

**ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ  
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI  
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI**

**DEVELOPMENT OF RESOURCE MATERIAL FOR  
TEACHING ENGLISH VOCABULARY**

**(YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ)**

**Mine TİRYAKIOĞLU**

**BURSA 2006**



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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dil Eğitimi Bilim Dalı'nda 2004504 numaralı Mine TİRYAKİOĞLU'nun hazırladığı "Development of Resource Material For Teaching English Vocabulary" konulu Yüksek Lisans Çalışması ile ilgili tez savunma sınavı ...../...../ 20.... günü ..... - ..... saatleri arasında yapılmış; sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda adayın tezinin.....(başarılı/başarısız) olduğuna .....(oybirliği/oy çokluğu) ile karar verilmiştir.

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## ABSTRACT

Yazar	: Mine TİRYAKİOĞLU
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Bilim Dalı	: İNGİLİZ DİL EĞİTİMİ
Tezin Niteliği	: Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Sayfa Sayısı	: xiii + 126
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Tez Danışmanı	: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Meral ÖZTÜRK

## DEVELOPMENT OF RESOURCE MATERIAL FOR TEACHING ENGLISH VOCABULARY

The purpose of this MA thesis was to develop resource material for teaching English vocabulary in accordance with the principles of vocabulary teaching. The resource material was prepared in the form of coloured-pencil drawings.

The study was carried out at a state school, Pilot Sanayi Primary School in Turkey. The subjects were the students at 6<sup>th</sup> grade. The subjects' proficiency was determined as beginners by the researcher who was also their English teacher. The teaching of the words was done by following a fixed procedure which consisted of two parts, namely, presentation and practice of the words. In order to measure the effectiveness of the resource material, a translation and a matching test were administered to the subjects. The target words in the presentation were 18 nouns in 0-500 range of the most frequent 2000 words in General Service List (West 1953).

The results of the study showed that drawings prepared as both positive and negative examples were effective in teaching the meanings of the target words.

### Key Words

picture drawings	vocabulary teaching	GSL	
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## ÖZET

Yazar	: Mine TİRYAKİOĞLU
Üniversite	: Uludağ Üniversitesi
Anabilim Dalı	: YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ
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### İNGİLİZCE KELİMELERİN ÖĞRETİMİNDE KAYNAK MATERYAL GELİŞTİRİLMESİ

Bu Yüksek lisans tezinin amacı kelime öğretiminin ilkelerine uyarak İngilizce kelime öğretimi için kaynak bir materyal geliştirmektir. Kaynak materyal renkli kalem çizimi olarak hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışma Türkiye’de bir devlet okulu olan Pilot Sanayi İlköğretim Okulu’nda yürütülmüştür. Denekler 6. sınıf öğrencileridir. Öğrencilerin yeterlik seviyesi aynı zamanda da İngilizce öğretmenleri olan araştırmacı tarafından başlangıç seviyesi olarak tespit edilmiştir. Kelimelerin öğretimi sunum ve alıştırma adında iki bölümden oluşan belli bir işlemi takip ederek yapılmıştır. Kaynak materyalin etkinliğini ölçmek için deneklere çeviri ve eşleştirme testleri verilmiştir. Öğretilmesi hedeflenen kelimeler Michael West’in İngilizce’de en sık kullanılan 2000 kelimenin bulunduğu listesinde 0-500 aralığındaki isimlerden 18 tanesidir.

Çalışmanın sonuçları hem artı hem de eksi örnekler olarak hazırlanan resimlerin kelimelerin anlamlarını öğretmede etkili olduğunu göstermiştir.

#### Anahtar Sözcükler

resimler	kelime öğretimi	GSL	

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## CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
İÇ KAPAK .....	i
TEZ ONAY SAYFASI.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
ÖZET.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi

### CHAPTER 1 (INTRODUCTION)

1.0. INTRODUCTION.....	1
------------------------	---

### CHAPTER 2 (LITERATURE REVIEW)

2.0. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	5
2.1. Techniques of teaching word meaning .....	5
2.2. Principles of teaching word meaning.....	12
2.3. Visual resources for vocabulary teaching.....	16

### CHAPTER 3 (METHODOLOGY)

3.0. METHODOLOGY.....	17
3.1. Participants.....	17
3.2. Instruments.....	17
3.2.1. Target words.....	18
3.2.2. Drawings.....	19
3.2.3. Tests.....	26
3.2.3.1. Translation test.....	26
3.2.3.2. Matching test.....	27
3.3. Procedure.....	29



**CHAPTER 4**  
**(RESULTS AND DISCUSSION)**

4.0. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	34
4.1. Session 1.....	34
4.1.1. Building.....	34
4.1.1.1. Positive examples for building.....	34
4.1.1.2. Negative examples for building.....	36
4.1.1.3. Results for building on post tests.....	37
4.1.2. City .....	38
4.1.2.1. Positive examples for city.....	38
4.1.2.2. Negative examples for city.....	39
4.1.2.3. Results for city on post tests.....	39
4.1.3. Language.....	41
4.1.3.1. Positive examples for language.....	41
4.1.3.2. Negative examples for language.....	42
4.1.3.3. Results for language on post tests.....	43
4.1.4. Patient.....	44
4.1.4.1. Positive examples for patient.....	45
4.1.4.2. Negative examples for patient.....	46
4.1.4.3. Results for patient on post tests.....	47
4.2. Session 2 .....	48
4.2.1. Price .....	48
4.2.1.1. Positive examples for price.....	49
4.2.1.2. Negative examples for price.....	51
4.2.1.3. Results for price on post tests.....	51
4.2.2. Century.....	52
4.2.2.1. Positive examples for century.....	53
4.2.2.2. Negative examples for century.....	54
4.2.2.3. Results for century on post tests.....	54
4.2.3. Idea.....	55
4.2.3.1. Positive examples for idea .....	56
4.2.3.2. Negative examples for idea .....	57
4.2.3.3. Results for idea on post tests.....	58
4.2.4. Voice.....	59
4.2.4.1. Positive examples for voice .....	60
4.2.4.2. Negative examples for voice.....	62
4.2.4.3. Results for voice on post tests.....	62

4.3. Session 3 .....	63
4.3.1. Term.....	64
4.3.1.1. Positive examples for term.....	64
4.3.1.2. Negative examples for term .....	66
4.3.1.3. Results for term on post tests .....	66
4.3.2. Subject.....	67
4.3.2.1. Positive examples for subject.....	67
4.3.2.2. Negative examples for subject.....	70
4.3.2.3. Results for subject on post tests.....	70
4.3.3. Result.....	72
4.3.3.1. Positive examples for result.....	73
4.3.3.2. Negative examples for result.....	76
4.3.3.3. Results for result on post tests.....	76
4.3.4. Side.....	77
4.3.4.1. Positive examples for side.....	78
4.3.4.2. Negative examples for side.....	80
4.3.4.3. Results for side on post tests.....	80
4.3.5. Life.....	81
4.3.5.1. Positive examples for life.....	82
4.3.5.2. Negative examples for life.....	85
4.3.5.3. Results for life on post tests.....	85
4.4. Session 4.....	86
4.4.1. Health.....	86
4.4.1.1. Positive examples for health.....	87
4.4.1.2. Negative examples for health.....	90
4.4.1.3. Results for health on post tests.....	90
4.4.2. Body.....	91
4.4.2.1. Positive examples for body.....	91
4.4.2.2. Negative examples for body.....	93
4.4.2.3. Results for body on post tests.....	94
4.4.3. Ground.....	95
4.4.3.1. Positive examples for ground.....	96
4.4.3.2. Negative examples for ground.....	98
4.4.3.3. Results for ground on post tests.....	98
4.4.4. Hour.....	100
4.4.4.1. Positive examples for hour.....	100
4.4.4.2. Negative examples for ground.....	102
4.4.4.3. Results for ground on post tests.....	103

4.4.5. Road.....	104
4.4.5.1. Positive examples for road.....	104
4.4.5.2. Negative examples for road.....	106
4.4.5.3. Results for road on post tests.....	107

**CHAPTER 5**  
**(CONCLUSION)**

5.0. CONCLUSION.....	109
5.1. Conclusions .....	109
5.2. Further Research.....	114
5.3. Recommendations .....	116
REFERENCES .....	118
APPENDICES.....	121
1. Target words .....	121
2. Session 1 Test Papers.....	122
3. Session 2 Test Papers .....	123
4. Session 3 Test Papers .....	124
5. Session 4 Test Papers .....	125
ÖZGEÇMİŞ.....	126

## LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 3.1. The number of target words presented per session.....	19
Table 3.2. The number of drawings per word .....	22
Table 3.3. The number of positive and negative examples per word .....	25
Table 4.1. Test results for “building”.....	37
Table 4.2. Test results for “city” .....	40
Table 4.3. Test results for “language” .....	43
Table 4.4. Test results for “patient” .....	47
Table 4.5. Test results for “price” .....	51
Table 4.6. Test results for “century”.....	54
Table 4.7. Test results for “idea” .....	58
Table 4.8. Test results for “voice”.....	63
Table 4.9. Test results for “term” .....	66
Table 4.10. Test results for “subject” .....	71
Table 4.11. Test results for “result” .....	76
Table 4.12. Test results for “side” .....	80
Table 4.13. Test results for “life” .....	85
Table 4.14. Test results for “health” .....	90
Table 4.15. Test results for “body”.....	94
Table 4.16. Test results for “ground” .....	99
Table 4.17. Test results for “hour”.....	103
Table 4.18. Test results for “road”.....	108
Table 5.1. Results of the study in percentages for each word .....	109

## LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure 3.1. A negative example for “patient” .....	21
Figure 3.2. A negative example for “building” .....	21
Figure 3.3. Positive examples for “building” .....	23
Figure 3.4. Positive examples for “patient” .....	23
Figure 3.5. Multiple positive examples in one picture drawing .....	24
Figure 3.6. A translation test paper .....	27
Figure 3.7. A matching test paper .....	28
Figure 4.1. The first positive example for “building” .....	35
Figure 4.2. The second positive example for “building” .....	35
Figure 4.3. The third positive example for “building” .....	36
Figure 4.4. The first negative example for “building” .....	36
Figure 4.5. The second negative example for “building” .....	37
Figure 4.6. The first positive example for “city” .....	39
Figure 4.7. The first negative example for “city” .....	39
Figure 4.8. The first positive example for “language” .....	42
Figure 4.9. The first negative example for “language” .....	42
Figure 4.10. The second negative example for “language” .....	43
Figure 4.11. The first positive example for “patient” .....	45
Figure 4.12. The second positive example for “patient” .....	46
Figure 4.13. The first negative example for “patient” .....	46
Figure 4.14. The first positive example for “price” .....	49
Figure 4.15. The second positive example for “price” .....	50
Figure 4.16. The third positive example for “price” .....	50
Figure 4.17. The first positive example for “century” .....	54
Figure 4.18. The first positive example for “idea” .....	56
Figure 4.19. The second positive example for “idea” .....	57
Figure 4.20. The first positive example for “voice” .....	60
Figure 4.21. The second positive example for “voice” .....	61
Figure 4.22. The third positive example for “voice” .....	61

Figure 4.23. The fourth positive example for “voice” .....	62
Figure 4.24. The first positive example for “term” .....	65
Figure 4.25. The second positive example for “term” .....	65
Figure 4.26. The first positive example for “subject”.....	68
Figure 4.27. The second positive example for “subject”.....	69
Figure 4.28. The third positive example for “subject” .....	69
Figure 4.29. The fourth positive example for “subject”.....	70
Figure 4.30. The first positive example for “result”.....	73
Figure 4.31. The second positive example for “result” .....	74
Figure 4.32. The third positive example for “result”.....	74
Figure 4.33. The fourth positive example for “result” .....	75
Figure 4.34. The fifth positive example for “result”.....	75
Figure 4.35. The first positive example for “side” .....	78
Figure 4.36. The second positive example for “side” .....	79
Figure 4.37. The third positive example for “side” .....	79
Figure 4.38. The fourth positive example for “side” .....	80
Figure 4.39. The first positive example for “life” .....	83
Figure 4.40. The second positive example for “life” .....	83
Figure 4.41. The third positive example for “life”.....	84
Figure 4.42. The fourth positive example for “life” .....	84
Figure 4.43. The first positive example for “health”.....	87
Figure 4.44. The second positive example for “health”.....	88
Figure 4.45. The third positive example for “health” .....	88
Figure 4.46. The fourth positive example for “health”.....	89
Figure 4.47. The fifth positive example for “health” .....	89
Figure 4.48. The first positive example for “body” .....	92
Figure 4.49. The second positive example for “body”.....	93
Figure 4.50. The third positive example for “body” .....	93
Figure 4.51. The first negative example for “body” .....	94
Figure 4.52. The second negative example for “body” .....	94
Figure 4.53. The first positive example for “ground” .....	96
Figure 4.54. The second positive example for “ground”.....	96

Figure 4.55. The third positive example for “ground” .....	97
Figure 4.56. The fourth positive example for “ground” .....	97
Figure 4.57. The first negative example for “ground” .....	98
Figure 4.58. The first positive example for “hour” .....	101
Figure 4.59. The second positive example for “hour” .....	101
Figure 4.60. The third positive example for “hour” .....	102
Figure 4.61. The first negative example for “hour” .....	102
Figure 4.62. The first positive example for “road” .....	105
Figure 4.63. The second positive example for “road” .....	105
Figure 4.64. The third positive example for “road” .....	106
Figure 4.65. The first negative example for “road” .....	107
Figure 4.66. The second negative example for “road” .....	107

## 1.0. INTRODUCTION

A number of ways to present the new vocabulary items are used as an essential part of language learning. While traditional methods which provide a definition either in the L2 or in the native language of the learners are still widely used, visual techniques such as picture drawings, flashcards, photographs, realia, cut-out figures and wallcharts can be more effective in many ways.

First of all these visual techniques increase the learner motivation to learn a new concept since colourful and vivid pictures are very enjoyable and appeal to learners' interest. When learners are presented with pictures, they like to guess and comment on what is meant or happening. Thus, they create a lot of interest on the part of the learner. When the group of learners is young children, they are particularly more effective. A distinguishing feature between young learners and adults is that children have a more limited attention span, and the use of visual techniques will lengthen this time while the quality of learning relatively improves.

Gairns and Redman (1986) state that visual techniques are effective for teaching concrete items which is commonly the main issue in initial stages of vocabulary learning. Children firstly need to be presented with certain parts of speech in vocabulary such as action verbs, stative adjectives, and concrete nouns. These types of vocabulary can easily be taught by exploiting visual and verbal techniques.

Chun and Plass (1996) examined the effectiveness of different types of annotations in vocabulary learning and found that picture annotations were more effective as cues for the recall of the target words than verbal definitions and video. It is suggested that pictures have a constant, fixed quality and can be looked at for as long as the learner wishes, which allows for the development of a mental model of the meaning.

Moreover, Underwood (1989) suggests that "A common place principle for human learning is visual memory. We remember words better if they are strongly associated with images". Words that are presented with drawings will be easier to recall for young learners since their capacity for visual memory is much larger.



Since young learners are not competent with the foreign language, they have to be presented with a lot of vocabulary in order to let them use the language. They need to learn, in particular, the first 1000 and the second most frequent words in English. (Nation, 2001) However, when the course books which are used in Turkish primary schools are investigated, it can easily be noticed that there is always a little part to present vocabulary knowledge. This insufficient treatment of vocabulary in coursebooks distracts learners from developing their vocabulary size as a result. To this necessity, this research aims to compensate for the lack of effective resource material which is specially designed to teach EFL vocabulary visually and tested beforehand for effectiveness.

There are many reasons to prepare resource material for English teachers to teach vocabulary:

First of all, preparing one's own material for a teacher needs much time and effort. One source will never be sufficient to collect all the pictures for a whole year's vocabulary instruction. Searching for the best material for each vocabulary item can lengthen the preparing time while all necessary sources may not be available at teachers or schools. Therefore, looking for the best sources and materials turns to be a tiring activity and the motivation of teachers decreases naturally.

Secondly, other teachers who prefer preparing their own materials and use self-made drawings instead of pictures collected from printed sources may have difficulty in terms of the quality and quantity of drawings and the presentation of the words. Several important points must be kept in mind at the drawing stage. For instance, the details in a drawing might help the establishment of a concept or unintentionally may serve as distractors.

Another reason to prepare resource material is the need for effectiveness of the material. One can find plenty of examples in picture dictionaries or EFL websites. However, effectiveness of these is an unanswered question. As Nation (2001) states, some basic vocabulary have to be learned as soon as possible in order to be competent with language, and resource materials need to be developed to satisfy this crucial

necessity. Therefore, teachers and learners of EFL had better not waste their time by using materials not tested.

As a fourth point, if for example, pictures are to be used in vocabulary teaching, Nation (1990) suggests that in order to teach a word, several examples of the word's meaning as well as non-examples should be presented to help learners to see what is the same or different in all these examples. Presenting a word with positive and negative examples also needs to be arranged in the best way for learning. Since the available ones in internet sources do not provide the presentation of several examples of a word, teachers should be equipped with resource material which is developed according to the teaching vocabulary criteria.

In conclusion, when teachers do not spend much time on the development of the vocabulary teaching materials, they can direct their full attention to the teaching part in a vocabulary class which, otherwise, will get the least effort after a long and tiring work on preparing materials. This material also suggests following a fixed procedure that involved several steps in teaching vocabulary by using pictures to the teachers of English.

The objective of the present study is to develop material in the form of picture drawings for teaching English vocabulary at the elementary level. In the literature there are only a few studies investigating to what extent picture drawings are useful in vocabulary teaching.

Although there are several pictorial materials in books or in online sources, they are insufficient in vocabulary teaching since the selection and the presentation of vocabulary are not principled and they are not tested in real language settings in terms of effectiveness. This study aims to develop material for teaching English vocabulary in accordance with the principles of vocabulary teaching. The resource material involves picture drawings which are specially prepared for English teachers teaching young learners. This study includes some of the nouns from the 0-500 range in the General Service List developed by Michael West (1953), which includes the Most Frequent 2000 Words in English. In the presentation of the target words, several positive and negative examples of the words are used and the teaching procedure strictly follows the

established principles of vocabulary teaching. Then, the comprehension of the words is rigorously tested. Here, it has to be noted that this resource material is used for presenting the meaning of new words only. As explained by Nation (2001), there are other aspects of knowledge to be gained about a word such as collocations, associations, morphological knowledge, syntactic knowledge, etc. which are not aimed to teach in this study.

## **2.0. LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter deals with teaching word meaning and using visual resources for vocabulary teaching. This chapter also provides a rationale for the study by taking issues, problems, and research in the literature into consideration.

This chapter is organized as follows: Section 2.1 presents the literature on techniques of teaching word meaning. Section 2.2 reviews the sources on principles of teaching word meaning, and finally available visual resources for vocabulary teaching are evaluated in Section 2.3.

### **2.1. Techniques of teaching word meaning**

There are several techniques to present word meaning. The researches have classified these techniques in different ways. These classifications are presented below.

Cross (1991) states that there are several ways of making the meaning of a word clear and that these may be used alone or in combination. Those are grouped under four titles, namely ostensive means, verbal definition, audio presentation, and running context.

The word “ostensive” means by showing. That is, by showing things or pointing to objects in the classroom the meaning of a word can be given to learners. Realia which means real things such as balls, tables, and puddles can easily be brought or created in the classroom environment. Other ostensive means are pictures. These usually include objects which are not easily carried or are unavailable. Teachers can collect pictures from magazines or if not available they can draw on the blackboard or prepare flashcards beforehand. The words “horse” or “skyscraper” can best be presented by using pictures. Another ostensive means is to use your body. Facial expressions, gestures, hands, and arms allow you to present adjectives, while mime and actions can show many verbs and adverbs. Bowed body and legs may well illustrate the adjective “old” and shaking legs and holding your head in your arms can be used to teach the verb “to get frightened”.

Cross (1991) presents another type of technique “verbal definition” to present the meaning of a word. Here, comprehension can be reached by means of word sets, synonyms, antonyms, cognates, illustrative sentences, scales, building on general knowledge, and translation. Word sets are connected words, such as father, mother, child. By using this word set a new vocabulary item “family” can easily be conveyed. Synonyms are other verbal definitions which can be best shown on the board using the mathematical sign for equals as in adjectives “unhappy=sad”. Antonyms can also be used with adjectives such as in “rich X poor”. Another means to present the word meaning by verbal definition is to use cognates. For instance, as Turkish and English have several cognates such as “telephone” and “telefon” or “train” and “tren” learners may be willing to discover these. If learners are able to comprehend a linguistic context in which the unknown word is used, illustrative sentences may do good to help comprehension. Cross (1991) exemplifies the word “hate” by contrasting it with the verb “like” in this series of illustrative sentences: “My father hates potatoes, but he loves rice. He likes carrots, beans, and most other vegetables, but he refuses to eat potatoes. He hates them”. Scales are useful tools which sequence some types of words along a scale between two antonyms. The most known example of scales is when the frequency adverbs and some of the extreme adjectives are introduced. As well as these techniques, a new word can be taught by building on general knowledge that students have. For instance, the words “city, town, village” can best be presented by exploiting the knowledge of cities, towns, and villages that they know. When there is no alternative technique, translation may help instead of trying to define or show the meaning. The most common use for giving the mother tongue equivalent occurs when there is a grammar word or a formulaic expression such as “Have you by chance...?”. Translation can also be of benefit for infrequent words which are not likely to be useful to the learner.

Audio presentation is another way of giving word meaning. Instead of describing many words, such as argument, train, splash, a jet plane it is very simple just to record sounds of these and then tell the class to listen. The teacher himself can also produce sounds for giving the meaning of some words. For instance saying “çuf çuf” for the word “train” may be the best way to convey its meaning.

The last distinction made by Cross (1991) to teach word meaning is to create a running context for new words. As he exemplifies, for the words “flood, thunder and collapse” the story of a storm with heavy rain which caused a house to collapse would be very interesting to students. He adds that the most important thing is to link words in an interesting way.

Nation (1990) summarizes many ways in which the meanings of vocabulary items are communicated or taught. Two distinct classifications are teaching the word meaning by demonstration or pictures and by verbal explanation. In the former category, there are many techniques which are very similar to the techniques suggested by Cross (1991). Using an object, a cut-out figure, and gesture, performing an action, photographs, blackboard drawings or diagrams and pictures from books belong to this category, while verbal explanation in the latter can be realized with analytical definition, putting the new word in a defining context, and translating into another language.

Gairns and Redman (1986) identify techniques used to teach word meaning in three different categories. The first two, namely visual and verbal techniques, share similarities with the classifications of other researchers which have just been mentioned. However, he treats translation as a distinct category. The first category which Gairns and Redman (1986) offer is visual techniques. Visual techniques involve visuals such as flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wallcharts, realia and some features of body, namely mime and gesture. Visuals are particularly suitable for teaching concrete items of vocabulary such as food and certain areas of vocabulary such as professions. Mime and gesture are also used to supplement other ways of conveying meaning. For instance, the meaning of the verb “swerve” can best be displayed by using mimes and gestures together with actions. The second category discusses verbal techniques which include use of illustrative situations, use of synonymy and definition, contrasts and opposites, scales, and examples of the type. In illustrative situations mostly abstract items can clearly be expressed. Gairns and Redman (1986) give the example of the expression “I don’t mind” by asking a person to choose one thing between two things which he loves equally. Use of synonymy and definitions are the most common ones in

verbal techniques as well. Synonyms can be used at low levels and also at high levels with subsequent qualification. Definitions are unqualified means of conveying meaning as they may need to be presented in contextualised examples. For instance, students may wrongly think that “The lesson broke out” is meaningful if they are presented with the sentence “A fire broke out.” and told that “to break out” means “to start” only. However, in this case they need to clarify the meaning with many more contextualized examples of the word as well as definition. Contrasts and opposites are other verbal techniques used frequently. However, learners must be aware of the fact that in some contexts opposites may not work as it happens in adjectives “sweet” and “sour” since the opposite of sweet tea is not sour tea. Scales are also suggested by Gairns and Redman (1986) as useful verbal techniques in order to teach two contrasting and related gradable items of vocabulary. Finally, examples of the type can help learners get the meaning of superordinates such as furniture, vegetables, and transport. The last category made by Gairns and Redman (1986) includes translation technique. As they suggest, it is very effective in teaching low frequency words in a foreign language especially in monolingual classes. Hill (1965 in Nation 1990) criticizes translation as a means of communicating meaning. It is claimed that the time spent on translation can be spent on using English since there is no exact correspondence between languages. However, Nation (1990) states that the exclusion of mother tongues may cause the learners to make their uncontrolled and often incorrect translations. He discusses the advantages and disadvantages altogether. According to him, some features of translation can be used by the teacher to the learners’ advantage. When there is an unimportant word, it works well to satisfy the learners, but the learners may not be sure to remember it later if the teacher does not spend enough time on a word and passes quickly by translating it. Another point is that translation is not limited in explaining different parts of speech, while objects and pictures can only be used to present nouns, or adjectives. Translation is also defined as an easy and quick way in which the learners show whether they understand something or not.

After focusing on the different types of techniques classified by several researchers, it is necessary to compare visual and other techniques. “Visuals are extensively used for conveying meaning and are particularly useful for teaching

concrete items of vocabulary such as food or furniture, and certain areas of vocabulary such as places, professions, descriptions of people, actions and activities such as sport and verbs of movement” (Gairns and Redman 1986). This kind of vocabulary is usually needed at earlier stages of language learning before abstract conceptions. Children need to enlarge their vocabulary size by focusing on high frequency words which are made of concrete items mostly as Gairns and Redman (1986) exemplify above. Therefore, by presenting words which can easily be introduced ostensively, much of the vocabulary they have to master is given.

Underwood (1989) also emphasizes the importance of visuals by taking the issue of visual memory. It is stated that when words are associated with images, they are easily remembered. Since young learners have larger capacity for visual memory, teachers should make use of this rich resource.

Moreover, the benefit of visual techniques is expressed by Brown (1994) who calls audio-visual aids as sensory aids. As for the visuals, it is stated that they help young learners to internalize concepts. What’s more, the advantage of using nonverbal language by means of facial features, gestures, and mimes is paid attention since they make learners attend very sensitively. In other words, it can be deduced that children who like colour both in their work and given materials are motivated in this way.

Brown (1994) brings the issue of attention span which is one of the most crucial differences between young learners and adults. Since visual techniques let teachers make their vocabulary presentation more enjoyable and interesting for young learners, this may lengthen the time children focus on learning.

Kang (2004) offers the use of visual organizers such as figures, diagrams, charts, etc. since they allow learners visualize the structural concepts of knowledge. For instance, the presentation of classification of verbs is introduced in a diagram. It is claimed that these visual organizers, as he calls them, can help teachers develop hierarchically arranged and conceptually-driven curricula and teaching plans and that students who use these aids can learn more effectively if they know how to employ visual organizers to benefit their own learning.



A study done by Sakar and Erçetin (2004) investigates intermediate-level English learners' preferences for hypermedia annotations while they are engaged in reading a hypermedia text. Their participants were 44 adult learners of English as a foreign language studying English for Academic Purposes. Results indicated that learners preferred visual annotations such as graphics and/or videos significantly more than textual and audio annotations. This finding suggests that learners find visual annotations highly useful in helping them cope with an L2 text.

Gairns and Redman (1986) give several examples of using pictures as a guide to meaning. As far as it can be deduced from their comments about these practices, the use of picture drawings have an advantage over other visual techniques. It is suggested that teachers' library of visuals can be used for every purpose in teaching vocabulary. It can be said that visuals especially pictures are very useful language tools for presentation, practice, revision, and testing. The practice part is particularly paid more attention since it, as Gairns and Redman state, can be the basis for communicative lessons.

The present study will examine the use of picture drawings in vocabulary teaching. However, there are only few related studies investigating this. At this point, it is necessary to review what researchers suggest about vocabulary teaching with picture drawings and what their findings are.

Chun and Plass (1996) investigated the effectiveness of different types of annotations for vocabulary teaching in their study. They developed a program which provides students reading German texts with annotations for words in the form of text (i.e. definitions), pictures, and video. In this study a significant difference was found between words with text and picture annotations and words with text and video annotations. 103 students involved in the study used picture and text annotations more as the cue for recall of the words than only definitions or video and text glosses. Although both constitute visual information, the form of the visual support between static pictures and dynamic videos appears to have an impact on the recall of the annotated words. In brief, the visual support provided by pictures was found to be more effective in the presentation and recall of vocabulary items.

Another study by Jones and Plass (2002) was carried out in order to see the effects of different multimedia annotations. The participants of the study were 171 nonnative students enrolled in a beginning French class at a university. They were randomly given one of four listening treatments: the listening text with no annotations, with only written annotations, with pictorial annotations, and with both written and pictorial annotations. The results of tests revealed that the students who were assigned to both written and pictorial annotations were better at remembering word translations and the passage. This finding also supports what was claimed by Kellogg and Howe (1971 in Jones and Plass 2002). They also suggested that foreign words associated with visual imagery or objects are learned more easily than those without such comprehension aids.

Among the visual materials for vocabulary teaching the use of picture drawings and photographs are the most common techniques as many researchers have suggested. Pictures drawings, however, have some advantages over photographs. First of all, while photographs are easier to find since newspapers, magazines, and online sources are available, these may contain too many details which can distract learners from focusing on the essential features of the photograph. Moreover, commercially published photographs may not suit one's particular class. However, in the preparation of picture drawings one can control the content precisely and tailor it to the needs and experiences of the students by adding some details or not using them. Less ambiguous materials can facilitate the learning of vocabulary items and make the presentation manageable for teachers. Secondly, it should be kept in mind that when the students are a group of young learners, the content of the drawing should not be overloaded with distracting and confusing details. Learners around this age sometimes tend to pay specific attention to small details and thus are unable to see overall picture presented. Third, the use of colorful lines even in stick figures are excessively appealing to young learners and express feelings than all the ordinary photographs presented everyday in newspapers, magazines, or in their coursebooks. For all these reasons, it is reasonable to prepare picture drawings according to their needs rather than using photographs.

Here are a few simple principles taken from Wright (1994) to bear in mind in the preparation of picture drawings:

1. To direct attention to something and make it more recognisable, particularly if it is small within a picture, for example, one person giving another a present, people are better drawn in back line and the present in a color.
2. For the presentation of some words there need to be a context which help viewers elicit the meaning of the target word. So, let for these words happen in context.
3. If you want to draw real objects such as animals and people, there are two things to consider; first the proportions of the basic shape and secondly the angles of the edges of the shape.
4. Avoid all perspective drawing if it is possible. It is better to draw buildings and similar objects face-on rather than going away.
5. When an object which is “flat on” is drawn without perspective, it is necessary to decide which view to take. Some objects are easier to recognise from the front, some from the side.

## **2.2. Principles of teaching word meaning**

The choice of the correct material will not be enough for teaching the meanings of words effectively. There are some principles that need to be followed:

One of them is to show multiple examples of a concept. Nation (1990) states that the teaching of a word meaning requires the presentation of the concept which the word refers to. In other words, the particular uses of the word are not the main issue. It can be said that when a vocabulary item is introduced to learners, generalizations and abstractions have to be made by using one’s experience. For instance, in order to present the word “person” the features such as age, colour of skin, and hair should be ignored and several examples which show “persons” must be presented. Learners need to see several examples of the concept in order to see what the same in all these examples is.

The establishment of the concept requires the presentation of both positive and negative examples (Carroll 1964 in Nation 1990; Nation 2001). Positive examples display the actual concept, whereas negative examples display things, people, or objects which are not the examples for the given concept. Therefore, positive examples have to be presented initially before negative examples. Another important point is that all these examples have to be arranged in the best way for learning to take place.

Repetition is another principle of teaching word meaning. “It is essential in vocabulary learning because there is so much to know about a word that one meeting with it is not sufficient to gain this information, and because vocabulary items must not only be known, they must be known well so that they can be fluently accessed. Repetition thus adds to the quality of knowledge and also to the quantity or strength of this knowledge” (Nation 2001). Baddeley (1990) suggests, it is not simply repetition which is important but the repeated opportunity to retrieve the item which is to be learned. He adds that each retrieval of a word strengthens the path linking form and meaning and makes the next retrieval easier. In addition to this, Brown (1994) says that repetition can help the brain and the ear work out the meaning cooperatively.

Repetition can be done in the form of delayed presentation. “Experimental evidence shows that simultaneous presentation of a word form and its meaning is best for the first encounter and, thereafter, delayed presentation is best because there is then the possibility of effort leading to successful recall” (Nation 2001). Royer (1972) carried out a study to see how effective delayed presentation is. The learners were taught the form and the meaning of each word simultaneously on the first trial and in the following trials they were asked to recall the meaning of the words. It was found that this group learned significantly more correct responses on a test given immediately after the learning sessions. This concluded that recalling of words in delayed presentation is more effective than simply seeing the words.

Several researchers have commented on points such as spaced repetition, types, and number of repetitions:

Bloom and Shuell (1981 in Nation 2001) and Dempster (1987 in Nation 2001) discuss “spaced repetition”. They define spaced repetition which is done at larger intervals as secure learning. By this way, repetition leads to better recognition of words.

Anderson and Jordan (1928 in Nation 2001) investigated retention of vocabulary over time. They measured the percentage of recall as 66 % after one week. It was found to be 37 % after eight weeks. This finding suggested that repetition should be done before too much forgetting occurs.

Cross (1991) offers to bring the whole week’s pictures at the end of a week or the beginning of the following week to revise vocabulary. Students can be asked to write illustrative sentences about picture drawings from memory. In the case of learners at low levels, they can even try to remember the same illustrative sentences in the initial presentation. Cross also identifies repetition as a step in the presentation of vocabulary. A few repetitions by the whole class is recommended by him.

Tinkham (1993) in his experiment found that learners differ in the time and number of repetitions required for learning. Five to seven repetitions were found to be ideal for most learners, whereas a few learners required over twenty repetitions.

It is also important for coursebooks to provide sufficient repetition of new vocabulary. Teachers of EFL learners ought to consider this while choosing the ideal coursebook for their learners. If the book does not supply this, it is the duty of teachers to make necessary adaptations (Nation 1990).

Another principle is what Paivio and Desrochers (1981) calls “dual encoding” which will serve to increase the chance that vocabulary items are remembered. Dual encoding means the use of two techniques in learning one item. Nation (1978b) points out that all ways of communicating meaning may be misinterpreted and cause learners not to acquire the right concept of the word. However, when visuals such as actions, objects, pictures, or diagrams are used with verbal explanation, the concept is stored both linguistically and visually. Thus, the chance of recalling is increased. As it was stated before, the findings of the experiments which compare the use of single and

double annotations in remembering vocabulary suggest that learners who use both are more successful.

Avoiding cross-association is one of other principles in teaching word meaning. After all these teaching and learning aids, words are still hard to distinguish for a number of reasons. One of them is what researchers call “cross-referencing” or “cross-association”. Similarities between words make learning easier. However, they may make it more difficult as in the case of “short” and “long”. For instance, in Turkish short means “kısa” and long means “uzun”. Because they are presented at the same time and both describe length, these words may be cross-associated. If the teacher uses similar actions, pictures, or objects, e.g. short hair and long hair, to teach both, cross-association may occur. By teaching these words together, the teacher may make them twice difficult to learn. The learners have to learn their meanings and in addition to that they have to remember that “long” does not mean “kısa” and “long” does not mean “uzun” (Nation 1990). It means, the difficulty of keeping the two items separate (not cross-associated) has been added to the difficulty of learning the correct associations. Higa (1963 in Nation 1990) investigated the effect of various meaning relationships. It was found that lists of words that were strongly related with each other were rather difficult to learn than the list of unrelated words. Lists of indirectly related words were easily learned. Cross-referencing can be prevented by reducing the similarities between two items. When there is a pair of opposites, the second item can be taught after the full comprehension of the first one at a later time. Another way to avoid cross-referencing is to use different visual techniques to present two similar items (Nation 1990).

The last principle to suggest here is to check the comprehension. Nation (1990) suggests some procedures to find out whether a concept is comprehended or not. One of them is as follows: After introducing all the examples, students can be asked to distinguish between them. That is, they tell which examples are positive and which are negative. Another way to check comprehension is to ask learners to define the most salient characteristics of the concept. Finally, students can be asked to translate the target word into their mother tongue if the translation matches the target word. If all these procedures were done for the word “body”, learners would tell that a drawing

displaying a whole body is a positive example whereas a drawing displaying a skeleton is a negative one. Then, learners would say that a body consists of the head and all the organs and that it may be big or small, or that both people and animals have a body. Instead of these checking procedures, students may translate it into their native language and thus, concept learning will be examined.

### **2.3. Visual resources for vocabulary teaching**

As different learning styles and teaching techniques come into the light in recent years, the importance of visual materials, particularly of pictures, has relatively increased and several sources have been developed. Available ones can be counted as picture dictionaries, picture files in the appendices of coursebooks, and internet sources that can be found in ESL or EFL websites. Those are usually grouped according to topic. These materials can be of benefit to learners or teachers who search for visual materials on a daily basis. They can easily be found, copied, and handed. However, they have some disadvantages in terms of preparation, presentation, and checking procedures. In the next part below, some shortcomings of these available materials are discussed.

First of all, preparation of these resources does not seem to have been made according to the certain principles which were discussed in the previous section. For instance, the drawing of pictures needs good selection of content items. As stated before, too many confusing details may distract learners from learning a word. For this reason, these ready materials prepared without considering these principles may not match one's needs or objectives.

Secondly, the size of the drawings is also of great importance. One in large enough size should be clearly seen by all students in a classroom environment and picture drawings should certainly be on cards and not paper. Card lasts longer and is easier to handle (Wright 1994). However, picture drawings in the appendices of coursebooks or the ones taken and printed from internet sources do not provide this facility.

Thirdly, the presentation of pictures needs to be made in a procedure that involves several stages. Cross (1991) identifies four steps in the presentation: 1) sound and the meaning 2) repetition 3) written form 4) illustrative sentence. Moreover, the order of words, if there is a group of them, should be determined beforehand since several complex or abstract words presented one after another may confuse learners. However, no procedure to follow is suggested with these visual resources available.

Fourthly, resource materials should be used in real vocabulary learning environments and tested in terms of effectiveness. However, for the available ones there is no proof of how good they are. Using materials with no or little use may cause teachers and learners to waste their time.

The last point to consider while using these visual resources is that there need to be multiple examples containing positive and negatives in order to teach just one word. Learners should see what a word refers to and does not refer to at the same time. When these materials are investigated, one can see that they do not involve any negative examples. So learners will not be given the opportunity to restrict the meaning of a word by the help of non-examples.

This study aims to develop resource material for teaching English vocabulary to young learners. In the preparation of this resource material, the points that will be considered are as follows: Principled selection of words, principled presentation, and checking of learning.

Principled selection of words for which the resource material is prepared will be made regarding which words are essential to understand and use another language. “There is a small group of high-frequency words which are very important because these words cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken or written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of the language” (Nation 2001). Here comes the matter of “coverage”. Researchers found that almost 80 % of the running words in a text are high-frequency words. So if the teaching of these words is successful, learners will be able to understand 80 % of the text. Therefore, the words for the resource material will be chosen from among the list of high-frequency words prepared by Michael West (1953). It is called “General Service List” and contains around 2000 word families.



Since the participants of the study are learners of English at beginner level, the words will be selected from the first 500 most frequent words.

Principled presentation of words will be made according to the stages that Cross (1991) offers in teaching word meaning. The procedure in which the words are presented is modified in terms of the participants' level and needs. The steps of the procedure will be dealt with in detail in the following section.

Checking of learning will be composed of two different tests namely, a translation test and a matching test. These will be administered right after the presentation of the target words. By so doing, the resource material that is checked for to what extent it will be useful will be presented to the use of learners and teachers of English.

With the present study, the researcher aims to develop resource material that is tested in terms of effectiveness for teaching English words selected and presented in a principled fashion.

### **3.0. METHODOLOGY**

In this chapter, the methodology of the present study will be described in three sections. Section 3.1 includes the description of the participants of the study in detail. Section 3.2 presents the instruments and explains how they were selected and prepared. The last section, Section 3.4, describes the administration of the picture drawings in teaching vocabulary.

#### **3.1. Participants**

The participants of the study were the students at the 6<sup>th</sup> grade in Pilot Sanayi Primary School in Bursa, Turkey. They were all EFL students, and they had been learning English for almost three years. In the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades they received 2 hours of English per week, but in the 6<sup>th</sup> grade the hours increased up to 4 hours a week. The age group of the participants was between 11 and 12. They were all at the beginner level.

The pilot test was administered in three different groups of students which had a total number of 96 students. The number of the students in pilot 1 was 31, and 35 in pilot 2. It was 30 for the pilot 3.

The data were collected in both the autumn and the spring term of the 2004-2005 academic year in four separate sessions. The number of the participants was 34 for the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 35 for the 3<sup>rd</sup> session while in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> sessions, 30 students were involved. As the number of the participants for each session changed, the number of females and males did so. It was 15 each in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> sessions. The number of females was 15 and 19 were male in the 3<sup>rd</sup> session.

#### **3.2. Instruments**

The instruments used in the present study were 66 drawings used to teach 18 target words, four matching tests, and four translation tests, one for each session.

### **3.2.1. Target Words**

In this study, 18 target words were taught. (cf. Appendix I) They were selected from the General Service List (West 1953), which includes the most frequent 2000 words in English. The target words were selected from the 0-500 range since the subjects who were at the beginner level knew very few of the words in this range. All the target words were unfamiliar to the learners. The teacher who was also the researcher used her judgment to decide which words could not be known by the subjects.

The target words were selected from only one category, nouns. Concrete nouns were particularly preferred since they could easily be presented with drawings. Moreover, students in this age group usually need more concrete items of vocabulary than abstract ones. Since children are still in an intellectual stage of what Piaget (1952) called “concrete operations”, abstract conceptions or talk must be approached with extreme caution. The words which have the same form as a noun and a verb were not included in the target words in case the verb form might confuse learners, or were more common in daily use than the noun form.

Bearing in mind that too many abstract nouns in the same session might also force the subjects, selection of words for a session was carefully done. Moreover, the order of teaching was arranged in terms of word length and concreteness for the subjects. The target words that were easier to recall in terms of word length and concreteness were presented after those that were harder.

Prior to the drawing of the pictures, the dictionary work was done in order to decide which meaning to be given and to identify important components of meaning. The meaning of the words was extracted from several dictionaries and the content of the drawings and the matching test paper were decided in accordance with these. In the preparation of the pictures, the essential features of the words were put forward, while other unnecessary details were avoided. In the case of polysemic words, the most frequent meaning was preferred as it was more probable for the subjects to use that more often.

The purpose of this study was to teach the target words with their most literal meaning to the subjects. The reason to limit the study to literal meaning is that the learners at beginner level need to learn the most frequent meaning of the words, but not the abstract meaning or other meanings. However, this does not mean that the literal meaning always matches the most frequent meaning nor it is always concrete. As in the case of the word “way”, the literal meaning is “road or direction to go”, whereas “method” can be defined as the most frequent meaning.

The following table shows the number of the target words taught in each session. As it was suggested by Cross (1991), most teachers feel that 5 to 7 new words are enough for formal attention. The belief is that students can only internalize about half a dozen new words during a 40 minute lesson. The duration of the whole presentation was changing between 30 and 35 minutes. For that reason, the number of words for each session was limited to 4 or 5. Otherwise, the students would be overloaded with many words which they would have difficulty learning and remembering later.

**Table 3.1. The number of target words presented per session**

<b>Session</b>	<b>The number of target words</b>
<b>1</b>	4
<b>2</b>	4
<b>3</b>	5
<b>4</b>	5

### **3.2.2. Drawings**

In the present study the drawings aimed to teach the learners the meaning of the English words rather than any other aspect of the words.

The drawings were prepared by the researcher with many revisions and corrections. They were drawn on A3 size cards. At the drawing stage, simple lines and drawings were used and in the coloring stage, colorful paints were exploited in order to appeal to the learners’ visual memory.

In order to display the drawings in electronic version and thus in the thesis, their photographs were taken by a professional photographer and these photographs were transferred into the computer and arranged in terms of color and size. It has to be noted that the actual colors of some of the drawings were unfortunately lost during this process. However, much of the quality was the same as it was in the real picture drawings.

In the drawing stage of the pictures, the principles suggested by Wright (1994) in the previous chapter were considered carefully. To direct attention to something, it was drawn in the front line and its color was made more recognizable. In the drawing of real objects such as animals and people, first the proportions of the basic shape and secondly the angles of the edges of the shape were decided according to their actual size. Perspective was usually avoided if it is possible and buildings and similar objects were drawn face-on rather than going away. When an object which is “flat on” was drawn without perspective, the view to take was very important since some objects were easier to recognize from the front, and some from the side. The words in drawings were presented in rich context which was necessary in order to let the subjects guess the meaning of the words easily and correctly. Small details that created the context were very helpful to guess the meaning of the words. Without these modifications, the poor context might distract the subjects from commenting on the drawing and working out the meaning. i.e. For the word “patient”, a man who was ill at home was presented in his bedroom at home as a negative example. (cf. Figure 3.1) Because a sick person resting at home is not called “patient” in English in contrast to the use in the subjects’ mother tongue, the bedroom was drawn with its certain details so that the subjects could differentiate between a bedroom and a patient room in a hospital.



**Figure 3.1. A negative example for “patient”**

Also in the presentation of the word “building”, a drawing of a bridge was used as a negative example. (cf. Figure 3.2) A fisherman was drawn on the bridge in order to help the participants identify the bridge in the drawing. However, it has to be noted that these details which helped the subjects guess the meaning of the target words in context were not the first thing that took attention at first sight in the drawing cards. Small details were at the background helping to construct the meaning. The focus of attention was prominent in the drawings like the bridge, and the contextual details were less significant. In this particular example, the bridge was drawn bigger than the fisherman or the boat.



**Figure 3.2. A negative example for “building”**

The total number of drawings was 66 for 18 words. It means that roughly 3 drawings were exploited per word on average. The use of 5 drawings for one word was the highest in number while only 1 drawing was the least.

It can be said that an average of three drawings were used to present a target word. The word with most examples among the words was “ground”. Five drawings were used to teach this word. However, four positive and four negative examples were presented in these five drawings. Conversely, the word “century” had only one drawing.

**Table 3.2. The number of drawings per word**

<b>WORDS</b>	<b>THE NUMBER OF DRAWINGS</b>
<b>City</b>	2
<b>Patient</b>	3
<b>Language</b>	3
<b>Building</b>	5
<b>Century</b>	1
<b>Price</b>	3
<b>Voice</b>	4
<b>Idea</b>	2
<b>Subject</b>	4
<b>Term</b>	2
<b>Result</b>	5
<b>Side</b>	4
<b>Life</b>	4
<b>Body</b>	5
<b>Hour</b>	4
<b>Ground</b>	5
<b>Road</b>	5
<b>Health</b>	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>66</b>

The drawings used in the presentations included both positive and negative examples of the concept.

Almost all of target words had more than one positive example. As Nation suggested for the principles of teaching word meaning in the previous chapter, these sometimes included collective nouns such as “building”. In order not to restrict the semantic meaning and cause misunderstanding by the subjects, different examples of buildings such as a drawing of a house, an apartment, and a factory were prepared as the positive examples of the target word “building”. (cf. Figure 3.3)



**Figure 3.3. Positive examples for “building”**

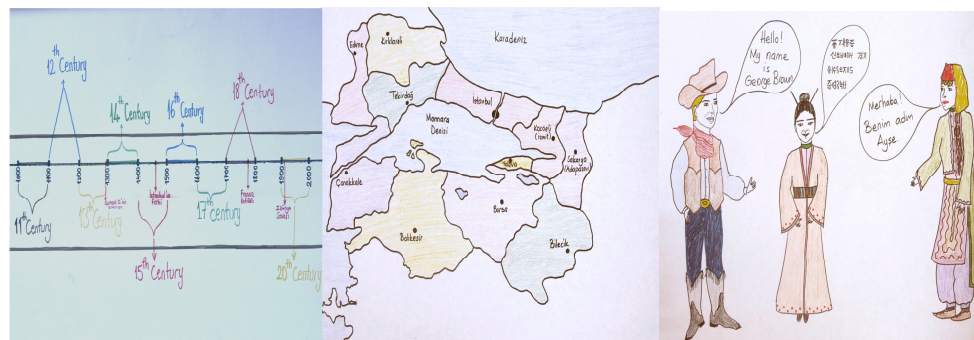
In another target word “patient”, subjects were shown the drawings of a patient both in a hospital room and one on a stretcher as the positive examples. (cf. Figure 3.4)



**Figure 3.4. Positive examples for “patient”**



For some of the words in this study, one positive example had, in fact, multiple positive examples in the drawing. It was an important point to consider since we argued earlier in Literature Review that one of the principles of good teaching is to present multiple positive examples. i.e. The word “century” was presented with the drawing of a time line consisting of many one-hundred-year periods as centuries. These were all introduced as “century” by calling them the 11<sup>th</sup> century, 12<sup>th</sup> century, etc. Also for the words city and language, there were multiple examples in one positive example (See Figure 3.5).



**Figure 3.5. Multiple positive examples in one picture drawing**

In some words, negative examples were needed to restrict the concept. This was usually obligatory when a word in English does not cover Turkish equivalent of the word. The target word “patient” is only used to describe a sick person who takes medical care in English while the Turkish equivalent “hasta” means all sick people whether they take medical care or not. In the negative example for the word “patient”, a sick boy was presented in his bedroom in his house (see Figure 3.1). In order to give the idea that a person who is sick at home can not be called “patient”, the environment “the bedroom” was emphasized with the details such as TV, carpet, bookcase, and flowers at the window. Also the verbal explanation that he is at home supported the recognition of these details. Otherwise, the subjects might wonder why one is called a “patient” and the other “not patient” although both are ill.

As it can be seen in Table 3.3, the total number of positive examples used in this study was 57 while it was 22 for negative examples. According to the principles of teaching vocabulary, it was necessary to present several positive examples initially. This

explains why there were more positive examples than negatives. An average number of positive examples per word was 3 while the average number of negative examples was 1.

**Table 3.3. The number of positive and negative examples per word**

<b>Words</b>	<b>The number of positive examples</b>	<b>The number of negative examples</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>City</b>	1	1	2
<b>Patient</b>	3	4	7
<b>Language</b>	1	2	3
<b>Building</b>	3	2	5
<b>Century</b>	1	1	2
<b>Price</b>	3	0	3
<b>Voice</b>	4	0	4
<b>Idea</b>	2	0	2
<b>Subject</b>	4	0	4
<b>Term</b>	2	1	3
<b>Result</b>	5	0	5
<b>Side</b>	4	0	4
<b>Life</b>	4	0	4
<b>Body</b>	3	2	5
<b>Hour</b>	3	2	5
<b>Ground</b>	4	4	8
<b>Road</b>	3	3	6
<b>Health</b>	5	0	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>79</b>

While preparing picture drawings, the number of the cards per word was decided according to whether the concept to be defined was “simple” or “difficult” for the subjects. It was the researcher’s intuition that helped to decide. For instance, the target word “city” was considered to be a simple word in terms of word length since it was easier to recall and a clear concept for the subjects since they could use their general

knowledge. As a result of this, one positive and one negative example were considered sufficient in teaching.

### **3.2.3. Tests**

Tests were given immediately after the vocabulary teaching. The aim of using tests was to check whether the drawings were effective and if so, how effective they were. In order to decide whether the results after the tests were successful, a cut point at 70% was accepted. A word with 70% or over 70% correct understanding was accepted to have been learnt successfully by the subjects while others with correct answers under 70% were accepted “unsuccessful”. This cut-point was decided arbitrarily.

Two different tests were given to the subjects after the teaching and practice of the words. They were translation and matching tests. These types of tests are receptive tests which can be done quickly and checked easily on whether a concept is learnt or not.

The translation test was done after the teaching part and the matching test was given after the practice part. Each test only checked the target words presented in the same session. The total number of sessions was four. They included four matching and four translation tests in total.

#### **3.2.3.1. Translation test**

In order to check whether the subjects understood the concept correctly, a translation test was delivered to the subjects. The translation test was applied just after the presentation of the target words. In the presentation part, all the words were written on the board one by one before each presentation. After all the words were completed, the subjects wrote the translation of the words on their papers.

A translation test paper as seen below in Figure 3.6 started with personal information of the subjects. Then, a simple instruction was given in both English and Turkish. The words were listed and the subjects were asked to use the space next to the words to write their translations. (cf. Appendix II, III, IV, V)

NAME	NUMBER
WRITE THE TURKISH MEANING. (Türkece anlamını yazınız.)	
BODY	_____
HOUR	_____
HEALTH	_____
GROUND	_____
ROAD	_____

**Figure 3.6. A translation test paper**

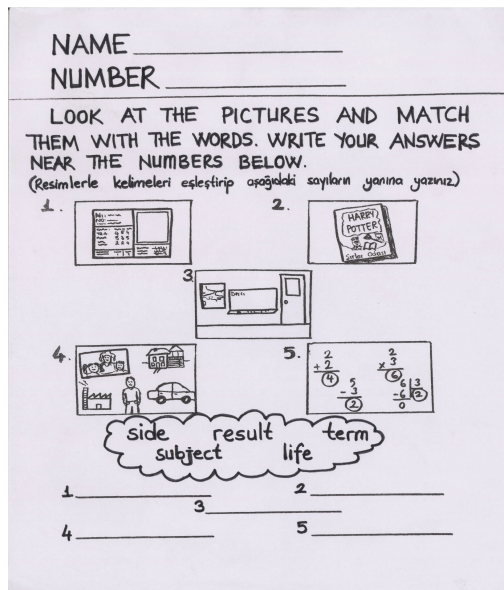
In the evaluation of the translation tests, there was not only one correct answer. The aim of this test was to get the Turkish translation of the words with one word. However, other possible answers with one word or explanations were accepted to be correct as long as they showed that the subjects had understood the concept correctly. i.e. For the target word “patient”, the correct translation was decided to be “hasta”. However, such an explanation “hastanede yatan adam” (a man receiving medical treatment in hospital) was accepted to be a correct answer since the subject had limited the word’s meaning to the correct place, to hospital, but not to a house.

### **3.2.3.2. Matching test**

The matching test was done in order to check whether the subjects had distinguished between words that were taught at one time, and how much they remembered the target words with their visual presentations.

An example of matching test paper is illustrated in Figure 3.7. As it can be seen there the subjects were asked to write their names and numbers first of all. As in the translation test paper, a simple instruction both in English and Turkish told them what to do. Below the instruction, the drawings were presented as numbered. For each target

word, only one drawing as a positive example was presented in this part. The drawings were identical to those used in the presentation but very much smaller on the exam sheet although the exact distinguishing detail which helped the subjects to guess was carefully put in the drawings. The target words to match were given in a box below the drawings. The subjects did the matching by writing the target words next to the number of the drawings at the bottom of the worksheet. No distractors were added to the target words in the matching test because our purpose in delivering this test was to see whether drawings as visual representations of words can be used to teach vocabulary or not rather than whether word forms can be remembered.



**Figure 3.7. A matching test paper**

In the planning stage of the matching test, at first, the subjects were asked to answer a “What is it?” question next to each drawing. However, the type of question was not suitable since it required form learning, which is not the main purpose of using drawings. This type of question was already used in the practice part of the teaching of the words. For this reason, the content of the matching test just included the matching of drawings with the words. Secondly, this type of question was not available for every word. For instance, the word “health” can not be elicited from the subjects with a “What

is it?” question since the word can only be presented in a sentence “X is good / bad for your health”.

### **3.3. Procedure**

The teaching of the target words included two main parts, namely the presentation and the practice part. Before the teaching started, the subjects were told that the two tests included in this study would not contribute to their course grades in order to prevent them to look at each others’ papers and increase their motivation and interest. After such an explanation, each word was first written on the board in capitals by the researcher while saying the word out aloud and demonstrating the drawing. Then, the subjects were told to repeat the word for 3 or 5 times chorally. As it was discussed earlier, for children, since certain more difficult concepts required more repetition, it was necessary to get the brain and the ear to cooperate with repetition (Brown 1994). Therefore, five to seven repetitions of new words were found to be enough in vocabulary lessons (Tinkham 1993). Since it was done both chorally and individually, the number of repetitions were limited in order not to bore the learners. The frequency of the repetitions depended on the difficulty of the target word given. A short word “city” was repeated three times while “language” needed to be said five times since it was a difficult one for the subjects. In the next step, the target word was repeated by three individuals again. Later each drawing was presented by pointing to the most important detail in the card. Positive examples were always prior to the negatives. Moreover, all the words were presented in context, it means in an illustrative sentence. i.e. The researcher pointed to the cards and presented the target words in sentences such as “Look at the cars. This is a road, Mudanya Road, but here is a train. It is not a road”. Since the subjects’ proficiency level did not let them understand complex words or statements, simple explanations and sometimes showing only the object by saying “Look at ...!” were sufficient for them. In the meantime, the cards for a given target word were stucked on the wall by grouping them as positives and negatives. The steps mentioned above were repeated for each word. At the end of the presentation of all the words, the students were delivered the translation test papers and asked to write the Turkish equivalent of the target words on the translation test paper. While they were

working on the translation, only one positive example for each word remained on the board. Others were not shown. They were given 2 or 3 minutes. Then, the translation test papers were collected.

After all the words were introduced and repeated in the presentation part, the second part of the teaching was done. This part was rather a revision exercise. It should be noted that the order of cards in this practice part was different from the order in the first part. The aim of this practice was to reinforce the form-meaning relationship. The words were simple yes-no questions about the drawings. i.e. By showing the drawing of a rabbit or skeleton, it was asked “Is this a body?” The subjects usually answered the questions chorally. Then, the next stage aimed to check their understanding by getting individual answers from the subjects. The questions were in the form of “What is it?” The students gave one-word response (road) or used the target word in a sentence (It is a road) to these questions. At last, the matching test papers were delivered and the subjects matched the drawings with the target words.

The list of steps followed in the presentation and the practice part is written below. It should be noted that the steps from 1 to 5 composes the presentation part, while the next three steps are in the practice part.

**Step 1:** Teacher writes the word on the board in capitals saying it aloud.

**Step 2:** Students repeat the word for 3 or 5 times chorally. (Choral repetition)

**Step 3:** Individual students repeat the word. (Individual repetition)

**Step 4:** Teacher presents positive and negative examples with verbal explanation and sticks them on the board in groups of positives and negatives.

\*Repeat the steps 1-4 for each word.

**Step 5:** Students are delivered the translation test papers. They write the Turkish equivalent of the word and then, the papers are collected.

**Step 6:** Teacher shows the pictures of an individual word at random and asks yes-no questions about them. Students usually respond chorally.

**Step 7:** Teacher asks “What is it?” questions about the picture drawings to all students or a few individuals if possible.

**Step 8:** Teacher delivers the matching test papers. Students match the drawings with the words. After that, students hand in their papers.

Here, it should be noted that the steps from 1 to 4 were repeated for each individual word in a session. However, the 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> steps were done for the group of words altogether.

In the construction of these steps, several points which were discussed under the titles, the principles of teaching word meaning and visual resources for vocabulary teaching in the previous chapter were taken into consideration. Each step was decided to be included according to what Nation (1990) and Cross (1991) offered in the presentation of new vocabulary. The steps 1, 2, and 3 in which the subjects were introduced with the form and the sound of the word were introductory in the presentation of the meaning. They saw the written form and heard the spoken form of the word in order to associate the sound and the form to the meaning. They needed to pronounce the words clearly. Choral and individual repetition helped them give their close attention. Thus, they heard or told the new word many times before they were able to guess the meaning. The 4<sup>th</sup> step was crucial in the presentation of the meaning. The subjects saw the examples and the non-examples of the word. They got closer to the meaning gradually with each positive example and restricted it with the negatives. The verbal explanation about the drawings was offered in order to make use of dual encoding. So they were introduced the new vocabulary both ostensively and verbally. The 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> steps were for practicing the words. Yes-no questions and “What is it?” questions helped the subjects internalize the words. They were also useful in getting an idea about the effectiveness of the picture drawings. Other steps were included for checking learning. The translation and matching tests measured their comprehension for the new vocabulary which was taught by means of picture drawings.

Initially 4 items of vocabulary were piloted in three different learner groups who were representative of the real data group. Three different pilot tests aimed to test whether both the instruments and procedure of teaching vocabulary were effective. As a



result of them, a number of changes were made in the drawings, procedure, and the tests after each trial.

The drawings which only demonstrated the visual presentation of the target word in pilot testing were added some details and drawn in their real context. i.e. The drawing of a tent as a negative example for the target word “building” was modified. The tent was presented in its real context, namely in a forest by drawing trees and bushes. The negative example for the word “patient” in which a sick person was drawn in his bedroom was considered to have a poor context without the details of an exact bedroom. So some flowers at the window, a carpet on the floor, and a bookcase in the room made the context richer and more students guessed it correctly. If the distinguishing features of a bedroom had not been emphasized in rich context, the subjects could not have differentiated between them. As stated before, there are very few studies investigating the effectiveness of pictures. As a result, there is no study to compare to what extent rich context is useful in the drawings. However, we can draw some conclusions from Griffin (1997) who investigated the effect of context sentence on learning and testing. If we consider the rich context in drawings as pictorial and in sentences as verbal to make the same effect on learning, the result of this study may help to understand the advantage of rich context. In poor context, learners are not able to exploit the clues to infer the meaning successfully. The studies by Harley and Hart (2000) and Kanatlar (1995) showed that language learners tend to use contextual clues more often than translation or the use of parts of speech. That is to say, learners whether or not they are aware of this, can arrive at the meaning of words in context. In our study, it was seen that after the modifications in 3 pilot tests; the words were presented in richer context both in the content of the drawing and the sentences. As well as their content, the size of the drawings was made smaller. At first they were drawn on bigger size than A3.

The modifications in the procedure were the addition of the different types of questions, the presentation of the drawings on the board in groups of positives and negatives during the teaching, and the exhibition of only one positive example in the testing with the translation. Before the pilot tests, the students were not asked to answer questions, particularly “What is it?” question, but the actual procedure included this

type of question for some of the words. For instance, it was suitable to ask for the word “building” by showing a house, however it was not for the word “subject” by showing a book. The other change was done with the presentation of all the drawings by sticking them on the board in groups of positive and negative examples for an individual word. In pilot test 1 and 2, no example was displayed and in pilot 3, one positive example was given. It was found that the subjects translated more successfully when they were presented with a positive example. Therefore, only one positive example was displayed while the subjects were filling in the translation test papers.

The modifications of the tests were not much. In pilot test 1, the translation test paper was not used. The students were asked to write the target words on a piece of paper after each presentation. However, it was not practical for the researcher to evaluate the papers with different styles and verbal instruction was not very effective in leading the subjects in to the correct translation. Therefore, four translation test papers were prepared for all the sessions. As well as the translation test paper, there was a modification in the content of the matching test paper. Before the actual sessions, the target words for the session were not given in a box. The students had difficulty remembering the written forms of the words. Since the main purpose of this study was not to teach the form, the words were given in a box to match with the picture drawings in the matching test paper.

## 4.0. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the words that were taught and checked with a translation and matching test in four sessions are explained in detail and discussed. For each word, the drawings of positive and negative examples and the results of the tests are summarized by percentages and numbers in tables.

### 4.1. Session 1

In this session, the words “building, language, city, patient” are explained with their positive and negative examples. Later, results are discussed.

#### 4.1.1. Building

The word “building” was presented with three positive and two negative drawings. First, the definitions for “building” can be presented to understand the basic features of the word:

**Building:** A structure that has a roof and walls. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Building:** A structure such as a house, church, or factory that has a roof and walls. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*)

**Building:** Bina. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As it was pointed in these definitions, “building” refers to a closed structure with a roof and walls. Other structures without a roof and walls cannot be named as buildings.

##### 4.1.1.1. Positive examples for “building”

The word “building” was taught with three positive examples including the drawing of a detached house, an apartment, and a factory.

Figure 4.1 shows the first example for building. The drawing of a detached house with a roof was used since it was directly related to students’ lives.



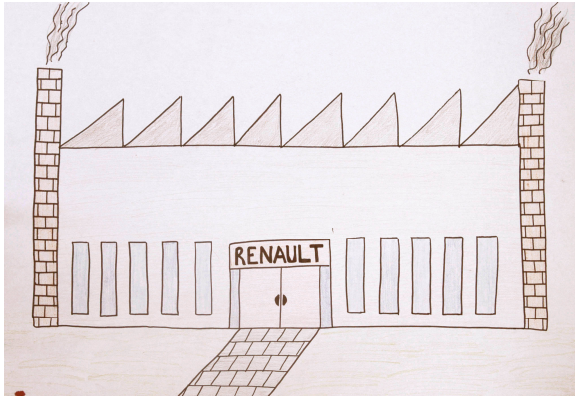
**Figure 4.1. The first positive example for “building”**

The drawing of an apartment shown as the figure 4.2 was presented as the second positive example for building. In the drawing, another house can easily be recognized in a street emphasizing that apartment and house are both examples for the word “building”.



**Figure 4.2. The second positive example for “building”**

Figure 4.3 illustrates the last positive example for the word “building” in which there is a factory. This drawing was added to the examples as the third in order to prevent the students think that a building is a place to live in. Moreover the name of the factory is also written on the drawing in order to let the students promote the concept of a factory. Therefore, a name which is usually known by the people of students’ residence was especially chosen.



**Figure 4.3. The third positive example for “building”**

#### **4.1.1.2. Negative examples for “building”**

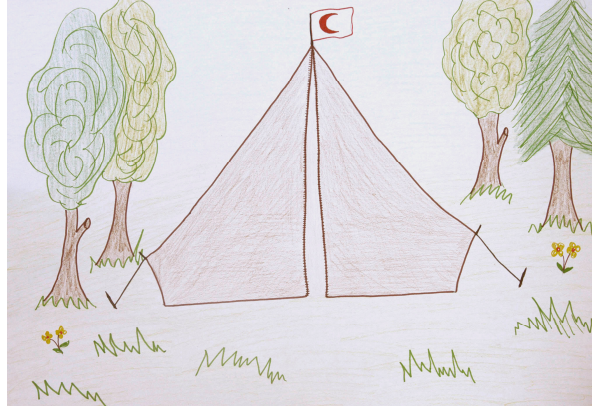
The word “building” was taught with two negative examples. The basic semantic feature of the word “building” which is the structure with walls and a roof is missing in both of them.

Figure 4.4 shows a tent in a forest which is especially drawn in a natural environment so that the participants could get the meaning from context easily. The Kızılay flag also helped the students understand that it was a tent, but not a building.



**Figure 4.4. The first negative example for “building”**

Figure 4.5 is the second negative example for the word “building”. It shows a bridge over a river on which there is a man fishing. A boat on the riverside was also added to the context. All these small details were included to help the students to get the meaning that a bridge is a kind of construction, but not a building.



**Figure 4.5. The second negative example for “building”**

#### **4.1.1.3. Results for “building” on post-tests**

The results of the tests administered were very satisfactory. In both tests, the success rates were found to be far above the cut-point.

**Table 4.1. Test results for “building”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	30	25
<b>Percentages</b>	100 %	84 %

\*Number of students: 30

As it can be seen in Table 4.1, in the matching test, the word “building” was guessed correctly by all of the students with 100% success. This is due to the fact that the drawings prepared for “building” were so familiar that they could easily recall it.

Although the Turkish equivalent “bina” was not extracted from all students in the translation test, the results can still be satisfactory with 25 correct translations out of 30 students which equal the percentage 84%. The wrong answers included translations such as “ev” or “fabrika” which could only be the name of a building as a positive example. This is due to the fact that the drawing of a house and a factory were the most significant among others. It can be claimed that the most significant examples of a word can sometimes make it difficult to guess correctly for some students who mistakenly

focuses on only one example. Moreover, it is clear that these students seem to have failed in drawing the generalization from the positive examples. They were not able to see what was common to them.

To sum up, it can be stated that drawings for the presentation of the word “building” were very useful since the percentages were very satisfactory for both tests.

#### **4.1.2. City**

The word “city” has been presented with one positive and one negative example. In order to understand what the word stands for, its meaning from several dictionaries is given below:

**City:** A large town. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**City:** A large important town especially one with a cathedral. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*)

**City:** Şehir, vilayet, il, kent. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As the definitions state, a city has to have a much bigger area and higher population than a town or a district. Other residential centres are not called “city” unless they have an important amount of population.

##### **4.1.2.1. Positive examples for “city”**

The word “city” was taught with one drawing prepared as positive example shown in Figure 4.6 below. However, the drawing illustrated a map of the Marmara Region with several cities in it. Therefore, the participants were shown many more examples in one drawing. The Marmara Region in which the participants’ city was located was especially preferred to appeal to their lives.





**Table 4.2. Test results for “city”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	28	26
<b>Percentages</b>	93,3 %	87 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, the word city was matched correctly by almost all the students. Two students had written other words in the same session.

In the translation test, the number of the correct answers was 26 out of 30. Only four of the students failed to translate them into Turkish. Among the wrong translations, two students wrote “harita” by just focusing on the content of the drawings, but ignoring what the researcher exemplified about the details on the content. In other words, they focused on the whole rather than the part. One student had written “Bursa” which was not accepted as an appropriate Turkish equivalent for the word “city”. Another student hadn’t respond to this word.

The right answers for the word “city” also included the phrases such as “Tekirdağ ildir, Mudanya değil. Mudanya ilçedir.” (Tekirdağ is a city, but Mudanya is not. Mudanya is a district.), “Hangi şehirdir?” (Which is a city?), and “Türkiye’nin ili” (City of Turkey). These were accepted as correct responses due to the fact that they included the target word in Turkish. With these answers, the percentage of correct responses was 87 % which is far above the cut-point for success.

To sum up, the word “city” was successfully taught with one positive and one negative picture drawing. The visual aspect of the word was emphasized by showing the students the drawings of real maps which they use or see in their geography classes. It can easily be said that the drawings were very effective in the presentation of the word “city”.

### 4.1.3. Language

In order to introduce the word “language” three drawings were used. One of them was the positive example, and the other two were the negatives.

The definitions below state the basic meaning of the word “language”.

**Language:** A system of communication which consists of a set of sounds and written symbols which are used by the people of a particular country for talking and reading. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Language:** A system of communication by written or spoken words which is used by the people of a particular country or area. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

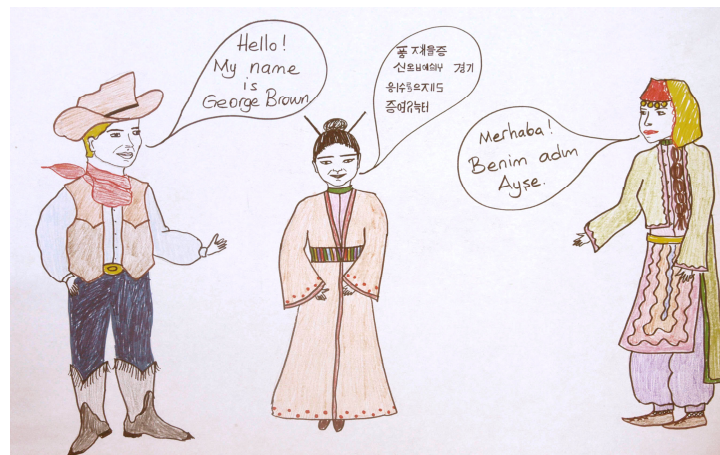
**Language:** Dil, lisan. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As the definitions illustrate, the most important semantic feature of the word was highlighted by showing the written forms of languages. Because they are different in terms of alphabet, each language has its own pronunciation of sounds. Although there are some countries speaking the same language, certain languages are associated with certain countries. The name of the language is also very similar to the name of the country as in England and English. Another important point is that a language has a system of communication, but sounds which animals produce do not.

#### 4.1.3.1. Positive examples for “language”

Figure 4.8 shows three people from different countries. In the drawing, it was suggested that different countries speak different languages. Therefore, people from different countries speak in their languages which are written in speech bubbles. Additionally, the word “language” has a spoken aspect which is fundamental feature of its meaning. Getting learners actually hear people who are speaking different languages in a natural environment would certainly be a much more effective way of presenting this word. However, our aim in this study was to teach word meaning with drawings. Therefore, the presentation of the word was supported by choosing the best-known languages namely, Turkish, English, and Chinese, all of which the students were

already familiar with. They were pointed at speech bubbles and asked to name these languages. For each speech bubble, it was told “This is ... language”.



**Figure 4.8. The first positive example for “language”**

#### 4.1.3.2. Negative examples for “language”

Two picture drawings were exploited in order to teach the word “language”. In both of the examples the basic semantic feature of the word which is stated as “a system of communication used by the people of a country” is missing. The first example shows an animal making sounds, while there is a baby babbling in the second one.

Figure 4.9 below shows the first negative example for the word. Sounds that an animal namely a cat makes are not called “language”. As it can be called a system of communication, the feature that the system must be used by people is missing. For this reason, these sounds were defined as “not language”.



**Figure 4.9. The first negative example for “language”**

Figure 4.10 which is exploited as the second negative example illustrates a baby who is babbling. Although initial sounds that a baby produces can be accepted as the primitive form of language, it does not have written symbols, and is not spoken by people of a country. For this reason, it can be said that the feature “human” is present, but ‘communication’ is not fully present in this example.



**Figure 4.10. The second negative example for “language”**

#### 4.1.3.3. Results for “language” on post-tests

The cut-point set for success was reached in both of the tests.

**Table 4.3. Test results for “language”**

	Matching Test	Translation Test
<b>Correct Responses</b>	30	21
<b>Percentages</b>	100 %	70 %

\*Number of students: 30

As it can be seen on the Table 4.3, all the students were able to match the word “language” with its drawing. The results were very satisfying. It can be argued that the concept of language could easily be set in their minds due to the fact that they had been studying countries and nationalities in the English class at the time of data collection. However, the word “language” hadn’t been deliberately handled in the course.

In the translation test, the results weren't as good as the matching test. However, the success rate was found to be 70%. The reason for the results of these two tests to differ with such a high percentage (which equals 30%) can be the type of tests applied. The matching test as a receptive test was far easier to do than the translation which needs understanding, as well as finding a synonym from their minds in their mother tongue. The word "language" as an abstract noun was also harder among the other words presented in the same session. Nine students out of 30 could not find the Turkish equivalent of the word. Three students had translated it as "milletler" (nationalities) and the others as "country" or "countries". It means, they wrongly concentrated on either the people speaking languages or the countries rather than the speech bubbles which were pointed at in particular.

Consequently, the results were satisfactory with 100 % for the matching test and 70 % for the translation test. This suggests that the picture drawings can be used to teach vocabulary which is abstract and has an aural aspect. However, it is a lot more demanding when the means of presentation is visual material.

#### **4.1.4. Patient**

The word "patient" was presented by three drawings. Two of them were positive examples which were also exploited as negatives and the other one was only prepared and used as a negative example.

The definitions taken from several dictionaries below express the most important features of the word:

**Patient:** A patient is a person who receives medical treatment from a doctor or a hospital or a person who is registered with a doctor. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Patient:** A person who is being treated by a doctor, a dentist. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*)

**Patient:** Hasta. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As it was pointed in the definitions, the meaning of the word is restricted in English than it refers in students' mother tongue. In Turkish, any person who either has got health problems or is receiving medical treatment by a doctor in hospital is called "patient". However, the English definition of the word differs. In order to call someone "patient", she or he must be receiving medical treatment. A sick person who is just taking a rest at home or having his medical care cannot be a patient. Therefore, in this study the drawings were carefully designed in order not to cause misunderstanding by overgeneralization.

#### 4.1.4.1. Positive examples for "patient"

Figure 4.11 shows a patient who is having a visitor in a hospital room. The patient is taking a serum in his bed and the visitor is approaching him with a bunch of flowers. In this drawing, the details, such as the serum and the observation form hanging at the end of the bed assist to emphasize that the place which is shown in the drawing is a hospital room.



**Figure 4.11. The first positive example for "patient"**

The next positive example which can be seen in Figure 4.12 displays two patients in different conditions; one of the two shows a patient who is being attended by a nurse and the other shows another patient who is lying on a stretcher with a doctor standing next to him. This drawing exemplifies the most common or possible conditions in which a patient in hospital can be. In this drawing, some details were used to help learners guess easily. The picture of a nurse who is making a sign to be silent and a non-

smoking sign on the wall facilitate the understanding of the environment which is the hospital. With this drawing, the most important feature of the word “patient” which is the medical treatment given by a doctor or hospital is clearly implied.



**Figure 4.12. The second positive example for “patient”**

#### **4.1.4.2. Negative examples for “patient”**

The drawing consisting only one negative example can be seen in Figure 4.13 below. It shows a sick person in his own bedroom in his own home. He is drawn as he is sitting on the edge of his bed wearing pyjamas. His medicine can be seen on the bedside table and he is holding a hot water bag on his head which makes him feel warmer and a thermometer in his mouth. These features of the person and his self-treatment obviously contribute to the understanding of the fact that he is just a sick person, but not a patient.



**Figure 4.13. The first negative example for “patient”**

As well as these details, the others such as the flowers at the window, the carpet on the floor, the bookcase and the TV, all of which can not normally be found in a hospital room strongly promoted the understanding of the environment as the home, thus implying that the person cannot be called a patient.

The positive examples were also exploited as negatives for the word “patient”. In the first positive example, the visitor was introduced as “not a patient” and in the second positive example, the nurse and the doctor were defined as “not patients”.

#### 4.1.4.3. Results for “patient” on post-tests

The results for the word “patient” are given below in Table 4.4. As it can be seen in the table, both the results of the matching test and the translation test came up with success by reaching almost 87 %.

**Table 4.4. Test results for “patient”**

	Matching Test	Translation Test
<b>Correct Responses</b>	26	26
<b>Percentages</b>	86,6 %	86,6 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, only four of the students wrongly matched the drawing of patient with an another drawing. The reason for their mismatch seems to be their low attention on the form of the word rather than the misunderstanding of the meaning of the word. This can easily be extracted from the results since the wrong responses for the translation test are all related to “patient”, but not any other word which were presented together.

In the translation test, four students out of 30 were not able to find an acceptable Turkish synonym for the word “patient”. They rather preferred words about the environment and the people which were seen in the drawing. One of them had written “hastane” by focusing on the environment of the positive examples. The other responses which were not accepted as right translations included phrases such as “hasta ve hemşire”, “hasta ve ziyaretçi”, and “çok hasta” (which exemplify the adjective form of the targeted translation). The percentage given in the table was calculated by treating



them wrong responses. However, due to the fact that they all include the targeted Turkish translation even in a phrase, they can be treated as right responses, in which case the percentage would be much higher, around 97 %.

To sum up, the percentages which were above the cut-point in both tests for the word “patient” seem to satisfy the expectations. Since the word “patient” was a concrete noun, it was probably not challenging for the students to place the conception into a mental figure.

## **4.2. Session 2**

In this session, the material for the words “price, century, idea, line, voice” are described with their positive and negative examples. Then, the results of the tests which were given to the students follow the presentation of the words.

### **4.2.1. Price**

The word “price” was taught by presenting three positive examples only.

Before describing the picture drawings that were used, it will be helpful to define the word “price” to understand the basic features of it:

**Price:** The price of something is the amount of money that you must pay in order to buy it. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Price:** The amount of money you have to pay for something. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Price:** Fiyat. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As it can be extracted from the definitions above, the price of something is assessed with the amount of money it worths. For this reason, another way to measure the value of something could not be accepted. Therefore, in all three drawings by which the word “price” was presented, a label for the price was always included in the currency of the students’ country which is thought to be more familiar for them.

Besides this, the word “price” is thought to be in relation to the act of selling and buying something. The picture drawings which were prepared to teach this word have

something in common: All include goods or things that can be sold and bought. Therefore, the students were easily introduced to the situation in which the act of shopping and the phrases which included the word “price” took place.

#### 4.2.1.1. Positive examples for “price”

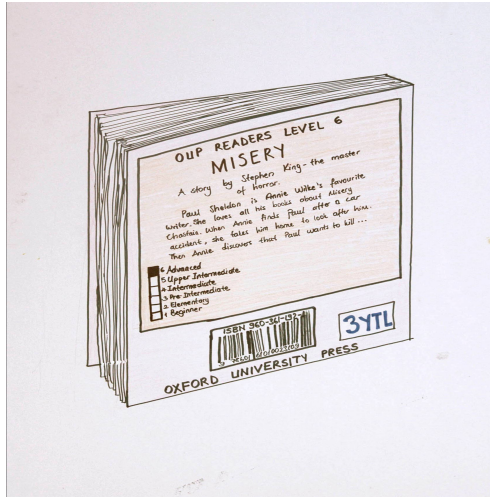
Three picture drawings were exploited in order to present the word “price”.

Figure 4.14 as the first positive example demonstrates two items of clothing, namely, a coat and a hat. These two were especially chosen to be drawn for the reason that the students both wear them most frequently and can recall the English words for these items most easily. Their prices which could easily be seen even from a distance were written on the labels which were attached to them. In the presentation, the name of the clothes were told by the students and then, by showing each of them and prices, it was told “This is a ... and this is the price”. Actually with this picture drawing, the students were introduced two positive examples.



**Figure 4.14. The first positive example for “price”**

The second positive example can be seen in Figure 4.15. In this picture drawing, the students were shown the back cover of a story book. The book belonged to one of the best-known authors. The details such as the barcode number and the summary of the story at the back cover promoted the recognition of the item as a story book. The price of the book was written in a different color to draw attention. The word “price” was presented by first asking “How much is the book?” and getting the answer and defining it in the sentence, “It is 3 YTL and this is the price”.



**Figure 4.15. The second positive example for “price”**

The last positive example in Figure 4.16 displays a scene of a green grocer’s where many kinds of vegetables and fruit are sold. The details such as the shopkeeper holding a plastic bag in his hand and a pair of scales helped the students understand the environment in which the word “price” was presented. The prices of the vegetables and fruit for a kilo were written on a piece of paper attached to them. These labels were all defined as the price after the subjects had told the name of the fruit or vegetable the researcher showed.



**Figure 4.16. The third positive example for “price”**

#### 4.2.1.2. Negative examples for “price”

As it was stated before, no negative example was used to present the word “price” since there is no example to be shown as not being a price. A small piece of paper on which only the information about the goods is written could have been attached to the clothes and shown as being not a price. However, it wouldn’t be the exact opposite concept that could be presented. As stated in the definitions, the word “price” is related to the monetary value of something.

#### 4.2.1.3. Results for “price” on post-tests

The table 4.5 below shows the results of the matching and the translation test for the word “price”.

**Table 4.5. Test results for “price”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	33	23
<b>Percentages</b>	97 %	67,6 %

\*Number of students: 34

In the matching test, one student out of 34 failed to match the word “price” with the correct picture drawing. In other words, 33 students were able to do the matching successfully. With the percentage 97 %, the results for the matching test are very satisfactory. The reason that provided this success can be the type of the word “price”, i.e. It is concrete. In other words, it is not a very complicated concept to be taught by means of picture drawings as it could easily have been drawn, and the students use the word “price” in their everyday language.

In the translation test, 20 students out of 34 correctly found the Turkish equivalent of the word “price” as “fiyat”. There were three different responses that were found satisfactory. One student had written “ücret”, another “ne kadar olduğu”, and the other “değer”. The reason for them to be treated as correct responses is that ücret (fee) and fiyat (price) are generally used interchangeably in the students’ mother tongue. Despite the fact that “Ne kadar olduğu” (how much it costs) is a phrase rather than a

word, it meets the meaning which was aimed to get. As well as these, “değer” (value) also stands as a general term that covers the word “price”.

The wrong responses in the translation test were related to money that the words such as “lira” (the word for the Turkish currency), “para” (money), “para hesabı” (money account), “satmak” (to sell), “ucuz” (cheap), and “etiket” (label) were among these. All the prices shown in the labels in the picture drawings were in Turkish currency in order to present the students with the most familiar monetary conception. Otherwise, a foreign currency about which the students of this age have known very little would be difficult to understand as well as the word itself. In one of the positive examples there was a scene in which there was a greengrocer selling fruit and vegetables in his shop. One of the students had written “satmak” (selling) by just focusing on the action. Another had just commented on the prices of the items by writing “ucuz” (cheap). Six students couldn’t identify the difference between “price” and “label” and thought that Turkish equivalent for the word “price” is “etiket”. However, the word “etiket” (label) which means “a piece of paper or another material that is attached to something and gives information about it” is not a synonym for the word “price” as it may not give information about the monetary value of the item.

To sum up, the results for the matching test were very satisfactory with 97 %. However, the same rate of success did not appear for the results of the translation test and it was found to be around 67 % which was a bit lower than the cut point that has been set. It can be said that the picture drawings prepared for the word “price” were recalled well in the matching test as it simply required recall of the scene as a whole. However, more precise understanding of the meaning of the word “price” by focusing on the common feature of the picture drawings was required in the translation test.

#### **4.2.2. Century**

In order to teach the word “century” one picture drawing was used both as a positive and a negative example.

The definition of the word “century” by several dictionaries is given here to explain the most important characteristics:

**Century:** A period of a hundred years that is used when stating a date. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

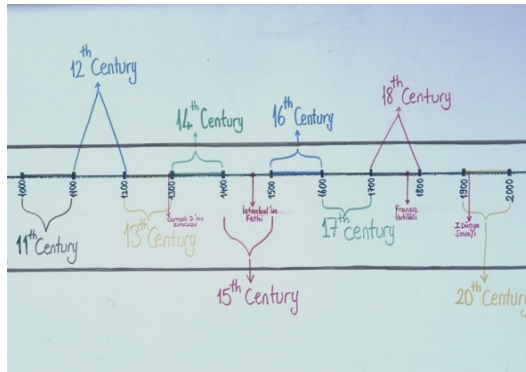
**Century:** A period of a hundred years. (*Oxford-Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2003*)

**Century:** Asır, yüzyıl. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As the definitions show, the meaning of the word “century” is used exactly in the same sense in both Turkish and English. A period of a hundred years makes a century. When a date has to be pointed, the century in which that date is can be stated by using an ordinal number before the word “century” to state in which order it is. For instance, İstanbul was conquered in 1453. So it can be said that it was conquered in the 15<sup>th</sup> century since the year 1453 is between the years 1400 and 1499. Also in another sense, the word “century” covers any one hundred years regardless of the start and end year. In this study, this word was aimed to be taught in its first sense mentioned above.

#### **4.2.2.1. Positive examples for “century”**

Figure 4.17 is used as a positive example which highlights a period of a hundred years by presenting several examples in a time line. The names of the centuries are also written by colorful crayons in order to appeal to the students. This is a well-known chart, which is frequently found in primary school classrooms. The students had already been familiar with this object by the time of the data collection. In the drawing, a time line between the years 1000 and 2000 is shown in chunks of periods of a hundred years. As well as centuries, between the beginning and the end of a century, there are divisions to show a period of a year. These divisions are roughly drawn since it is definitely very difficult to cram a hundred divisions into a very narrow period of line. However, in order to ask about the centuries, some important historical events such as the foundation of Ottoman Empire, the conquest of İstanbul, French Revolution, and the beginning of World War I pointed approximately in the year they occurred. These events were not referred to verbally for the reason that the unknown words may confuse the learners. Only the years of these events were shown. For instance, the year “1453” was read and the century in which it takes place was told such as “This is the 15<sup>th</sup> century”.



**Figure 4.17. The first positive example for “century”**

#### 4.2.2.2. Negative examples for “century”

As it was expressed before, one picture drawing was exploited as both a positive and a negative example for the word “century”.

In order to present a negative example for the word “century”, a very short time period, which is a year, was shown to the students in contrast to a century in the same picture drawing and two periods of time were compared by asking a question such as “Is this a year?” or “Is this a century?”

#### 4.2.2.3. Results for “century” on post-tests

The results of the two tests which were delivered to the students after the presentation of the words can be seen below on Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6. Test results for “century”**

	Matching Test	Translation Test
<b>Correct Responses</b>	33	26
<b>Percentages</b>	97 %	76,4 %

\*Number of students: 34

As it can be seen from the table, the results of both tests were very satisfactory, that is the percentages that were achieved were about 97 % for the matching test while it was found to be 76,4 % for the translation test.

In the matching test, only one student out of 34 could not find the correct picture that matches the word “century”.

In the results of the translation test, there were 25 correct responses for which the students wrote either “yüzyıl” or “asır”. However, one more response, “11. yy” (11<sup>th</sup> century) was treated as correct since it reflected that the student comprehended the meaning of the target word. So, the number of the correct responses increased to 26 which equals 76,4 % of success. The number of the wrong responses was 9 out of 34. Three of the responses were “yıl” (year) which was shown as negative example. Another student had written “tarih” by focusing on the important dates displayed on the time line. Other four students had written some phrases such as “yüzün üstündeki rakam” (the number above hundred), “arasında kaç yıl var?” (how many years between?), “yüzyılın takvimi” (calender of the century), and “100. yıla geri dönme” (back to 100<sup>th</sup> year) which looked rather unrelated with the word “century”. These students seem to focus on numbers which can be defined as one item of the presentation. They were not able to comprehend the whole verbal explanation obviously.

As a result, the success rates for all the tests were above the cut-point which has been set at 70 %. The results for the matching test were more than satisfactory. However, the results for the translation test could have been higher if the students had not focused on the wrong items of the picture drawing and had recognized the whole verbal explanation.

#### **4.2.3. Idea**

Two picture drawings were exploited in order to teach the word “idea”. These were all positive examples.

**Idea:** A plan, suggestion, or possible course of action. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Idea:** A plan or suggestion for a possible course of action, especially one that you think of suddenly. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Idea:** Düşünce, fikir. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

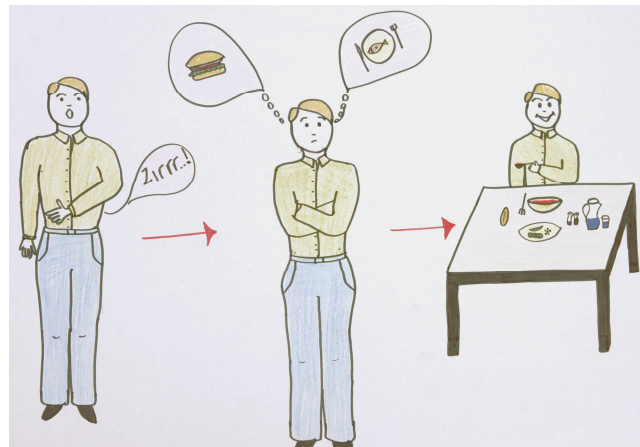


As it can be extracted from the definitions above, the word “idea” refers to a plan or a thought which is made in mind. It is something which can be known or explained if it is spoken or acted. Moreover, it refers to one of the things that you can do in a particular situation. One certain idea about something can be changed, or people may have no idea about something else. These appear to be the most important features of the word “idea”.

#### 4.2.3.1. Positive examples for “idea”

In order to teach the word “idea”, two picture drawings were used as positive examples.

Figure 4.18 below displays the first positive example in which a man has two ideas for his meal. In the first part, he feels so hungry that his stomach sounds strange. In order to help the students understand that he is very hungry, a speech bubble in which it is written “zırrr” (the sound which a bell makes) is added having been inspired from the idiom “karnı zil çalmak” (*to have one’s stomach sounding zırr or ringing bell*) in Turkish. In the next part, he is thinking of two options to eat, namely a hamburger or fish. In teaching part, it was told that the man has two ideas; one of them being to have a hamburger and the other to eat fish. Eventually he makes his mind up and has soup. It is emphasized that he changes his idea in the last part of the picture drawing. It should be noted that this drawing actually provided three examples for the word in one picture.



**Figure 4.18. The first positive example for “idea”**

The second positive example is shown in Figure 4.19 below. In this picture drawing, two different students are seen in completely different situations. It was stated that they are both in the exam and their exam papers are pointed at. By pointing to the first student who is having trouble in answering the exam questions, it was told “He has no idea”. Then, he was compared to the second student who has got plenty of ideas so that he was able to write a lot of things on his paper. In order to show the lack of ideas for the first student, question marks were drawn around his head. On the contrary, a light bulb was drawn above the second student’s head to mean that he has many ideas. These small details really worked well to distinguish between the two students. Besides, their facial expressions increase the recognition of the word “idea”. The first student having no idea looks worried whereas the other student with many ideas looks fine smiling.



**Figure 4.19** The second positive example for “idea”

#### **4.2.3.2. Negative examples for “idea”**

For the word “idea”, no negative example was prepared since there is no opposite conception that means completely different from the word “idea”. The words “thought” and “opinion” are very similar terms but they are not non-ideas. Therefore, they couldn’t be used as negative examples as it may have been confusing for the students.

#### 4.2.3.3. Results for “idea” on post-tests

The table 4.7 below contains the test results for the word “idea”. It can easily be seen from the table that the success rate achieved for the matching test is satisfactory while the results for the translation test were not as good as the matching.

**Table 4.7. Test results for “idea”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	31	23
<b>Percentages</b>	91,1 %	67,6 %

\*Number of students: 34

In the matching test, 31 students out of 34 students were successful in matching the word “idea” with the picture drawing. The percentage of the right answers to the wrong ones was found to be 91, 1 % which was far above the cut-point. The wrong matchings were probably the result of mixing up with the other words.

In the translation test, the responses of 11 students did not match the right equivalent in Turkish. For that reason, the percentage of this test which is 67, 6 % was found to be around the cut point. Among the wrong responses, eight of them were the verb form of the targeted word. These students who wrongly thought the equivalent of the word “idea” as “düşünmek” (to think) had focused on the action rather than the outcome of the thinking. Even though the word “to think” is very close to the word “idea” in meaning, it was not considered to be true since they belong to different parts of speech. Besides this, the main focus of this study is to teach nouns, not verbs. Other three wrong responses were all related phrases in terms of meaning. They had focused on only one aspect of them. As a result, the translations included the phrases such as “fikir yaratmak” (to create an idea), “karar verememek ve düşünmek” (to be unable to decide and to think), and “karar vermek” (to decide) all of which can be seen among the actions drawn on the picture drawing. They seem to focus on either one or the other of the pictures. “Fikir yaratmak” (create an idea) seems to relate to the second picture while the other two to the first picture. It can easily be stated that they weren’t able to see what is common in the two picture drawings.

Consequently, the results of the matching test were better than the translation test. Although it was rather difficult for them to translate such an abstract word, their responses were very close to “health” in meaning. Also high percentage for the translation test suggests that the drawings were effective in developing their receptive knowledge for the word “health”.

#### **4.2.4. Voice**

The word “voice” was presented by four positive examples. No negative example was prepared in order to teach the word “voice”.

It will be helpful to have a look at the various definitions of the word “voice” in order to understand the basic semantic features of it:

**Voice:** When someone speaks, you hear their voice. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Voice:** The sound or sounds produced through the mouth by a person speaking or singing. (*Oxford, Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2000*)

**Voice:** Ses. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As the definitions have stated above, when people talk to each other, they communicate by producing speech which is presented by means of voice. It is usually the distinguishing feature of people since they can recognize each other by their voice. An important feature of voice is that it is sound made by humans. In that sense, it is more restricted than the word ‘sound’. Besides this, voice can be described as being low or loud, and good or bad. At this point, it is important to note that the students at this level had not learnt the adjectives “low” and “loud” by the time the word “voice” was presented. Since they were crucial in understanding of the word “voice”, the researcher pre-taught these adjectives.

#### 4.2.4.1. Positive examples for “voice”

Four positive examples helped the students get the meaning of the word “voice”.

The first picture drawing which can be seen in Table 4.20 below shows the first positive example in which there is a woman singing next to another woman who is telling her to turn down her voice or stop singing. The singing woman’s speech is presented with exclamations at the end of the lines in a speech bubble to indicate that she has been singing very badly. The woman who is warning her is especially drawn as if she is ordering her to stop it by means of body language. While presenting this picture drawing, the students were told “The singing woman’s voice is very bad.” or in other words, “She has a bad voice”.



**Figure 4.20. The first positive example for “voice”**

The next positive example below, which is Figure 4.21, shows a singer and another person. One of them is singing which can obviously be seen from her movements and the speech bubble in which a very small piece of the lyrics of a well-known song by the students are written. The other person was drawn as if she is applauding her. With this picture drawing the students were told “She has a good voice.” and “Her voice is very good”.



**Figure 4.21. The second positive example for “voice”**

By the first two positive examples the students were presented the word “voice” together with the adjectives “good” and “bad”, both of which have been frequently used by the students.

The third picture drawing was again exploited as another positive example shown in Figure 4.22. It consists of two people again, one of which is a loudly speaking visitor and the other being a person who is pointing to the warning on the wall in which a nurse is making a sign indicating “Be quiet!”. The warning sign implies the environment as being a hospital. The exclamations within the speech bubble in which the words of the visitor are written also give the idea that she has got a loud voice while talking.



**Figure 4.22. The third positive example for “voice”**

The last positive example which is seen in Table 4.23 below exhibits two people talking to each other. One of them talks in a so low voice that the other person has difficulty understanding him. This was indicated by writing “Pardon? What?” in his speech bubble which was found to be the simplest way of helping the students understand that his voice was low which was orally repeated, too.



**Figure 4.23. The fourth positive example for “voice”**

By the last two positive examples, the students were presented the word “voice” with the adjectives “low” and “loud”, all of which were essential to present it to a group of students at such a proficiency level. It is necessary to note here that the last two examples should avoid the misinterpretation of the word as referring to ‘singing voice’ only since they both relate to speech.

#### **4.2.4.2. Negative examples for “voice”**

No negative example was prepared in the presentation of the word “voice”. The word “sound” could have been presented, but this would confuse the subjects instead of supporting the understanding since the word “voice” (ses) is used for both humans and animals in the same sense in their mother tongue

#### **4.2.4.3. Results for “voice” on post-tests**

The results of the matching and the translation test for the word “voice” can be seen in Table 4.8 below. As it can easily be understood from the table, the success rate achieved for the matching test is more than satisfactory by reaching the highest average,

which is 100 % and it was found to be far above the cut-point for the translation test by reaching 85,2 %.

**Table 4.8. Test results for “voice”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	34	29
<b>Percentages</b>	100 %	85,2 %

\*Number of students: 34

In the matching test, all the students involved in the data collection process were able to match the word “voice” with the correct picture drawing. This appears to be the natural result of using four positive examples with very effective adjectives, namely, low, loud, good, and bad, preceding the target word, which totally helped the students recall it with ease.

The results for the translation test also came up with success with 29 correct responses out of 34 students. Among the responses which were treated as incorrect, there were four different translations resulting from focusing on only one positive example, and thus not generating an overall meaning for the target word “voice”. For instance, the phrases “yüksek sesle konuşmak” (to speak loudly), “yüksek sesle şarkı söylemek” (to sing loudly), and “yüksek ses” (loud voice) written by three students were not right equivalents since these students unsatisfactorily translated one aspect of the positive examples. Another response was “bağırarak” (to shout) which did not match either the meaning or the part of speech of the word “voice”. Also there was one blank paper which raised the number of wrong responses to 5.

Consequently, it can be concluded that the results on post-tests for both the translation and the matching test seem to be very satisfactory with one of them reaching 100 % and the other, 85 %. It can be suggested that the four picture drawings as the positive examples were quite effective in presenting the word “voice”. Also the use of the verbal explanation was undoubtedly complementary to the successful comprehension.



### 4.3. Session 3

In this session, the words “term, subject, result, side, life” are discussed in terms of their positive and negative examples and the results they suggested.

#### 4.3.1. Term

The word “term” was presented with two picture drawings. These contained a positive example and one more example which was exploited both as a positive and a negative example.

The definition of the word “term” is given below by various dictionaries:

**Term:** One of the periods of time that each year is divided into at a school or college. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Term:** One of the three periods of time that the school or university year is divided into. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Term:** Sömestr, dönem. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

As the definitions show, the word “term” refers to a period of time. A year may consist of two or more terms. In Britain, there are three terms; fall, winter, spring. However, in Turkey where the present is done, there are two; fall and spring term in a school time. Beginning and end of a term are announced officially since they change every year.

At this point it should be noted that the terms were rather named as 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> term since the students were not familiar with the words “fall” and “spring” in the presentation of this word.

##### 4.3.1.1. Positive examples for “term”

As it was stated above, two picture drawings were prepared in order to teach the word “term”.

In the first positive example which can be shown in Figure 4.24, the students were presented with a school report in which there were marks for subjects for the two

terms. Drawing attention to the two columns separately and saying that those are for 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> term, the word “term” was given to the students.

Adı ve Soyadı : Eray Özlük		Okulu : Fırat Sanayi İşletmen Okulu	
Okul Numarası : 395		Sınıfı : 6-D	
Ders Yılı : 2004-2005		İli/İkinci : Bursa/Ormanlı	
DERSLER	1. DÖNEM	BASARI DURUMU	
	TÜRKÇE	5	5
	MATEMATİK	4	5
	SOSYAL BİLİMLER	4	4
	FEN BİLİMLERİ	5	5
	İNGİLİZCE	4	4
	İNŞA VE ANLAŞIL	2	5
	İŞ TEKNİK	2	5
	RESİM	4	4
	MÜZİK	4	5
	BEDEN EĞİTİMİ	2	5
	TOPLAM		
1. DÖNEM		2. DÖNEM	
Ortalama		Ortalama	
5,5		5,5	
SINIF DEĞERLEMLERİNİN GÖRÜLECEKİ			
I. DÖNEM		II. DÖNEM	
Başarılarının devam ettirilm.		Başarılarının devam ettirilm.	
Pınar Çelik (Öz)		Pınar Çelik (Öz)	
Adı - SOYADI - İMZA		Adı - SOYADI - İMZA	
İMZA		İMZA	
Okul Müdürü		Okul Müdürü	
Müdür Yardımcısı		Müdür Yardımcısı	
Eğitmeni		Eğitmeni	

Figure 4.24. The first positive example for “term”

The second positive example in Figure 4.25 below displays a calendar in which the beginning and the end of terms and the period which the semester holiday takes can be seen in highlighted forms. Moreover, these dates were well known by the students since they were about to finish the first term at the time of data collection. The word “term” was presented by drawing attention to these dates and saying “This is the first term.” or “This is the second term”. It was not possible to make statements such as “The first term starts/finishes on ...” since the students had not learned the Present Simple Tense by the time they dealt with these target words.

2004 - 2005 CALENDAR

<b>JANUARY</b>	<b>FEBRUARY</b>	<b>MARCH</b>
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31
<b>APRIL</b>	<b>MAY</b>	<b>JUNE</b>
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
<b>JULY</b>	<b>AUGUST</b>	<b>SEPTEMBER</b>
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
<b>OCTOBER</b>	<b>NOVEMBER</b>	<b>DECEMBER</b>
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31

Figure 4.25. The second positive example for “term”

#### 4.3.1.2. Negative examples for “term”

One of the two picture drawings prepared for the word “term” as positive example in Figure 4.25 was used both as a positive and a negative example. This picture drawing itself is a calendar showing the months from January to December. While the terms for school were pointed out on this picture drawing, a few months which the students had known were presented as being “not a term” and the comprehension was checked by showing any month and asking if it was a term. Also the semester holiday was introduced as being “not a term”.

#### 4.3.1.3. Results for “term” on post-tests

The results of the matching and the translation test are presented in Table 4.9 below. As it can be seen from the table, the success rate (65,7 %) which was achieved for the translation test came up with a percentage below the cut point while it was found to be as 85.7 % for the matching test.

**Table 4.9. Test results for “term”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	30	23
<b>Percentages</b>	85,7 %	65,7 %

\*Number of students: 35

In the matching test, five students out of 35 were able to match the correct picture with the word “term”. Although the other five failed to do the matching correctly, the best results were observed in this test.

In the translation test, twelve students out of 35 couldn't find the right equivalent for the word “term”. Among the wrong responses, three students wrote “not” (mark) and two of them “tatil” (holiday). This looks like as interference from the negative example in which the semester holiday was identified as “not a term”. The other responses which were accepted as unsatisfactory were “Aralık” (December), “konu” (subject), “bitiş” (end), “önemli notlar” (important marks), “bir kelimenin başı ve sonu” (the beginning and the end of a word) and “ilk ,son” (first, last). One student also

abandoned translating the word “term”. All these translations were treated as incorrect since none of them refers to the concept which was aimed to be extracted from the picture drawings. They were rather language items that were used during the presentation.

Consequently, the results for the matching test are more successful by reaching 85,7 %. However, it unfortunately does not account as well for the translation test for which the success rate is found to be as 65,7 %. It can be concluded that some details in negative examples might have distracted the subjects instead of using them generating the meaning.

#### **4.3.2. Subject**

In the presentation of the word “subject”, four picture drawings which were all prepared as positive examples were exploited.

In the next part below, there presented four different definitions of the word “subject” in order to understand what the target word refers to:

**Subject:** The subject of a conversation, letter, or book is the thing , person, or ideas that is being discussed or written about. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary,1994*)

**Subject:** The thing you are talking about or considering in a conversation, discussion, book, film etc. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Subject:** Konu (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

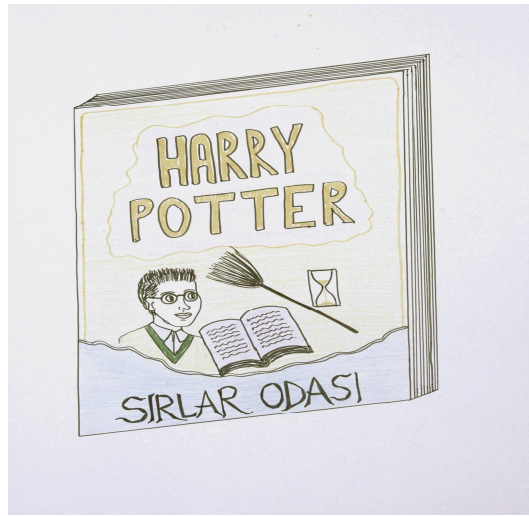
As the definitions have stated, a conversation, book, or letter have a subject to be discussed about. A subject can be anything which is available for people to think, discuss, or write ideas about.

##### **4.3.2.1. Positive examples for “subject”**

Four positive examples were the means to teach the word “subject”.

The first positive example which is displayed in Figure 4.26 below shows a story book from its front cover. The story book, “Harry Potter” was carefully decided to be drawn in the picture drawing for the reason that the students at this age are very much

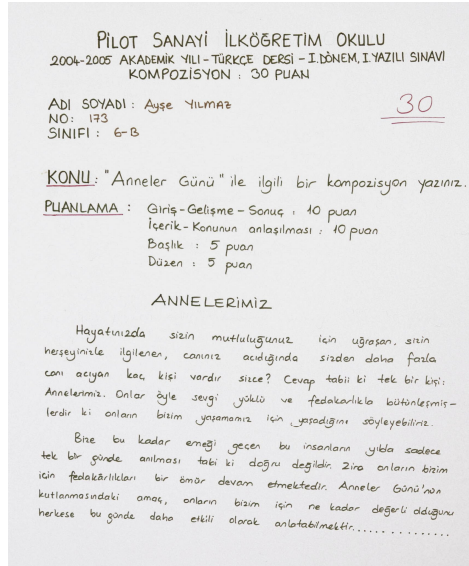
interested in such kinds of story books which are related to magic or spiritual subjects. Almost all the students appeared to know the word “magic” surprisingly. The title of the book could also easily be seen by the students in the presentation. Furthermore, the illustrations helped the students recognize the book. In the presentation of the word “subject”, the students were only told that the subject of the book was magic, which at all seemed simple, yet was a really effective statement to give the meaning of the target word.



**Figure 4.26. The first positive example for “subject”**

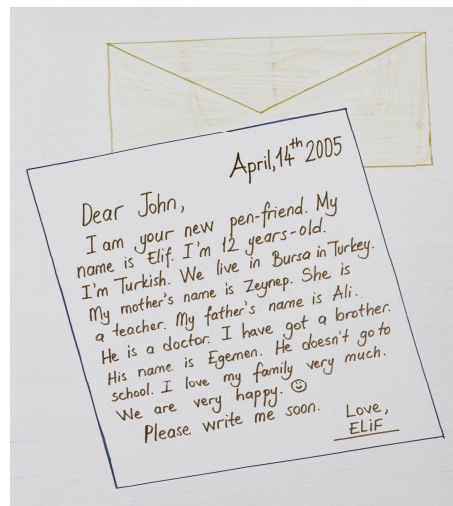
The second positive example can be seen in Figure 4.27 below. In this picture drawing, the students were shown an exam paper in which there was an essay written by a student and checked by the teacher. The subject of the essay was given above the essay on the exam paper. The word “subject” was presented by introducing the exam paper and drawing attention to the essay. It should be noted here that the word “composition” was preferred to the word “essay” since it was not known by the students. The former is both very similar to the Turkish equivalent and thus is used commonly. Moreover, the subject of the essay had been decided to be a simple one since the students were presented by using it. The subject “Mothers” was one of those which the students could easily recognize as a word and easily write about. Therefore, the students had no difficulty understanding. In the presentation, the essay question was

read and introduced as the subject. The title was not pointed at in case it might cause their misinterpretation of “subject” as meaning “title”.



**Figure 4.27. The second positive example for “subject”**

The third positive example displayed in Figure 4.28 shows a letter written by a Turkish student, Elif to a penfriend called John. This picture drawing was simply introduced by asking a “What is it?” question to the students. After they had named the object as “letter”, they were told that the subject of the letter was “Elif and her family”.



**Figure 4.28. The third positive example for “subject”**

The last positive example is presented in Figure 4.29. The picture drawing shows a TV programme presenter with his guest. The name of the TV programme, “Siyaset Meydanı”, can also be seen at the background. The students were familiar with this programme beforehand, and the name of the programme, itself was a big clue while introducing the subject. Again the word “politics” helped the students understand the subject quickly since the Turkish equivalent of the word (politika) is very similar. The students were told: “The subject of the programme is politics”.



**Figure 4.29. The fourth positive example for “subject”**

#### **4.3.2.2. Negative examples for “subject”**

In the presentation of the word “subject”, no picture drawing as a negative example was used since it would otherwise be distracting for the students. All four positive examples had the vital basic features of the word “subject”. No other negative example was considered to be necessary.

#### **4.3.2.3. Results for “subject” on post-tests**

The results for the word “subject” are given in Table 4.10. As it is seen on the table, 26 students out of 35 were able to guess the right equivalent for the translation test, while the correct matches for the matching test were 34 out of 35.

**Table 4.10. Test results for “subject”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	34	26
<b>Percentages</b>	97,1 %	74,2 %

\*Number of students: 35

In the matching test, almost all the students were able to find the matching word for the picture drawing shown on the test. One student didn't succeed as he matched the word with another picture drawing.

In the translation test, nine students out of 35 failed to come up with the correct equivalent of the word “subject” as “konu”. The inadequate responses were all associated with the items on the picture drawings. For instance, the words or phrases such as “sihir kitabı” (magic book), “oda” (room), “macera” (adventure), and “okuma” (reading) were among them. It can be said that all these reflect the 1<sup>st</sup> positive example in which a novel called “Harry Potter” was presented. The students had known about the subject of the story book. However, they wrote about the subject of the story rather than writing what the subject means. It is clear that they were unable to see all the details together with the help of verbal explanation and find the right equivalent. Other two students had written “içerik” (content) which can be considered close to the target word, yet unsatisfactory. Another student thought that the correct translation would be “başlık” (title) by only focusing on the cover of the story book, or the title of the essay even if was not pointed at deliberately. One more student also had written “tartışma” (discussion) due to the fact that the 4<sup>th</sup> positive example showed a programme in which people have discussions about things. The last wrong response was “bir şeyin amacı” (the aim of something) which at all doesn't seem to be related with any other positive example.

To summarize, the word “subject” was taught and checked with both tests which had successful results. These were quite satisfactory as they were both above the cut-point decided. Although the target word was not a concrete one, it was taught with drawings effectively.



### 4.3.3. Result

The word “result” was presented with five picture drawings, all of which were exploited as positive examples.

Before explaining about the tests applied, it will be better to have a look at the definition of the word “result” in order to learn about the most important features. The three monolingual dictionaries referred to below give several definitions of the word which are relevant to the meaning taught here.

**Result: 1.** The final number of points, votes etc. at the end of a competition, game, or election. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**2.** The mark you get in an examination. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Result:** The final score or the name of the winner in a sports event, competition, election, etc. (*Oxford, Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2003*)

**Result: 1.** The final situation that exists at the end of a context. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**2.** The number that you get when you do a calculation. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**3.** Your results are the marks or grades that you get for examinations you have taken. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Result:** Sonuç, netice, çözüm. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

The word “result” can be defined in two ways. First, it has the same meaning with the word “consequence” which means “something that happens or exists because of something that happened before.” However this definition was not aimed to be taught in this study. The definitions above frame the concern of this study. As it can be extracted from both the definitions above and the picture drawings used, the other meaning of the word “result” has a numerical feature. All of the positive examples account for the numerical meaning of the word as mathematical operations, exam grades, or match scores do in the picture drawings. Therefore, several definitions, all of which are related to numerical results, are written above.

#### 4.3.3.1. Positive examples for “result”

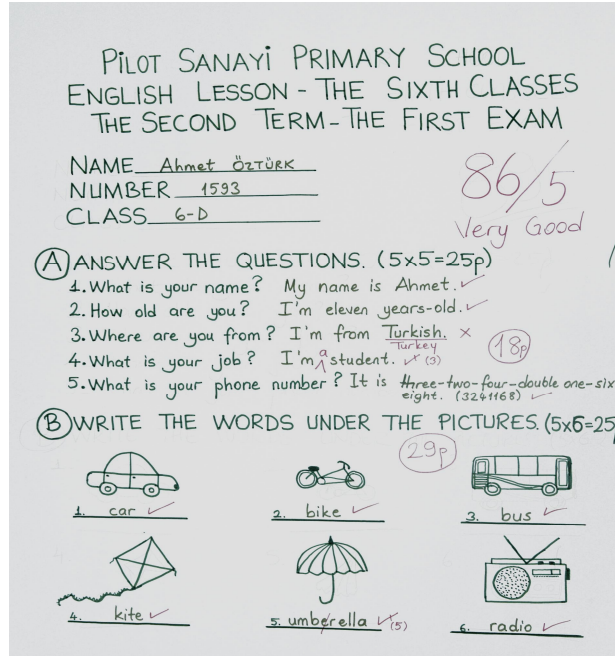
In order to teach the word “result”, five picture drawings were exploited as the positive examples.

The first positive example is exhibited in Figure 4.30. Here, there are four mathematical operations, three of which are not solved. While presenting this picture drawing, the operation which has the result was drawn attention to and explained. By showing the number, the results for other operations were demanded from the students.

$\begin{array}{r} + 2 \\ + 2 \\ \hline 4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 5 \\ - 2 \\ \hline ? \end{array}$
$\begin{array}{r} 3 \\ \times 3 \\ \hline ? \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 8 \mid 2 \\ - \quad \mid \\ \hline ? \end{array}$

**Figure 4.30. The first positive example for “result”**

The Figure 4.31 below shows an exam paper on which there is the result of the exam. This is written in red in order to help the students recognize it. First of all, the students were told that it was an exam paper. Then, it was told that the result, which was 86/5, was quite good.



**Figure 4.31. The second positive example for “result”**

Another picture drawing, the Figure 4.32, shows the league standings in super League. It could easily be seen that Fenerbahçe will be the champion due to the fact that it has the most points in the league. The word “result” was presented by showing the points and naming them as “results”. Here, it should also be noted that the statements were intentionally preferred to be simple.

TÜRKİYE 1. SÜPER LİGİ  
PUAN DURUMU

TAKIMLAR	Averaj	Puan
1. Fenerbahçe	66	68
2. Galatasaray	55	64
3. Trabzonspor	55	62
4. Beşiktaş	55	52
5. Denizlispor	37	43
6. Ç. Rizespor	31	41
7. Konyaspor	50	38
8. Malatyaspor	35	38
9. Gaziantep	38	37
10. Gençlerbirliği	34	34
11. Ankaraspor	40	34
12. Samsunspor	36	33
13. Diyarbakırspor	27	30
14. Ankaragücü	25	28
15. Sakaryaspor	40	25
16. Kayserispor	36	23
17. İstanbulspor	22	22
18. A. Sebatspor	30	14

**Figure 4.32. The third positive example for “result”**

The fourth picture drawing, which is Figure 4.33, presents some of the match results. In this picture drawing, the results were read simply by drawing attention to the figures next to the names of the football teams and the students were told that these were the match results.

MAÇ SONUÇLARI			
Galatasaray	4	3	Bursaspor
Fenerbahçe	2	2	Denizlispor
Beşiktaş	1	0	Konyaspor
Trabzonspor	3	2	Gaziantep
Sakaryaspor	0	0	Istanbulspor

**Figure 4.33. The fourth positive example for “result”**

The results of the Eurovision Song Contest are exhibited in Figure 4.34, which was exploited as the last positive example. The results were given in figures for each country. The students were able to see the word “result” as the title of the second column under which the points of the voting were presented.

EUROVISION SONG CONTEST	
COUNTRIES	RESULTS
1 TURKEY	119
2 GREECE	107
3 ENGLAND	104
4 RUSSIA	92
5 ROMANIA	87
6 ITALY	71
7 GERMANY	64
8 SWEDEN	60
9 LETONIA	55
10 UKRAINE	50
11 SPAIN	48
12 HOLLAND	43

**Figure 4.34. The fifth positive example for “result”**

#### 4.3.3.2. Negative examples for “result”

No negative example was prepared to teach the word “result” since they may distract the students’ understanding which was aimed to be provided with five positive examples.

#### 4.3.3.3. Results for “result” on post-tests

The results for the word “result” are presented in Table 4.11 below. The success rate for the matching test was found to be far above the cut-point. Even though it was not the same for the translation test, the percentage of correct responses was still above the cut-point.

**Table 4.11. Test results for “result”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	33	28
<b>Percentages</b>	94,2 %	80 %

\*Number of students: 35

In the matching test, two students out of thirty-five didn’t manage to match the correct picture with the word “result”.

In the translation test, the number of the incorrect responses was seven. Among them, there was one student who didn’t answer this word. Another student had written “rakamlar” (numbers) as a result of the misunderstanding that each picture drawing included some numerical results. Another student also thought the Turkish equivalent as “işlem” (i.e. operation) because one of the picture drawings exemplified mathematical operations, the results of which the students were asked to find. Other four students translated the word “result” as “notlar” (grades) for the reason that they might have only remembered the exam result which was presented in one of the picture drawings.

In conclusion, the results of both tests were quite satisfactory with percentages above the cut-point. The students seemed to make use of drawings effectively in order to understand what some vocabulary items referred to.

#### 4.3.4. Side

The word “side” was taught with four picture drawings, all of which were prepared as positive examples.

The definition of the word “side” is given below by several dictionaries. The two monolingual dictionaries referred to below give several definitions of the word which are relevant to the meaning taught here.

**Side: 1.** A position or an area to the left or right of something. (*Oxford, Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2003*)

**2.** One of the flat surfaces of something that is not the top or the bottom, front or back. (*Oxford, Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2003*)

**3.** A part of an area of something near the edge and away from the middle. (*Oxford, Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2003*)

**4.** A place or position very near to something/somebody. (*Oxford, Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2003*)

**Side: 1.** A position directly next to someone or something, on the right or the left. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**2.** A surface of something that is not its front, back, top, or bottom. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

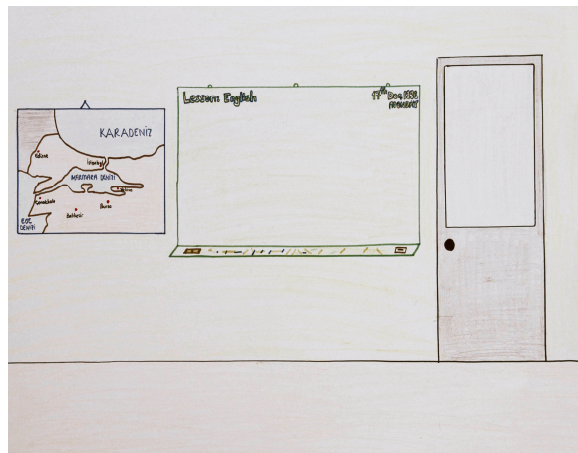
**Side:** Yan, taraf. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

As it can be understood from the definitions, the word “side” not only refers to right or left part of something, but also every other edge, front or back, top or bottom. This word is used to describe the position of other objects relative to a given object or entity. e.g. “The map is on the right side of the blackboard.” describes the position of the map relative to the blackboard. So the blackboard is the reference point whereby the location of the map is identified. This word implies, therefore, the existence of a reference point noun as well as other nouns.

#### 4.3.4.1. Positive examples for “side”

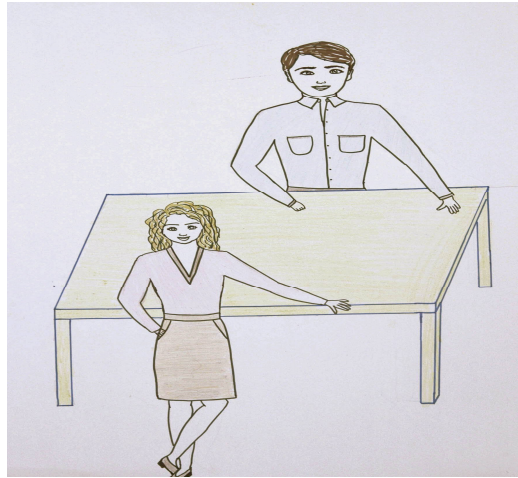
Four positive examples were drawn for the word “side”.

First of them shown in Figure 4.35 exhibits a classroom environment in which only one wall of the door can be seen. On the wall, a blackboard is hung between the door and the map. In the presentation of this word, the researcher pointed to the door and the map by using “side” in the form of “this/that side” by taking the board as the reference point. With this picture drawing, the phrases “right/left side” could have been presented. However, since it was the first picture drawing presented, this might have distracted the learners thinking that the word “side” refers to only right or left parts.



**Figure 4.35. The first positive example for “side”**

Another picture drawing which is displayed in Figure 4.36 below presents the second positive example. In this picture drawing, a man and a woman by the side of a table can be seen. While introducing the picture drawing, it was told to the students that the man was at the back side and that the woman was in the front side of the table. Actually, the woman and the man were named as Jennifer and Jack for the reason that this sounded more intimate. By so doing, the word “side” was presented within the phrases “front/back side”.



**Figure 4.36. The second positive example for “side”**

The third picture drawing was also prepared as a positive example, which is displayed in Figure 4.37. This picture drawing helped the students learn the word “side” with the adjective “left” only since the small child is on the left side of the man. Again in this example, the individuals were named with the most common English names known by the students. The verbal explanation was “Michael is on the left side of George”.



**Figure 4.37. The third positive example for “side”**

The last picture drawing presented a simple plan of a park as it can be seen in Figure 4.38. The lake was centered among the other places such as the car park, the forest, the Luna Park, and the zoo, all of which are by the side of the lake. In this picture



drawing, the word “side” was introduced by saying “The zoo is at this/that side” and pointing to mentioned direction. In fact, this picture contained several positive examples of side, not just one.



**Figure 4.38. The fourth positive example for “side”**

#### 4.3.4.2. Negative examples for “side”

For the word “side”, negative examples were not used in the presentation. The word “side” was rather challenging for the group due to being abstract. Therefore, the use of the negative examples could have been distracting.

#### 4.3.4.3. Results for “side” on post-tests

The results for the word “side” are summarized in Table 4.13 below. The success rate for the matching test is 85,7 % which is above the cut point. However, it was found to be 48,5 % for the translation test which is far below the cut-point.

**Table 4.13. Test results for “side”**

	Matching Test	Translation Test
<b>Correct Responses</b>	30	17
<b>Percentages</b>	85,7 %	48,5 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, 30 students out of 35 were able to match the word “side” with its picture drawing. Five of them failed to do the right matching due to the lack of recognition among the all words.

In the translation test, 17 students were able to write the Turkish equivalent as “yan” or “taraf” for the word “side”. The wrong responses were all connected with the content of the picture drawings. For instance, a student had written “sağında/solunda” (on the right/left) by focusing on the first positive example in which there was a map on the left side and a door on the right side of the board. Another student had translated it as “eşya” (goods). “Sihir” (magic) was one of the wrong responses, too. Other unsatisfactory responses were “ders” (lesson), which was probably because of the 1<sup>st</sup> picture drawing and “yaşam” (life), which was the possible confusion with the word “life” taught in the same session. “Puan” (point) and “ortalama” (average) were two different wrong responses which were related to the content of the drawing prepared for the word “result” in the same session. All of these wrong responses were related with other picture drawings that were drawn to teach the other language items in the same session. Three students had thought it as “yön” (direction), which was a semantically related word. Moreover, there were eight unanswered papers. Totally, there were 18 students who didn’t manage to translate correctly. However, the translation “yanda” (by the side) was treated as correct, as well as the right equivalents “yan” or “taraf” for the word “side”.

In conclusion, the word “side” was matched with the correct picture drawing for the matching test. The results for the translation test were not as high as the former. It can be suggested that the students developed receptive knowledge so that they could do the matching mostly, but that was not valid for the development of productive knowledge since they had difficulty translating it.

#### **4.3.5. Life**

In the presentation of the word “life”, four picture drawings, all of which were used as positive examples were presented.

In the next part below, there presented several definitions of the word “life” in order to understand what the meaning of the target word is.

**Life:** The period between somebody’s birth and their death, a part of this period. (*Oxford University Press, 2000*)

**Life:** The period of time when someone is alive. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Life:** The events and experiences that happen to people, either generally or in a particular place. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Life:** Yaşam, hayat. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

As the definitions have stated, the word “life” refers to both a period of time in which people are alive and the events and experiences in this period of time. In this study, the researcher aims to use both meanings in the presentation of the picture drawings. Therefore, it can be stated that these two different definitions which have been given above helped the students form a general understanding of the target word.

#### **4.3.5.1. Positive examples for “life”**

Four positive examples were exploited in the presentation of the word “life”.

The first positive example which can be seen in Figure 4.39 below shows a person who was named Mr Brown which was a commonly known English name. The man was drawn in the middle of the drawing and the photographs that illustrate the important parts of his life such as childhood, university life, and wedding and his belongings like his family and company are displayed around him. Due to the fact that the students were at beginner level, the statements were kept quite simple. Therefore, the presentation was done by just showing the photographs and saying; “This is Mr Brown. He is a baby in the first photograph. He is a student in the second photograph. In the third one, he finishes the university. This is his wedding in the fourth photograph, and this is his family, his wife and two children in the fifth photograph. Look at the photographs again. This is not my life, it is Mr Brown’s life”.



**Figure 4.39. The first positive example for “life”**

The next positive example which is below in Figure 4.40 exhibits a famous pop star who lives in both America and Turkey. The pop star, Tarkan was especially chosen since almost all the children knew about his life and admire him. For this reason, the maps of both countries were drawn on the sides of his drawing. By showing this picture drawing, the names of the countries which had been drawn were elicited. Afterwards, it was told that his life was sometimes in Turkey and sometimes in America.



**Figure 4.40. The second positive example for “life”**

Before explaining about the third and fourth picture drawing, it has to be noted that the students were pre-thought the phrases “ at the beginning/end of something” in their mother tongue for the reason that these phrases were crucial in the presentation of the next two picture drawings.

The third positive example in Figure 4.41 presents a baby which cannot walk by herself and cannot speak. The students were told that the baby was too young and that she was at the beginning of her life.



**Figure 4.41. The third positive example for “life”**

Figure 4.42 displays a very old man with a stick in his hand. He looks in his eighties with wrinkles on his face, grey hair, and eye-glasses. It was told that he was too old and that he was at the end of his life and that his life was very long so far.



**Figure 4.42. The fourth positive example for “life”**

#### 4.3.5.2. Negative examples for “life”

No negative example was prepared to teach the word “life” since there is no exact example which can be defined as “not life” in terms of the target meaning of the word “life” here.

#### 4.3.5.3. Results for “life” on post-tests

The table 4.14 below gives a summary of the results for the matching and the translation tests for the word “life”. As you can see on the table, the success rate for the matching test was above the cut-point while the percentage for the translation test was found to be below it.

**Table 4.14. Test results for “life”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	29	23
<b>Percentages</b>	82,8 %	65,7 %

\*Number of students: 35

In the matching test, six students failed to match the right picture drawing with the word “life”. These unsuccessful matchings were the result of the mixing up with other words in the same session.

The second test delivered was the translation in which the responses from twelve students were found to be unsatisfactory. Among them, there were five unanswered papers. A student had written “birisine birşey ait olma” (someone’s owning something) and another “bir kişinin yaşadığı yer” (the place where someone lives) by just focusing on a few, but not all of the photographs drawn in Figure 4.40. “Durum” (condition) was another student’s response which was treated as unsatisfactory because the student must have thought the periods or times of life as conditions. One of the students had thought the right equivalent would be “resim” (photograph) since they were presented the word “life” with several photographs. One of the wrong translations was “yer” (place) which was probably elicited because the photographs showed the different places, such as school, university, or home. Two students had incorrectly translated the target word as

“yaşamak” (to live) which is a verb form. However, the aim of this study is to teach nouns. For this reason, these were not counted as right. Whereas the translation “yaşamın dönemleri” (periods of life) was considered as correct since it involved the target word “life” and periods of life form the life itself.

To sum up, the word “life” was matched correctly by 29 students out of 35, which came up with the percentage 82,8 %. This suggests that some of the subjects were able to develop the receptive knowledge, but failed to change it into the productive knowledge with correct translations.

#### **4.4. Session 4**

In this session, the material for the words “health, body, hour, ground, and road” are described with their positive and negative examples. Then the results of the tests which were given to the students follow the presentation of the words.

##### **4.4.1. Health**

The word “health” was presented with five picture drawings, all of which were drawn as the positive examples.

Before describing about them, the definition of the word “health” will be given by several different dictionaries:

**Health:** Your health is the condition of your body. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Health:** Health is a state in which you are fit and well and not ill. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Health:** The general condition of your body and how healthy you are. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Health:** Sağlık, sıhhat. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

As the definitions have stated above, two different meanings of the word “health” slightly differ in meaning and usage. For instance, the word “health” refers to a general state of body in one meaning while it refers to a state in which a person is not ill

in the other. In this study, it was taught in its more general sense as the drawings below include both healthy and unhealthy people.

#### **4.4.1.1. Positive examples for “health”**

The first positive example which can be seen in Figure 4.43 demonstrates a girl drinking milk from a bottle. As it is known for everyone, drinking milk is very healthy. It should be added here that the word “healthy” was never pronounced in the presentation since the target word is the noun form of it and it might have distract the students from guessing it correctly. Therefore, the word “health” was presented by saying, “Milk is good for your health.”



**Figure 4.43. The first positive example for “health”**

The next positive example in Figure 4.44 shows a man who is drinking alcohol and smoking cigarette. By presenting this picture drawing immediately after the first item, the relation of opposition was aimed to be built between the phrases “to be good or bad for health”. So, the presentation of this picture drawing was done by saying “Alcohol is bad for your health. Cigarette is bad for your health, too.” During the presentation, the students’ attention was directed to the stuff on the table.





**Figure 4.44. The second positive example for “health”**

Another positive example which is shown in Figure 4.45 displays a sportsman running in a sports field. He is wearing tracksuit, trainers, and a cap. Since the students were familiar with the structures used in the presentation, they were told that he was running and that this was good for his health. Moreover, it was added that he was a sportsman and that therefore, his health was very good.



**Figure 4.45. The third positive example for “health”**

The fourth picture drawing exploited in the presentation can be seen in Figure 4.46 below. It shows two friends eating chips and popcorn and drinking coke. Besides these, they were drawn as if they had been watching TV for hours. All these features of the drawing were identified as being bad for one’s health. For instance it was said: “Chips or coke is very bad for your health”.



**Figure 4.46. The fourth positive example for “health”**

The last positive example is presented in Figure 4.47 below. The picture drawing displays a sick man who looks bad because of this. He holds a temperature in his mouth and a water bag on his head in order to get rid of his pain. In the presentation of this picture drawing, the students were told that his health was not good by pointing at the water bag and temperature. The name of these objects was not told since they did not know them.



**Figure 4.47. The fifth positive example for “health”**

#### 4.4.1.2. Negative examples for “health”

For the word “health”, no negative example was prepared since there is no opposite concept that means completely opposite from the word “health”.

#### 4.4.1.3. Results for “health” on post-tests

The results for the word “health” are summarized in Table 4.15. As it is clear from the table, the percentage for the translation test was far below the cut-point, whereas it was found to be much more higher for the matching test.

**Table 4.15. Test results for “health”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	28	10
<b>Percentages</b>	93,3 %	33,3 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, two students out of thirty were unsuccessful in matching the the word with the correct picture drawing.

However, the percentage for the translation test was not as high as the matching. Twenty students out of thirty couldn't find the right equivalent which is “sağlık” or “sıhhat” for the word “health”. For instance, twelve of them rather wrote it as “sağlıklı” which is the adjective form of the target word. This form was not treated as correct since this study concerns nouns as part of speech. Nevertheless, this shows that they understood the meaning from the pictures as the two words are semantically very close, and what we intend to do in this study is somehow achieved since it aims to present the meaning of words. So these answers are not totally incorrect. If these adjective forms were accepted as correct, the percentage would be 73,3 % which is above the cut-point. Other unsatisfactory responses include “beden” and “vücut” which are the right equivalents for the word “body” in the same session. “Koşmak” (running) and “koşucu” (runner) are two separate answers which are related to the third positive example only. One of the students had written “hasta” (sick/a sick person) by focusing on the last positive example which shows a sick man. Those students whose responses were only

related to one of the drawings seem to fail in generalization of all the drawings. Another student's response was "asfalt yol" (asphalt road) which is the correct equivalent for the word "road" in the same session. "Yapmak" (doing) is one of the unsatisfactory responses which has no relation with the word "health" or other words in the same session. There was also one unanswered paper which raises the total number for the wrong responses to twenty.

In conclusion, the word "health" was taught successfully with drawings as discussed above. Although the percentage for one of the tests was below the cut-point, the unsatisfactory translations suggest that the meaning of the word was acquired by the students as we discussed in previous paragraph.

#### **4.4.2. Body**

In order to teach the word "body", four picture drawings which were prepared as three positive and one negative example were used.

Here are the definitions for the word "body" from several dictionaries:

**Body:** Someone's body is all their physical parts, or the main part and not their head, arms, and legs. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

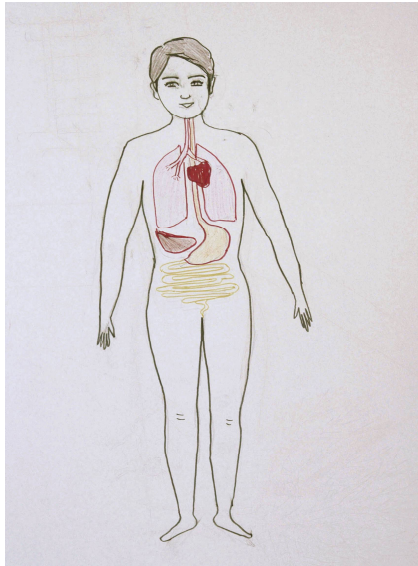
**Body:** The physical structure of a person or animal. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Body:** Vücut, beden, gövde. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)

As the statements have defined above, the word "body" refers to the all organs that make up the whole. For that reason, one's head can not be defined as a body, but rather a part of body. Besides this, a body can be in any size. e.g. A fly has a very small body while an elephant has a much larger one.

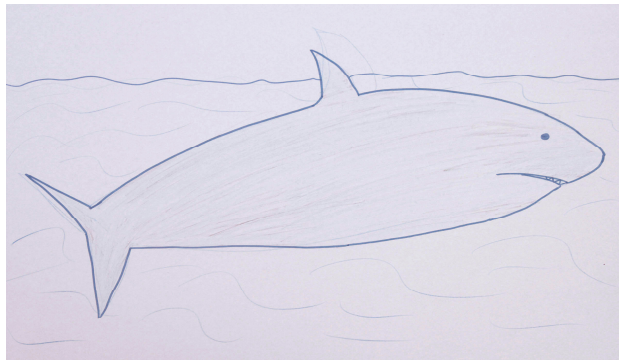
##### **4.4.2.1. Positive examples for "body"**

The first positive example in Figure 4.48 below shows one's body in which you can see some of the organs. The whole body with head, arms, and legs can be seen in the picture drawing which was presented by saying only "This is a body".



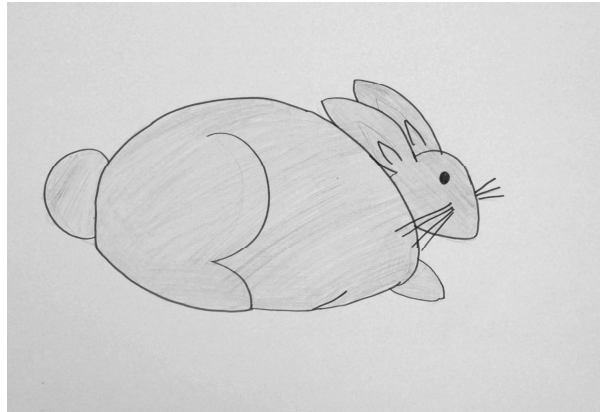
**Figure 4.48. The first positive example for “body”**

Figure 4.49 below is the second positive example which displays a shark. With this example, the word “body” was aimed to be presented with the adjective “big”. The students were asked about the name of the animal, and then the target word “body” was given in the sentence “A shark has got a big body”.



**Figure 4.49. The second positive example for “body”**

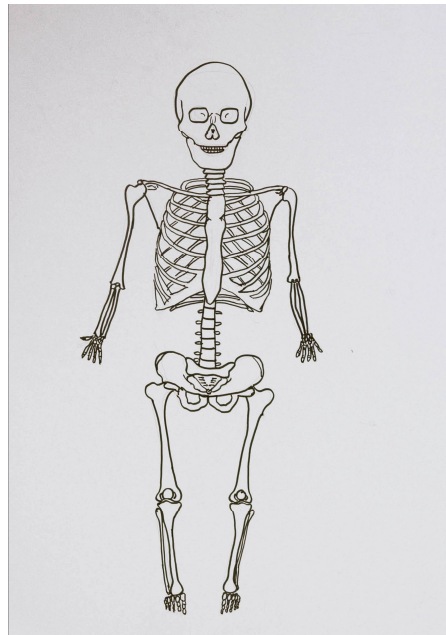
Another positive example which is illustrated in Figure 4.50 below exemplifies an animal’s body, namely, a rabbit. At first the name of the animal was elicited and then the word “body” was presented by saying “A rabbit has got a small body.” right after the second positive example in which the word “body” was presented with the adjective “big”. By so doing, the association between the opposites was exploited.



**Figure 4.50. The third positive example for “body”**

#### **4.4.2.2. Negative examples for “body”**

Figure 4.51 exhibits the first negative example which displays a skeleton. The picture drawing was presented by asking the students what it was and then saying “This is a skeleton. This is not a body.” The word “skeleton” did not distract them since the Turkish equivalent was very similar.



**Figure 4.51. The first negative example for “body”**

The second negative example which is given in Figure 4.52 below shows a woman’s upper part that is not the whole body. This picture drawing was introduced by saying that this was not a body. By showing her head, it was told that this was only her head, but not her body.



**Figure 4.52. The second negative example for “body”**

#### 4.4.2.3. Results for “body” on post-tests

The results for the word “body” are given in Table 4.15. As it can be understood from the table, both success rates were above the cut-point. While the percentage for the translation test was a little bit higher than the cut-point, it was found to be much higher for the matching test.

**Table 4.15. Test results for “body”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	30	23
<b>Percentages</b>	100 %	76,6 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, all the students were successful at guessing the correct picture drawing with the word “body”. The percentage was found to be 100 % consequently. It can be argued that the word “body” was easily recognised for the picture drawing in the matching test since almost all the students were familiar with the phrase “body building” in their mother tongue. Even though they had not seen the

written form of the word, they might have heard it in their daily lives and known that “body” referred to physical parts that a person has. However, the word “body building” had not been deliberately handled in the course.

In the translation test, twenty-three translations were the same with the Turkish equivalent (beden/vücut) of the word “body”. Seven wrong responses were all related to the details in the picture drawings except one. “Küçük elbise” (small dress) was the one for which no connection was found with the picture drawings. Another unsatisfactory response was “sağlık” (health) which was one of the target words in the same session. One of the students who responded wrongly had written “canlı” (alive) which was probably generated because of the skeleton which was drawn in the first negative example and introduced as “not body”. This student must have thought this as “canlı değil” (not alive) so that he translated the target word “body” as “canlı” (alive). The responses of other four students were the same for the word “body” which was interpreted as “organlar” (organs). This was due to the one of the positive examples in which the picture of a body was presented with some organs in it.

To sum up, the percentages which were reached for the word “body” seem to satisfy the expectations as both success rates were above the cut-point with 100% for the matching test and 76,6% for the translation.

#### **4.4.3. Ground**

In order to present the word “ground”, five picture drawings, three of which were exploited as both positive and negative examples were used.

In the next part below, the definitions of the word “ground” from several dictionaries are given to understand the essential characteristics of it:

**Ground:** The ground is the surface of the earth. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Ground:** The ground is the surface that you walk on when you are outdoors. (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Ground:** Yer, zemin. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1995*)



As it is very clear from the definitions above, the ground is the land that people live on. Things can be on the ground or not. Positive and negative examples which follow were drawn based on this idea.

#### 4.4.3.1. Positive examples for “ground”

The first positive example used in the presentation of the word “ground” is presented below in Figure 4.53. It shows a part of a detached house which has got a garden. The flowers can be seen both at the window and on the ground of the garden. The students were told that the flowers are on the ground by pointing out the ones there.



**Figure 4.53. The first positive example for “ground”**

In the second positive example which is presented in Figure 4.54 below, there is another house, the roof of which is covered with snow. What’s more, there is snow on the ground and on the trees. The students were told there is snow on the ground with this picture drawing.



**Figure 4.54. The second positive example for “ground”**

Another picture drawing prepared as the third positive example can be seen in Figure 4.55 below. This picture drawing shows a school girl in her uniform and with her school bag. She carries her bag on her shoulder and it is open. In the presentation of this positive example, first, the students' attention was directed to the school bag and they were asked whether it is open or not. Then, they were asked about the thing on the ground by just saying, "What is that?". After they said that it was a pencil case, the target word "ground" was offered by saying, "The pencil case is not in the bag. It is on the ground".



**Figure 4.55. The third positive example for "ground"**

Figure 4.56 exhibits the fourth positive example in which a scene from a park is extracted. There are two cats, one of which is in the tree and the other on the ground. First, the color of the cats was elicited from the students. After that, it was told that the black cat is on the ground.



**Figure 4.56. The fourth positive example for "ground"**

#### 4.4.3.2. Negative examples for “ground”

In order to present the word “ground”, three picture drawings, two of which were prepared as both a positive were used.

Figure 4.57 below shows the first negative example for the word “ground”. In this picture drawing, a helicopter that is flying can be seen among the hills. It was told to the students that the helicopter is not on the ground.



**Figure 4.57. The first negative example for “ground”**

Figure 4.53 which was presented as the first positive example above was exploited as the second negative example as well. This picture drawing shows flowers both on the ground and at the window. By showing the flowers at the window, it was emphasized that those flowers were not on the ground and that they were at the window.

The third negative example was also used as a positive example. Figure 4.56 above shows two cats, one of which is in the tree. That was presented by pointing out the brown cat in the tree and saying that it was not on the ground.

#### 4.4.3.3. Results for “ground” on post-tests

As seen on the table 4.16, the percentages of correct responses for both tests were above the cut-point. The percentage for the matching test was 83,3 % while it reached 90 % for the translation.

**Table 4.16. Test results for “ground”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	27	25
<b>Percentages</b>	90 %	83,3 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, only three students out of thirty were not able to find the right word for the picture drawing. When the unsatisfactory responses for the translation test are taken into consideration, it can easily be seen that these three wrong responses occurred as a result of the lack of comprehension.

In the translation test, the number of unsatisfactory responses was five for the word “ground”. Three students among these had written “aşağıda” (below) which was accepted as a too vague interpretation. Something can be below another thing, but it doesn’t necessarily have to be on the ground. Another one had thought it as “alçak” (low). However, neither the meaning nor the part of the speech matched the target word. Since some of the picture drawings included one thing both at a low and a high level, namely, the cats and the flowers, that student might have translated the word “ground” as “alçak” relatively by focusing only some of the examples. The last incorrect answer was “giyecek” (clothes) which had no relation either to the word “ground” or the other words in the same group. Besides these, one of the students had written “çocuğun kalem kutusu yerde” (The child’s pencil case is on the ground.) Although it is not a single word, but a statement, it was accepted to be true since it included the target word.

Finally, it can be stated that the percentages which were reached for the word “ground” fulfill our expectations as the results of both tests came up with higher success rates than the cut-point. Although some students failed to produce the meaning by looking for the common thing in all the drawings, most all of them successfully managed to respond both receptively and productively.

#### 4.4.4. Hour

The word “hour” was presented with four picture drawings. These consist of two positive examples, one negative example, and one more picture drawing used both as a positive and a negative example.

Below the definition of the word “hour” is given by various dictionaries in order to see what the most important features are for the mentioned word:

**Hour:** A unit for measuring time. There are 60 minutes in one hour, and 24 hours in one day. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Hour:** An hour is a period of sixty minutes. (*Oxford, Advanced Learners’ Dictionary, 2003*)

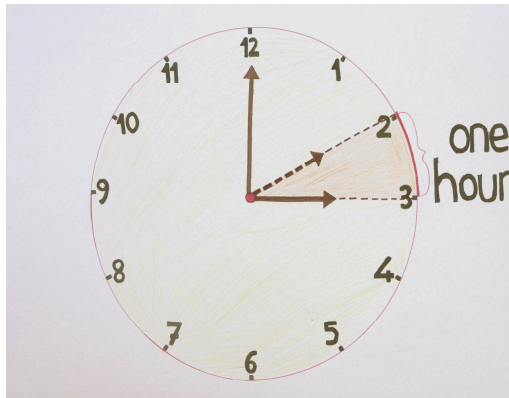
**Hour:** Saat. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

As it has been understood from the definitions above, the word “hour” can best be taught by the help of a picture drawing that shows a clock. The time period which an hour takes or two hours take is focused on in order to help the students recall their knowledge of time.

##### 4.4.4.1. Positive examples for “hour”

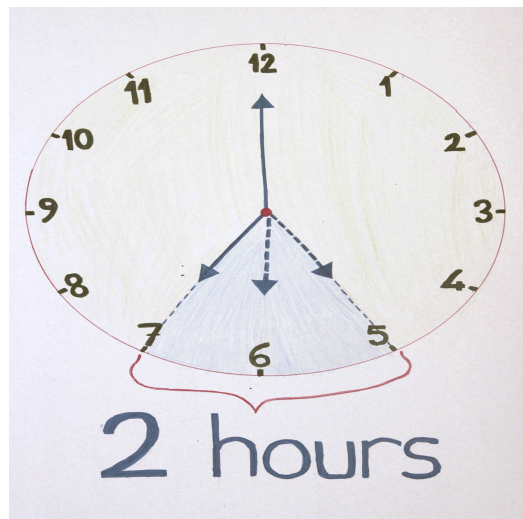
Three picture drawings were exploited as positive examples.

The first positive example is exhibited in Figure 4.58 below. With this picture drawing the students were exhibited a clock on which the time period between 2 and 3 was highlighted and introduced as “one hour”. Actually in the presentation of this drawing, the students were not only presented with one example, but also many more. The other periods as in 2 and 3 were identified as “an hour”.



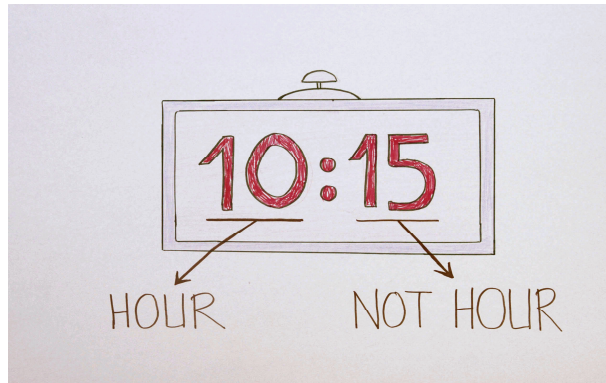
**Figure 4.58. The first positive example for “hour”**

The Figure 4.59 below displays the second picture drawing used in the presentation of the word “hour”. After the presentation of one hour, the time period between 5 and 7 was introduced and named as “two hours”.



**Figure 4.59. The second positive example for “hour”**

The next picture drawing, Figure 4.60, shows an alarm clock on which the students could see both hour and minute. On the picture drawing, these parts of the time were indicated separately. Since the students were able to tell the time, they were asked to tell this and then the word “hour” was introduced pointing out the number 10. Here, it has to be noted that the word “hour” was not handled in class time deliberately before the presentation.

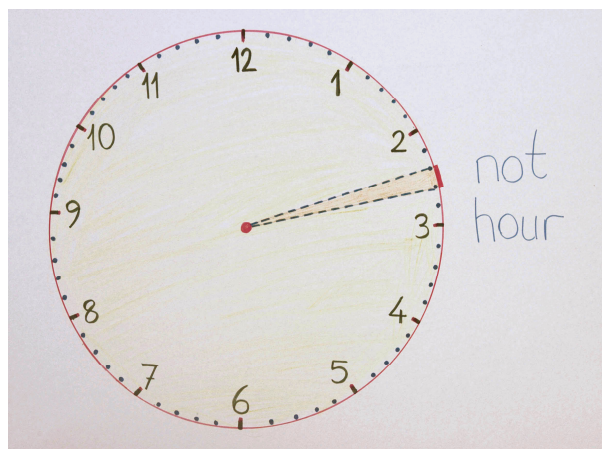


**Figure 4.60. The third positive example for “hour”**

#### **4.4.4.2. Negative examples for “hour”**

Two picture drawings were presented as negative examples. One of them was exploited as a positive example as well.

The first of those can be seen in Figure 4.61 below. The time period of a minute was highlighted and introduced as “not hour”. The word “minute” was not spelled out since one more new word in the presentation might have distracted the comprehension of the actual word.



**Figure 4.61. The first negative example for “hour”**

The other negative example has already been presented in Figure 4.60 in which an alarm clock was separated into two parts as “hour” and “not hour”. This time the number “15” was drawn attention and it was told that it was “not hour”.

#### 4.4.4.3. Results for “hour” on post-tests

Below in Table 4.17, there are the results for the word “hour”. The success rate for the matching test was found to be as a complete success with % 100. However, the success rate for the translation test which is 86,6 % was lower than the former, but still far above the cut-point.

**Table 4.17. Test results for “hour”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	30	24
<b>Percentages</b>	100 %	86,6 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test, all of the students had successfully found the right picture drawing for the target word “hour”. It can be suggested that the concept was successfully illustrated by means of drawings of clocks although the word “hour” was actually an abstract one.

In the translation test, the number of the incorrect responses was six out of 30. Among them, there were 3 students who thought the word “hour” as “dakika” (minute) despite the fact that this word was deliberately avoided in the presentation. It can be suggested that the negative example distracted them from translating correctly. Another student had wrongly focused on the time periods rather than what we called them and written “aralık” (period). What’s more, a phrase such as “Arada 5 dakika var.” (There is 5 minutes’ time between.) was an unsatisfactory response by a student who must have thought one hour as five minutes and so compared one hour’s and two hour’s time in his translation. There was one more wrong answer which was the result of not considering the presented word specifically. “Zaman” (time) was a too general word for the target word “hour”.

In conclusion, the results of both tests are perfectly satisfactory by reaching 100 % for the matching test and 86,6 % for the translation. the use of picture drawings were very successful to teach the word “hour”.



#### 4.4.5. Road

The word “road” was introduced by using five picture drawings. These consist of three positive and two negative examples.

The definition of the word “road” by three different dictionaries is added below to let us recognize the main features of it:

**Road:** A road is a piece of a long hard ground which is built between two places so that people can drive or ride easily from one place to the other. (*Collins-Cobuild Essential Dictionary, 1994*)

**Road:** A specially prepared hard surface for cars, buses, bicycles etc. to travel on. (*Longman, Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003*)

**Road:** Yol. (*Redhouse English-Turkish Dictionary, 1997*)

As it is clear from the definitions below, a road is built for cars, buses, bicycles etc. to go from one place to the other. Other vehicles such as trains do not travel on roads. In addition, the ground or surface on a road has to be made of a hard material like asphalt. Paths or lanes are usually made deliberately or by many people walking over the same ground. Therefore, they differ from roads which are built by people to connect places such as cities.

##### 4.4.5.1. Positive examples for “road”

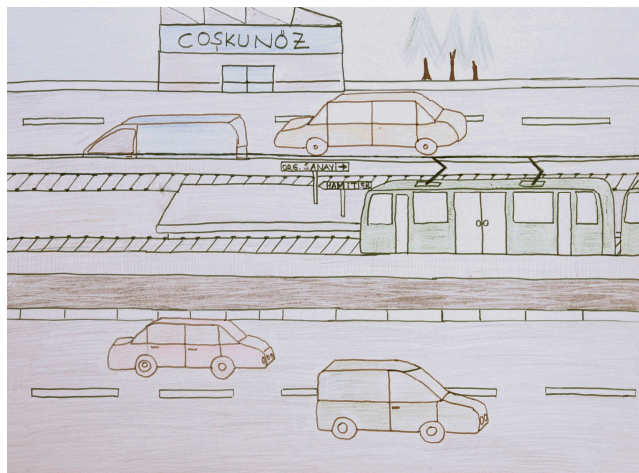
In order to present the word “road”, three positive examples were exploited.

Figure 4.62 below displays a road on which there are two cars and some pedestrians walking on the pavement are drawn. In the presentation of this positive example, the students were shown the road by pointing on the picture drawing.



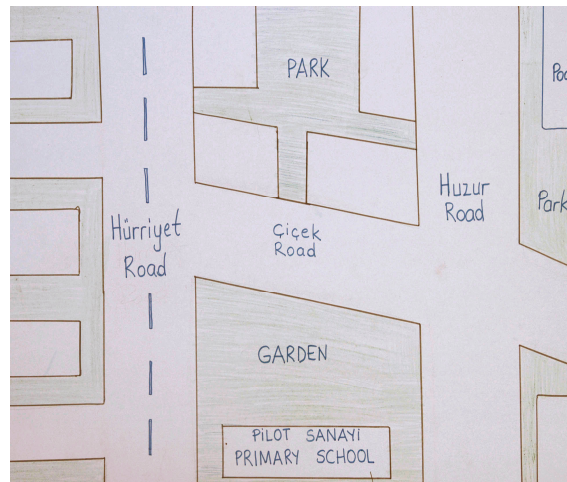
**Figure 4.62. The first positive example for “road”**

The second positive example is displayed in Figure 4.63 below. A scene from Mudanya road was drawn with roads for cars and railway for subway. The reason to choose Mudanya Road is that the school in which the data collection was done is located just along one side of this road. Therefore, the students were introduced a familiar example of road. Also the factory which can be seen at one side of the road was known by almost all the students. That helped us construct the new concept by means of a place the students knew very well. When they were shown the mentioned drawing, their interest was risen naturally. In the presentation, first it was said that it was a road and then named as Mudanya Road.



**Figure 4.63. The second positive example for “road”**

The other positive example which can be seen in Figure 4.64 was prepared as a bird's-eye view of very close area around the students' school building. The other buildings such as houses and parks were not drawn in detail. Only the roads were highlighted and named with actual names. First, the students were directed to the point where the school building is located. By so doing, they realized that the drawing showed their school area. Then, the name of the roads was read one by one by showing them and the word "road" was presented in context.



**Figure 4.64. The third positive example for "road"**

#### **4.4.5.2. Negative examples for "road"**

Two negative examples were presented in order to teach the word "road".

The first negative example is exhibited in Figure 4.65. It shows a scene in the countryside in which there are hills and trees. The students were shown the pathway among the hills and introduced the word "road" by defining the pathway as "not a road".



**Figure 4.65. The first negative example for “road”**

Figure 4.66 shows the other negative example in which only a train on the railway can be seen. By introducing the drawing, the name of the vehicle was elicited by the students by a “What is it?” question, and then the railway was shown by saying that it was not a road.



**Figure 4.66. The second negative example for “road”**

#### **4.4.5.3 Results for “road” on post-tests**

The results for the word “road” are summarized in Table 4.18 below. As seen on the table, the percentage for the matching test was very satisfactory with 96,6 % and it also fulfilled our expectations by reaching 93,3 % for the translation.

**Table 4.18. Test results for “road”**

	<b>Matching Test</b>	<b>Translation Test</b>
<b>Correct Responses</b>	29	28
<b>Percentages</b>	96,6 %	93,3 %

\*Number of students: 30

In the matching test applied, only one student out of 30 was not able to match the picture drawing with the right word.

Similar to the results in the matching test, the number of wrong responses was two out of 30. These were “yerde” (on the ground) and “süt içen çocuk” (the child drinking milk), both of which are related to the other words in the same session. Therefore, it could be stated that the wrong answers occurred because of the confusion among the language items presented together. It should be added that the translations that were treated as satisfactory despite not matching the right equivalent were semantically very much close. For example, “cadde” (street) was written by eight students. Because the word “road” (yol) was used interchangeably with the word “cadde” (street) in the students’ mother tongue, these eight responses were accepted. Moreover, the interpretations such as “karayolu” (motorway/highway) and “anayol” (main road) by two students were among the right answers for the reason that they included the target word “road” and the meaning of it was comprehended by the students.

To sum up, the success rates achieved for both the translation and the matching tests were very successful since the number of the unsatisfactory responses for both was only one or two. These results showed that the drawings made it easier to learn words by creating visual images in mind which resulted in better recall.

## 5.0. CONCLUSION

### 5.1. Conclusions

The present set out to investigate whether drawings are useful in order to teach the meaning of words. It was found that drawings prepared as both positive and negative examples were effective in the presentation of meaning.

Table 5.1 below summarizes the results of the study in percentages for each word.

**Table 5.1 Results of the study in percentages for each word**

<b>Word</b>	<b>The Percentage Of Matching Test</b>	<b>The Percentage Of Translation Test</b>
<b>City</b>	93.3 %	87 %
<b>Patient</b>	86.6 %	86.6 %
<b>Language</b>	100 %	70 %
<b>Building</b>	100 %	84 %
<b>Century</b>	97 %	76.4 %
<b>Price</b>	97 %	67.6 %
<b>Voice</b>	100 %	85.2 %
<b>Idea</b>	91.1 %	67.6 %
<b>Subject</b>	97.1 %	74.2 %
<b>Term</b>	85.7 %	65.7 %
<b>Result</b>	94.2 %	80 %
<b>Side</b>	85.7 %	48.5 %
<b>Life</b>	82.8 %	65.7 %
<b>Body</b>	100 %	76.6 %
<b>Hour</b>	100 %	86.6 %
<b>Ground</b>	90 %	83.3 %
<b>Road</b>	96.6 %	93.3 %
<b>Health</b>	93.3 %	33.3 %
<b>Average</b>	<b>94.39 %</b>	<b>73.98 %</b>

The subjects were able to pass the cut-point which was set at 70 % in either one of the tests. When the results of the matching and translation tests are examined on the

table, it can easily be seen that the students were able to pass the cut-point in the matching test for all the words. For the translation test, the scores of twelve words were at or above 70 %. Four of them were between 60 and 69 % and other two were below 50 %. These tests were prepared as both receptively and productively. This shows that the participants managed to learn the target words either receptively or productively since the matching test checked the comprehension receptively and the translation productively.

When the results of the matching and the translation tests are compared to each other, it is observed that the results for the former were more successful. In other words for every word in the study the results for the matching test were found to be above the cut-point, whereas for eight words the results for the translation test came up with average below the cut-point. As many researchers have suggested, in the present study it was suggested that receptive knowledge preceded productive knowledge.

Laufer and Paribakht (1998) investigated the development of EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge in three types; passive, controlled active, and free active. The subjects received one year school instruction. In order to measure gains, two groups of learners with 6 and 7 year instruction were compared. The results revealed that passive vocabulary size (receptive knowledge) progressed very well. Controlled active (controlled productive knowledge) progressed too, but less than passive. However, free active vocabulary (free productive knowledge) didn't progress at all. Bearing these results in mind, it can be said that the learning of many words can be gained as receptive knowledge in a second language within a short period time even when learners are not exposed to the new vocabulary in the language speaking environment. The lack of progress in free active vocabulary (productive knowledge) means that the learners did not put this knowledge into use.

Another study supporting the idea that receptive knowledge precedes productive knowledge was carried out by Laufer and Goldstein (2004). The participants of the study were 435 high school and university EFL students and they were presented with vocabulary items in all four strength modalities; passive recognition, active recognition, passive recall, and active recall. These were described as four degrees of

knowledge of meaning. The results revealed that these modalities constitute a hierarchy of difficulty as expected. Among these different strength modalities, passive recall which is the supplying the meaning for a given L2 word was the best predictor of classroom language performance.

Gairns and Redman (1986) defined receptive vocabulary as language items which can only be recognized and comprehended in the context of reading and listening materials and productive vocabulary as language items which the learner can recall and use appropriately in speech and writing. They suggest that the transition of an item from a student's receptive vocabulary to his productive one is a gradual process.

Nation (2001) suggests that knowing a word involves being able to recognize it when it is heard or seen. This includes being able to distinguish it from words with similar form and being able to judge if the word form sounds right or looks right. However, productive knowledge of a word comes after receptive knowledge and extends it. It involves knowing how to pronounce the word, how to write and spell it, how to use it in correct grammatical patterns along with the words it usually collocates with.

What the researchers have suggested about development of the receptive knowledge into the productive knowledge supported the findings of the present study. The results of the matching tests were found to be much higher than the translations'. That is to say, the receptive knowledge of the subjects always preceded their productive knowledge. They were able to distinguish the form of the word from others since what they did in the matching test was to match one word in a group with the correct picture drawing.

This study has also shown that the use of picture drawings was very motivating for the students. It increased their interest and concentration time while they put extra effort to comment on the drawings.

The presentation of words with drawings was a procedure which was exactly the same for all the words. As well as drawings, the use of verbal explanation was exploited. As Paivio and Desrochers (1981) suggest "dual encoding" which helps



learners store and remember the new vocabulary, the words were introduced in illustrative sentences, then the students were asked to give verbal responses to the questions which were structured in either “Yes-No” or “What is it?” form. Therefore, the high percentages are not only the result of effective picture drawings, but also of the verbal explanation in the presentation. However, there is no evidence showing what extent the verbal explanation attributed to the picture drawings. The use of drawings might not be as effective as in this study when the verbal explanation didn’t assist. For this reason teachers who want to teach vocabulary by using this resource material should follow the suggested procedure in order to achieve the same successful results.

However, it has to be noted that the verbal explanation had to be very limited in terms of word and structure choice. The students for which the resource material was prepared are assumed to be at beginner level since their word knowledge was limited in size and they did not know the basic tense forms. Therefore, the researcher had to restrict her language by choosing the language items that they had learned beforehand. Otherwise, the presentation would have caused a big trouble for them and distracted them from learning the target words. If their competence had been higher, the content of verbal explanation could have been enriched with more complex illustrative sentences. Thus, the more input they would receive could increase the effectiveness of drawings.

In order to teach a word more than one positive example was presented for almost all the target words. In the literature, it was stated that several positive examples should be used in the presentation (Nation 1990). However, some of the students failed to generate the meaning by looking for the common feature offered in all positive examples. They wrongly focused on only one of them. For instance, a student was unsuccessful in working out the meaning of the word “subject” from four positive examples. He had translated it as “okuma” by just focusing on one drawing which showed a book about magic. In fact this drawing was presented by saying “The subject of the book is magic”.

For this reason it has to be added that the participants of the study should be informed about the procedure of the presentation, what they should look for in the pictures, and how they should respond to the tests. It must be emphasized that this kind

of explicit instruction can help them understand they need to make generalizations from all the positive examples presented and find an overall meaning which cover what drawings illustrate.

Moreover, when presented with a positive example for a target word, some of the students focused on an unimportant detail in the drawing. i.e. In the presentation of the word “century” there was only one positive example showing centuries in a time line. One of the unsatisfactory responses was “yüzün üstündeki rakamlar”. That student had wrongly focused on the years and thus failed to translate “century” from many examples presented in the drawing.

The reason for their inability to generate the meaning from all positive examples and focus on unimportant details in one positive example can be explained in terms of their cognitive level. Because they are young learners, they are unable to use all the picture drawings or all the details in one drawing to produce a correct response for target words. Children are at this age are on the boundary between concrete and abstract conceptions which are defined by Piaget (1972). Working out the meaning of a word from several examples requires abstraction of important meaning features even when the word refers to a concrete object.

As well as positive examples, negative examples were exploited in the presentation for some of the words. These words for which negative examples were prepared were decided according to the availability of concept which can be presented as a negative example. Some words such as “life” and “health” had no negatives since there is no exact thing which can be defined as “not life” and “not health”. “Death” and “illness” were not given as negative examples. The word “death” was difficult in terms of the negativeness of the meaning it has. For the word “health”, “illness” could not be used in the same sentence since the word “health” was given in such a sentence “X is good / bad for your health”. For this reason, “Illness” and “health” might confuse the learners and they would have trouble learning these words instead of learning the target word. However, concrete nouns allowed making use of negative examples as in the word “building”. The structure such as a bridge or shelter such as a tent was clearly exhibited as not building.

Besides the availability factor, negative examples were sometimes not used because of the distraction they might cause. Nation (1990) suggests that there need to be negative examples of the concept which will be taught. However, an empirical question rises here about whether the use of negative examples is facilitating when the students are young learners who have difficulty even in seeing what the same in all positive examples is. In the present study, some of the words were particularly presented without negative examples although there are concepts available, which could be introduced as negatives. One of the words which was avoided from presenting with negative example was the word “idea”. A concept of feeling could be given as a negative example by showing in actual sentence “I love you” in a speech bubble. Nevertheless, the word “feeling” itself was not known by the subjects of the study. It would have produced ambiguity as the target word “idea” itself was rather a difficult abstract word for these learners. Furthermore, among the words with negatives, there were some items, the negative examples of which interfered with constructing the meaning. i.e. For the word “term”, the beginning and end of terms were marked on the drawing and pointed at. Also the semester holiday was highlighted on the drawing and it was introduced as negative example. The response of two students was “holiday” for the word “term”. It shows that the students were not able to restrict the meaning with the help of negative example and focus on the right time period for the “term”.

In short it can be suggested that the effectiveness of the use of negative examples for young learners is an unanswered question and can be investigated.

## **5.2. Further research**

In the present study, the resource material was developed for only 18 words out of the first 500 most frequent words in the General Service List (West 1953). This small number could be a beginning for larger resource material which aims to teach the most frequent 2000 words in English. The material was a pack of pictures which were drawn with hand.

Another study may have the purpose for developing resource material by using other visual techniques. For instance, realia can be used to teach nouns, while mime and gestures can be the means for presenting verbs.

Nation (2001) suggests that the most frequent words of any L2 had better be taught quickly by using explicit teaching since they are prerequisites for language use. The teaching of these basic words should be done quickly in classes and therefore, language teachers should be presented with resource material which is designed to teach the most frequent words of English since the preparation for such vocabulary teaching lessons is very time-consuming for them.

The present resource material which consists of 18 nouns among the nouns in the most frequent 500 words in General Service List is restricted to nouns only. Whether or not drawings could be used to teach other parts of speech such as verbs or adjectives or to what extent drawings would be effective in teaching English word classes can be another research question.

The procedure in which the words were introduced and the learning was checked included several steps which were exactly the same for all the words. However, any other procedure can be utilized in different language classes or it can be modified in terms of more verbal explanation or more practice with words. Shortly, the necessary alterations can be done for groups of learners at different levels of competence.

The presentation of the words was done only with picture drawings and verbal explanation in this study. The research came up with satisfactory results when the presentation of the words and testing the comprehension were applied one after the other at the same time. However, there is no research on whether the retention of the knowledge was provided or not. Therefore, another study can investigate the long-term effectiveness of drawings in vocabulary teaching.

### **5.3. Recommendations**

Language learners in the present study made use of drawings. The success rates were found to be above the cut-point in either one of the tests or in both of them. It is clear that drawings are effective means of vocabulary teaching when they are used with verbal explanation. Therefore, teachers should make sure their presentation of words is supported by any other means.

As it has been extracted from Paivio (1981) in the second chapter, 'dual encoding' which will occur when pictures are combined with a verbal explanation was greatly used in the presentation. Nation (2001) also suggests that since pictures often contain a lot of detail, it is necessary to present the words with focused information. By this way, the meaning which learners comprehend is stored both linguistically and visually.

The use of picture drawings for teaching vocabulary addresses to visual memory. Because our memory for visual images is extremely reliable, it is obvious that pictures can facilitate memory and are intensively helpful in order to increase the learners' motivation since their attention and awareness are raised naturally by means of visuals.

One of the pedagogical implications is that vocabulary learners need to be presented the target words in a procedure which is designed with certain steps and parts suggested by Nation (1990) and Cross (1991). The presentation and the practice of all the words should be included in these parts. They ought to be organized in terms of order. So the content and order of the presentation itself must not distract learners from guessing the word meaning.

Another point to suggest is that repetition of the words is crucial in vocabulary learning. There has been a great deal of research showing that the quality or quantity of vocabulary knowledge is strengthened by means of repetitions. Since one meeting with a vocabulary item is not sufficient to learn it, the same resource material containing drawings can be used in the following lessons.

The number of repetitions should be considered while revising the vocabulary. Thinkham (1993) found that most learners required five to seven repetitions for the learning of six paired associates.

The spacing of repetitions was investigated by another researcher (Pimsleur 1967 in Nation 2001). It is found that most forgetting seems to occur immediately after initial learning and then the rate of forgetting decreases as time passes. This indicates that the repetition of new vocabulary items should be done very soon after they are first studied before forgetting mostly occurs.

In the present study, our aim was to teach the meaning of the words rather than the other aspects such as grammatical knowledge, morphology, collocations, associations, stylistic features, etc. Since there are many things to know about a particular word, the knowledge of meaning is not sufficient and therefore, other aspects of word knowledge have to be mastered in order to use the word competently.

Ellis (1994) argues that different kinds of knowledge of a word involve different kinds of learning. While knowledge of the word form is best learned through implicit learning, the knowledge of meaning is acquired mostly through explicit learning by the use of images. That is, learners should be given opportunities to learn several aspects of a word in the most effective way. Thus, the present study can only be a prerequisite in vocabulary teaching, but further research should be done in teaching different aspects.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX I : Target Words

<b>SESSION 1</b>	<b>SESSION 2</b>	<b>SESSION 3</b>	<b>SESSION 4</b>
<b>building</b>	<b>price</b>	<b>term</b>	<b>health</b>
<b>city</b>	<b>century</b>	<b>subject</b>	<b>body</b>
<b>language</b>	<b>idea</b>	<b>result</b>	<b>hour</b>
<b>patient</b>	<b>voice</b>	<b>side</b>	<b>ground</b>
		<b>life</b>	<b>road</b>

## APPENDIX II : Session 1 Test Papers

### Translation Test Paper

NAME \_\_\_\_\_ NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_

WRITE THE TURKISH MEANING.  
(Türkçe anlamını yazınız.)

BODY \_\_\_\_\_

HOUR \_\_\_\_\_

HEALTH \_\_\_\_\_


GROUND \_\_\_\_\_


ROAD \_\_\_\_\_


### Matching Test Paper

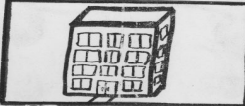
NAME \_\_\_\_\_  
NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_

MATCH THE PICTURES WITH THE WORDS IN THE BOX. WRITE YOUR ANSWERS NEAR THE NUMBERS.  
(Resimleri kutudaki kelimeler ile eşleştirip, cevaplarınızı rakamların yanına yazınız.)

1 

2 

3 

4 

CITY PATIENT  
BUILDING LANGUAGE

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_

3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX III : Session 2 Test Papers

### Translation Test Paper

NAME \_\_\_\_\_ NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_

WRITE THE TURKISH MEANING  
(Türkçe anlamını yazınız)

PRICE \_\_\_\_\_

CENTURY \_\_\_\_\_

IDEA \_\_\_\_\_


VOICE \_\_\_\_\_

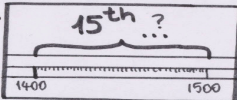
### Matching Test Paper


NAME \_\_\_\_\_


NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_

LOOK AT THE PICTURES AND MATCH THEM  
WITH THE WORDS. WRITE YOUR ANSWERS NEAR THE  
NUMBERS BELOW.  
(Resimlerle kelimeleri eşleştirip aşağıdaki sayıların yanına yazınız.)

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

voice      century  
idea      price

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_

3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX IV : Session 3 Test Papers

### Translation Test Paper

NAME \_\_\_\_\_ NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_

WRITE THE TURKISH MEANING.  
(Türkçe anlamını yazınız.)

TERM \_\_\_\_\_

SUBJECT \_\_\_\_\_

LIFE \_\_\_\_\_

SIDE \_\_\_\_\_


RESULT \_\_\_\_\_


### Matching Test Paper

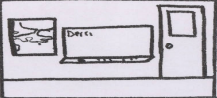
NAME \_\_\_\_\_


NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_

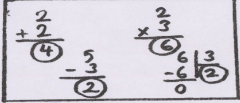
LOOK AT THE PICTURES AND MATCH THEM WITH THE WORDS. WRITE YOUR ANSWERS NEAR THE NUMBERS BELOW.  
(Resimlerle kelimeleri eşleştirip aşağıdaki sayıların yanına yazınız.)

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

5. 

side result life term  
subject





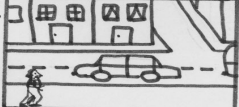

1 \_\_\_\_\_ 2 \_\_\_\_\_  
3 \_\_\_\_\_ 4 \_\_\_\_\_  
5 \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX V : Session 4 Test Papers

### Translation Test Paper

NAME _____	NUMBER _____
WRITE THE TURKISH MEANING. (Türkçe anlamını yazınız.)	
BODY _____	
HOUR _____	
HEALTH _____	
GROUND _____	
ROAD _____	

### Matching Test Paper

NAME _____	NUMBER _____
LOOK AT THE PICTURES AND MATCH THEM WITH THE WORDS. WRITE YOUR ANSWERS NEAR THE NUMBERS BELOW. (Resimlerle kelimeleri eşleştirip aşağıdaki sayıların yanına yazınız.)	
1. 	2. 
3. 	
4. 	5. 
	
1 _____	2 _____
3 _____	5 _____
4 _____	

## ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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Mine TIRYAKIOĞLU