theory, Asher claims that TPR is a brain-compatible approach. According to Asher (2004):

“The traditional teach-from-the-textbook instruction is a speaking-on-demand approach which plays to the left brain. It is a brain antagonistic approach” (3). He illustrates this approach with an example: “Oh, oh! Nothing in this book looks familiar you don’t understand any of this. You probably never will! This looks difficult! You are going to have a terrible time with this book! Better get out now, if you can!” (3).

When teachers use TPR teaching method, they allow students to listen first, and after a period of preparation, they encourage children to speak. In this way, different parts of children’s brain will work in turn and advance each other. Asher (2004) writes:

When the instructor asks students to ‘Listen and repeat after me’, it may lead learners to be brain overloaded because both the frontal lobe and the temporal lobe in the brain light up at the same time resulting in slow-motion learning with short-term retention. In classrooms, students are sitting in rows and columns and facing one direction to receive information that is delivered in serial order through verbal

media either in speech or in print. Input is to half of the brain - the left side. TPR, in which the body-language conversation between infants and parents is adopted, encourages the learners to use the right brain (2).

Richards and Rodgers (1987) elaborate Asher's TPR approach to three hypotheses. These are;

1. There exists a specific innate bio-program for language learning, which defines an optimal path for first and second language development.
2. Brain lateralization defines different learning functions in the left- and right-brain hemispheres.
3. Stress (an affective filter) intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned; the lower the stress, the greater the learning (121).

Asher (1977) sees first and second language learning as parallel to each other, he summarizes three central processes:

- a. Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak. At the early stages of first language acquisition they can understand complex utterances that they cannot spontaneously produce or imitate.

- b. Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are required to respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands,
- c. Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it (8).

Asher (1972) claims that children acquire listening skill in a particular way:

...there is an intimate relationship between language and the child's body. Utterances, usually commands from adults, are used to manipulate the orientation, location, and locomotion of the child's entire body... As listening comprehension develops, there is a point of readiness to speak in which the child spontaneously begins to produce utterances (133-134).

Frost and Council (2007), agreeing with Asher about language-body conversation, say that:

[P]arents have "language-body conversations" with their children, the parent instructs and the child physically responds to this. The parent says, "Look at mummy" or "Give me the ball" and the child does so. These

conversations continue for many months before the child actually starts to speak itself. Even though it can't speak during this time, the child is taking in all of the language; the sounds and the patterns. Eventually when it has decoded enough, the child reproduces the language quite spontaneously. TPR attempts to mirror this effect in the language classroom (1).

Allowing children to be silent until they are ready to speak has another important consequence in Asher's TPR approach; a stress-free condition for the language learner. As Phillips (1991) states:

...students' attempts to express themselves orally with minimal linguistic skills can lead to frustration and anxiousness about their ability to represent themselves in an authentic manner. Price's students also verified the "frustration" of not being able to express themselves in what they considered an appropriate fashion, admitting they sometimes felt "stupid" and like a babbling baby (3).

By allowing students to be silent until they feel they are ready to talk will reduce their anxiety and increase their willingness to take risk. According to Phillips risk taking plays a very important role in

second language learning process. He states that "...who are willing to take risks are more likely to seek out oral interaction in target language and, hence, receive more frequent exposure to comprehensible input" (7).

Asher (1984) compares the instructor in TPR to a movie director, because he guides actors - the students - through complicated scenes much like a parent guiding an infant through intimate caretaking situations. With TPR, the language learners can learn the language naturally, effectively and without stress. In the beginning, there is a wide tolerance for students' speech errors. The concepts are gradually fine tuned to focus on small details. As TPR lessons progress, the tolerance for speech errors decreases, as parents would do with their child's speech errors.

Asher (2003) writes that TPR is not just for the beginners or young children or just applicable for simple commands situation. He goes on saying that:

The myth that "TPR is limited to beginning students," is dispelled in Seely's and Romijn's prize-winning book, *TPR Is More Than Commands—At All Levels*. The myth that "TPR is limited to selected vocabulary" is blown away in Stephen Mark Silvers' book showing how to TPR 2,000

vocabulary items in any language (items typically found in Level 1 and Level 2 textbooks). As to grammar, Eric Schessler's books demonstrate how to TPR grammar for beginning, intermediate and advanced students of all ages (www.tprsource.com/asher.htm).

According to Larsen-Freeman (2000), "TPR was developed in order to reduce the stress people feel when studying foreign languages and thereby encourage students to persist in their study beyond a beginning level of proficiency" (113).

Richard and Rodgers (1987), on the other hand, say that:

The general objectives of Total Physical Response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a mean to an end, and the ultimate aim is to give basic speaking skills. TPR aims to produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker (123).

According to Pallen (1988) there are several basic features of TPR instruction. First, students develop new vocabulary through the use of commands. Second, students demonstrate their understanding through actions. Third, students speak when they are

ready. The teacher allows and encourages a 'silent period'. The basic procedure for TPR lesson is as follows:

1. The teacher gives the command and then models the action while the students listen and watch.
2. The teacher gives the command and models the action; the students copy the action.
3. The teacher gives the command without modeling; the students perform the appropriate action.
4. The teacher gives the command without modeling the action; the students repeat the verbal commands and perform the action.
5. One student gives the command and the teacher or other students repeat the verbal commands and perform the action (37).

As can be seen from the above principles, learners' primary roles are to listen and to perform. They listen attentively and respond physically to commands given by the instructor. They have little influence over the content of learning since the content is determined by the teacher who must follow the imperative form for lesson (Richard and Rodgers 1986). When students become familiar with commands and feel ready to talk, they can overtake the teacher's role and instruct other students with their own commands.

In the teaching-learning process using TPR method, teacher plays an active and direct role. According to Larsen and Freeman "...teacher is the director of all students' behaviors" (113). Asher (1977) as quoted by Richard and Rodgers, states "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors. It is the teacher who decides what to teach, who models and presents the new materials, and who selects supporting materials for classroom use"(93).

According to Richard and Rodgers (1987) there is generally no basic text in a Total Physical Response course. Materials and realia play an increasing role, however, in later learning stages. For absolute beginners, lessons may not require the use of materials, since the teacher's voice, actions, and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities. Later the teacher may use common classroom objects, such as books, pens, cups, furniture. As the course develops, the teacher will need to make or collect supporting materials to support teaching points. These may include pictures, realia, slides, and word charts. Asher has developed TPR student kits that focus on specific situations, such as the home, the supermarket, the beach.

Frost and Council (2007) suggest playing Simon Says. When the teacher gives a command, students should only do it if the teacher

says "Simon says..." at the start. For example, the teacher might say, "Simon says 'slice some bread'" and the students must do the action. However, if he says "Whisk and egg", students shouldn't do this. If anyone does the action that Simon doesn't say, then they are out and have to watch for the mistakes of the other students.

Deveto (2005) illustrates a demo activity that can be used in a TPR class on his website. It is named as "Making a Sandwich". The teacher gives the commands to instruct children to make sandwich with them. The command including: "Slice some bread", "Spread butter on both slices", "Spread the butter to all corners of the bread" etc. Children will enjoy this kind of activity for the direct experience of objects "bread, tomatoes, cheese" they can have fun in the class, and be interested in the class and the target language.

TPR Bingo, another activity, was created by Garcia (1994). The teacher calls out a direction in the target language such as "The man opens the door." Students listen to the utterance, search for a matching picture and if it is on their blackboard, cover it with a chip. When students listen to the instructor utter directions in the target language, they are internalizing comprehension. But, as they advance in understanding, individual students will ask to play the role of the caller which gives students valuable practice in reading and speaking.

Asher (2000) provides a lesson-by-lesson account of a course taught according to TPR principles, which serves as a source of information on the procedures used in the TPR classroom. The course was for adult immigrants and consisted of 159 hours of classroom instruction. A lesson proceeded in the following way:

New commands (Verbs to be introduced)

Wash your hand.

your face.

your hair.

the cup.

Look for a towel

the soap.

a comb.

Hold the book.

the cup.

the soap.

Comb your hair.

Maria's hair.

Shirou's hair.

Brush your teeth.

your pants.

the table. (www.tpr-world.com)

Asher and others who conducted research about the effectiveness of the TPR mostly agree that it works. A few examples are listed below:

The Whisman School Project (conducted by Jackson and her colleagues): The experimental group (Total Physical Response approach individually or in small groups) had the following gains when compared with the control group (traditional audio-lingual production-oriented training): "(a) on the average, a 1.5 year advantage in vocabulary; (b) 80% more comprehension on the average, and (c) an average comprehensive increase in expressive skills of 130%" (2-7).

Hamilton's Laboratory Studies (conducted by Mary Hamilton): The results showed that "the retention of children who acted in response to Russian commands was far superior compared with the children who sat and merely observed a model act" (Asher, 2003, 2-7).

Another study can be mentioned here is about students who were learning German language. The experimental group was compared with two control groups, one consisting of students completing their first course in German and the second, an advanced group, completing their second college course in German. The

experimental group dramatically excelled the control group (Asher, 1972, 135-136)

In short, TPR method is essentially based on the Chomsky's theory of Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Asher, using this theory (of LAD) and observing infants' language learning process, concludes that a silence period (which is anxiety free) is necessary before speaking (listening comes first). In time, infants will link physical movements with words (internalize) and when they are ready they will response/speak. This process can apply to L2 learners too. Thus, in essence, using TPR method, an instructor creates an infant-parent like environment. L2 learners are allowed to be silent until they are ready to talk/produce. And since the method is aptitude-free (effective for everyone in the normal curve of ability), has no age barriers and stress-free, Asher puts it opposite to the traditional methods like Grammar-Translation method and conducts field tests that show its success in teaching L2.

Perhaps the oldest method of teaching foreign languages is the GTM. The traditional approach is one of the only methods taught in the 70's and 80's. It was the predominant method of instruction until the end of the 19th century, when educators began to question its ability to teach all the skills necessary for language use. It relied heavily on grammar and the study of the language however, not the practice of the actual language.

Grammar was the most important part of learning English or any other foreign language and students were forced to memorize hundreds of vocabulary words and word tenses before they practiced the actual language (Resources, 2007). The GTM focused on using language for the purposes of understanding and translating classical texts. Instruction consisted of the presentation of grammatical rules and vocabulary items, with an emphasis on memorization and accuracy. Explanations were given in the students' native language, as educators considered it most important that students understand the rules of the language, which could be most clearly explained in their native language. No instruction was given in either speaking or listening, which was reasonable since originally the method was used for Latin, a language which was rarely spoken anyway. However, as other languages, which did have significant populations of speakers, started being taught using Grammar-Translation, it became increasingly clear that students needed instruction in oral, as well as written, language use (Richard and Rodgers, 2001, 5-7).

It was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better. Finally, it was thought that

foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually; it was recognized that students would probably never use the target language, but the mental exercise of learning it would be beneficial anyway (Harvey, 1985).

According to Kerper (2002) grammar translation techniques allow mother tongue to be used in the classes. She says that vocabulary is taught in the form of isolated word lists and this technique does not give attention to pronunciation. The main principle of GTM can be summarized as:

1. A fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in it. Literary language is superior to spoken language.
2. An important goal is for students to be able to translate each language into the other.
3. The ability to communicate in the target language is not a goal of foreign language instruction.
4. The teacher is the authority in the classroom. It is very important that students get the correct answer.
5. Language learning provides good mental exercise. (Kerper, 2002a, 27).

On the other hand, Thuleen (1996) states that this technique focuses on learning the rules of grammar and their application in translation passages from one language into the other. Vocabulary in the target language is learned through direct translation from the native language.

The role of the teacher in a traditional teaching method is to share the information with the students. He/She is in the center of the teaching process.

However, there are four steps to the traditional approach and writing is the last step. The first step in a traditional approach is hearing. The teacher talks almost the entire period in the target language in order for the students to hear the pronunciation of various words. Also, the teacher may have the students listen to another person on a tape or CD in order for students to hear someone else speaking the language with an accent. Then, the next step is speaking. Students are put in groups or asked to read allowed to practice their own pronunciation of various words. At times students may feel uncomfortable speaking out loud in the target language because they have not had enough time to practice the language or the accent of the language. Next, is reading where students are given various sentences to read and interpret what they have read. More than likely, a teacher will accompany the reading with a few questions in order for the students to follow the reading. Lastly, the students practice their writing skills

of the target language. Writing is one of the last steps in a traditional approach to learning a foreign language because it is the hardest to master. In general, it is difficult for anyone to master a foreign language if it was not their native language because there are rules of the language that are hard to comprehend and there are many accept ions to all languages (Dutton et al., 1975).

We can surely say that, in a traditional method students have more responsibility in learning the language rather than the teacher has in teaching the language.

In the following section, using "Robin Hood", the two methods were compared in order to see which of the two methods, TPR and the GTM is more effective in vocabulary teaching.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Method

The aimed research type in this study is experimental method as the manipulation of independent variables to dependent variables was examined. The experimental method involves manipulating one variable to determine if changes in one variable cause changes in another variable. Similarly, Oppenheim (1992) describes before-and-after design as: a set of measurements is taken from a group of respondents, who are then subjected to an experimental variable and afterwards measured again. The difference between post-test and pre-test results or observations is said to be the 'effect' of the experimental variable. Therefore, the aim of the using before-and-after research tradition in this study was to explore the effect of story-based teaching on vocabulary knowledge of young learners.

3.2. Objective of the Study

The purpose of this study is to compare TPR method and GTM in terms of their effectiveness in teaching vocabulary by using

children's literature in the language classroom. As it was mentioned in the previous chapters using literature in language classrooms seems very logical and convenient for teaching both grammar and vocabulary.

Before the beginning of this study, permission to perform the study was granted from the administration of the specific secondary school. Once permission was granted, the study began. The participants were randomly selected and randomly assigned into experimental and control groups.

During this experimental study, the pre-test/post-test model was applied. In this design, there were two groups named as TPR and GTM groups. The TPR group was given courses based on TPR method and GTM group was given courses based on GTM which followed the traditional methods and traditional kind of activities. Both groups were conducted by the researcher apart from her routine weekly schedule as extra lessons. Both of the groups were given pre-test and post-test in the study in order to measure the results of implementation. Data were collected using teacher made tests. Data were analyzed using independent samples t-test. The pretest was used for measuring the degree of the dependent variable before the treatment, and at the end of the treatment two groups were given a post-test. Then, the results were gathered and compared. In this model, the results of pretest-posttest were used together to decide at what measure the

treatment has an effect. In this study, the independent variable was the method being applied.

During the process of the experimental study, aiming to teach vocabulary effectively a modified version of Robin Hood from MM Publication (2005) was chosen and studied. The study aimed to teach the students target vocabulary with the help of contexts and activities.

In the selection of literary texts and activities for the courses, the linguistic level of the learners and their developmental stage characteristics were taken into consideration, and the courses were designed in these perspectives by keeping their needs and interests in mind. For the GTM group, traditional ways of teaching were followed and traditional activities were given during the classes. The tests consisted of vocabulary both from the book Robin Hood and the most frequently used words that are listed in Oxford Comprehension Wordlist 2008.

Two classes were randomly appointed as TPR and GTM groups in the academic year of 2009-2010. The TPR and the GTM groups both took a pre-test before the treatment and a post-test afterwards. The TPR group studied target vocabulary with TPR approach, and the

GTM group was instructed in a traditional way. Both classes were instructed by the researcher.

There was no native English speaker in both classes. The students did not know that they were compared, so it was expected that no external effect interfered with the study.

3.3. Sampling and Participants

The participants of the study were the students of 8th grades at a private elementary school called Çınar College in Istanbul. In the study, both of the classes were assigned randomly. There are 37 students (20 female and 17 male). The TPR group consisted of 18 students and the GTM group consisted of 19 students. All of the students' mother tongue Turkish and they are Turkish Citizens. There is no native speaker among the 37 participants. However, English is the participants' foreign language. The level of English proficiency of all the students is pre-intermediate. In general the 8th grades have 6 hours English in a week during the term. The study was carried out during the end of 2009-2010 academic year nearly the end of the Spring Term. In general level classes are not applied to 8th grades. In the sampling process, students' age, gender, social and educational backgrounds were not taken into consideration.

3.4. Limitations of the Study

The main limitations of the study are as follows;

- The study was carried out in 6 weeks' time (40 + 40 minutes x 2 in a week). Thus the study was limited for a short period of time.
- It was limited to 8th grade students in a private school in Istanbul. So, the results cannot be easily extended to other grades, students from the public schools and other cities.
- It was limited with 37 subjects (18 + 19).
- Due to long process of taking formal permission to conduct the study only the immediate post-test could be applied in order to measure the difference of vocabulary knowledge of the students. So, the long-term retention of the vocabulary gains could not be measured.
- It was limited with the book *Robin Hood*. So the researcher could not have a chance to evaluate the same experimental study with different literal sources.

3.5. Research

Table 4: Research treatment

TREATMENT		
Week	Grammar Translation Method	Total Physical Response
0 (April 5, 2010)	Initial Test (Pre-Test)	
1 (April 7, 2010)	Book was read in traditional manner (listening, reading and writing).	Intensive actions were used (TPR Instructions: Commands, gestures, modeling, pictures, realia, acts, play, flash cards, etc).
2 -		
3 -		
4 -		
5 -		
6 (May 14, 2010)		
	Six-Week Comprehension Test (Post-Test)	
Data Analysis		

The book "Robin Hood" consists of eight parts with activity pages following each part. Both TPR and GTM groups received 80 minutes (40+40) of English lesson each week, for six weeks. After each class, activity pages were completed as a follow up study. Completing activity pages made the participants feel confident.

The first two lessons were used for pre-test, introducing the book and the teaching methods. The result of pre-test showed the vocabulary knowledge of students.

After six weeks of instruction, the same vocabulary test was applied again in order to find out retained vocabulary knowledge of students in TPR and GTM groups. Post-tests showed the distinction between pre-test and post-test results for each group, and the distinction between vocabulary knowledge scores of the TPR group and the GTM group.

3.6. Data Collection Instrument

In this study, the pre and post – treatment test was developed by the researcher. The test consisted of 100 questions/sentences (see appendix 1). Every five questions/sentences were prepared as a unit to be completed with a right word from the five choices under them. The questions/sentences aimed to assess the students' ability in completing the sentence with the right item. Nation (1990) finds the multiple choice tests as a good way to see whether or not the learners recognize the meaning of target words after they see them in glosses.

The vocabulary test to be used for pre and post-test was obtained from two sources. The first source was the book itself. From the word list at the back of the book 80 words were randomly selected. Then again, from the 2008 Oxford Word List 20 words were selected and mixed with words from the book. The duration of both pre-test and post-test's for 100 questions is 40+40 minutes.

3.7. The Story Book

The selected story book for this study, Robin Hood, published by MM Publication (2005) and retold by H.Q. Mitchell is prepared for level 6 learners and comes with a CD. It is a classic story. The story has 400 headwords. Robin Hood's adventure was told in eight parts with a color picture on all pages telling the story. After each part, there are activity pages telling students what to do such as 'Label the pictures', 'Answer these questions. Circle or underline', 'Complete the sentences with the words in the box. Then put the pictures in order.' and 'What will happen next? Answer these questions and discuss'.

The book is explained at back cover as:

- A six level series
- Use of basic grammatical structures and limited vocabulary
- Glossy detailed illustrations on each page
- Simple activities every four pages

- Fully dramatized version of the story on CD/CD-ROM
- Song
- Instructions for staging the story available in the Teacher's Book.

Although the originate language of Robin Hood is so intense, the researcher prefers to use a retold book from MM Publication because of the students' language level. The reason to choose Robin Hood was young learners' familiarity with the Hero and his adventures as a 'thief prince' taking from the rich and delivering to poor.

Shortly, the book contains eight parts. There are many characters in *Robin Hood* but mainly there are two major characters; Robin Hood and Sheriff. In every chapter there are some adventurous events that keep the participants' interest aroused all the time.

Reilly and Ward (1997) describe young learners' characteristics, needs and the ways of meeting their needs in the table below (8).

Table 5: Young learners’ characteristics, needs and the ways of meeting their needs (Reilly and Ward, 1997, p.8)

General Characteristics	Needs because of these characteristics	Possible ways of meeting these needs
Have limited language skills and experience	Need clarity	Well-defined, well explained activities
Have emotional needs	Need to feel part of or integrated in a group	Group work
Have short memories	Need constant recycling of input and activities complete in themselves	Topic-led work
Are imaginative	Need to be able to use their imagination in L2 classroom	Prediction and participation
Are creative	Need to be able to create things and learn by doing	Art and crafts activities
Are energetic	Need to move and learn by doing	Total Physical Response
Have short attention span	Need activities that appeal and make sense to them	Games
Are easily excited	Need activities to calm them down	'Setting' activities

From the learners’ characteristics, needs and the ways of meeting their needs perspective it seems that Robin Hood is a good choice, at least for our group of students.

Dupuy and Cook (1996) say that “Due to their mass appeal, we recommend popular novels. Also we suggest choosing books at various levels and across topics and areas of interest to ensure that there will be something for everyone”(12). Bamford and Day (1998) discussing some difficulties about culture that a foreign language

learner comes across suggest that teenagers around the world may have certain commonalities that transcend specific cultures which we believe is the case for Robin Hood. Due to consistency concern, Mikulecky (1990) believes that students should read whole books by a single author, not magazines or collections of short stories by a variety of authors (14).

3.8. Treatment

TPR Group:

For the TPR group treatment lessons were designed on the basis of assumptions of TPR method. To teach vocabulary in the book, 'right brain' activities (acting, drawing, games, gesturing, metaphor, physical movements etc.) were designed. The students were said to sit in semi circle so that they were able to see each other and an empty space was left for activities. In order to create a stress-free atmosphere in classroom and to improve the listening skill students were not forced to talk before they felt they were ready. Sentences, especially in the beginning of every lesson, were simple and only after a while they became more complex.

Translation was never done and structures in the story were not explained to students. Pointing, doing, matching, drawing and

gestures related to the story were frequently used first by the researcher then by the students. Color papers were brought to class for hats helmets, crown and hoods; wool for beard; and different kinds of wooden stick for horses; daggers, swords, spears for fighting; cups for drinks; and coins for gold. Curtains of the class were drawn for night scenes. Role plays were used often (after the CD-ROM had been listened) especially when the script was telling an exciting event. Volunteer students were asked and encouraged to give commands to their friends when the researcher/teacher observed that they were ready. In order to see the progress of the class and to give students feeling of achievement, each week, activities at the end of the parts in book were done.

The first lesson with the TPR group was used solely explaining the method to them. The explanation was made both in Turkish and English in order to give them some ideas about how they were expected to proceed. The students were told that they were not expected to speak at first until they felt they were ready. In order to clarify the method to be used, teacher asked two students to volunteer for an example;

Many students volunteer enthusiastically for the first performance. Teacher calls two students to come in the middle of the class and asks the other students gather around their friends and

watch carefully. The two students are facing each other with a few meters between them. The teacher puts a real apple on the head of one of the students (as in William Tell story) and give a toy bow and arrow to the other student. All of the other students understand what the volunteered students are going to do. The teacher stands next to the student who holds a toy bow and arrow. The teacher, holding an imaginary bow and arrow, aims the apple and shoots it while uttering the commands 'aim the apple' and 'shoot the apple'. After repeating the acts slowly for a few times, she asks the volunteered students to imitate her. She gives the commands 'aim the apple' and 'shoot the apple' to volunteered students. Just after the second time, other students start repeating the commands with the teacher. She repeats the performance with other students divided into group of two, one aiming- shooting and other standing still (changing the roles in turns). Then the teacher, again, holds her imaginary bow and arrow and says 'aim the apple *carefully*' while aiming the apple with a great effort to still her trembling hand, looking intensively to the apple as if afraid to miss it (showing a relief after shooting the apple). She repeats the performance emphasizing this time 'carefully'. Students imitate the teacher in her third performance while repeating the commands 'aim the apple *carefully*' and 'shoot the apple'. Next the teacher adds 'archer' showing the student with bow and arrow and commands '*archer* aim the apple carefully'. Some students get confused with the addition but others understand it and explain to their friends

who/what the 'archer' is. Then almost all of the students repeat the new command and start acting. They enjoy the class and seem very relaxed. They do not worry about how they say the commands in English or how they act.

The teacher writes the commands on the blackboard and asks students to write it down to their notebooks. They are excited and ask the teacher if they are going to play the whole story in this way. None of the students looks anxious for the coming lessons. Since they are very familiar with the Robin Hood, some students even ask if they can be Robin Hood or the king and want to start to read and play the story immediately. The teacher says that they will start the story next week and asks them to bring some materials (glue, color paper, rope, different sizes of wooden sticks etc).

A Sample Lesson (Week 1):

Length : 40 minutes.

Class : 8th grade

Aims : To learn new vocabulary (that is in Part 1 of Robin Hood), enjoy learning, motivating students to speak when they are ready.

Materials : Story book, pictures, sticks as swords and spears, toys (deer or deer like, pictures of deer also accepted), costumes (or

regular clothes turned to costumes), bow and arrows (made by students and the teacher with simple string and sticks), coins, purse, hats made of paper and colored as in the story book, cups and blackboard.

Students sit on their chairs in a semi-circle shape. Each of them represents one of the roles told in Part 1 of the book (Robin Hood, foresters and deer). Teacher points each of the students and assigns their roles. Other students repeat the (name) role and point their finger with the teacher. The teacher commands (using pictures and other materials) 'point the archer', 'point your hat', 'point the hat of the archer', 'point the forester', 'point the hat of the forester', 'point the arrows', 'point the bow', 'point the deer', 'point your cup', 'point your purse' ... 'put your purse on the desk', 'put on your hat', 'put off your hat', 'drink from your cup', 'aim the deer', 'shoot the deer' etc. After warming up, the teacher asks students (volunteer) to take part in the story. One student is Robin Hood, five students are foresters and three students are deer. Other students want only to watch and not participate this time. But they participate as the play begins (repeating the commands of the teacher and participant students). Teacher initiates the play in sub-parts using pictures from the story, gestures, miming and acting out. Next students play their roles using the new vocabulary which were studied in the warming up stage. Other students also participate from outside enjoying what they see.

Before the end of the lesson, the teacher writes the new words on blackboard and activity pages of the Part 1 are being completed. Students loved to play the part and they were especially fond of taking a part without getting anxious to be corrected by their teacher or friends.

GTM Group:

For the GTM group, vocabulary teaching was carried out with traditional techniques (GTM based instruction). Activities with GTM group mostly called 'left brain' inputs such as analyzing, critiquing, discussing, explaining, talking, telling, focusing on structure, and translating. The instructions were based mainly on the book only. The difficult words and structures were translated to Turkish and accuracy of memorization was emphasized. Student errors were immediately corrected. They were allowed to switch to Turkish when the needs rose to ask the explanation of words or rules. Students were asked to be prepared at home for the words that were present in "Robin Hood". The only visual material was those presented in the book and the CD-ROM was listened for accuracy of pronunciations of the words. The activity pages were completed after each of the parts finished as done with the experimental group.

A Sample Lesson (Week 1):

Length : 40 minutes.

Class : 8th grade

Aims : To learn new vocabulary and structures (in Part 1 of Robin Hood), to be able to read/write and translate the story into Turkish.

Materials : Story book (Student's Book), pictures in the book and blackboard.

The teacher stands in front of the blackboard and students sit around her in a semi-circle shape. Teacher instructs the students to read Part 1. Since Part 1 of the story is not very long, each student is expected to read only a few lines from the passage. The teacher starts reading Part 1 and asks students to listen to her very carefully for her pronunciation. She also calls students attention to the structure as well. Then, students read their lines from the passage and translate it into Turkish. If students read a word incorrectly, the teacher corrects it immediately. The teacher helps her students whenever a new word or structure should be addressed. She gives examples from both in English and Turkish in order to clarify the meaning (words like 'competition') and usage (structure). There are four pictures in Part 1 and the teacher shows these pictures sometimes to students for the new words. When reading is finished,

the teacher asks students if they have any questions. If they have, teacher makes the explanation using examples in English or Turkish. After that, she asks the students to open activity pages which appear at the end of Part 1. There are, "Label the pictures", "Answer these questions. Circle a or b", "Complete the sentences with words in the box. Then put the pictures in order" and "What will happen next? Answer these questions and discuss." activities are at the end of the part. The last section of the activities requires students to make inferences based on their understanding of the part and their imagination. Thus, it is the most difficult part of the activities. Questions are all in English and the students are expected to write their answers in English as well. The first question of each activity is done together. Like, "What was the first prize in the shooting competition?" The teacher waits for the students to reply first and if she/he is correct then it is okay and the students can start to do the rest alone. If the answer is not correct, then the teacher supplies the correct answer and explains why. After fifteen minutes she asks the students to stop writing and one by one each student reads a question and then reads her/his answer. If the answer is correct then they move on. If not, the teacher asks another student to supply the correct answer. After all the exercises are finished, the teacher instructs the students to look up all the new words and write their meaning down for the next part of the story as an homework.

Another example can be given as; teacher announces the next activity, the teacher asks the students to move after reading activities. There is a list of words there. As an introduction teacher tells the students that these words are taken from the first chapter that they have just read. The students see the words "poor" , "rich", "wealthy", "strong", "beautiful" and "weak". They are told that some of these are review words and that others are new to them for the second chapter. The students are instructed to give the Turkish word for each of them. This exercise the class does together. In the second part of this exercise after finding their meanings, teacher reminds them that English words are called "adjectives" and teacher in this part wants them to find the opposites of those adjectives.

The students were in hurry to supply an answer without caring if it was correct or incorrect knowing that their turn would be passed. Four or five students kept their attention throughout the lesson from beginning to end. The rest, mostly, were waiting for the lesson to end as soon as possible. When one student was asking a question or answering one, most of the students were talking among themselves about something else other than the Robin Hood. But since it was the first part of the story, many students were able to read the lines from the passage without much difficulty and answer the question asked at activity pages. At the end of the class, in short, they were not excited for the next class.

3.9. Analysis of the Data

The data obtained via pre-test and post-test was analyzed by a statistical computer program called SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 17.0.

Pre-test and post-test scores for each student in TPR and GTM groups were documented. Mean and standard deviation of the TPR and GTM groups' test results were calculated.

Paired samples t-test and independent samples t-test were conducted to see whether there was any significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups.

Results were displayed in tables and graphics and explanations were given under the related figure.

3. 10. Results of the Study

This section deals with the analysis of the data obtained from pre-test and post-test scores of the TPR and GTM groups. All the students from both groups had participated in the vocabulary tests.

Table 6: Test scores of TPR group ($N=18$)

Date & Test	April 5, 2010	May 14, 2010
Subject	Pre-test Score	Post test score
1	24	71
2	21	49
3	27	63
4	30	69
5	26	69
6	27	74
7	33	76
8	19	55
9	48	92
10	31	81
11	42	80
12	40	76
13	26	62
14	29	72
15	54	94
16	51	86
17	21	65
18	37	88
Mean Score	32,56	73,44
Standard Deviation	10,56	12,23

Table 6 shows the scores of the students in TPR group. The mean scores of the students look like dramatically increased more than two folds from 32.56 ± 10.56 (pre-test) to 73.44 ± 12.23 (post-test).

Table 7: Test scores of GTM group ($N=19$)

Date & Test	April 5, 2010	May 14, 2010
Subject	Pre-test Score	Post test score
1	22	46
2	18	41
3	23	58
4	24	62
5	28	52
6	36	66
7	21	45
8	47	73
9	18	44
10	22	52
11	51	74
12	42	81
13	24	45
14	27	46
15	53	69
16	42	81
17	34	76
18	52	86
19	58	84
Mean Score	33,79	62,16
Standard Deviation	13,39	15,60

As TPR group, mean score of GTM group also increased from 33.79 ± 13.39 (pre-test) to 62.16 ± 15.60 (post-test).

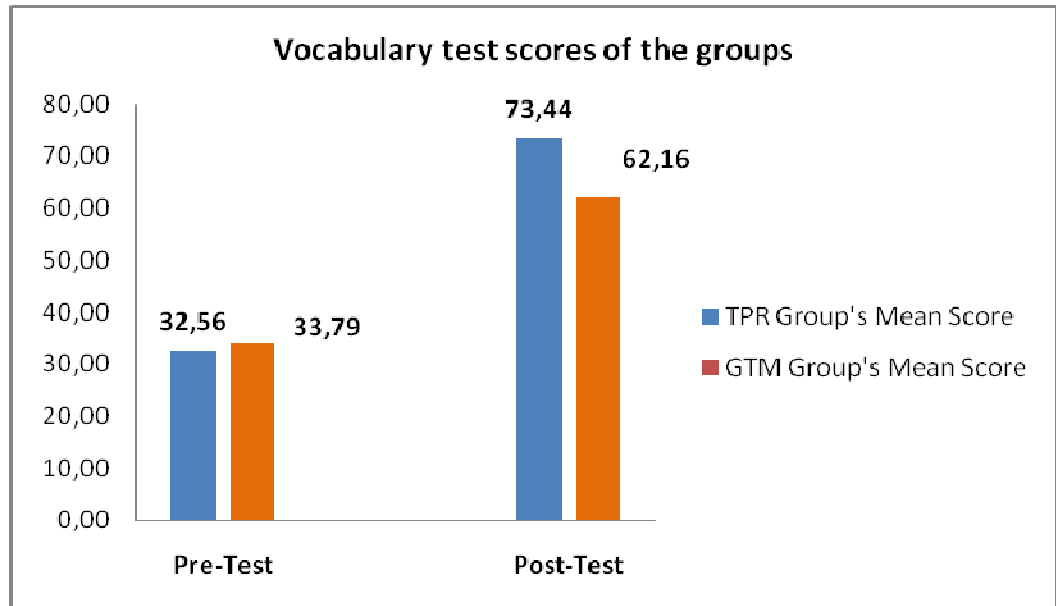


Figure 2: Vocabulary test scores of the groups

In figure 2, both groups' pre and post-test scores were given. Pre-test scores of the groups are very close while there is a difference between the post-test scores of the groups.

Table 8: Difference between pre-test scores of the TPR and GTM groups

Students	Test	N	M	SD	SE	t-test		
						t	df	p
TPR Group	Pre-test	18	32.56	10.56	2.49	0.31	35	0.758
GTM Group	Pre-test	19	33.79	13.38	3.07			

**Difference is significant at .05 levels.*

As it is seen from the Table 8, there is no meaningful difference between the scores of groups ($p > .05$). This means that two groups had similar vocabulary knowledge before the treatment.

Table 9: Difference between pre-test and post-test scores of the TPR group

Students	Test	N	N	M	SD	t-test		
						t	df	p
TPR Group	Pre-test	18	32.56	10.56	2.49	29.16	17	0.000*
	Post-test	18	73.44	12.24	2.88			

**Difference is significant at .001 levels.*

In order to see the differences between the scores of pre and post-tests of TPR group a paired samples t-test was conducted and the result is presented in Table 9. As it is seen from the table, there is a meaningful difference between the scores of pre and post-tests of TPR group ($t=29.16$ and $p<.001$). When the mean scores of the tests are compared, it is understood that students' vocabulary knowledge has increased after TPR based instruction ($\bar{X}_{Pre-test}=32.56$ & $\bar{X}_{Post-test}=73.44$).

Table 10: Difference between pre-test and post-test scores of the GTM group

Students	Test	N	N	M	SD	t-test		
						t	df	p
GTM Group	Pre-test	19	33.79	13.39	3.07	16.49	18	0.000*
	Post-test	19	62.16	15.60	3.58			

**Difference is significant at .001 levels.*

As with TPR group, there is a meaningful difference between the scores of pre and post-tests of GTM group too ($t=16.49$ and $p<.001$). When the mean scores of the tests are compared, it is seen

that students' vocabulary knowledge has increased after GTM based instruction, too ($\bar{X}_{Pre-test}=33.79$ & $\bar{X}_{Post-test}=62.16$).

Table 11: Difference between post-test scores of the TPR and GTM groups

Students	Test	N	M	SD	SE	t-test		
						t	df	p
TPR Group	Post-test	18	73.44	12.24	2.88	2.44	35	0.020*
GTM Group	Post-test	19	62.16	15.60	3.58			

**Difference is significant at .05 levels.*

In order to see the differences between the scores of post-tests of TPR and GTM groups an independent samples t-test was conducted and the result is presented in Table 11. As it can be seen from the table, there is a meaningful difference between the scores of post-tests of TPR and GTM groups ($t=2.44$ and $p<.05$). When the mean scores of the TPR and GTM are compared, it is understood that students, who had TPR based instruction, scored better in vocabulary test than students who had GTM based instruction ($\bar{X}_{TPR}=73.44$ & $\bar{X}_{GTM}=62.16$).

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

As stated previously, the main aim of the study was to compare vocabulary knowledge scores of young learners instructed through Total Physical Response Method (TPR) and Grammar Translation Method (GTM) based on a famous British story, "Robin Hood". The pre-test and post-test mean scores of the experimental group (instructed through TPR) and control group (instructed through GTM) were compared with independent samples t-test technique. This experimental study expressed the differences between the two different teaching approaches to teach new words by using a story in a foreign language. The results can be reported as follow;

1. The mean scores of pre-test of both groups were very close and there was no significant difference between them (Table 6, Table 7 and Table 8). Thus it was assumed that the groups' vocabulary knowledge before instructions were similar.
2. There were more than two folds increases in mean scores of the experimental group after TPR based instruction (Table 6). There was a significant difference between pre-test and post-

test (Table 9). This result shows that students greatly benefited from the TPR based instruction.

3. There was also a dramatic increase in mean scores of the control group after GTM based instruction (Table 7). After comparing mean scores of pre-test and post-test, it was found that there was a significant difference between them. Thus it was concluded that students in control group also benefitted from GTM based instruction (Table 10).
4. Since both groups' mean scores had increased significantly, it was logical to conclude that story based instructions were effective in teaching new vocabulary. However the last comparison between the mean scores of the groups showed that, TPR based instruction was significantly more effective than the GTM based instruction (Table 11).
5. This study showed the effects of both TPR and GTM which one has more benefits to the students.
6. It is obvious that someone can not say definitely that TPR is always the most beneficial method in teaching new words by using stories because the study has based on only one main well-known story. So we are not sure whether TPR has the same effect under same conditions if we use another story. As we all know there is a wide range of stories in literature as a source can be used. In fact we can mention this is also a limitation for the researcher.

7. In this study, the students who were taught using TPR appeared positive and engaged in the lesson. The students remained motivated throughout the lesson and were excited to get started at the beginning of the class period. In GTM group the students were taught using the traditional style, they appeared bored and unmotivated. The students knew the routine of the lesson and were not engaged the entire lesson.

The results of the study showed that although both the experimental and control groups had scored very close in pre-test, they differentiated statistically from each other in post-test scores. Since both the pre-test scores were similar and instruction was implemented through the same story book, what separates them was the method. Comparing the post-test scores of both groups shows us that the TPR method is much more effective than the GTM method. However, observations in classes during the implementation of the methods bring to mind some other qualities which should be considered as important as the statistical results of the study or along with them. Before deciding which method is better than the other for teaching vocabulary, it is believed that a foreign language instructor should also consider the following observations;

- Most of the students in experimental group said that they enjoyed the activities as much as the story itself and reading Robin Hood with TPR activities was really fun. This was definitely not the case for the control group. Seeing students enjoying learning a foreign language is very rewarding and motivating for the instructor. It encourages the instructor to be more creative and has a positive effect on mood.
- The implementation of TPR allowed students not only to enjoy the lesson; but they were also not forced to take part in process until they thought they were ready. Thus, the anxiety level of the students in the experimental group was very low which led to an incremental rise in participation in time. Most of the students in the control group, on the other hand, were almost always trying to avoid participating. But since they were forced to read, write and answer the questions they were constantly checking anxiously if it was their turn to participate.
- Observing the behaviors of the students in experimental and control groups showed that while TPR method was motivating students and raising an expectation for further activities, GTM was causing boredom in students and their only expectation was to hear the sound of the ring.

- One other advantage of the TPR method observed was that the student loved to move around instead of sitting in their chairs. They were jumping, laughing, and moving their bodies as they were acting.
- It may be argued that using TPR in class is time consuming and expensive to implement because of the great number of kinesthetic activities. If the preparation for the activities can be completed before coming to class, the activities can be well managed within the allocated time. The study showed that when the students were asked to prepare required materials for the next class the time was enough. As practiced in the experimental group, costumes, tools, etc can be hand made from some used materials or from very cheap materials. This will also help students to be creative.

Based on the statistical results of the study and observation of the implementation of the methods, the researcher wants to recommend TPR in teaching new vocabulary. Especially the study shows how effective the method is for the young learners. However, since the study was conducted with a small group of students who were studying in a private school, the researcher hopes further studies will be conducted with bigger samples and in state schools

exploring effectiveness of the method or how to apply it more effectively.

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APPENDIX 1

Robin Hood: 80 Headwords Selected

A few minutes	[]	Pale	[]
Agree	[]	Peasants	[]
Also	[]	Point at	[]
Apron	[]	Proud	[]
Ask	[]	Quickly	[]
Beard	[]	Rein	[]
Beggar	[]	Sad	[]
Bet	[]	Sell	[]
Bow (n.)	[]	Shocked	[]
Break	[]	Silk	[]
Butcher	[]	Sleep	[]
Catch	[]	Soon	[]
Chase	[]	Stare	[]
Chop	[]	Story	[]
Competition	[]	Take	[]
Dear	[]	Tell	[]
Delicious	[]	There	[]
Don't worry	[]	Those	[]
East	[]	Today	[]
Even	[]	Trap (n.)	[]
Fair ground	[]	Turn around	[]
Feast	[]	Velvet	[]
Fine	[]	Want	[]
Food	[]	Well	[]
Forester	[]	Where	[]
Friendly	[]	Will	[]
Generous	[]	Wood	[]
Give back	[]	Young	[]
Good	[]		
Hair	[]		
Hat	[]		
Help	[]		
Hold on to	[]		
Horse	[]		
Hungry	[]		
Immediately	[]		
In fact	[]		
Indeed	[]		
Join	[]		
Kind	[]		
Last	[]		
Leader	[]		
Lie (v.)	[]		
Long live	[]		
Make	[]		
Market	[]		
Merry Men	[]		
Musician	[]		
Need	[]		
Nobles	[]		
Of course	[]		
Open	[]		

Selected 100 Words

A few minutes []	Can []	Favor []	Here []
About []	Carry on []	Feast []	Hero []
Afraid []	Cart []	Field []	Hide []
Afraid of []	Catch []	Fight []	Hold []
Again []	Center []	Finally []	Hold on to []
Agree []	Certainly []	Find out []	Home []
All []	Chair []	Fine []	Honest []
All over []	Change []	Finish []	Hood []
All right []	Chase []	First []	Hope []
Alone []	Cheap []	Floor []	Horse []
Also []	Cheer []	Fly []	House []
Angry []	Cheerful []	Food []	How []
Animal []	Choose []	Fool []	How much []
Anyone []	Chop []	Foot/feet []	Huge []
Appear []	Clap []	Force []	Hungry []
Apron []	Closer []	Forest []	Hurray! []
Archer []	Coin []	Forester []	Hurt []
Arrest []	Coin(s) []	Free []	If []
Arrow []	Competition []	Freedom []	Illegal []
As []	Cook []	Friar []	Immediately []
Ask []	Cost []	Friend []	Important []
At all []	Cover []	Friendly []	In []
At once []	Day []	Frightened []	In danger []
Aye []	Dear []	From now on []	In disguise []
Be []	Decide []	Full of []	In fact []
Beard []	Deep []	Gather []	In front of []
Beat []	Deer []	Generous []	In peace []
Beautiful []	Definitely []	Get []	In the distance []
Because []	Delicious []	Get away []	Including []
Become []	Die []	Girl []	Indeed []
Beggar []	Dinner []	Give []	Interested []
Behind []	Disappear []	Give back []	Into []
Believe []	Do well []	Go []	Invite []
Belong []	Don't worry []	Go back []	Jail []
Berry []	Dress []	Going to []	Join []
Bet []	Dress up []	Gold []	Jump []
Big []	Drink []	Good []	Just []
Blindfold (n.) []	Early []	Great []	Keep []
Blindfold (v.) []	East []	Greedy []	Kill []
Blow on []	Eat []	Green []	Kind []
Bow (n.) []	England []	Group []	King []
Bow (v.) []	Enjoy []	Hair []	Know []
Boy []	Enough []	Half []	Lady in waiting []
Brave []	Even []	Hang []	Land []
Bread []	Everyone []	Happen []	Last []
Break []	Everywhere []	Happy []	Later []
Bring []	Excellent []	Hat []	Laugh []
Bugle []	Face []	Have to []	Law []
Bush []	Fair ground []	Heads of cattle []	Lead []
But []	Fall down []	Hear []	Leader []
Butcher []	Famous []	Hello []	Leave []
Call []	Father []	Help []	Let []

Let's	[]	Pale	[]	So	[]	Use	[]
Letter	[]	Pardon (v.)	[]	Some	[]	Velvet	[]
Lie (v.)	[]	Pass	[]	Something	[]	Very	[]
Like (prep.)	[]	Path	[]	Soon	[]	Visit	[]
Listen	[]	Pay	[]	South	[]	Walk	[]
Little	[]	Peasants	[]	Speak	[]	Walk up to	[]
Log	[]	Plan	[]	Square	[]	Want	[]
Long live	[]	Play	[]	Stand	[]	War	[]
Look like	[]	Pleased	[]	Stare	[]	Watch	[]
Lots of	[]	Point	[]	Start	[]	Wedding	[]
Love	[]	Point at	[]	Stay	[]	Welcome	[]
Low	[]	Poor	[]	Steal	[]	Well	[]
Make	[]	Price	[]	Stop	[]	West	[]
Make fire	[]	Prize	[]	Story	[]	What	[]
Make sure	[]	Promise	[]	Stranger	[]	What's going on	[]
Man	[]	Proud	[]	Suddenly	[]	When	[]
Many times	[]	Pure	[]	Sunny	[]	Where	[]
Market	[]	Purse	[]	Sword	[]	While	[]
Married	[]	Put	[]	Take	[]	Whisper	[]
Meal	[]	Queen	[]	Take aim	[]	Whistle	[]
Meat	[]	Quickly	[]	Take off	[]	Who	[]
Meet	[]	Quiet	[]	Take part in	[]	Will	[]
Merry Men	[]	Raise	[]	Target	[]	Win	[]
Message	[]	Really	[]	Tell	[]	Window	[]
Messenger	[]	Recognize	[]	Than	[]	With	[]
Money	[]	Rein	[]	Thank you	[]	Wonderful	[]
Move	[]	Remember	[]	The best	[]	Wood	[]
Musician	[]	Return	[]	Then	[]	Worse	[]
Must	[]	Rich	[]	There	[]	Worth	[]
Name	[]	Run	[]	Thin	[]	Would you like	[]
Named	[]	Sad	[]	Thing	[]	Year	[]
Nay	[]	Salesman	[]	Think	[]	Young	[]
Need	[]	Scared	[]	This	[]	Your Majesty	[]
Never	[]	Secret	[]	Those	[]	Yourself	[]
New	[]	See	[]	Through	[]		
Next	[]	Sell	[]	Throughout	[]		
No one	[]	Send	[]	Tired	[]		
Nobles	[]	Servant	[]	To	[]		
Noise	[]	Set off	[]	Today	[]		
North	[]	Several	[]	Tonight	[]		
Not again	[]	Shocked	[]	Too	[]		
Now	[]	Shoot	[]	Towards	[]		
Of course	[]	Shooting	[]	Town	[]		
Often	[]	Should	[]	Trap (n.)	[]		
OK	[]	Shout	[]	Trap (v.)	[]		
On	[]	Silk	[]	Trick (v.)	[]		
On his way	[]	Silver	[]	True	[]		
Open	[]	Sing	[]	Try	[]		
Other	[]	Sir	[]	Turn around	[]		
Outlaws	[]	Sit down	[]	Twig	[]		
Out of	[]	Sleep	[]	Unfair	[]		
Over	[]	Smell	[]	Until	[]		

VOCABULARY TEST

1. Please do not open the booklet until you are told to do so.
2. Find the correct word from the choices under every five sentences.
3. Indicate your answers on the answer sheet.
4. After you have finished the test, hand the booklet and the answer sheet together to the teacher.
5. You have 45 minutes to complete the test.

Thank you and good luck.

VOCABULARY TEST (1-100)

1. Sun rises from the
2. Wait a minute, let me you. The box looks very heavy.
3. My father shaved his long yesterday.
4. Your hair looks very I think. Why are you hiding from everyone?
5. We went to the with my mother to buy some vegetables and fruits.
a) well b) beard c) market d) south e) help
6. You look, let's watch a funny film to cheer you up.
7. We won I am sure we are going to be the champion this time.
8. Oh no! Imy umbrella again.
9. later the bus will be here, please prepare your ticket now.
10. Did you any fish this weekend in the river?
a) catch b) again c) sad d) a few minutes e) lost
11. Do we have enough to eat, I am starving?
12. She thinks I like chocolate cake,....., I hate it.
13. Are you sick? Your color is so.....
14. My mother said that it is not polite topeople.
15. When he died, he was only 19. So.....to die.
a) stare b) young c) in fact d) food e) pale

16. I amof bugs. That is why I do not like camping.
17. Did youto complete the task for \$200?
18. Our teacher says we will be happy if we our dreams.
19. It is difficult to bewhen the dog snarls so angrily.
20. Write your sentences. The time is almost over.

a) chase b) last c) agree d) scared e) friendly

21.are may be the most useful animals.
22. Do not ... to me. I saw you have eaten the last ice-cream.
23. When the library will be I have to return the books until 10 o'clock.
24. My father was very of me when I won the scholarship.
25. We have to hurry. All the cheap computers will be sold

a) open b) proud c) horses d) soon e) lie

26. me if you don't like the coffee. I can bring you something else to drink.
27. When you get there don't This is your last chance to get a job.
28. Please your coat on the table next to the door.
29. You look very, very tired. Was yourbad?

30. Don't with the computer. I have work to do now.
 a) sleep b) play c) turn around d) tell e) put
31. Where have you been? I waited almost three hours for you.
32. It is not only you but your friend. Are you both crazy?
33. I you can't eat a whole big pizza in a half-hour.
34. My brother does this all the time. He likes when I am upset.
35. We were at thelast night. It was real fun.
 a) dear b) fair-ground c) bet d) yesterday e) also
36. Mr. Gürkan was veryto our school. He bought all the books we needed for the library.
37. I am very I haven't eaten all day.
38. He livedwith his wife until the terrible accident last year.
39. Only.....we can defeat the other team.
40. You can.....go there. The swimming pool is closed for a year.
 a) happily b) generous c) hungry d) not e) together
41. Every team needs if they want to act together.
42. Tell me how much do you? I have enough money to lend you.

43. When move to city, they usually miss their life in country side.
44. My mother was to find all of her flowers were ruined with rain.
45. No problem. I can you to your school. Get in the car.
- a) take b) peasants c) need d) leader e) shocked
46. Look What a beautiful bird.
47. Thismust be for a large animal. What do you think?
48. Who more cake? You can eat as much as you want.
49. She be a good teacher I believe with such an enthusiasm to teach.
50. Wear anotherwise your clothes will be stained.
- a) trap b) there c) apron d) wants e) will
51.and arrow. They are very effective weapons.
52. It is very cold here. Will yousome woods for the fire?
53. The strawberry is the mostfruit I have ever tasted.

54.though people can live for about a week without food, they cannot last that long without water.
55. You have to his money until Saturday.
a) even b) bow c) give back d) delicious e) chop
56. It is very hot today. Don't forget to take yourwith you before leaving the hotel.
57. Yes. I saw him last night. Hejust after you left the party.
58. Getplease. We have been waiting for you.
59. He brought a very pleasant gift from Izmir.
60. They say the movie is sothat you may have nightmares for sometimes.
a) scary b) hat c) came d) in e) us
61. Please take a seat andus. We will be happy to see you among us.
62. British love their queen and crywhenever they see her in public.
63. Look her fingers. How fast they are and play beautifully the piano. She is a real
64. I can lend my mp3 player whenever you want. Just tell me.
65. Shethe issue while we were confident that there was no problem at all.
a) musician b) of course c) join d) pointed at e)long live

66. Do you know who did the Ottoman Empire for the longest time?
67. Can you believe that? Her all clothes are made of, nothing else.
68. days were my happiest. Now there is only sadness in my life.
69. They say whoever goes to thedoesn't come back.
70. Tomorrowwill be announced and we will see who won the prizes.
- a) wood b) rein c) silk d) names e) those
71. My favorite color waswhen I was a child. But now it is black.
72. I lovecurtains. They look very rich.
73. Don't hesitate. You cananything you want.
74. I think thewas not fair. The winner was older than the other boys.
75. His bike looked I don't understand why it broke down so suddenly.
- a) blue b) ask c) fine d) velvet e) competition
76. Do you think it is? My exam score is one of the worst one in class.
77.we weren't expecting to win the competition. Just luck I believe.

78. Now I will show you how toa delicious cake with carrots.

79.were known greedy and selfish most of time in history.

80. Turn off the video recorderplease. It will erase the old records.

a) make b) good c) nobles d) quickly e)indeed

81. I don't want tomy paintings. They are not for others but just for me.

82. Ourwas between two rivers when I was a child.

83.She always tells the same But it doesn't matter. We love to hear it every time.

84 Is the big day. At last we can meet with his famous uncle.

85.Who wants to be a? Nobody. They beg because they have nothing to do.

a) today b) beggar c) home d) sell e) story

86.Did youthe plate? You mother is very upset.

87.You can buy the best meat from a,not from a super market.

88..... I won't tell anybody that you failed the university exam.

89. It was a real There were so many delicious foods that I couldn't even taste all of them.

90. The told us that the youngest tree in the wood was at least 200 years old.

a) feast b) forester c) butcher d) break e) don't worry

91. I love my long and I will keep it that way as long as possible.

92. She her dolls as if she can't live without them.

93. Why didn't you like him? He was a very man.

94. Do you know that the followers of Robin Hood were called?

95 do you want to go for dinner tonight?

a) Merry Men b) where c) hair d) holds on to e) kind

96. You are needed here Don't be late.

97. I am very tired. I don't want to go tonight.

98. For fitness, one of the best sports is

99. I wonder why girls so much like

100. You have to do right now or it will be too late.

a) outside b) immediately c) something d) swimming e) shopping

Class:

Name and school number:

VOCABULARY TEST ANSWER SHEET



Question 01	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 02	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 03	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 04	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 05	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 06	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 07	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 08	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 09	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 10	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 11	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 12	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 13	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 14	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 15	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 16	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 17	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 18	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 19	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 20	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 21	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 22	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 23	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 24	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 25	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 26	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 27	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 28	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 29	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 30	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 31	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 32	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 33	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 34	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 35	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 36	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 37	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 38	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 39	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 40	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 41	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 42	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 43	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 44	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 45	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 46	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 47	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 48	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 49	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 50	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)

Question 51	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 52	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 53	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 54	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 55	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 56	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 57	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 58	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 59	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 60	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 61	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 62	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 63	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 64	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 65	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 66	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 67	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 68	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 69	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 70	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 71	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 72	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 73	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 74	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 75	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 76	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 77	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 78	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 79	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 80	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 81	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 82	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 83	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 84	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 85	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 86	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 87	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 88	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 89	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 90	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 91	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 92	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 93	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 94	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 95	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 96	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 97	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 98	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 99	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Question 100	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)

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