

GAZI UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN EFL COURSEBOOK EVALUATION STUDY
FOR VOCABULARY TEACHING IN READING TEXTS
A CASE STUDY : NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS

MA THESIS

By
MELTEM DİLEK

ANKARA
September, 2009

GAZI UNIVERSTY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN EFL COURSEBOOK EVALUATION STUDY
FOR VOCABULARY TEACHING IN READING TEXTS
A CASE STUDY : NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS

MA THESIS

By
Meltem DİLEK

Supervisor
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Müge TAVİL

ANKARA
September, 2009

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ ANABİLİM DALI

İNGİLİZCE DERS KİTABINDAKİ OKUMA PARÇALARININ
KELİME ÖĞRETİMİ AÇISINDAN İNCELENMESİ:
NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS ÖRNEĞİ

Yüksek Lisans tezi

Meltem DİLEK

Danışman
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Müge TAVİL

ANKARA
Eylül, 2009

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'ne

Meltem Dilek'in "AN EFL COURSEBOOK EVALUATION STUDY FOR VOCABULARY TEACHING IN READING TEXTS A CASE STUDY: NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS" başlıklı tezitarihinde, jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili Eğitimi BölümündeYüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Adı Soyadı

İmza

Üye (Tez Danışmanı):Yrd. Doç.Dr. Z. Müge TAVİL

Üye : Prof. Dr. Altan ALPEREN

Üye : Yrd. Doç.Dr. Paşa Tefvik CEPHE

Üye :

Üye :

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Presentation

This chapter is designed for informatory purposes. 1.1 introduces the general background of the study. Section 1.2 introduces the aim of the study. In section 1.3 the importance of the study is explained. Section 1.4 is for the assumptions that have been undertaken in the course of the study. In section 1.5, the scope and limitations of the study are presented. The last section, 1.6 is for the definitions of terms used in the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

Living in the twenty first century requires communication. One of the ways that makes communication available is to know English, because English is assumed to be the universal language. Although there are a lot of ways to learn English, coursebooks are considered to be one of the main sources, mostly written for commercial needs.

In some references used as a guide to this study both the terms “textbook” and “coursebook” are met. Tomlinson (1998) uses the term “coursebook” in the place of “textbook” and states that “a coursebook is a textbook that provides the basic materials for a course and it serves as the only book used by the learners during a course. It usually covers work on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the four skills.”(p.9).

Hutchinson and Torres (1994) describe a textbook as “an important means of satisfying the range of needs that emerge from the classroom and its wider context” (p.327).

In Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English the definition of “coursebook” is given as “a book that you use regularly during a set of lessons on a particular subject”, and the definition of “textbook” is given as “a book that contains information about a subject that people study”. As a result in this study the terms “textbook” and “coursebook” are used interchangeably. Although New Bridge to Success (NBS) is considered to be the coursebook of the study, the term “textbook” has not been changed in references.

In explaining the vital role of “textbooks” in ELT teaching, Benevento (1984) states that “whenever foreign language teachers meet each other, the first words after “How do you do?” are usually “What coursebooks do you use?”(p.6). In addition, Dubin and Olshtain (1986) state that “the tangible element that gives a language course face validity to many learners and teachers is the textbook” (p. 167).

Regarding the primary purpose of the ELT textbooks, Byrd (2001) states that ELT textbooks embody two kinds of information, which are thematic/topic content (family, school, etc) and linguistic content (grammar, vocabulary, skills). The users of ELT textbooks engage with the content of the document to obtain the linguistic knowledge needed so as to communicate in a foreign language. ELT textbooks build their four skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing in a second / foreign language. None of these skills can be accomplished without vocabulary knowledge, so ELT textbooks should also provide vocabulary knowledge to communicate accurately.

There are a lot of published books to meet the needs of the students or the needs of the programs. Classroom teachers and students play a major role in evaluation of the textbooks, because as Richards (1998) says: “Teachers, students, and textbooks are among the main elements of foreign or second language classrooms. For many years, the two elements, teachers and students and their roles were investigated thoroughly, but less attention was given to the issues regarding textbooks. However, in most cases, textbooks represent the hidden curriculum of the language studies in a certain program or country. For this reason, they play an

important role for obtaining information about the likely teaching and learning practices of a particular school, program or institution. Textbooks are designed for general courses 'to be used worldwide' or they are prepared according to specific requirements in a country. Different from the practices in 1970s, the attention is towards the use of country-specific textbooks. As the textbooks in the modern world are more attractive, colorful, and similar to authentic magazines in terms of their design, many features of these materials have been changing in recent years. Although, many textbooks have been presented in a package including workbooks and cassettes in previous years, following new technological developments, they now often also include CDs, VCDs or CD-ROMs." (p.125).

Preparation of textbooks requires a long period of time, and while structuring them it is important to consider the features of the textbook as a whole. This aspect of textbook design is complicated because it is necessary to evaluate each part of the units critically to form a 'useful' textbook for the intended audience. In conducting such kind of evaluation, it is important to learn more about the relationship among textbooks, teachers and students. One of the options for learning about this relationship is to examine the reports of the teachers and the students. These reports are informative as it is possible to learn how teachers use and adapt the textbooks. In addition, students' opinions about the materials they are using in the classroom can be investigated by conducting questionnaires and journal writing activities (Richards, 1998). One option for textbook evaluation might be to rely on the use of various checklists suggested by different authors and researchers who are professionals in their academic fields. (Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979; Breen & Candlin, 1987; Sheldon, 1988; Grant, 1987; Cunningsworth, 1995).

It is difficult to find a perfect book which is suitable for the needs of a particular group of learners, but to find the correct book is really important because it helps to shape the teaching/learning environment. Although most of the textbooks are prepared by professionals, some problems may be faced while using it as a course

material. At this point teachers' and students' point of views become important because they can evaluate the teaching/learning environment that they lived in.

According to many teachers, a coursebook saves time, gives direction to the lessons and discussions, encourages giving of homework and what is more, it not only directs the interaction through activities presented in the coursebooks but also for many teachers it provides confidence and security.

Technological changes, computers, television have changed the needs of the learners so textbooks should be organized to meet these needs. One other need of the students is to improve their fluency and proficiency through skills. Reading is one of the skills that is considered as the core of many textbooks. Although reading is widely used and considered to be important in textbooks, one of the most vital elements of it, vocabulary teaching/learning is often neglected. In New Bridge to Success for Grade 9 Elementary (NBS) although the four skills are mentioned and tried to be reviewed in every unit there is no special vocabulary section.

When the teaching/learning techniques of vocabulary are not thought, it is difficult for the learners to be good at all skills needed for communication in a short time. Thus, in a textbook a part for vocabulary would be beneficial, especially when the book is designed for the elementary level. In Turkey, especially the students who will use NBS as a coursebook will face English mostly, maybe only in the classroom. As they may not have any other opportunity to face English, the coursebook used to guide the lecture should be helpful to improve their productivity and proficiency.

1.2 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to assess the vocabulary teaching/learning aspect of reading texts in the elementary level coursebook titled "New Bridge to Success for Grade 9 Elementary (NBS)", which was prepared by Turkish Ministry of Education (MOE) as an instructional material for the ninth grade students of Anatolian High. The specific research questions are listed below:

- a. To what extent are the reading texts effective considering the vocabulary teaching / learning techniques?
- b. To what extent are the reading texts effective considering the support on vocabulary?
- c. Which techniques do the teachers use about teaching vocabulary?
- d. Which techniques do the students use about learning vocabulary?

In this study the students and the teachers from some of Anatolian High Schools in Ankara filled in a questionnaire about the coursebook *NBS*. Then, the coursebook *NBS* was studied and analyzed thoroughly by the researcher in order to determine the correspondences or the discrepancies between the existing features of the coursebook and the responses of the teachers and students.

1.3 Significance of the study

The preparation of any coursebook requires knowledge and experience. The evaluation of the students and the teachers who used the textbook as a course material has great value in revision. So, this study, which tries to distinguish the correspondences or the discrepancies between the existing features of the coursebook titled *NBS* and the responses of the teachers and students on vocabulary teaching/learning may have great contribution to the authorities who will decide on the effectiveness of the mentioned book. This decision may be helpful while considering the policies of the government.

Moreover, language teachers' observations and thoughts about the students' learning process are important because language learning is process-oriented and requires a considerable amount of time. Teachers are excellent sources about the background, needs and expectations of the students.

It should be noted that one of the aims of the Common European Framework (CEF) is to help learners to learn what they have to do in order to use the target

language for communication and to be aware of their knowledge and skills that they have to develop. Textbook selection and evaluation for a course appears to be a very important issue for all parties involved in the materials selection and evaluation process. It is very important especially in the process of integration to the Common European Framework (CEF), which provides common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, and textbooks across Europe (Council of Europe, 2001). Therefore it is crucial that textbooks should be designed taking those common basis into consideration so as to develop learner autonomy as well.

Considering universities, lecturers prepare their own materials according to their syllabus or the needs and expectations of the students, universities or departments. Some departments develop their own material according to their needs consistent with their goals. When the subject becomes state primary or high schools, Ministry-approved commercial coursebook, especially the ones from the UK or the USA are widely used. These books are chosen by the committee consisted of English teachers. This procedure has both some advantages and disadvantages. These books are a real burden to families because they are imported. There may also be some delays due to the importation procedures. However, using these books also has some advantages. They are written by native speakers. In most of the coursebooks the language is authentic. But during the academic year of 2004-2005 an EFL coursebook (*New Bridge to Success*) was prepared by a Turkish speaking teachers committee. This coursebook was published by the Turkish Ministry of Education (MoE), and it was accepted by the Board in the Turkish MoE as the core language teaching textbook for use in the 9th grade classes of Anatolian High Schools. It was made compulsory to use this book in all the schools in Turkey.

This study, therefore, aims to explore English teachers' and students' suggestions and beliefs about vocabulary teaching/learning aspects in reading texts for a coursebook designed for the high school students in Turkey.

The study was carried out by collecting, analyzing and interpreting questionnaires and comparing the features in the coursebook, NBS.

Textbooks are the mostly used as teaching and learning materials for both teachers and the learners. They not only provide a framework for teachers in achieving the aims and objectives of the course but also play an important role as a guide to the teacher in conducting the lesson. On behalf of the learners, a textbook truly affects their attitudes, performance and success. It is a fact that when learners like the teaching environment they become active participants to the lesson. The coursebook is an important source of input and a great opportunity for EFL learners to communicate in the target language which is realized only in classroom settings in Turkish public schools.

Since English teachers use ‘textbooks’ in their classrooms, they have the right to be involved in the process of evaluation in order to be provided with the best book for their specific learner group. However getting the points of view of both teachers and learners on the evaluation of a coursebook can be a challenging task especially “in the countries where the syllabus is set centrally and where an officially approved coursebook is prescribed for use.” (Cunningsworth, 1995: 11) as in Turkey. When the selection of a coursebook is done by the state, teachers still need to evaluate their coursebook so as to identify the weak and the strong points in relation to their own teaching situation. This is a need because selecting textbooks involves matching the material to the context where it is going to be used and a wide range of specialists share the view that no coursebook that is designed for a general market will be absolutely appropriate and ideal for one particular group of learners. As Grant (1987) claims [the] ‘Perfect book does not exist’ (p.8).

The coursebook titled “New Bridge to Success” was suggested by Turkish MoE to be used in 2005-2006 academic year. It is hoped that this study will be a preliminary evaluation of the mentioned coursebook on vocabulary teaching/learning aspect of reading texts and it is also expected that the results of this evaluation study will reveal the areas that need to be revised and improved in that particular EFL

coursebook. Furthermore, this study is believed to be an aid to the curriculum unit in MoE as they will be provided with the teachers and students' assessment of one of the published coursebooks. It is hoped that this study will raise the awareness of coursebook writers on considering various criteria for the development of EFL coursebooks for all grades at high schools.

In Turkey, although other foreign languages were taught in public schools in previous years, English has been the vastly taught foreign language throughout the country. In Turkey English language teaching begins at the fourth grade of the state primary schools although in private schools it may begin earlier. For the fourth and fifth grades, three hours of English instruction per week is compulsory in all of the state primary schools. Recently, in the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades students have four hours of English instruction per week. Before July 2005, after graduating from primary schools, the students took the 'High School Entrance Examination' in order to be able to continue their education in Anatolian High Schools. There was a one-year preparatory class of English for students who were not successful enough to pass the English exam. Typically, English was taught 24 hours a week in these schools. The coursebook prepared for the intensive one year preparatory program was the original of NBS.

In July 2005, the practices concerning high school education was changed in Turkey. The main change was related to the extension of high school education period from three years to four years. In the previous system, the overall period for Anatolian High Schools was "English preparatory class plus 3 years" but in 2005-2006, the period was arranged as a four-year-education without any preparatory classes. The new regulation was applied to the students who had recently finished the 8th grade of the primary school in 2005. In high schools, according to this new arrangement, the hours of English instruction was spread over four years instead of preparatory class plus 3 years as in the previous system. Thus, the same ELT content as found in the former intensive English preparatory year would be spread over all four years of high school. The textbook originally prepared for the intensive prep

year would be sub-divided and re-constructed for use over the four years of high school ELT instruction.

By taking into consideration this new practice considering the high school education in Turkey, it is still essential to decide which book is good for the students. As mentioned the students attending high schools has had English classes as three-hour-a-week in 4th and 5th grades, four-hour-a-week in 6th, 7th and 8th grades. The question to be carefully analyzed should also be that if the level of these students is still “elementary” or not. If the answer is “yes”, is this book a good example of an elementary book, if “no”, how can this book be improved?

The findings of the study may reveal the weaknesses of the current coursebook and contribute to the necessary changes in the content or design of this coursebook. Although the study is conducted in Ankara, the teachers who use this book in other cities in Turkey should also draw implications from this study.

Finally, such an investigation may contribute to the studies related to materials evaluation, curriculum development and design of ELT materials for the responsible departments within the MoE.

1.4 Assumptions

This study assumes the following points:

- a. The results of the data collected from the 9th grades of Anatolian High Schools in Ankara can be generalized for the students who are studying at 9th grades of Anatolian High Schools all over the country.
- b. The data collection devices reflect the sincere thoughts and opinions of the participants.

1.5 Limitations

The present study originally contained two questionnaires administered to the target groups, namely the students and the teachers of the 9th grades in Anatolian High Schools in Ankara. The administration of the questionnaire only in Ankara may be a limitation of this study.

The present study couldn't be carried out in every Anatolian High School in Ankara because in some of the schools other MoE- approved coursebooks are also being used as the helping course material. This may be another limitation.

1.6 Definitions of Terms

CEF: This abbreviation refers to “Common European Framework”.

EFL: This abbreviation refers to “English as a Foreign Language”.

ELT: This abbreviation refers to “English Language Teaching”.

ESL: This abbreviation refers to “English as a Second Language”.

Instructional Materials: Anything that is used to teach language learners. Materials can be in the form of a textbook, a workbook, a cassette, a CD-ROM, a video, a newspaper a hand out. Anything that presents or informs about the language being learned (Tomlinson, 1998).

L2: This abbreviation refers to a second language. In this study it refers to English.

MoE: This abbreviation refers to “Turkish Ministry of Education”.

NBS: This abbreviation refers to the coursebook, “New Bridge to Success For Grade 9 Elementary”, approved by the Turkish MoE as the coursebook for the 9th grade students of Anatolian High Schools.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Presentation

In this chapter first the role of textbooks in ELT will be explained and then evaluation of ELT textbooks will be mentioned. After that reading skill will be explained and the role of vocabulary teaching and learning will be covered.

2.1 Role of Textbooks in ELT

English learning/teaching needs different kinds of materials because learners and teachers have different styles. In Richards and Rodgers' words (2001), the role of materials may change according to the different methodologies. In a functional/communicative methodology the leading role of the materials is to activate students' interpretation, negotiation and expression under interactive situations. The idea of practicing grammatical issues in isolation is rejected and the superiority is given to the presentation of meaningful, interesting and motivating language items. A varied choices of the language activities, exercises and tasks need to be selected and these selections should be 'presented in different instructional sources/resources' (p.30). On the other hand, in an individualized methodology, different learner styles should be taken into consideration. As each student has his/her own learning style, the materials should not restrict students' language learning process.

One of the materials widely used in ELT is textbooks. As Cunningsworth, (1995) states a textbook has always been the most preferred instructional material in ELT. They are best seen as a resource in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set concerning learner needs.

Regarding the role of ELT textbooks in the process of language teaching and learning, the majority of English language teaching professionals share a wide range of opinions about the use and usefulness of ELT textbooks in classes. According to Tomlinson (1998) some people are against ELT textbooks because of their being limited in content and application in meeting the needs of the students. On the other hand some people are more positive about the use of ELT textbooks because for them textbooks provide a structure and cohesion to the learning process. No matter which view one holds, it is a fact that ELT textbooks are used in many language classes and they are the key part of teaching. Moreover, the textbook has a vital and positive part to play in the everyday job of teachers and students in teaching and learning English. Furthermore textbooks became a universal element of ELT teaching. (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994, Tomlinson, 1998)

The importance and role of the textbook in the teaching/learning process are certainly recognized by both teachers and learners. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) in their article on the role of English textbooks in classes refer to one of the author's study in which teachers and students were asked why they wanted to use a published textbook. The result showed that learners saw the textbook as a

framework or guide that helps them to organize their learning both outside and inside the classroom during discussions in lessons, while doing activities and exercises, doing homework and preparing for tests. A textbook enables them to learn better, faster, clearer, easier and more. (p.318)

Specifically, textbooks include the aims and objectives of the language learning situation in a specific context; therefore, they provide a syllabus for the language program. Regarding the multiple roles of textbooks in ELT, Cunningsworth (1995) identifies a textbook as a resource in presenting the material, a source for learners to practice and do the activities. They also provide the learners with a reference source on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. What is more, textbooks serve as a syllabus and a self-study source for learners. They also serve as a support for the beginning teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. Thus, it can

be said that the fundamental role of textbooks is to be at the service of teachers and learners.

As for inexperienced teachers, Richards (2001) states that textbooks can serve as a tool to train them. Finally, he concludes that textbooks are efficient in that they allow much time for the teacher to focus on teaching rather than materials production.

Hutchinson and Torres (1994) also mention that the good textbook, as long as it is properly used, can be an excellent tool for effective and long-lasting change. They conclude that the textbook is an important means of satisfying a wide range of needs that come out from the classroom. Their role in education cannot be ignored because they make the lives of teachers and learners easier, more secure, and fruitful.

Regarding the advantages, Richards (2001) states that without textbooks a program may have no path, therefore they provide structure and a syllabus. Besides, the use of a textbook in a program can contribute students in different classes to receive a similar content and therefore they can be evaluated in the same way. In other words textbooks can provide the standards in instruction. Moreover, they may include a variety of learning resources such as workbooks, CDs and cassettes, videos, etc., which makes the learning environment interesting and enjoyable for the learners.

Similarly, Grant (1990) presents the opinions of teachers about the textbook in his book. Most teachers state that a textbook shows the order what is to be taught and learned and in which order it is to be taught and learned. They guide the teachers as to what methods to be used and as Richards (2001) states above, a textbook saves the teacher an extraordinary amount of time.

Ur (1996) also states that a textbook provides a clear framework. It makes clear what is coming next and learners know where they are going. Ur (1996) concludes that a textbook can gain the learner with some degree of autonomy. She states that a learner without a coursebook becomes more teacher-dependent.

Despite the improvements due to new technologies, textbooks will continue to play an important role in language teaching/learning. It will continue to be a useful resource for both teachers/learners. The role of the textbook in the language classroom is undeniable. Both teachers/learners need a guide to follow and textbooks definitely provide this.

2.2 Evaluating ELT textbooks

2.2.1 What is evaluation?

Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1994) state that ‘evaluation is an intrinsic part of teaching and learning’ (p.4). Evaluation is important for the teacher since it can provide valuable information on classroom practice, course planning, and management of learning tasks and students so evaluation is essential for the use of instructional materials such as textbooks.

Jones (1999) emphasizes that “in language learning and language teaching, evaluation generally refers to the theoretical or empirical assessment of the curriculum itself and its components from various perspectives: assessment of teacher performance, learner achievement, materials and so on” (p.21). Rea-Dickins and Germanie’s words about evaluation in the educational process support Jones’ (1999) definition of evaluation above. They state, “there is a need to evaluate language teaching methods, materials, and effectiveness as teachers and also how materials are presented to learners, the types of learning tasks used and the way the courses are designed. They all are part of the curriculum taking place both prior to and during the implementation of a learning program and they all must be evaluated” (p.5). They also define evaluation ‘as the means by which we can gain a better understanding of what’s effective, what’s less effective and what appears to be no use at all’ (p.28).

Tomlinson (1998) defines materials evaluation as the systematic judgement of the value of materials in relation to the aims of the materials and the learners who are

using them. What is more he points out that evaluation can be pre-use focusing on predictions of potential value. It can also be while-use focusing on awareness and description of what the learners are doing with the materials and it can be after-use so as to find out what happened as a result of using the instructional materials.

Yumuk (1998) states that generally in literature, materials evaluation is considered to be an 'interactive process' which involves a deeper analyses of the materials used. This further implies 'the dimension of focusing more closely on the interaction between teacher, learners and materials as an integral part of materials evaluation' (p.11).

Ellis (1997) distinguishes two types of materials evaluation, namely, predictive evaluation and retrospective evaluation. A predictive evaluation is designed to make a decision regarding what materials to use. Teachers who are required to carry out a predictive evaluation determine which materials are best suited to their purposes. Once the materials have been used, further evaluation that is to say retrospective evaluation, may be conducted to find out whether the materials have worked out for them.

Ellis (1997) indicates that there are two principle ways in which teachers can carry out predictive evaluation. One is to rely on evaluations carried out by expert reviewers who identify specific criteria for evaluating materials. However, in reviews of individual coursebooks the criteria can be inexact or implicit. The other way is that teachers can carry out their own predictive evaluations by making use of various checklists and guidelines available in the literature. The idea behind using such guides is to assist teachers carry out a predictive evaluation systematically, yet the author points out that 'there are limits to decide how scientific such an evaluation can be' (p.37). As Sheldon (1998) states, 'it is clear that coursebook assessment is fundamentally, a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula grid or system will ever provide a yardstick' (p.245).

Because of the reasons mentioned above evaluation of materials is needed because such an evaluation provides the teacher with feedback so as to determine whether it is worth using the material again. Thus, Ellis (1997) states that ‘a retrospective evaluation serves as a means of testing the validity of a predictive evaluation and what is more, it may point to ways in which the predictive instruments can be improved for future use (p.37). The aim of evaluation is to make the teaching/learning environment more effective. It helps teachers to make appropriate judgement concerning the effectiveness of their teaching including the materials they used.

Cunningsworth (1995) also talks about two types of evaluation. He claims that evaluation can take place before a coursebook is used, during its use and after use depending on the purposes for which the evaluation is being undertaken. The aim of a pre-use evaluation is to look future or potential performance of the coursebook. In-use evaluation, on the other hand, refers to a kind of evaluation which is carried out while the material is in-use. However, post-use evaluation provides retrospective assessment of a coursebook’s performance as Ellis (1997) has already mentioned.

Post–use evaluation is useful for identifying strengths and weaknesses of the particular coursebook after a period of continuous use. As Cunningsworth (1995) states post evaluation is considered to be useful in helping to decide whether to use the same coursebook on future occasions.

As Cunningsworth (1995) emphasizes, one of the major reasons for evaluation is to identify particular strengths and weaknesses in coursebooks already in use. Such activities also let teachers to make optimum use of their strong points and strengthen the weaker areas by adapting and substituting materials from other books.

Coursebook analyses and evaluation not only helps teachers to develop themselves but also helps them to gain good and useful insights into the nature of the material. Moreover, as Hutchinson (1987) points materials evaluation not only serves

the immediate practical aim of selecting teaching materials but also plays a critical role in developing teacher's awareness in a number of ways. By this awareness teachers are able to analyze their own presuppositions about the nature of language and learning because this also forces teachers to set their prerequisites and helps them to see materials as an essential part of the whole teaching/ learning situation.

2.2.2 Criteria for Materials Evaluation

Materials evaluation is really a complex matter; for there are many variables in the teaching/learning environment so success or failure of a coursebook depends on these variables. Thus, developing criteria to assess materials is one of the major steps to be taken for materials evaluation. Regardless of the teaching/learning situation, criteria instruments offered by different authors for the evaluation of materials range from a set of guidelines to more comprehensive checklists. Yet, since there is not only one strict criterion that may be suitable and applicable in all teaching/learning situations when the concern is the evaluation of materials, the selection of the criteria may be quite subjective. As Sheldon (1998) points out "no one is really certain what criteria and constraints are actually operative in ELT context, worldwide, and textbook criteria are emphatically local" (p.241). Since the nature of the teaching/learning environment may vary from contexts to contexts as Sheldon (1998) emphasizes, 'global list of criteria can never apply in most local environments, without considerable evaluation' (p. 242). Therefore it is important to consider the needs and interest of the particular learners in particular teaching situations while deciding on criteria for the evaluation of materials.

Grant (1987) proposed that three main questions are to be asked throughout his three-stage evaluation model, namely initial evaluation, detailed evaluation and in-use evaluation. These are as whether or not it fits, if it fits how well it fits and whether or not it still fits.

Grant (1987) suggests applying a "CATALYST" test since a textbook is to act as a catalyst in the classroom. The eight letters in the word CATALYST refers to

the eight criteria by the help of which can decide whether the textbook is appropriate for the classroom use. Thus, the test aims to find out the following issues:

- * **Communicative?** Is the text book communicative? This question aims to find out whether the students after using this book will be able to use the language to communicate.
- * **Aims?** Does it fit in with the aims and objectives?
- * **Teachable?** Does the course seem teachable? Does it seem reasonably easy to use, well organized, and easy to find your way round?
- * **Available Adds-ons?** Are there any useful adds-ons (additional materials) such as teacher's books, tapes, workbooks, etc.?
- * **Level?** Does the level seem out right?
- * **Your Impression?** What's your overall impression of the course?
- * **Student interest?** Are the students likely to find the book interesting?
- * **Tried and tested?** Has the course been tried and tested in real classrooms? Where? By whom? What were the results? How do you know? (P.119-120)

At the detailed evaluation stage, on the other hand Grant (1987) suggests a three-part questionnaire to be applied in order to decide how far the textbook meets the needs of the students and teachers and whether it suits the syllabus. The first part of the questionnaire aims to find out whether the textbook suits the intended learners through ten questions. It includes questions about the attractiveness of the book, the level of difficulty, length, interest level of the physical appearance of the book and authentic materials to present real life situations. Moreover, it investigates whether the textbook reflects the needs and interests of the learners and whether it is culturally acceptable. It also investigates whether the textbook provides learners with acceptable language input and practice using the language, and integrates skills and contains communicative activities that can help learners to use the language independently as well.

Second part of the questionnaire aims to find out whether the textbook suits the teachers in term of the contents and layout of the textbook, clarity and availability

and practicality of the teacher's guide, the adaptability of the approaches when necessary, preparation time, availability of ancillary materials such as tapes, workbooks, and visuals and provision for tests and revision.

The third part of the questionnaire assesses if the textbook suits the syllabus and examination concerning the coverage of the language, organization and sequence of the content and learning activities suitability of the method the textbook is based on in order to prepare the learners for the target examination, presentation of examination techniques and provision of examination practice.

Finally in-use evaluation involves using the textbook in class. Grant (1987) emphasizes that it is highly important to reevaluate the textbook constantly after adopting it to see whether it works in the classroom and to assess the effectiveness of the textbook while it is being used in the class.

McDonough and Shaw (1993) in their materials evaluation model, examine criteria in two complementary stages, namely external and internal stages. It is stated that the criteria proposed to assess the particular language teaching materials is meant to be 'as comprehensive as possible for the majority of ELT situations on worldwide basis.' (p. 66). However, they pinpoint that the evaluation process is continuous, never static and when materials are regarded appropriate for a particular course after a preliminary evaluation, their final success or failure may only be found out after a certain amount of classroom use.

The criteria at the external evaluation is based on the intended audience, the proficiency level, the context in which the materials are to be based, the presentation and organization of the teaching units/lessons, the author's views on language and methodology. These are factors to be taken into account while assessing the materials to be used. There are also some other factors that are to be questioned at the external stage.

These are as follows;

- * Are the materials to be used as the main “core” of course or to be supplementary to it?
- * Is a teacher’s book in print and locally available?
- * Is a vocabulary list/index included?
- * What visual material does the book contain (photographs, charts, diagrams)?
- * Is the layout and presentation clear and cluttered?
- * Is the material too culturally biased or specific?
- * Do the materials represent minority groups and for women in a negative way? Do they present a balanced picture of a particular country or society?
- * The inclusion of audio or video material and resultant cost. Is it essential to possess this extra material in order to use the textbook successfully?
- * The inclusion of tests in the teaching materials (diagnostic, progress, achievement). Would they be useful for your particular learners? (McDonough and Shaw 1993: 68-74)

McDonough and Shaw (1993) suggested that criteria for internal inspection as the treatment and presentation of the skills, the sequencing and grading of the materials, the suitability of reading, listening, speaking and writing materials involved in the materials, the relationships of texts and exercises to learner needs and what’s taught by the course material, the suitability of the material for different learning styles, provision for self study to develop learner autonomy, and teacher /learner balances in use of the materials.

The overall evaluation, on the other hand, concerns the suitability of the materials by considering the evaluative parameters such as the usability factor to evaluate how far the materials could be integrated into a particular syllabus as “core” or supplementary, the generalizability factor so as to learn whether there is a restricted use of “core” features which make the materials more generally useful. The adaptability factor to determine whether parts can be added, extracted or used in another context or modified for local circumstances and finally, the flexibility factor in order to find out how rigid the sequencing and grading is whether the materials

can be entered at different points and used in different ways (McDonough and Shaw, 1993:78).

It can be stated that both Grant (1987) and McDonough and Shaw (1993) emphasize the need to assess the effectiveness of the material as it is being used in the classroom so as to see whether it works in particular teaching/learning environment. McDonough and Shaw (1993) pinpoints that being selected materials can only be considered successful after classroom implementation and feedback.

Garinger (2001), however, offers a personal checklist which was developed to assess textbooks being used in a variety of community-based ESL (English as a Second Language) programs in a local setting. The evaluation checklist is composed of two parts, namely, Practical Considerations and Language Related Considerations.

Practical Considerations focuses on the availability of the textbook for teachers and students, clarity of the layout and physical characteristics of the textbook and cultural component that whether it is the inclusive of all cultures or it is culture sensitive.

Language Related Considerations, on the other hand, are the presentation of skills on the basis of language and cognitive presentation of language, that is whether there is authenticity, variety, recycling and sequencing in the language, presentation of exercises concerning the balance between free and controlled exercises, whether they promote communication in a meaningful way and allow for negotiation, and finally the clarity of user definition.

This new checklist is said to be used by teachers as an example of how to adopt other's evaluation claims to their own local settings. As Garinger (2001), at this point, states;

It is necessary for teachers to be well-equipped with the skills to evaluate materials to ensure that students are using the highest quality texts possible and that their

language learning experience is enhanced, not hindered, by the books used in their classrooms (p.5).

Breen and Candlin (1987) also proposes a set of questions that teachers can apply to published and locally produced language teaching materials. The aim of the two phase guide that they offer is to provide teachers with various criteria to choose materials that will cater for the needs of their learners at various levels and in various teaching setting. Questions posed in the first phase concerns the usefulness of materials in relation to such criteria as the aims and content of the material requirements of the material for learners and teachers, and its function as a classroom resource. Questions posed in the second phase of the guide, however, examines these issues raised in the first stage in detail focusing on the choice and the use of materials in the classroom. Thus, the criteria they suggest for evaluation materials focus on the appropriateness of the materials to learner needs and interests, learner approaches to language learning and the teaching/learning process in the classroom. In evaluating the appropriateness of the materials to learner needs and interests, the following questions are asked (Breen and Candlin, 1987:19-21):

- How and to what extent do the materials fit your learners' by term goals in learning the language and/or following your course?
- How far do the materials directly call on what your learners already know of and about the language?
- How far do the materials meet the immediate language learning needs of your learners as they perceive them?
- Which subject matter (topics, themes, ideas) in the materials is likely to be interesting and relevant to your learners?
- In what ways do the materials involve your learners' values, attitudes and feelings?
- Which skills do the materials highlight and what kinds of opportunity are provided to develop them?
- How much time and space, proportionately, is devoted to each skill?
- How is your learner expected to make use of his/her skills?
- How are the learners required to communicate when working with materials?

- How much time and space proportionately, is devoted to your learners interpreting meaning?
- How much time and space, proportionately, is devoted to your learners expressing meaning?
- How and how far can your materials meet the desire of individual learners to focus at certain moments on the development of a particular skill or ability use?

Thus as can be seen for the questions above, the author emphasizes the importance of assessing the effectiveness of language teaching materials concerning their invaluable input to learners' personal long-term goals in learning the language, the achievement of the knowledge and capabilities in the new language, appropriateness of the content to the personal interests of the learners, treatment and presentation of skills and abilities, consideration of differentiation in learners' needs focusing and developing skills and abilities.

In examining the appropriateness of the materials to the learners' own approaches to language learning, the following questions are asked: (Breen and Candlin 1987)

- * On what basis is the content of materials sequenced?
- * On what basis are the different parts of the materials divided into "units" or "lessons" and into different sub-parts of units or lessons?
- * On what basis do the materials offer continuity? How are relationships made between "earlier" and "later" parts?
- * To what extent and in what ways can the learners impose their own sequencing, dividing up and continuity on the materials as they work with them? (pp: 22-23)

In the second phase of the guide, there are some tactical questions concerned with defining classroom actions in order to decide on who works with whom, the choice and the planning of content, the planning and carrying out preferred ways of working, to decide on the aims of classroom activities, the allotted time to different classroom activities and resources to be used for the work.

In summary, the main concern with asking above questions is trying to clarify procedures for classroom language learning that are thought to be important and the degree to which materials fit in with such procedures. In other words, these questions focus on ‘the extent to which the materials allow in a sufficiently flexible way for the preferences both teachers and learners have in organizing and carrying out classroom work.’ (Breen and Candlin, 1987:26)

It is to be added that the main aim of this two-phase guide is to open a window for the teachers, through which they can investigate materials in particular ways and in order to achieve this, learners’ criteria for materials are of vital importance in their selection and design. Thus, discovering learners’ criteria, as Breen and Candlin (1987) pinpoint, are crucial for the process of selection and evaluation of the materials so as to build up a picture of their assumption and priorities since learners after all, are the primary users of materials.

Ellis and Ellis (1987) also suggest three main criteria in the evaluation of EFL course books: relevance, accessibility and cohesion. They claim that examining relevance in the area of textbook design should concern the signposts, (headlines, titles, photographs, etc.) audience, (availability of sufficient variety of design to intent the learner, the level of cartoon and photograph for the learner, the level of density and variety of text for the learner), color, and mimesis. Accessibility, on the other hand, should be examined in terms of clarity of the reading path on the grounds that ‘accessible material will have a clear reading path, possess obvious quality of production both in text presentation and lay out and in choice and use of visual support’ (Ellis and Ellis, 1987: 94). Moreover, quality and friendliness of a textbook design are also taken into account. Thirdly, cohesion is concerned with visual presentation and layout of the content. The authors suggest that overall coherence should be achieved through a variety of recognizable and consistent signals and patterns. Thus, Ellis and Ellis (1987) draw attention to the points such as uniformity of page allocations to unit, use of color, typographical and design conventions adopted within the materials.

Sheldon (1988) on the other hand, suggests some common main factors that reviewers, administrators, teachers, learners and educational advisors most frequently use in deciding on the suitability of a textbook. The criteria suggested by Sheldon (1988) examines rationale, availability, user definition, layout/ graphics, accessibility of the units and exercises, linkage, selection and grading, physical characteristics, suitability, authenticity, sufficiency of exercises or activities, cultural bias, educational validity, practice and revision, flexibility, guidance and overall value for money.

Sheldon points out that although coursebook assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definitive yardstick, utilizing similar evaluative parameters will allow making it. (Sheldon, 1988:249). Like Grant (1987) and McDonough and Shaw (1993), Sheldon (1988), also states that the success or failure of a coursebook can only be meaningful during and after a period of classroom use.

Hutchinson and Waters, (1987) in their model for the evaluation of materials, have claimed that materials evaluation is a matching process of which the steps are namely, define criteria, subjective analysis, objective analysis and matching. They propose a checklist of criteria for subjective analysis, which is the analysis of particular teaching/learning situation in terms of materials requirements and objective analysis, which is the analysis of materials to be evaluated. The checklist includes items related to the audience, aims, content, methodology, and other criteria.

The first part of checklist consists of some questions related to information about the learners such as their age, sex, nationality/ies, study or work specialization, language background and interests. The second part of the checklist includes questions about the aims of the material. The third part in the checklist involves questions related to the language points to be covered, skills, text types, subject matter, organization of content, and the sequence of content. The fourth part of the checklist investigates methodology including questions about the theory of learning,

attitudes of learners, expectations about the theories of learning English, learning exercises and tasks, teaching learning techniques, aids, guidance and support for teaching and flexibility. The last part includes questions about price and availability of materials.

Dougill (1987), on the other hand, has made some remarks upon textbook evaluation. He states that the first job of an evaluator is 'to establish the age-range, type of student and market aimed at, as well as the presumptions, aims and purposes of a textbook.' (Dougill, 1987:29) The criteria he suggests is grouped under the headings, namely, framework, the units, subject matter, form and course components. The framework focuses on the syllabus-how comprehensive the type of syllabus is and how relevant it is to the stated aims-, progression of the course revision and recycling, treatment of skills and cohesion. The section on units includes items such as the length of the unit, presentation, practice, variety and regularity, and clarity of purpose. Another part of the checklist is concerned with the subject matter which focuses on the interest level of students and cultural considerations. The next part of the checklist is related to form which assesses the effectiveness of materials in terms of visual appeal, motivating effect, illustrations and other features such as, list or explanations and tables. The final part focuses on the course components that include questions about the cassettes, teacher's book, tests, laboratory drills and workbooks. This checklist helps the evaluator consider the important factors in evaluating the effectiveness of a textbook.

Zenger (1982) also proposes a textbook evaluation checklist and the main purpose of this checklist, like others in the literature, is to help and guide the educators in judging how useful the textbook would be to them in their own teaching situations. The items are considered common and applicable to various types of textbooks. The checklist assesses the authorship focusing on the purpose of the author in writing the textbook and his/her experience in the subject area, general characteristics such as publication date, attractive appearance with recent illustrations, clarity of writing, cost, physical and mechanical features including pages, cover paper, binding, illustrations and tables, philosophy of the material focusing on

clarity , sequence and continuity, objectives, subject matter content that concerns accuracy, interest level, individual differences, and coverage of skills and content. Finally, the checklist examines the appropriateness of the textbook with regard to teaching aids and supplementary material. A six-scale (excellent, good, acceptable, poor, not included and not applicable) is used in the questionnaire (Zenger, 1982:148-159).

Skierso (1991), on the other hand, suggests collecting certain preliminary information about the students, teachers, and the course syllabus. The institution is of vital importance prior to the process of textbook evaluation. The author also proposes a guide to textbook analysis, which is in the form of a checklist. Skierso (1991) pinpoints that this guide is also very useful for the novice teachers on the grounds that it provides a direction for the contents of the assessment. The criteria examine the bibliographical data, aims and goals, subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercises and activities, and layout and physical makeup. The criteria for the evaluation of teacher's manual, on the other hand, are based on the general features, supplementary exercises for each language skills, methodological and pedagogical guidance and linguistic background information.

The bibliographical data tries to find out the author's qualification, availability of supplementary materials, completeness, and quality of supplementary materials and cost of the textbook. Aims and goals are examined focusing on the targeted students specifications, matching to students needs, matching to syllabus requirements, compliance with overall educational concerns and feasibility. The subject matter, on the other hand, is evaluated according to some subtitles such as suitability and interest level of reading, variety of text types, content grading, and level of abstractness, register, cultural sensitivity, content accuracy, authenticity, currency and cultural integration.

Vocabulary and structures coming next in the checklist focus on grammar and vocabulary. Grammar is examined in terms of number and sequence appropriateness,

accuracy, clarity and completeness and meaningfulness of the contexts. Vocabulary, on the other hand, is assessed in terms of load suitability and appropriate context.

The particular part also examines the readability level of texts, inclusiveness per text and syllabus, sequence of progression, adequate control of presentation, distribution of language input, suitability of presentation, practice and recycling, recycling for reinforcement and integration, language, suitability of sentence length and syntactic complexity, cultural presentation and accessibility.

The next part of the checklist related to exercises and activities focuses on satisfaction of syllabus objectives, fulfillment of student objectives, effectiveness, sequence toward communication, meaningful communication, communicative development, internalization through active participation, promotion of critical thinking, instructional clarity and appropriateness, stereotype-free content, suitability and interest level, development of study skills, and provision for review.

The last part of the checklist investigates the effectiveness of layout and physical makeup in relation to motivational attractiveness, suitability of durability, organizational clarity and function, effectiveness in presentation, relativity, linkage and integration, stereotype-free accurate authentic portrayal, suitability of artwork, illustrative clarity and simplicity and motivational atmosphere. (Skierso, 1991)

Turkish Ministry of Education, Department of Educational Research and Development (1993) also proposes a coursebook design model, which contains guidelines as well as the criteria for coursebook design. The major criteria proposed consist of the following seven criteria:

1. Relevancy of the material to the needs and interests of the learners.
2. Adequacy of the material to meet and support the development of the objectives
3. Sequence and continuity in the materials and the link between the material and the students' subject of study.
4. Contribution of the material in encouraging the learners to gain different points of views.

5. Appropriateness of the time specified in the material.
6. Clarity of instructions.
7. Opportunities for self evaluation (cited in Yumuk, 1998:68)

As can be understood, prior to textbook evaluation, a systematic definition and application of criteria is the crucial point. Each teaching /learning situation is unique and criteria to be used for the evaluation of materials may differ concerning the particular needs of the teaching environment. In terms of the criteria suggested by different authors above, the focus can be considered mainly on the effectiveness of materials to the aims, needs and interests of the learners, consideration of learning style differences, selection and organization in the coursebook, treatment of the skills, physical appearance, and authenticity. (Breen and Candlin, 1987; Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis and Ellis 1987; Grant, 1987; Hutchinson, 1987; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991, Williams 1993; Zenger, 1982)

2.2.3 Evaluating the presentation of reading

2.2.3.1 What is reading?

Reading is described as both a process and a product. The main purpose of reading is to develop the necessary attitudes, abilities and skills in the reader which are needed for obtaining information, agreeing or reacting to ideas, and developing interests (Badrawi, 1992:16). Grabe and Stoller (2002:9 cited in Razi, 2005) define reading as the ability to extract meaning from the printed page and interpret this knowledge correctly. Another definition of reading is that it is the act of constructing meaning from text (Pressley, 1998 cited in New Mexico Reading Initiative, 2005).

Reading is a continuously developing skill. It is not possible to learn all at once; it improves by making practice.

Reading is an interactive process between a reader and a text. While trying to extract the meaning, there is a dynamic interaction between the reader and the text

(Alyousef, 2005). The most important goal of language learning programs is learning to read with understanding (Dlugosz, 2000:289). Learners should learn a number of reading skills which will help them in comprehension. They should be taught how to read for the main idea, for details, for specific information, for the gist of the text. They should also read critically and use the dictionary (Badrawi, 1992:17). It is the EFL teachers' job to supplement effective reading activities to help learners become efficient readers (Rivas, 1999:12).

Reading has five phases. The first one is the pre-pre-reading phase. In this stage, students make short exercises or discuss interesting messages. These activities also help learners do some review of materials previously taught (Reis, 1993). The second one is the before reading phase and its goal is to give or activate the background knowledge to the readers for comprehension of texts. The third one is the while-reading phase. Strategy and skill practice, and linguistic development, as well as helping learners to understand the purpose of the writer, and the text structure and content are the main goals of this phase. The fourth one, the post-reading phase helps the readers to relate the text to their own life, knowledge, and opinions. The fifth one is the home-reading, which helps the readers to get some background knowledge before reading and during reading (Rivas, 1999:16-18).

In the Phil's EFL Support Site (2005), it is stated that pre-reading phase introduces and stimulates interest in the topic and motivates students by providing a reason for reading. It also provides language preparation for the text. While-Reading phase clarifies content and vocabulary of the text and helps students understand the writer's purpose. It helps students understand the structure of the text as well. In the post-reading phase, the aim is to consolidate and reflect upon what has been said and relate the text to the students' own knowledge. This phase provides a stimulus for other language activities. Lately, a fifth stage has been added which can be considered as pre-pre-reading stage. In this stage, students make short exercises or discuss interesting messages. These activities also help learners do some review of materials previously taught (Reis, 1993).

While reading, information is extracted according to the purpose of reading, interests, motivations, and so on. Our previous experience and knowledge of the world helps us to understand cohesion, coherence, concepts and points of view, and the conventions of the written language (Lopes, 1991:42). Relevant background experience reinforces understanding (Williams, 1983:11). Badrawi (1992:16) mentioned that "If the reader's background, training, attitude, and so on, are similar to the writer's, he is likely to interpret the text with no conscious effort".

The types of texts we generally come across are novels, short stories, tales, other literary texts and passages, essays, diaries, anecdotes, biographies, plays, poems, letter postcards, telegrams, notes, newspaper and magazine headlines and articles, letters to the editor, weather forecasts, radio and TV programs, reviews, handbooks, text-books and guide books. The reason for reading is to get something from the writing: facts, ideas, enjoyment, even feelings. The aim is to get the message the writer has expressed. This is the authentic reason for reading. Students usually read to improve, practice, and consolidate specific linguistic items—vocabulary, structure, and so on. This is not the authentic use of a text. In the reading classes, teachers' concern should be to increase motivation by making foreign language reading interesting. The stronger your interest, the greater your comprehension (Martin, 1991). So, authentic materials should be used in reading classes to reflect the authentic purposes for which people do in fact read. Therefore, the first requirement in a reading lesson is that the text should;

- * interest the students,
- * be at the right level of difficulty,
- * be authentic (Evangelidou, et al., 1990:31).

It is stated that the major reasons for lack of reading comprehension are poor motivation and lack of experience. However, teachers can help students regain their motivation and improve their reading performance by connecting reading assignments to real-world reading experiences (Hollaway, 1999).

2.2.3.2 Types of Reading Skills

Although our reading purposes vary in our lives and some of the terms related with reading such as skimming or scanning are of then used indiscriminately, therefore the main ways of reading and their definitions are given as follows: 1) Scanning; 2) Skimming; 3) Reading aloud; 4) Silent reading; 5) Intensive reading; 6) Extensive reading; 7) Narrow reading; 8) Critical reading.

2.2.3.2.1 Scanning

Scanning is described as a type of reading which involves finding a particular piece of information located in a material. In order to locate information quickly depends on the reader's knowledge about how a text is organized (Ghani, 1993:42-43). Howard (2005) describes scanning as surveying a text to find the part that contains the information readers need.

2.2.3.2.2 Skimming

Skimming means to glance rapidly through a text to determine its general content or gist. It can be asked to students to locate facts to say briefly what a text is about (Evangelia et.al, 1990:31). Students can learn something of the text topic by using the title and any subheadings; it should be known that the first and last paragraphs often include valuable background, summarizing, or concluding information. The students should be aware of the importance of topic sentences and where to find them. Thuss (1999) states that before starting to read a text in detail, the reader should take a moment to preview the text. Reading quickly without pausing to study the details is called skim reading or skimming. The reader should understand:

- * For which audience the text was written (general public, professionals, laymen, etc.).
- * What type of text it is (report, informal letter, article, advertisement, etc.).

* What the purpose of the author is (to describe, to inform, to explain, to instruct, to persuade).

* The general contents of the text.

2.2.3.2.3 Reading Aloud

Reading aloud is one of the most used techniques in reading classes (Nicholas, 1989:33). Reading aloud shows the relationship between the printed word and meaning (NW, 2005). Hubbard (1983, in Nicholas 1989:33) points out that reading aloud is a useful technique for testing pronunciation and general fluency. Dhaif (1990:458, in Amer 1997:43) states that reading aloud is especially important at the early stages of learning the language. Beginning readers aim to read word by word. By reading aloud, they read longer semantic units rather than focusing on graphic cues. At this point, reading aloud helps readers to achieve a higher level of comprehension by reading longer meaningful units of texts rather than focusing on individual units.

2.2.3.2.4 Intensive Reading

Intensive reading means reading shorter texts to get detailed information with a specific emphasis on complete understanding. LeLoup and Ponterio (2005) describe intensive reading as reading texts by closely focusing on meaning and structures to get all the details. Texts are studied intensively in order to introduce and practice reading skills such as distinguishing the main idea of a text from the detail, finding pronoun referents, or guessing the meaning of unknown words.

2.2.3.2.5 Extensive Reading

Appleton (2005) expresses that extensive reading is to read extended texts for pleasure willingly. LeLoup and Ponterio (2005) define extensive reading as reading longer texts without focusing on details or looking up all vocabulary. Robb and Susser (1989) point out that an extensive reading program is the single most effective

way of improving both vocabulary and reading skills in general. The selected texts for extensive reading should be authentic, since extensive reading helps the readers develop their reading ability and language competence.

2.2.3.2.6 Narrow Reading

Narrow reading is defined as confining reading to a single topic or works by a single author. According to Frendrickson (2001), the theory is that by reading within the same topic, you can more easily understand the main ideas and the vocabulary used to describe them. Instead of struggling with totally new material, you will see many words and ideas repeated –a big help in understanding and remembering them. He states that the newspaper is the perfect place to find material for narrow reading.

2.2.3.2.7 Critical Reading

Critical reading is described as the reader's applying of certain processes, models, questions, and theories that result in enhanced clarity and comprehension (The Writing Centre, 2005). Knott's definition (2005) of critical reading is the ability of making judgement about how a text is argued. For active, critical reading to occur, students must be encouraged to question, to make predictions, and to organize ideas which support value judgement. Critical reading helps the reader to engage in the process of reading actively and constructively.

2.2.3.2.8 Sustained Silent Reading

Sustained Silent Reading is a period of uninterrupted silent reading (Ladbrook, 2002). Grabe (1991:380, cited in Appleton, 2005) stated that silent reading helps the reader build their vocabulary and structural awareness, develop automaticity, increase background knowledge, develop comprehension skills and improve motivation and confidence.

2.2.3.3. Selection of Reading Materials

The selection of appropriate reading passages is one of the more complex tasks facing the English as a foreign language reading teacher. It is an important decision because it is the content of the materials that determines the amount of vocabulary, language structures and concepts which form a reading program (Cartwright and Cartwright, 1985). It's teacher's duty to motivate reading by selecting the appropriate reading materials, especially for the beginners (Alyousef, 2005).

2.2.3.3.1 Interest Factor in Selection of Reading Materials

Banville (2005) expresses the view that some students do not have sufficient interest in some subjects that enable them to understand the new content so, the topics should be more relevant and more interesting for the students. Capturing students' interest is the key element in reading. If the teachers choose interesting reading materials for the students, they will read them willingly (Stanley, 2005).

2.2.3.3.2 Difficulty Level of Reading Materials

A text should be at the right level of difficulty for the students. The question is to assess the right level of difficulty and determine the number of unknown items which can be included in a reading passage. Too many unfamiliar words in a passage can decrease comprehension (Krashen, 1982:48).

Obviously, vocabulary is not the only criterion in selecting materials. However, if the aim is to read a great deal both in and outside the class, the reading material selected for the students should not be too complicated linguistically. A text which is structurally difficult for students will only distract the students and force them to look up many words per page in order to understand the content of the story. Obviously, this will not be an enjoyable activity. As it is known that the primary concern of reading classes is motivation and this motivation should not be killed by

providing the students with materials consisting of hundreds of unfamiliar words which certainly kill the pleasure of reading (Gephard, 1987:52).

2.2.3.3.3 Authentic Texts

The purpose of an authentic text is to communicate meaning. In other words, an authentic text is one which is written for native speakers of that language to form an authentic communication (Shelton, 2006). Authentic materials help students deduct cultural messages and prepare them pleasure reading.

2.2.3.3.4 Simplified Texts

Simplified texts are those that are created or adapted to be more accessible to the reader (Heather, 1993). Daskalos and Ling (2005) express the view that reading texts can be simplified in order to readers' needs and ease comprehension. In other words, simplification of texts used in the classroom is deliberately made by the teacher so that students can understand what they read without too much worrying about unknown words and complex grammar rules. Swaffar (1985, cited in Claridge, 2005) states that simplified texts aim to teach language rather than to communicate. There should also be a balance in the simplified texts; not too simple and not too difficult.

2.2.3.4. Readability

Readability describes the ease with which a document can be read. Readability tests, which are mathematical formulas, were designed to assess the suitability of books for students at particular grade levels or ages.

The tests were intended to help educators, librarians and publishers make decisions about purchase and sale of books. They were also meant to save time - because before the formula was used those decisions were made on recommendations of educators and librarians who read the books. These people were

taking books already written and figuring out who were the appropriate reading groups.

Webster's defines "readable" as: "fit to be read, interesting, agreeable and attractive in style; and enjoyable.

Obviously, readability formulas cannot measure features like interest and enjoyment. Also, when we ask whether text is understood by its reader we are questioning is "comprehensibility". Readability formulas cannot measure how comprehensible a text is. And they cannot measure whether a text is suitable for particular readers needs.

Today readability formulas are usually based on one semantic factor (the difficulty of words) and one syntactic factor (the difficulty of sentences). Words are either measured against a frequency list or are measured according to their length in characters or syllables. Sentences are measured for the average length in characters or words.

Readability tests can be performed manually by counting and doing a mathematical calculation, or be referring to a chart or graph. Readability tests can be performed by computer. Most grammar or editing software today can perform several readability tests.

In recent years, researchers have emphasized that readability tests can only measure the surface characteristics of text. Qualitative factors like vocabulary difficulty, composition, sentence structure, concreteness and abstractness, obscurity and incoherence can not be measured mathematically. They have pointed out that material which receives a low-grade level score may be incomprehensible to the target audience. As an example, they suggest that you consider what happens if you scramble the words in a sentence, or on a larger scale, randomly rearranged the sentences in a whole text. The readability score could be low, but comprehension would be lacking.

2.2.3.4.1 Advantages of Readability Tests

The primary advantage is they can serve as an early warning system to let the writer know that the writing is too dense. They can give a quick, on-the-spot assessment. They have been described as "screening devices" to eliminate dense drafts and give rise to revisions or substitutions.

In some organizational settings, readability tests are considered useful to show measurable improvement in written documents. They provide a quantifiable measure of improvement or simplification.

2.2.3.4.2 Things Readability Tests Can't Tell

Readability tests cannot tell us the followings:

- How complex the ideas are
- Whether or not the content is in a logical order
- Whether the vocabulary is appropriate for the audience
- Whether there is a gender, class or cultural bias
- Whether the design is attractive and helps or hinders the reader
- Whether the material appears in a form and type style that is easy or hard to read

Because the readability formula is based on measuring words and sentences, they cannot take into account the variety of resources available to different readers. Reader resources are word recognition skills, interest in the subject, and prior knowledge of the topic. The formula cannot measure the circumstances in which the reader will be using the text or form - both the psychological and the physical situations. The formula cannot adjust for the needs of people for whom the text is written in a second or additional language.

Studies have shown that readability, interest and prior knowledge in the reader are equally important factors in comprehension and retention of information. The ease of reading that the reader experiences is also directly influenced by the writer's use of physical, syntactic, semantic and contextual cues which cannot be

measured by these tests. Such clues include the use of personal pronouns, the lay-out and design of the text, the typography (use of highlighting and italics, etc), the use of signal words (now, then, but, later) and so on.

2.2.3.5. Examples of readability tests

2.2.3.5.1. Flesch Reading Ease Formula

Flesch Reading Ease Formula is considered as one of the oldest and most accurate readability formulas. Rudolph Flesch, an author, writing consultant, and a supporter of the Plain English Movement, developed this formula in 1948. Raised in Austria, Rudolph Flesch studied law and earned a Ph.D. in English from the Columbia University. Flesch, through his writings and speeches, advocated a return to phonics. In his article, *A New Readability Yardstick*, published in the Journal of Applied Psychology in 1948, Flesch proposed the Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula.

The Flesch Reading Ease Formula is a simple approach to assess the grade-level of the reader. It's also one of the few accurate measures around that we can rely on without too much scrutiny. This formula is best used on school text. It has since become a standard readability formula used by many US Government Agencies, including the US Department of Defense. However, primarily, we use the formula to assess the difficulty of a reading passage written in English.

2.2.3.5.2. The Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula

The specific mathematical formula is:

$$\text{RE} = 206.835 - (1.015 \times \text{ASL}) - (84.6 \times \text{ASW})$$

RE = Readability Ease

ASL = Average Sentence Length (i.e., the number of words divided by the number of sentences)

ASW = Average number of syllables per word (i.e., the number of syllables divided by the number of words)

The output, i.e., RE is a number ranging from 0 to 100. The higher the number, the easier the text is to read.

- Scores between 90.0 and 100.0 are considered easily understandable by an average 5th grader.
- Scores between 60.0 and 70.0 are considered easily understood by 8th and 9th graders.
- Scores between 0.0 and 30.0 are considered easily understood by college graduates.

If we were to draw a conclusion from the Flesch Reading Ease Formula, then the best text should contain shorter sentences and words. The score between 60 and 70 is largely considered acceptable. The following table is also helpful to assess the ease of readability in a document:

90-100 : Very Easy

80-89 : Easy

70-79 : Fairly Easy

60-69 : Standard

50-59 : Fairly Difficult

30-49 : Difficult

0-29 : Very Confusing

Though simple it might seem the Flesch Reading Ease Formula has certain ambiguities. For instance, periods, explanation points, colons and semicolons serve as sentence delimiters; each group of continuous non-blank characters with beginning and ending punctuation removed counts as a word; each vowel in a word is considered one syllable subject to: (a) -es, -ed and -e (except -le) endings are ignored; (b) words of three letters or shorter count as single syllables; and (c) consecutive vowels count as one syllable.

2.2.3.5.3. The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level

The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level is an index that gives the years of education required to comprehend a document. For example, a document with a Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level score of 10 would require that a reader have about 10 years (or a 10th grade level) of education to comprehend the document. It can be calculated using the following equation:

$$(0.39 \times \text{Average Sentence Length}) + (11.8 \times \text{Average Syllables per Word}) - 15.59$$

2.2.4 Evaluating the presentation of vocabulary in ELT textbooks

In teaching/learning of a language, vocabulary has been an inevitable part. Although when a person knows the grammar rules, it is difficult for him/her to comprehend what is meant or to convey his/her ideas without enough vocabulary. As textbooks are considered to be one of the widely used sources of learning/teaching, there are a lot of points to evaluate in the textbooks. Some of them are vocabulary load, level of the text, sequence of the vocabulary, recycling, length of the sentences.

Focusing on the presentation of vocabulary, the vocabulary load should be consistent with the intended level of the learners. It is also necessary to investigate whether the vocabulary items are sequenced in order to achieve a systematical gradation. Recycling is another important issue in vocabulary teaching, thus the previously learned vocabulary need to be revised at reasonable intervals. Moreover, the length of the sentences should be controlled in order not to distract students' attentions (Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979). Additionally, Skierso (1991) considers that it is essential to question on which criteria the vocabulary items are selected. In order to exemplify, it is necessary to investigate whether they are structured on 'frequency counts, thematic units, or communicative, socio-cultural functions' (p. 436).

Ur (1996) proposes a list wherein the suggested items concerning the selection process of the lexical units exist. According to her, varied definitions of words can be provided similar to the explanations in dictionaries. New words can also be presented with the use of explanations and pictures. In addition, a context such as sentences, paragraphs and texts is essential for presenting the vocabulary. It is an alternative to teach vocabulary with the use of antonyms, synonyms and collocations. Translation can also be considered another way of presenting the meaning of new items.

Cunningsworth (1995) suggests six criteria in order to evaluate the lexical presentations in ELT materials:

- Is vocabulary learning material included on its own right? If so, how prominent is it? Is it central to the course or peripheral?
- How much vocabulary is taught?
- Is there any principled basis for the selection of vocabulary?
- Is there any distinction between the active and passive vocabulary, or classroom vocabulary?
- Is vocabulary presented in a structured, purposeful way? Are learners sensitized to the structures of the lexicon through vocabulary learning exercises based on semantic relationships, formal relationships, collocations and situation-based word groups?
- Does the material enable students to expand their own vocabularies independently by helping them to develop their own learning strategies?(p.46)

2.3. Inspection criteria for this study

One of the criteria evaluated in this study is the load of vocabulary in reading texts. The extent to which the students can make use of a coursebook depends on the appropriateness of the textbook to the level of the students concerned. The level of difficulty of the vocabulary to be taught in the reading texts, task/activities and exercises and the level of instructions should neither be below the student's level nor

far beyond their proficiency level and developmental stages. It is also necessary to investigate whether the vocabulary items are sequenced in order to achieve a systematical gradation. Recycling is another important issue in vocabulary teaching, thus the previously learned vocabulary need to be revised at reasonable intervals. Moreover, the length of the sentences should be controlled in order not to distract students' attentions (Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979). Additionally, Skierso (1991) considers that it is essential to question on which criteria the vocabulary items are selected. In order to exemplify, it is necessary to investigate whether they are structured on 'frequency counts, thematic units, or communicative, socio-cultural functions' (p. 436).

Another criterion is a part of physical appearance, illustrations. As Dougill (1987) points out, the physical appearance of materials should be appealing enough to motivate learners. He also mentions that the illustrations should serve a function rather than be a decorative and it is also to be considered whether the visual material has a cosmetic value or it has actually integrated into the text so that the learner can make use of it and has a comment on it as well. Illustrations can be considered as the most important aspect of the design in EFL textbooks. A colorful and appealing selection of the pictures is effective in terms of attracting students' attention in the language learning process (Sheldon, 1988). However, in most cases, the illustrations are criticized because of being childish and poor in quality (color and clarity). They also fail to reflect the actual scene presented in the relevant reading passages, listening scripts, tasks and exercises. The clarity of the illustrations is of crucial importance since, in most cases, the information in the relevant material is transferred by the use of pictures.

Next criterion is content because it affects learners' interest, understanding and success. According to the checklist that Skierso (1991) offers, what subject matter (topics, content) is covered, whether the topics are interesting for the learners or not and also how (if at all) culture is presented are all questioned and what is more, what text types such as, dialogues, notes, songs, poems, essays, biographies, letters, newspaper articles, jokes, folktales, etc the textbook contain. Finally, Skierso (1991)

in his checklist, questions whether the texts in the coursebook are authentic, up to date or not.

The topics used in the language teaching materials act as vehicles in order to reflect the thematic content (subject matter). According to Cunningsworth (1995), although the main aim in designing language courses is to enhance language learning, it cannot be taught as a single subject because language occurs under real situations in our lives. Besides, learners come to the classroom with their own 'attributes, knowledge, attitudes, skills, cognitive abilities, curiosity and experience'. A textbook would be successful if it includes both the knowledge necessary for language learning and provides relevant subject matter that is successful in addressing students' background. It is also important to indicate that the topics should be interesting, lively, amusing, and challenging for students. The topics in the textbooks should reflect different aspects of real life by referring to authenticity; furthermore, they would initiate interactions among learners to acquire communicative skills like expressing opinions, draw conclusions and transferring those conclusions into other platforms (p.86).

In EFL settings, the cultural representations of the target language in textbooks can be problematic since the learners try to acquire the unfamiliar input of the target language culture and need to be acknowledged concerning the stereotyped representations of the people in native speaking communities. As a result of this situation, the EFL learners have difficulties in terms of integrating the unfamiliar cultural aspects and the linguistic forms of the target language concurrently. In addition, the EFL learners' own cultural norms would cause their resistance in learning a foreign language. Therefore, it is the mission of the author of the textbook to create a bridge in which the learners are accustomed with the new values of L2 by presenting the familiar issues at the first stages of language learning. Evoking students' intercultural knowledge by providing comparisons across different cultures is another way of confronting misunderstandings concerning the target language representations (Alptekin, 1993). Instead of focusing on the culture of a certain society, the intercultural language learning is also recommended by other scholars

since the aim is to equip learners with the information belonging his home culture and different cultures including the target language presentations, as a result, students become aware of their own cultural values and begin to understand the cultural values of different societies (Leather, 2001; Patcher, 1999; Straub, 1999; Tavares and Cavalcanti, 1996; Alptekin, 2002, as cited in Kılıçkaya, 2004).

When the subject is vocabulary, as well as teaching as many words as possible, one of the targets of coursebooks should be to equip learners with strategies for handling the unfamiliar vocabulary they inevitably will meet. They can also help learners to develop their own vocabulary learning strategies. Nearly in all modern coursebooks, there are vocabulary learning activities. The aim of these activities should be to help learners to extend and develop their vocabulary in a purposeful and structured way. Evaluating the presentation and practice of vocabulary should be taken into consideration since 'it is often asserted with some truth that , particularly at lower levels , students can communicate more effectively with a knowledge of vocabulary than with a knowledge of grammar' (Cunninsworth, 1995:38).

Consideration of learning styles differences is one of the recent criterion emphasized by many authors, particularly who are in favour of a learner-centered approach to learning. Whether the textbook is suitable for different learning styles and whether they address different learning styles preferences to a certain extent are claimed by many authors in the literature (McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Sheldon, 1987; Tomlinson, 1998)

According to Tomlinson (1998) different learners have different preferred learning styles. This means that activities should be variable and should cater for all learning styles. Styles of learning to be catered for in language learning materials include perceptual learning styles such as visual, auditory, and kinesthetic. Others are studial, experiential, analytic global, independent and dependent learning. Visual learners prefer to see the language written down. Thus, as Celce-Murcia (2001) implies visual learners like to read and benefit a lot from visual materials. For visual learners, lectures, conversations and oral instructions without any related material

can be very boring. Auditory learners, on the other hand, benefit from such lectures conversations and oral instructions. They are keen on classroom interactions in role plays as they learn from hearing words spoken and oral explanations. Kinesthetic learners, however, prefer to learn best by being involved physically in classroom experiences. They like lots of movement and enjoy tangible objects, and flashcards. Sitting and doing the task for a long time is not for them. To conclude, the materials should include sufficient number of visuals that support what is studied and also varies of activities that allow learning through listening and learning through touching and being physically involved.

2.4 Techniques for teaching vocabulary

2.4.1. Historical Review

When the Grammar Translation Method was first introduced to teach modern languages with a strong emphasis on accuracy and explicit grammar rule, vocabulary received limited attention and was only selected to illustrate grammar rule (Schmitt, 2000). The bilingually written word lists which presented new words in isolation were an important resource for student's vocabulary learning. In the 1970s, while Audio-Lingual Method was dominating, language learning was believed to be a process of habit formation. Systematic attentions were paid to pronunciation and oral drilling of sentence pattern. The vocabulary teaching had to be relatively simple since the primary focus was on grammatical and phonological structure. New words were introduced only if they were needed to make drill possible (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

During that particular period, the idea that learning too much vocabulary early in the language learning process gives students a false sense of security was maintained (Zimmerman, 1997a).

Later, the Communicative Language Teaching in the 80s, once again gave vocabulary a secondary status. CLT gives a little guidance about how to handle

vocabulary since it primarily focused on the meanings, the appropriate uses, and the communicative competence of L2. Vocabulary was taught mainly as support for functional language use. It was assumed that if L2 learning took place in communicatively meaning contexts, vocabulary would take care of itself (Schmitt 2000).

Only in the Vocabulary Control Movement did vocabulary receive significant attention. During the Vocabulary Control movement, the first attempt to compile a list of minimum necessary English vocabulary appeared under the influence of Ogden and Richards (cited in Schmitt, 2000) whose works are known as “Basic English” consisting of 850 words. The second attempt, partially reacting to the Direct Method, was collectively recorded in the Carnegie Report (in Schmitt, 2000) in which word frequency was the main criterion in selecting words.

This list containing about 2000 words and was eventually published as the “General Service List of English Words” by West in 1953 (Nation, 1990). For the first time, vocabulary was treated as one of the most important aspects of L2 learning.

2.4.2. Current Trends

The current trend of L2 vocabulary instruction focuses on natural occurring discourse and emphasize that words should always be learned in context than in isolated word lists (Nattinger, 1988). Besides, with the assistance of computer-aided research, the status of vocabulary has changed dramatically within the last two decades because the corpus studies was providing huge amounts of database and information about how words are actually used in English. The COBUILD project (Sinclair and Renouf, 1988) contains a corpus of 20 million words, accounting for patterns of phrase and clause sequence in actual English use.

New directions of the L2 vocabulary learning and teaching first call attention for the study of word relationship, such as collocations, i.e., words’ co-occurrence that happens very often and more frequently than would happen by chance (Seal,

1991; Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997). Researchers begin to believe that best vocabulary learning involves learning frequent chunks, such as collocations, lexical phrases, and idioms, rather than learning by the process of piecing together isolated words. Learning language chunks enables learners to achieve native-like fluency because those frequent lexical chunks are what native speaker uses in everyday conversation.

Secondly, the integration of lexical syllabus into former topic-, notion-, or function-based syllabuses has been emphasized (Willis, 1990). Willis believes that a lexical syllabus based on naturalistic and authentic use of language would reconcile the contradiction between the traditional methodologies and the Communicative Approach. Both of these two groups have been proved to be somehow inefficient as the former ones itemize and piece language, the Communicative Approach treats language too holistically. The lexical syllabus that exposes learners to language items in natural contexts (like collocations) enables them to learn from their own experience.

Finally, Lewis (1993) proposes the integration of the Communicative Approach into classroom activities with a focus on naturally occurring vocabulary. Embracing most of the assumption of the Communicative Approach to language teaching, he introduces “Lexical Approach” which is a lexical-based teaching method that emphasized on the acquisition of multiword phrases, including poly-words, collocations, fixed and semi-fixed expression. In Lewis’s view of language, he claims that lexical items are central to both language use and teaching as “language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar” (p. 89).

2.4.3. Major Issues in the Teaching of Vocabulary

Main issues centering on L2 vocabulary acquisition include:

1. the definition of word knowledge,
2. explicit versus implicit vocabulary teaching, and
3. the selection and sequencing of vocabulary.

2.4.3.1. The Definition of Word Knowledge

Many researchers have debated the argument about whether we should emphasize the receptive or productive knowledge of a word, even though they all recognize the complicate nature of vocabulary (Channell, 1988; Stoller and Grabe, 1997).

Channell (1988) defines L2 vocabulary acquisition as; “the meaning of an L2 word can be recognized and understood both in and out of context, and it can be used naturally and appropriately to situation” (p. 84).

Based on her definition, receptive knowledge precedes productive one, as acquisition of individual vocabulary comprises first comprehension, then production. However, Stoller and Grabe (1997) argue that it is too simple and general to consider the notion of “receptive” and “productive” of vocabulary learning.

From a different perspective, Nation (1990) proposes that a native speaker must master all of the followings in order to “know a word”: the meaning(s), written and spoken form, grammatical behavior, collocations, register, association, and frequency of the word. Adding to Nation’s definition, Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) note that such a list gives just a descriptive picture of a word, it is best to think of vocabulary knowledge as an integrated whole. In addition, Gu (1994) perhaps provides the best definition for the minimum word knowledge an L2 learner needs to know in her case studies of the specific vocabulary learning strategies used by Taiwanese EFL students. She reports that knowing a word should at least include the form, the referential meaning, and the basic syntactic behavior of each word.

2.4.3.2. Implicit versus Explicit Teaching of Vocabulary

Debates on whether vocabulary should be taught explicitly or implicitly have been severe. The current consensus can be best summarized as the followings:

a. The beginning learners need more explicit /direct vocabulary instruction before reaching a threshold level. Two to three thousand high-frequency words are considered a minimum “threshold” that enables incidental learning to take place when reading authentic texts (DeCarrico, 2001).

b. As learners proceed, indirect vocabulary teaching will gradually take over the direct emphasis of vocabulary. Most low-frequency words can be learned incidentally through extensive reading as stated by Coady (1993) that, “there is a gradual but steady incremental growth of vocabulary knowledge through meaningful interaction with text” (p. 18).

c. Beyond the threshold level, students’ learning of new words is taken care of by conducting reading directly, including free, pleasure, or extensive reading. Day and Bamford (1998) claim that learning vocabulary from multiple encounters can make the incidental learning easier. Therefore, teachers need to encourage students to expose in the multiple texts in order to acquire vocabulary incidentally.

In sum, it is reasonable to conclude that the focuses of vocabulary instruction differ at different proficiency levels.

2.4.3.3. The Selection and Sequencing of Vocabulary

Other than choosing between explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction, it is also necessary to decide what vocabulary will be selected for teaching and how it will be sequenced. While recognizing the beginners’ paradox in learning vocabulary, L2 vocabulary researchers all underscore the importance of the core vocabulary. Current available word lists are recommended as a good starting point. West’s General Service List of 2000 high-frequency headwords is the most quoted one. For English for Academic Purposes (EAP) learners, Xue and Nation (1984) add 836 more words in their University Word List, with which they claim that these two lists will cover 95% of words used in most English texts. Though additional high-frequency words are further suggested, a core vocabulary consisting of the most

common 3000-5000 words is recognized and accepted by most L2 researchers (Laufer, 1997).

This core vocabulary deserve first attention while other low-frequency words can only be learned by incidental learning through repetitive encounters in L2 reading (Nation, 1990; Stroller and Grabe, 1997).

2.4.4 Effective Strategies for Vocabulary Teaching

Lots of strategies are used to teach vocabulary today. A teacher may use them in an integrated way according to his/her students' needs, abilities and levels. Vivian Cook (1991) gives some of the important points that a teacher should consider before teaching:

- Learning words from general to specific ones is easier. Cook showed that L2 learners first acquired basic terms as "table", second general terms like "furniture" and finally more specific terms like "coffee table".
- An aspect of vocabulary that has become important in recent years is the position of the word in the structure of the sentence. For example the verb "faint" can only occur with a grammatical subject such as "Martin fainted" never with an object like "Martin fainted John". Teaching should not separate words from their structural context.
- Some words may be taught through components of meaning.
- Teaching can not ignore that the student has to learn not just the meaning, or the pronunciation of each word, but how to use it because of the fact that using a word means not just knowing how it is defined in the dictionary, but how it relates to all the words in a sentence.

In addition to these suggestions, it should be added that lexical oppositeness such as narrow/ broad could not be introduced in the same lesson or the same unit. Moreover, as learners tend to equate a single form with a single function, words that

have more than one function should not be introduced at the same time. For example, the word "there" can act as either as an existential subject or a demonstrative. (Nunan 1998: 129)

Rivers (1981) asserts that “vocabulary learning must be active. Vocabulary learning should always be in a purposeful context. Students should be involved in an activity which requires them to retrieve from their long-term memory store vocabulary which is appropriate in the circumstances.”

Effective strategies of vocabulary teaching can be divided into two kinds: “unplanned” and “planned” vocabulary teaching. According to Seal (1991), unplanned teaching refers to “the extemporaneous teaching of problem vocabulary items that come up without warning in the course of lesson,” whereas planned teaching is that “teacher goes into classroom with an item or a set of vocabulary items that s/he has decided beforehand will be taught during the course of the lesson” (p. 298).

To prepare for unplanned vocabulary teaching when students ask for explanation of a specific word, Seal suggests the “3Cs technique”—convey, check, and consolidate—is useful to apply in the classroom. First, the teacher should convey word meanings by using visual aids, word relations, and presenting contexts. Then, the teacher checks that the student has understood properly by doing various exercises, such as filling in the blank or matching pair. Finally, the teacher should consolidate and try to get the students to relate the word to their personal experience and use it in the meaningful contexts.

Concerning the planned vocabulary teaching, Laufer (1997) and Schmitt (2000) suggest that the mastering of the core vocabulary and a large sight vocabulary (i.e., words whose form and common meaning are recognized automatically, irrespective of contexts) help beginners to breakthrough the below-threshold plateau. Beyond threshold, teachers and students should equally participate in the teaching

and learning process. Teachers are encouraged to conduct needs analysis before giving any further vocabulary instruction (Zimmerman, 1997b).

Class activities in teaching vocabulary should be set up to meet the following criteria according to Zimmerman (1997b) and Sökmen (1997). They believe that effective approaches to vocabulary learning should be multifaceted, including:

- * exposures to words in meaningful contexts and in four skill activities;
- * connection between new and old words;
- * rich and elaborative rehearsal about each word (e.g., describing word meanings, arranging word orders, and providing collocational information for each word);
- * use of various techniques (e.g., word unit analysis, mnemonic devices, semantic mapping, dictionary skills);
- * multiple exposures to words;
- * active participation by students in learning process.

Furthermore, Hatch and Brown (1995) and Zimmerman (1997b) propose the use of students' self-generating vocabulary as they all anticipate that ultimately students become independent vocabulary learners capable of determining their needs and applying learner strategies to handle each newly encountered word.

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:

- a) ostensive means,
- b) verbal definition,
- c) audio presentation, and
- d) running context.

a) 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”.

b) 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, and 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.

c) 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.

d) 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, wall charts, 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 contextualized 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.

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 color 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.

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. More than half of the 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.

Among the visual materials for vocabulary teaching the use of picture drawings and photographs are the most common techniques as many researchers have suggested. Picture 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.

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, color 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 are 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).

Which words are essential to understand and use another language is also a point to consider. “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. When the participants of the study are learners of English at beginner level, the words will be selected from the first 500 most frequent words.

Researchers have explored the possibility that grouping words in a manner other than the traditional list of nouns, all fitting under a common theme, might be more beneficial for students. This suggests that it might be helpful to give a list of words that are not semantically related. Hippner-Page (2002) attempted to find out whether grouping vocabulary words thematically result in more words learned by L2 students than semantic grouping. Results showed both semantic and thematic word groupings were beneficial, suggesting teachers might consider using both semantic

and thematic groupings to help L2 elementary students learn new vocabulary words. Hsia & Others (1995) reported data collected by supervised student investigators on learners' use of strategies in organizing words when learning ESL. Results proved that word grouping was a worthwhile study.

One of the mnemonic strategies is the keyword method which involves the association of the novel L2 word with an L1 keyword that is acoustically or orthographically similar, and then connecting the L1 keyword with the L1 translation of the L2 word. A study by Zhang & Schumm (2000) found that the keyword method appears to be effective in helping students to recall word definitions rapidly and efficiently, to comprehend sentences, and to retain vocabulary learning over a one-week period.

A second mnemonic strategy is the graphic organizer or semantic mapping in which L1 words conceptually related to the L2 word in a diagram. In a study by Kaelin (1991), the efficacy of the mnemonic graphic organizer strategy on the vocabulary acquisition of beginning and advanced adult ESL students are investigated. Subjects in the control and experimental groups received the same instruction in the topic material, but subjects in the experimental group used a mnemonic graphic organizer strategy for vocabulary acquisition. Results indicated that the use of graphic organizers across high and low ability groups was as effective in subjects' vocabulary acquisition as the regular classroom technique, and was significantly effective with beginning ESL students over and above the regular classroom instruction.

Knight (1994) examined incidental vocabulary learning from context and two factors that might influence it, access to a dictionary and verbal ability, among 112 second-year university students. Results indicated that subjects learned more words while reading for meaning, but high verbal ability students and those using a dictionary learned more.

Similarly, Gonzalez (1999) found that dictionary work was laborious but necessary, and that ESL college students need to be taught prudent use of the dictionary.

Yang (1995) investigated how ESL students improved their use of learning strategies through awareness-raising in group interviews and informal training. 68 Taiwanese university students in two freshman English classes responded to an English learning strategy questionnaire at the beginning and end of the semester. During the semester, students were interviewed in small groups, in which they examined and discussed details of their strategy use when learning vocabulary, listening, reading, writing, and speaking inside and outside the classroom. Pre- and post-test results showed significant increases in learning strategy use. Results suggested that the group interview provided learners with an important opportunity to focus not only on language but also on the learning process, and offered teachers an opportunity to convince their students of the value of learning strategies and to encourage their active use and improvement.

In several studies, vocabulary instruction was combined with listening, reading, and writing skill instruction. Students need to internalize vocabulary in order to understand and access it effectively, and need to develop personalized vocabulary in order to talk about their own worlds. From the beginning, students should be taught strategies for listening, and should have exposure to authentic listening and reading materials (Glisan, 1988).

In addition, Adelson-Goldstein (1998) described the importance of developing ESL students' active vocabulary, discussing active versus passive vocabulary, selection of active vocabulary for development, and vocabulary development and the communicative framework.

Wesche & Paribakht (1994) described a classification scheme developed to examine the effects of extensive reading on primary and second language vocabulary acquisition and reports on an experiment undertaken to test the model scheme. The

classification scheme represents a hypothesized hierarchy of the degree and type of mental processing required by various kinds of vocabulary exercises. These categories include: (1) selective attention; (2) recognition; (3) manipulation; (4) interpretation; and (5) production.

This hierarchy was tested in an ESL classroom by comparing the vocabulary gains of learners in a thematic reading program with those in the same reading program in which some readings were replaced by vocabulary enhancement activities. Results indicated that although both groups in the reading program experienced substantial gains in word knowledge, those performing vocabulary enhancement techniques along with reading activities learned more words and achieved greater depth in their knowledge of these words than those students exposed to extensive reading alone.

Teaching culture has been considered important in foreign language instruction for almost a century. However, it was not until more recent years that teaching culture in language courses has been widely emphasized in China universities and colleges. Now most scholars in second language acquisition (SLA) have operated with the assumption that learning a language means acquiring the set of pragmatic norms and cultural values embodied in the target language. Brooks (1964: 45) states:

“Turning to culture, we deliberately shift focus away from language as such towards the people who use the language: where and how they live, what they think, feel, and do. It is nowadays a commonplace in a language pedagogy that language and culture are intertwined, that it is not possible to teach a language without culture, and that culture is the necessary context for language use”.

Teaching culture in language class is already a concept accepted by language teachers the world over and this concept has been put into practice for a long time. As the second language (L2) and foreign language educators, teachers teach and the students learn about the culture of the L2 whether or not teachers include it overtly in

the curriculum. This point was made by McLeod (1976:212) some years ago: “by teaching a language...one is inevitably already teaching culture implicitly”. The reason of this can be found in socio-linguistics.

In an article on discourse, for example, Brown (1990:13) questions whether or not language may be value-free or independent of cultural background. She concludes: “There are values, presuppositions, about the nature of life and what is good and bad in it, to be found in any normal use of language.” Such normal language use is exactly what most L2 instructors aim to teach.

2.4.5 Vocabulary Teaching Techniques

Techniques for teaching vocabulary have been thoroughly considered in recent years. Vocabulary teaching will be just boredom and time-consuming without any technique. As a result, while teaching new words various ways which are interesting, colorful and enjoyable can be used. However, it should be taken into consideration that all techniques may not work with all students because of the fact that every student has a different learning style. The techniques for vocabulary teaching are given as follows:

2.4.5.1. Visual technique

They help students associate presented material in a meaningful way and incorporate it into their system of language values. These pertain to visual memory, which is considered especially helpful with vocabulary retention.

Pictures, drawings, wall charts, puppets, diagrams, grafts, maps, forms, ads, cross word puzzles, magazine and newspaper cut-outs, real objects in or outside the classroom, films, gestures and facial expressions are various tools that can be used to convey meaning. The demonstration helps both to make the meaning clearer, and to fix the word in the students' minds.

2.4.5.2. Aural technique

A recorder can be used to bring various types of sounds into class such as barking of a dog, a car breaking, the sound of rain, etc. or to illustrate dialogs and songs.

2.4.5.3. Verbal technique

There are a lot of verbal techniques. Some of them are presented here.

2.4.5.3.1 Definition: It is generally not adequate to convey the meaning so it may be combined with other techniques such as visual. The definition of the word should not be more difficult than the word itself and concrete words rather than abstract ones should be chosen.

2.4.5.3.2 Synonyms/ Antonyms: Synonyms are group of words that share a general sense and so may be interchangeable in a limited number of contexts. On the other hand, antonym is a word which is opposite in meaning to another word. For example, in English male- female or big-small are antonyms. The complexity level of the synonyms and antonyms should be restricted with low level students. For example, it would be suitable to tell low level students that 'miserable' means 'very sad'.

2.4.5.3.3 Hyponyms: Hyponymy is a relationship between two words in which the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word. For example, car, van, lorry, bus are the hyponyms of vehicle.

2.4.5.3.4 Word-formation: This technique is based on what the teacher may teach new items with the help of derivational and inflectional rules. For example, anti- means against, opposing. Students can guess the meaning of some words such as antisocial, antipathy or antidote if the rules and the meanings of

affixes or stems are given. A similar technique is given by Nunan (1998) in his book Word Morphology which is based on extending students' vocabulary by mixing and matching word stems, suffixes and affixes.

2.4.5.3.5 Using cognates: Cognates are divided into two: true and false cognates. If a word in one language is similar in form and meaning to a word in another language it is called as true cognate. For example, English "brother" and Turkish "birader". If a word has the same or similar form in two languages but which has a different meaning in each, it is said to be false cognate. For example, English "sympathy" and "sempati" in Turkish.

2.4.5.3.6 Series: Numbers, seasons, months of the year, days of the week, colors, and alphabet can be taught in this way.

2.4.5.3.7 Semantic field: It means the organization of related words and expressions into a system which shows their relationship to one another. For example, kitchen, knife, oven, spoon, refrigerator, table are examples of a semantic field. They are related to each other and form a field.

2.4.5.3.8 Concept forming: It is advised that vocabulary items can be taught by asking questions or making statements which can help students to develop the concept of the item before they learn the word for it in the target language.

- e.g.
- S/he does not work in an office.
 - S/he is sometimes on duty at night.
 - S/he wears a white overall.
 - S/he helps patients to get health.
 - S/he is not a doctor.
- Who is s/he?
- Answer: a nurse or male nurse.

2.4.5.3.9 Using a dictionary: Another way of teaching vocabulary is to ask students to look the word up in a dictionary (at lower levels a bilingual dictionary; at higher levels a monolingual dictionary). In this way the process of learning a new word also provides practice in important learning skills such as using dictionary. However, the most important disadvantage of using dictionary is that there may be long list of meanings of a single word. The student may get confused if he does not know which meaning is relevant to the subject he studies.

2.4.5.3.10 Translation: Some teachers overuse this technique whereas others under-use. To some, it is seen as boring and traditional. However it is sometimes the only sensible way to explain the word(s). On the other hand, it should be kept in mind that if the students use the mother tongue frequently they may not develop the necessary framework to take account of sense relations between items in the new language. Furthermore, it is sometimes difficult to find one to one correspondence between language which causes difficulty for both learners and teachers. (Lewis & Hill 1985; Sarıçoban 2001)

In addition to these techniques, Nunan (1998: 134) summarizes the techniques below:

2.4.5.3.11 Loci: These are a form mnemonic in which a list of words to be learned is associated with a familiar visual image such as a room or a well known tourist spot. Each word is associated in some way with one of the items in the visual image, and image is used to assist in the recall of the words.

2.4.5.3.12 Paired associates: In this technique which is similar to the loci, words in the first and second language which have some similarity of sound and meaning are associated. Nattinger (1988) cites Curren's example of the German word schwarz which means black and which could be associated with the English word 'swarthy'.

2.4.5.3.13 Formal grouping: Certain vocabulary items can be memorized by teaching students to recognize basic forms of words and how they combine with certain affixes. For example; students could be taught the meanings of words such as tele (far, distant), phone (sound), photo(light), graph(write, mark) and then given lists of vocabulary items containing these words and asked to guess the meanings of these compound words.

2.4.5.3.14 Word Families: This is an extension of the formal grouping technique exercises can be developed to show how word families are developed from a single root. For example: part, partition, partly, partner, participant, and participle.

2.4.5.3.15 Collocation: Collocations are words which are commonly associated. Exercises to develop these associations can facilitate learning. Collocation is a term that is used to describe the co-occurrence of lexical items. Words can collocate with different degrees of frequency and acceptability. For example, the words "story" and "tell" in "tell a story".

2.4.5.3.16 Mnemonic devices: Mnemonic devices are tricks for committing words to memory. Celce-murcia (2001) gives the process of using mnemonic device. First, learner chooses an L1 or L2 word, a concrete identity, based on a phonological or orthographic similarity with the L2 target word. Then a strong association between the target word and the keyword must be constructed so that, when seeing and hearing the target word, the learner is reminded immediately of the keyword. Finally a visual image is constructed to combine the referents of the keyword and the target word.

2.4.5.3.17 Key Words: In key words technique, the target vocabulary item is paired with its native language equivalent in an idiosyncratic way.

2.4.5.3.18 Cognitive Depth: In cognitive depth technique, students are asked such questions as "Is it a matter of Category?", "Does it fit

into the following sentence?" in relation to each word. Each question forces deeper levels of processing for retention and recall.

2.4.5.3.19 Historical, Orthographical Similarity: Historical, orthographical similarities involve the development of associations based on historical and orthographical similarities between cognate languages. For example, there are many words in languages, such as English and German, which share common or closely related meanings and which can be exploited to assist learners to expand their target vocabulary.

2.4.5.3.20 Games: Teachers may hesitate to use games with teenagers and adults because of their age and the fact that they may see games childish. What not perhaps always realized is that adolescents and adults enjoy games as much as children and, if the purpose is explained to them they do not feel that it is childish or out of place to participate in a game in the language classroom.

The types of games to be used with these different age groups will, however, differ. Some games are suitable for children while others are effective with adults or teenagers, although teenagers are generally regarded as less willing to participate in games. Rixon (1981) points out that teenagers are probably the most difficult group to use games with and it might be a wise step to use the term 'activity' in place of the term 'game' so that they do not feel insulted by being treated like children. Adults, on the other hand, often enjoy games and participate quite willingly, if not more so than teenagers.

In sum, we as language teachers should choose the most appropriate technique(s) for our learners taking their multiple intelligences into account.

2.4.6 Why to teach vocabulary

Nowadays it is widely accepted that vocabulary teaching should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis. Some authors, led by Lewis

(1993) argue that vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching, because 'language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar'.

There are several aspects of lexis that need to be taken into account when teaching vocabulary. The list below is based on the work of Gairns and Redman (1986):

- Boundaries between conceptual meanings: knowing not only what lexis refers to, but also where the boundaries are that separate it from words of related meaning (e.g. cup, mug, and bowl).
- Polysemy: distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form with several but closely related meanings (head: of a person, of a pin, of an organization).
- Homonymy: distinguishing between the various meaning of a single word form which has several meanings which are NOT closely related (e.g. a file: used to put papers in or a tool).
- Homophony: understanding words that have the same pronunciation but different spellings and meanings (e.g. flour, flower).
- Synonymy: distinguishing between the different shades of meaning that synonymous words have (e.g. extend, increase, expand).
- Affective meaning: distinguishing between the attitudinal and emotional factors (denotation and connotation), which depend on the speakers attitude or the situation. Socio-cultural associations of lexical items are another important factor.
- Style, register, dialect: Being able to distinguish between different levels of formality, the effect of different contexts and topics, as well as differences in geographical variation.
- Translation: awareness of certain differences and similarities between the native and the foreign language (e.g. false cognates).
- Chunks of language: multi-word verbs, idioms, strong and weak collocations, lexical phrases.

- Grammar of vocabulary: learning the rules that enable students to build up different forms of the word or even different words from that word (e.g. sleep, slept, sleeping; able, unable; disability).
- Pronunciation: ability to recognize and reproduce items in speech.

The implication of the aspects just mentioned in teaching is that the goals of vocabulary teaching must be more than simply covering a certain number of words on a word list. And we must also go beyond that, giving learner opportunities to use the items learnt and also helping them to use effective written storage systems.

Teaching and learning of foreign language vocabulary has vital importance in knowing that language. Wallace (1982) states that;

Not being able to find the words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Of course vocabulary is not the whole story: the system of language is also important. Nevertheless, it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the vocabulary we need it is usually possible to communicate, after a fashion (Wallace,1982).

Today, it is accepted that learning word meanings can not be achieved only through the use of a dictionary, and that vocabulary acquisition is a complex process. This understanding has led to a considerable emphasis on vocabulary. The principal reasons for the present focus on vocabulary, according to Allen (1983), are these:

First, many ESL and EFL classes have revealed disappointing results although a great deal of time has been devoted to vocabulary teaching by teachers; second, recent research into word meanings which has dealt with lexical problems, indicates that these lexical problems frequently interfere with communication and that not using the right words results in a communication breakdown.

Nation (1990) supports the idea that vocabulary should be taught in a systematic and principled approach due to the following reasons:

- Because of the considerable research on vocabulary we have good information about what to do about vocabulary and about what vocabulary to focus on.
- There is a wide variety of ways for dealing with vocabulary in foreign or second language learning.
- Both learners and researchers see vocabulary as a very important if not the most important element in language learning. Learners feel that many of their difficulties in both receptive and productive language use, result from an inadequate vocabulary.

He also argues that the language tasks in which students with inadequate vocabulary will be involved will cause them to suffer from frustration, and concludes that vocabulary has vital importance in reading and, therefore, giving attention to vocabulary is unavoidable.

Nattinger (1988) states that comprehension requires understanding the words and storing them and also committing them to memory whereas production requires retrieving them from memory and using them in appropriate situations. Hence, our aim in teaching vocabulary should be to strengthen this memory storage.

Learning vocabulary is something more than memorizing lists of words. To know a word in a target language as well as the native speaker knows it may mean the ability to:

- * recognize it in its spoken or written form;
- * recall it at will;
- * relate it to an appropriate object or concept;
- * use it in the appropriate grammatical form;
- * pronounce it in a recognizable way in speech;

- * spell it correctly in writing;
- * use it with the words it correctly goes with, in the correct collocation;
- * use it at the appropriate level of formality;
- * be aware of its connotations and associations

(Wallace 1982:27)

Taylor (1990:1-2) puts forward the following criteria concerning the knowledge of a word:

- * Knowledge of frequency of the word in the language, i.e. knowing the degree of probability of encountering the word in speech or in print,
- * Knowledge of the register of the word, i.e. knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation,
- * Knowledge of collocation, both semantic, and syntactic (sometimes termed 'colligation'), i.e. knowing the syntactic behavior associated with the word and also knowing the network of associations between that word and other words in the language. This is to ensure that vocabulary items are not taught in isolation but in a meaningful context with examples related to their uses.
- * Knowledge of morphology, i.e. knowing the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it,
- * Knowledge of semantics, i.e. knowing firstly what the word means or denotes. It is relatively easy to teach denotation of concrete items like plate, ruler or banana by simply bringing these objects (realia), or pictures of these objects, into the classroom. For more abstract concepts synonyms, paraphrases or definitions may be useful,
- * Knowledge of polysemy, i.e. knowing many of the different meanings associated with a word.
- * Knowledge of the equivalent of the word in the mother tongue.

Deveci (2004) states that the importance of vocabulary acquisition has always been recognized, although, at times, vocabulary was treated as separate from grammar and other skills. However, the communicative and natural approach emphasized the importance of vocabulary development, which resulted in more interest in vocabulary teaching. He also points out that we can not use structures correctly if we do not have enough vocabulary knowledge.

Sheehan (2004:3) points out that;

Vocabulary has been the neglected Cinderella of language teaching; preference has always been, and still is, given to the two sisters Grammar and More Grammar. Many English language teachers like to stress grammar over vocabulary because grammar is a finite system, whereas vocabulary is not. However, the argument in favor of placing greater weight on vocabulary is strong. Evidence from the field of corpus linguistics shows clearly that it is lexical competence, not the learning of grammatical structures, that must be the priority for language learners because lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence.

Vocabulary teaching is one of the indispensable components of language teaching. In order to communicate with other people we should use appropriate vocabulary, otherwise our communication will stop. Wilkins (1974:111) states that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” Thus, vocabulary teaching has a special part in language teaching. As Marianne Celce-Murcia (1991) points out that “words are perceived as the building blocks upon which a knowledge of the second language can be built.”

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

3.0. Presentation

This chapter will examine Anatolian High Schools and the compulsory coursebook New Bridge to Success (NBS). Then it will consider the reading skill and vocabulary teaching aspect of reading texts in the book NBS. Also, methods of data collection will be given. Following this, the pilot study will be presented in detail. Finally, the setting, participants and the aims and the objectives of the main study will be explained.

3.1. The Present Situation

3.1.1. Anatolian High Schools

Anatolian High School is a peculiar term for Turkey. It is a kind of high school of which education level is thought higher because students are selected according to exams. It was a school of seven years from 1950s' Colleges, one year preparation class of English and three years secondary and three years high school education. The education system was also different then. Some teachers were native speakers, and science and mathematics subjects were also in English.

Throughout the years there had been a lot of changes. First when the eight-year-education became compulsory, the period of three years for secondary schools was taken from the seven years period. So the school period became one year prep class plus three years high school. By the time the teaching of science and mathematics subjects in English had also been abolished. In the prep class English was taught 24 hours a week at the beginning, but then it was reduced to 20 hours a week. When the period of high schools has changed from three years to four years, in

many schools the prep classes have also been abolished. For the four-year high school education in Anatolian High Schools of all kinds, English classes were thought to be sufficient 10 hours a week in the 9th grade, and 4 hours a week in the following years.

There are different kinds of Anatolian High Schools in Turkey. There are 52 Anatolian High Schools in Ankara and 927 in Turkey. However this is not the whole number. There are also a lot of Vocational Anatolian High Schools such as Marine, Meteorology, Agriculture, Fine Arts, Communication, etc. The number is really high. In the year 2009 the number is 215 Girls Vocational Anatolian High Schools, 808 Boys Vocational Anatolian High Schools.

In all these Anatolian High Schools in the 9th grade the book which is the subject of this study is compulsory. It is important to mention that all over Turkey there is a great difference between teaching and learning conditions but the coursebook is the same.

3.1.2. The coursebook NBS

3.1.2.1 The history of the coursebook NBS

The New Bridge to Success (NBS) is the first and only ELT coursebook series prepared by a non-native speaking committee (Turkish) in Turkey at the high school level. All of the authors in the committee are Turkish, and they were teaching English at different high schools in İzmir at the time of publishing.

Before the approval of the coursebooks namely *For Prep Classes New Bridge to Success 1 and 2* teachers of English were the authority to choose the coursebook(s) to follow with the approval of the teachers' committee of English. They were able to choose the coursebooks which had the permission from The Board in Turkish Ministry of Education.

In the year 2004 the aforementioned coursebook was distributed to all Anatolian High Schools free and teachers were not allowed to follow any other coursebook. In 2005 when the system of three years of high school has changed to four years the coursebook has been divided into two sections, the first section to be followed in the 9th grade and the second part in the 10th grade. Although there are 32 units in the coursebook for prep classes, in the book *New Bridge to Success for Grade 9 Elementary*, there are first 22 units of the aforementioned coursebook.

The aforementioned coursebook is still in use in the Anatolian High Schools which are rare to have prep classes. Although experienced teachers tried to inform about the improvising of the quality of the coursebook, there have been some little revisions in the book but the format keeps still.

3.1.2.2 The Present Situation of the book NBS

The textbook is composed of 202 pages with a green cover.

The *Contents* section is presented on a single page and it includes the page numbers of the course introduction, table of contents, names of the units, grammar reference, irregular verbs, references and word list. The table of contents includes topics, functions, language areas/ structure and vocabulary. The names of the units are presented as follows:

Unit 1 Personal Identification

Unit 2 Family

Unit 3 People and Places

Unit 4 Traffic

Unit 5 Daily Routines

Unit 6 Leisure Activities

Unit 7 Plans and Intentions

Unit 8 Dos and Don'ts

Unit 9 Feasts

Unit 10 Refreshments
 Unit 11 Now and Then
 Unit 12 A Detective Story
 Unit 13 Famous People
 Unit 14 Hopes for the Future
 Unit 15 Health and Sports
 Unit 16 Past Activities
 Unit 17 People Profiles
 Unit 18 Climate
 Unit 19 Experiences
 Unit 20 Superstitions
 Unit 21 Fashion
 Unit 22 Party

3.1.2.2.1 The organization of the units

The elements of the units can be described as *Let's start*, the integrated or isolated presentation of skills, *Pronunciation*, *Let's practice*, *Let's remember*, *Project work* and *Fun corner*. In addition to these parts, a different section called *Game Time* occurs in various parts in the coursebook.

3.1.2.2.1.1. *Let's Start*

This part occurs at the beginning of each unit that aims to prepare students for the following activities. This section includes different types of exercises in terms of initiating pair-work (picture-cued matching exercises, guessing questions, introductory or guiding questions) in pairs.

3.1.2.2.1.2. Language Skills

The integrated and isolated presentation of skills presented within the textbook is carried out as reading and speaking (30), listening and speaking (26),

reading and writing (24), listening and reading (11), listening and writing (6), speaking and reading (5), speaking and writing (4), writing (1). In a single unit, four language skills are integrated in various forms. In order to exemplify, in the seventh unit, the skill combinations are structured as reading & listening, listening & speaking, reading& writing, reading & speaking, again reading & speaking, listening & writing.

3.1.2.2.1.3. The combination of language skills

Reading-Speaking

Generally, the integration of reading-speaking skills occurs as reading and acting out dialogues, reading and asking/ answering questions. Similarly, students make dialogues by using the cue words in reading passages or they create discussions concerning the topic in the reading sample.

Speaking-Reading

In this combination, students talk about a picture as an introduction to the topic and this is followed by a relevant reading passage.

Listening-Speaking

This integration comprises listening and repetition and creating discussions based on the information in the listening sample.

Listening-Reading

In this set of skill presentation, mostly students read and hear the same samples (texts, dialogues and letters) that are followed by checking for the gap-fillings exercises. Reading is also presented as a follow up option after the listening.

Reading-Writing

Generally, the students are expected to complete charts and write paragraphs consistent with the reading sample.

Speaking-Writing

Students talk and share their ideas around a certain topic or a given situation. This is followed by writing paragraphs or completing charts consistent with the speaking exercises. Another example is that students talk about the pictures and learn the new vocabulary after the discussion. This is followed by a writing exercise in which they complete the dialogues with the new words.

3.1.2.2.1.4. *Let's practice* and *Let's remember*

After the practice of language skills, two different sections *Let's Practice* and *Let's remember* are presented. The *Let's practice* section always occurs before the presentation of *Let's remember*. These two sections are sometimes presented in different parts in a single unit.

The aim of the *Let's practice* section is to help students to revise the relevant vocabulary and the grammatical structures by introducing different sets of exercises such as gap-filling, making dialogues, picture-cued guessing, comparison exercises, and completing charts. However vocabulary is always related to grammar.

In the *Let's remember* section there are reminders of grammatical rules by short notes, sometimes in charts. There are also gap-filling and matching exercises, rules and table completion exercises.

3.2 Reading Skill in NBS

As the subject of this study is to investigate the teaching/learning aspect of vocabulary in reading texts, it will be helpful to mention about how reading skill is advised to conduct in the book.

Reading

Guideline for Reading

The reading parts in this book aim to develop reading skills for becoming efficient readers. The bigger aim of this book is to create independent readers with minimum usage of dictionary. Ss' interests, ages and ways of thinking are considered while choosing the reading texts.

How to Conduct Reading Lessons

Steps for reading lessons:

Pre-reading

While reading

Post Reading

* Pre-reading activities should be done effectively since it is the most important part of creating curiosity, facilitating the reading text and attracting Ss' attention to the lesson. Setting purpose for reading is also vital before Ss start reading. If Ss have no reason for reading, a text does not make any sense for them. Moreover, it would be almost impossible to attract Ss' attention.

* Let Ss compare and discuss their comprehension in order to create communication opportunities with a lot of pairs' talking and negotiating at the same time instead of student-teacher dialogues. The role of the teacher, here, is to monitor Ss and come to the stage the moment Ss desperately need advice or consulting.

* Reading should be linked with other skills as follow-up activities.

* Ss should be encouraged to write responds to the ideas or problems discussed into the reading texts. By this way, Ss will be able to develop critical thinking and intellectual background. **Keeping journals and vocabulary notebooks** as outside activities would be good ideas.(NBS: II)

3.3. Vocabulary teaching in NBS

As can be seen, there is no special section for vocabulary teaching/learning in the book. It will be helpful to see why there is no vocabulary section in the book as written in the Course Introduction:

Vocabulary Sets

Vocabulary teaching cannot be considered as an independent study from other skills. It should be conducted in a context of reading, writing or listening because words cannot represent their whole meaning in real life when we use them separately. The target vocabulary should exist in the whole context to become more meaningful and to give students the opportunity to guess their meanings and usage.

So;

Students should be encouraged to guess the meaning of the words through the context instead of giving the meaning directly or letting the Ss look them up in the dictionaries. We strongly believe that the less dictionary usage during studying the skills the better. After Ss do comprehension activities, they should go back to reconsider the meaning of the words. They negotiate the meaning with their partners. Finally, they check meanings referring to dictionaries or teachers, if necessary. (NBC: I)

3.4 Data collection

3.4.1 The questionnaires

According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989) the advantages of using questionnaires are many. Firstly, as the questionnaires are self-administered, it is possible to give them to large groups of subjects at the same time. Secondly, questionnaires can be completed anonymously. The usual convention is that subjects may respond to the questions or the statements included in the questionnaires anonymously. 'When the anonymity is assured, subjects share information of a

sensitive nature more easily.’ (Seliger and Shohamy 1989) Thirdly, it is possible to gather highly uniform and standard data as the same questions are asked to all subjects. Finally, it is possible to gather more accurate data as usually all subjects participating in the research are given, and requested to fill in, the questionnaires which are exactly the same.

The questionnaires (Appendix A: Students’ Questionnaire and Appendix B: Teachers’ Questionnaire) were developed by the researcher. Before the preparation of the questionnaire, the literature was studied how to find the questions about the coursebook evaluation on vocabulary teaching/learning aspect of reading texts. Questions used in the survey instrument were selected from the related literature and a pilot study was conducted to assess the clarity of the questionnaire items. Considering time restrictions, questionnaires can be regarded as one of the most useful instruments to obtain data in a short period of time, so questionnaires were conducted in this study to save time.

The original questionnaire was in Turkish to solve the problem of misunderstanding of students with poor vocabulary. The Turkish version of the questionnaires was checked by professionals to provide the same meaning. It is thought that students with poor vocabulary may not understand the questions correctly, thus the validity of the study may be endangered. The same questions were used for both teachers and students to ensure the balance between the teachers’ and students’ understanding, so the language was not changed.

In the questionnaire, there were two types of questions: In the first two parts a five-point Likert scale was used in which responses ranged from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. In the next three sections there were questions to choose about what is done.

Interpretations were made according to the five-point scales and mean values of the scale items are also given. For the purposes of this study, the frequencies and mean values are used to analyze the questionnaire data. The mean value ranges

provide information to interpret whether the responses obviously occur in one category or the other. Additionally, these values also display splits wherein teachers' and students' evaluations indicate diversity.

The questionnaire for teachers consisted of six parts. In the first part personal questions were asked to identify the teachers' gender, the length of ELT experience, the length of ELT experience in Anatolian High schools and also their experience in the 9th classes. In the second part questions were about the book, NBS. The following part consisted of questions relating reading texts. These two parts were in the Likert-scale. In the fourth part it was aimed to determine which techniques on vocabulary teachers apply in the classroom. Fifth part was about what students do when they meet an unknown vocabulary. The last part was to find out the learning styles of the students. There was also an open-ended part for the participants to write down what they want to mention in addition to what is checked in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire for the students was the same as the one for the teachers except the first part which was to find out the experience of the teachers. The reason why the questionnaires were the same is that the results can be compared to identify the similarities and the differences between the teachers' and the students' answers.

3.4.2 Reading Tests

The subject of this study was reading texts. Randomly chosen seven reading texts were applied readability tests to find out if the reading texts are easy to read and if the level of the students is appropriate for the book.

Two tests were applied. The first test applied was Flesh-Kincaid Ease Score. The aim of choosing this score was to determine the readability level of the texts. The second test applied was the Flesh-Kincaid Grade Level. It was aimed to find out how many years of education were needed to understand these texts.

The tests were applied in the internet. The results were given in the appendix.

3.4.3 The pilot study

Before administering the questionnaire to the students and to the teachers the pilot administration was done to see the possible problems which may occur.

The pilot study was conducted at Ankara Lisesi, an Anatolian High School, with fifty two students. The students were 9th grade students who were chosen randomly. They completed the questionnaires in their classes. The aim of the pilot study was to find out to what extent the items were clear and comprehensible according to the subjects of the study. The pilot study was administered at Ankara Lisesi as it was not possible to administer the same questionnaire again to the same students.

The researcher was with the students while administering the questionnaire to see the drawbacks of the questionnaire. To fill in the questionnaire the students needed approximately fifteen minutes. This was a suitable time to fill in the questionnaire because when they see that there are too many things to do in the questionnaire, they fill in them unwillingly.

Timing, the clarity of instructions and the usability of the five-point Likert scale to get and analyze data were also searched by means of the piloting. The questions in the questionnaire were rearranged after having feedback from the pilot study. As for the expression in the second item of the questions about reading texts, students said that they couldn't understand what meant, so the wording has changed. The same problem also arose for the wording of one of the expressions about the coursebook, so the same procedure was also followed.

In order to find out the internal consistency of the items in the questionnaire, Cronbach Alpha was calculated to be 0.728 for the first section in the questionnaire, which meant that another item can be added to the section but it is not a must. In the factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found to be 0.528. This value

shows that factor analysis can be done to this questionnaire. For the second section KMO was 0.601 and Cronbach Alpha was calculated to be 0.749. When item statistics was done mean was 3.517 and variance was .807. So it could be said that items check a common subject, and there was a high internal consistency between the items.

3.4.4 The participants

The main data collection was carried out during the second term of 2008-2009 Academic Year. In this study sampling method is used.

A total of 185 students participated in the study. The schools where the questionnaires were conducted consisted of approximately three ninth grades classes and in each class, there were maximum 30 students. Approximately thirty students from each school completed the questionnaire. There was no part for identification so students answered the questions free. On the average it took fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaires.

The second group of participants in this study was 20 English teachers working with 9th classes in different Anatolian High Schools in Ankara. All the teachers were using the same book as it is the only coursebook approved by the Board in the Ministry of National Education to be used at the 9th grades.

For the actual study, the questionnaires were conducted in 7 Anatolian High Schools. After carrying out questionnaires to the students, the teachers of the same schools who are teaching 9th grades were asked to fill in the questionnaire too. The expressions for both the students and the teachers were the same in meaning but different in subjects (I / the teacher) to check them both.

3.4.5. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. For the analysis of the questionnaires, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used and necessary calculations were carried out. The data in the questionnaire were analyzed using mean scores, frequencies, and percentages. The questionnaire data were presented in tables.

For the final form of the data analysis, a three-way analysis of the data was carried out by combining the results of the questionnaires and the researcher's in-depth analysis concerning the vocabulary aspect of the reading texts in the ELT textbook NBS. The purpose of this organization is to depict the correspondence between the teachers' and students' responses to the questionnaire items and the real situation in the book. The aim of this observation is to find out whether the teachers' and the students' relevant answers to the questionnaire items are consistent with the actual features of NBS.

3.5 Limitations

This study is limited to 7 Anatolian High Schools in Ankara. Therefore, conclusions need to be verified by conducting similar studies across different cities in Turkey. It is assumed that students answered the questions honestly and seriously.

Another limitation of this study is that the present study is an inspection of vocabulary in reading texts; however, it can be complemented with a macro evaluation study, which regards vocabulary all over the book.

One other limitation may be about the readability tests. There are some other tests that can be used for readability but two of them, namely Flesh-Kincaid Reading Ease and Flesh-Kincaid Grade Level were used.

CHAPTER IV

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Presentation

This chapter presents the results of the particular study which aims to investigate the vocabulary aspect in reading texts of an EFL coursebook (New Bridge to Success-Elementary) from the perspectives of students and teachers and from the researcher's own interpretation of the book, NBS. The data is collected from the questionnaires filled in by the students and teachers of the 9th grades of 7 Anatolian High Schools in Ankara and also the researcher's own investigation of the aforementioned coursebook.

4.1. The Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaires

The analysis and interpretation of the questionnaires will be done by comparing the students' and the teachers' answers. They will be compared by statistical analysis. The variance and frequency analysis will be used.

In the questionnaires of students and teachers there are five parts in common. The first part in common is about the coursebook. It consists of eight items. The second part is about reading texts, and consists of fourteen items. In the third part the techniques the teachers apply in the classroom during the vocabulary teaching are asked. This part has eighteen items. The fourth part investigated what the students do when they meet an unknown vocabulary and it consisted of seventeen items. In the last part the techniques the students use to learn new vocabulary are investigated and it consisted of seventeen items too.

There is an open-ended question for both the teachers and the students to write down any other considerations which they wish to mention.

For the part peculiar to teachers their gender and their teaching experience are asked. For the part peculiar to the students, the name of their school and their gender is asked. There is no identification part. By doing this, it is aimed that participants can feel free to answer without identifying themselves.

4.1.1 Comparing the results obtained from the students and the teachers.

Table 1: Participants (Students)

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	82	44,3
Female	103	55,7
Total	185	100

One hundred and eighty five (100 %) students answered the questionnaire and 82 (44,3 %) of them are male and 103 (55,7 %) of them are female.

Table 2: Participants (Teachers)

	Frequency	Percentage
Male	4	19
Female	17	81
Total	21	100

Twenty one (100 %) teachers answered the questionnaire and 17 (81 %) of them are female and 4 (19 %) of them are male.

Table 3: The period of teaching experience

		N	%
The period of teaching experience	1-5 years	0	0.0
	6-10 years	3	14.3
	11-15 years	5	23.8
	16-20 years	7	33.3
	20 +	6	28.6
	Total	21	100

18 out of 21 teachers who are asked to fill in the questionnaire have been teachers for more than 10 years. Being a teacher for at least ten years should mean to have teaching experience. They should also have experience of other books which had been used as coursebooks before the use of NBS. This means that they may make comparisons.

Table 4: The period of teaching experience with 9th grades

		N	%
The period of teaching experience with 9 th grades	1-5 years	6	28.6
	6-10 years	5	23.8
	11-15 years	4	19
	16-20 years	3	14.3
	20 +	3	14.3
	Total	21	100

6 (28,6 %) of the teachers did not have the experience of the 9th grade in the old system of high schools, but 15 out of 21 teachers can compare their experience of the old and the new system.

Table 5: The period of teaching experience of NBS

		N	%
The period of teaching experience of NBS	Started this year	0	0.0
	2 years	4	19
	3 years	5	23.8
	4 years	2	9.5
	Since it has been compulsory	10	47.6
	Total	21	100

A vast majority of the teachers (80,9 %) have great experience, more than 3 years, with the coursebook NBS. It may mean that they should have seen the advantages and disadvantages of the book they had to use as a coursebook.

In the tables 6 and 7, all the means and standard deviations are presented. After that the items are mentioned one by one, comparing the situation in NBS.

4.1.1.1 Comparison of the answers about the coursebook

Table 6: Means, Standard deviations and Percentages of the items on the coursebook (Students)

Item	Mean	SD	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I find this CB educational.	3.12	1.126	11 %5.9	53 %28.6	45 %24.3	55 %29.7	21 %11.4
The reading/ vocabulary activities in the CB are interesting	3.06	1.129	13 %7	50 %27	58 %31.4	41 %22.2	23 %12.4
I want to use another more comprehensive CB instead of this CB	1.63	1.008	119 %64.3	32 %17.3	21 %11.4	9 %4.9	4 %2.2
This CB teaches a lot of vocabulary	2.95	1.146	20 %10.8	50 %27	51 %27.6	48 %25.9	16 %8.6
In this CB all skills (reading/ writing/ listening/ speaking) take place equally.	2.99	1.003	9 %4.9	53 %28.6	66 %35.7	44 %23.8	13 %7
The reoccurrence of voc. which was leaned in previous units reinforces learning	2.29	1.064	44 %23.8	75 %40.5	43 %23.2	14 %7.6	9 %4.9
This CB is sufficient on voc. teaching. I don't need any other books/ resources.	3.82	1.103	8 %4.3	18 %9.7	30 %16.2	73 %39.5	56 %30.3
The lack of activities related to voc. decreases the success on the reading/ writing/ speaking and listening skills.	2.77	1.124	32 %17.3	37 %20	66 %35.7	41 %22.2	9 %4.9

Table 7: Means, Standard deviations and Percentages of the items on the coursebook (Teachers)

Item	Mean	SD	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I find this CB educational.	3.81	1.030	0 %0.0	2 %9.5	7 %33.3	5 %23.8	7 %33.3
The reading/ vocabulary activities in the CB are interesting	4.33	.730	0 %0.0	0 %0.0	3 %14.3	8 %38.1	10 %47.6
I want to use another more comprehensive CB instead of this CB	1.62	.973	14 %66.7	2 %9.5	4 %19	1 %4.8	0 %0.0
This CB teaches a lot of vocabulary	3.29	1.146	2 %9.5	2 %9.5	8 %38.1	6 %28.6	3 %14.3
In this CB all skills (reading/ writing/ listening/ speaking) take place equally.	3.48	1.078	1 %4.8	4 %19	2 %9.5	12 %57.1	2 %9.5
The reoccurrence of voc. which was leaned in previous units reinforces learning	3.43	1.502	3 %14.3	4 %19	2 %9.5	5 %23.8	7 %33.3
This CB is sufficient on voc. teaching. I don't need any other books/ resources.	4.33	.730	0 %0.0	0 %0.0	3 %14.3	8 %38.1	10 %47.6
The lack of activities related to voc. decreases the success on the reading/ writing/ speaking and listening skills.	2.29	1.347	8 %38.1	5 %23.8	4 %19	2 %9.5	2 %9.5

Table 8: Comparison of item 1 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 1	I find this educational. CB	3.12	1.126	11 %5.9	53 %28.6	45 %24.3	55 %29.7	21 %11.4
T 1	I find this educational. CB	3.81	1.030	0 %0.0	2 %9.5	7 %33.3	5 %23.8	7 %33.3

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

As can be seen from the Table 8, 34,5 % of the students find NBS educational, although none of the experienced teachers strongly agree with them, but only 2 out of 21 agree with them. It can be understood from the comparison that students may not be able to find out what is educational or not, but they may think that if it is given as a coursebook it should be educational.

Table 9: Comparison of item 2 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S2	The reading/ vocabulary activities in the CB are interesting	3.06	1.129	13 %7	50 %27	58 %31.4	41 %22.2	23 %12.4
T2	The reading/ vocabulary activities in the CB are interesting	4.33	.730	0 %0.0	0 %0.0	3 %14.3	8 %38.1	10 %47.6

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Table 9 indicates that 34 % of the students find the reading or vocabulary exercises interesting although none of the teachers find them interesting and 85,7 % of them disagree which means that they don't find the reading/vocabulary activities interesting. It may be because the teachers have experienced a lot of different coursebooks.

Table 10: Comparison of item 3 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 3	I want to use another more comprehensive CB instead of this CB	1.63	1.008	119 %64.3	32 %17.3	21 %11.4	9 %4.9	4 %2.2
T3	I want to use another more comprehensive CB instead of this CB	1.62	.973	14 %66.7	2 %9.5	4 %19	1 %4.8	0 %0.0

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Similarly 81.6 % of the students and 76,2 % of the teachers wanted another coursebook. This means that there is a problem with the book. During the questionnaire filling-in period as the researcher was with the participants some of the teachers mentioned that they wanted to use this book but it needed a great deal of revision.

In any item other reasons about teachers' or students' willingness to change the NBS were not asked so the reason is not clear and it may not be about reading or vocabulary parts.

Table 11: Comparison of item 4 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 4	This CB teaches a lot of vocabulary	2.95	1.146	20 %10.8	50 %27	51 %27.6	48 %25.9	16 %8.6
T4	This CB teaches a lot of vocabulary	3.29	1.146	2 %9.5	2 %9.5	8 %38.1	6 %28.6	3 %14.3

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

From the number of students who agree with the item, 80 (37.8 %), it should be understood that there is a vocabulary load in the book but from the number of the teachers 4 (19 %) it should be understood that this vocabulary load does not mean that they are taught, it may be a great burden on the students when these words are asked to be used in an exam or in any skill.

As mentioned before there is no vocabulary section in the book. The vocabulary sets are introduced at the beginning of the book. Vocabulary being taught in the units is topic based and in most units vocabulary is considered to be an aid to grammar.

For example in 12th unit, grammar subject is simple past tense and topic is crime and punishment. In the first reading and speaking section there is a story named “Murder by the sea” which includes a dialogue between the Inspector and Mary Clark (victim’s wife) and in the next reading and speaking section there is again a dialogue between the Inspector and Mr. Adams (victim’s friend), and in the reading and writing section there is also a dialogue between the Inspector and the Doorkeeper. Following this topic there is no vocabulary teaching section but in the same unit there is another reading and writing section and in this section there are six words in bold (*sensitive, believe, anxious, alone, robbery, innocent*). Following this exercise there is a “writing with cues” section. The cues are *escape, investigate, rob, chase, dangerous, and fingerprints*. Let’s Practice and Let’s Remember sections are about simple past tense. At the end of the unit there is ‘Game time!’, but it is also about irregular verbs.

The vocabulary related to the crime given in the unit is; *detective, murder, inspector, victim, attack, injury, die, police station, murderer, kill, by mistake, escape, scene, report, investigate, disappear, search, dead body, witness, robbery, gunshot, suspect, innocent, criminal, rob, chase, fingerprint, break into, arrest*.

Although teaching more than seven words a lesson is not advised, there is no revision of the vocabulary in following units. Despite this vocabulary is not enough for a learner to speak or write about a crime.

Table 12: Comparison of item 5 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 5	In this CB all skills (reading/ writing/ listening/ speaking) take place equally.	2.99	1.003	9 %4.9	53 %28.6	66 %35.7	44 %23.8	13 %7
T5	In this CB all skills (reading/ writing/ listening/ speaking) take place equally.	3.48	1.078	1 %4.8	4 %19	2 %9.5	12 %57.1	2 %9.5

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

33,5 % of the students believe that all skills are equal in the book, but a question should be kept in mind that how much of the book is done completely. If the teachers follow the coursebook word by word they can find out that reading has a great part in the book. During the lesson the teacher has the right to decide what to do, so it should be thought that not to make students uninterested teachers may be skipping some parts of the book. The number of the teachers 14 (66,6 %), who disagree or strongly disagree, shows that they think there is some inequality in the distribution of the skills.

In NBS skills are given integrated but as mentioned before there are 30 reading and speaking, 26 listening and speaking, 24 reading and writing, 11 listening and reading, 6 listening and writing, 5 speaking and reading, 4 speaking and writing, and 1 writing section. When all the reading skills are added the sum is 70. It can be said that reading has a great part in NBS.

Table 13: Comparison of item 6 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S6	The reoccurrence of voc. which was learned in previous units reinforces learning	2.29	1.064	44 %23.8	75 %40.5	43 %23.2	14 %7.6	9 %4.9
T6	The reoccurrence of voc. which was learned in previous units reinforces learning	3.43	1.502	3 %14.3	4 %19	2 %9.5	5 %23.8	7 %33.3

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

As mentioned before in NBS vocabulary sets are topic based so in every unit a new vocabulary set is taught. Only verbs may be seen repeatedly but there is no vocabulary recycling in the book.

The number of the teachers who disagree or strongly disagree, 12 (57,1 %) should show that there is not enough recycling, but in every unit there are a lot of new vocabulary to learn because of a new topic. But as the verbs are learned and because the time spend on English is getting longer students begin to understand better and they believe that they have recycled.

Table 14: Comparison of item 7 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S7	This CB is sufficient on voc. teaching. I don't need any other books/ resources.	3.82	1.103	8 %4.3	18 %9.7	30 %16.2	73 %39.5	56 %30.3
T7	This CB is sufficient on voc. teaching. I don't need any other books/ resources.	4.33	.730	0 %0.0	0 %0.0	3 %14.3	8 %38.1	10 %47.6

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

14 % of the students agree or strongly agree with the item. However, none of the teachers agree or strongly agree. Nearly 85 % say that they need another source or book to teach vocabulary.

As mentioned after the interpretation of item 4, the vocabulary load about the topic is not sufficient for a learner to read, write, listen or speak about the same topic. But some students may feel themselves well enough when they get average points from exams or they may not need to expand their vocabulary. All the teachers say that they somehow need another book or source to teach vocabulary. As a result it can be said that a good revision on vocabulary study should be done with the book NBC.

Table 15: Comparison of item 8 (Coursebook)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S8	The lack of activities related to voc. decreases the success on the reading/ writing/ speaking and listening skills.	2.77	1.124	32 %17.3	37 %20	66 %35.7	41 %22.2	9 %4.9
T8	The lack of activities related to voc. decreases the success on the reading/ writing/ speaking and listening skills.	2.29	1.347	8 %38.1	5 %23.8	4 %19	2 %9.5	2 %9.5

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Although one third of the students believe that their lack of vocabulary decreases their success, the number of the teachers who agree with this item is more than half. As teachers are more experienced to decide about the success of the students in the classroom, they may think that the failure of the students depend on their vocabulary. Although there may be other reasons how much full the treasure of vocabulary is, the more successful the students will be.

4.1.1.2 Comparison of the answers about the reading texts

The second part of the questionnaire was about reading texts. In this part the number of the teachers studied was 20 because one of the participants has forgotten to fill in this part.

Table 16: Comparison of item 1 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S1	The reading texts are too long.	3.37	.987	8 %4.3	31 %16.8	43 %23.2	90 %48.6	13 %7
T1	The reading texts are too long.	2.50	1.235	5 %25	6 %30	4 %20	4 %20	1 %5

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

From the numbers it can be deduced that more than half of the students disagree with this item. When the teachers are considered they agree with this item. The distinction between the students and teachers may depend on the teachers, because they may skip some texts because of its length. One other reason may be the type of the texts because there are a lot of dialogues in the book.

To check if the texts are long enough to learn the topic, the readability analysis of the text is applied. This analysis can be done through the internet. For the purpose of this study, the researcher had chosen randomly seven different reading texts from different units of NBS and in order to assess the readability level of the reading samples chosen from the book Microsoft Flesh-Kincaid Readability test was used. The texts and the results of the test are given in the Appendices.

Only the reading ease was used as a criterion for the purposes of this study. The *Flesch Reading Ease Score* indicates on a scale of 0 to 100 the difficulty of comprehending a document. A score of 100 indicates an extremely simple document, while a score of 0 would describe a very complex document. A Flesch Reading Ease Score in the range of 40–50 would correspond to a relatively complex document that might score a 12 as its Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. The Flesch Reading Ease Score can be calculated by using the following equation:

$206.835 - (1.015 \times \text{Average Sentence Length}) - 84.6 \times \text{Average Syllables per Word}$

Unit 2 Dear Bilge	85.96
Unit 4 Traffic	74.27
Unit 6 Musician	72.63
Unit 9 Ramadan	73.37
Unit 14 Technology	56.54
Unit 20 Feng Shui	69.04
Unit 22 Birthday	54.65

When the texts chosen are considered it can be said that Reading Ease score of Unit 14 and Unit 22 show that they are really difficult texts. Other texts seem easier.

When Grade level is considered it should be kept in mind that this book is considered to be an elementary book, although the students have had English courses at least five years.

The *Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level* is an index that gives the years of education required to comprehend a document. For example, a document with a Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level score of 10 would require that a reader have about 10 years (or a 10th grade level) of education to comprehend the document. It can be calculated using the following equation:

$(0.39 \times \text{Average Sentence Length}) + (11.8 \times \text{Average Syllables per Word}) - 15.59$

Unit 2 Dear Bilge	2.66
Unit 4 Traffic	5.10
Unit 6 Musician	5.33
Unit 9 Ramadan	5.05
Unit 14 Technology	8.25
Unit 20 Feng Shui	6.75
Unit 22 Birthday	9.04

Same as the Reading Ease Score, Grade Level shows that texts of Unit 14 and Unit 22 are difficult for their level. The text of Unit 20 may be suitable if the students really had English classes before.

Table 17: Comparison of item 2 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S2	The language used in reading texts is authentic (as I can see Turkish in Turkish texts, magazines, books, etc.).	2.94	1.051	11 %5.9	59 %31.9	62 %33.5	37 %20	16 %8.6
T2	The language used in reading texts is authentic (as I can see Turkish in Turkish texts, magazines, books, etc.).	2.90	1.373	4 %20	4 %20	5 %25	4 %20	3 %15

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

In this question the authenticity of the texts is investigated. As the students in the pilot study had problems with the word "authentic" the wording has changed to "as I can see Turkish in Turkish texts, magazines, books, etc." As NBS is a coursebook written by Turkish speaking teachers, there may be some Turkish smelling vocabulary.

The reading texts are mostly dialogues, and there are some letters. There are also some other texts but the origins of the texts are not mentioned. There is a reference part at the end of the book but the origins of photos are mentioned only. These texts may be from brochures, magazines but before the text there is no expression about what kind of text the students are going to read.

Although 37,8 % of the students and 40 % of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed, it is believed that the wording to make the expression understandable made it misunderstood. When the authenticity is investigated in the book the researcher could find no evidence about the originality of the texts.

Table 18: Comparison of item 3 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S3	Students have difficulty in understanding the texts because of the load of unknown vocabulary	3.11	1.206	21 %11.4	43 %23.2	35 %18.9	67 %36.2	19 %10.3
T3	Students have difficulty in understanding the texts because of the load of unknown vocabulary	2.00	.918	6 %30	10 %50	2 %10	2 %10	0 %0.0

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Although approximately 35 % of students agree or strongly agree with this item the percentage of the teachers is 80 %. Students may think that they have difficulty in understanding the texts because of other factors but the experienced teachers think that it is mostly because of vocabulary load.

As an example on page 102 there is a text about Mevlana. In this text students are supposed to know or understand the following vocabulary: *statue, whoever, philosophy, philosopher, peace, tolerance, brotherhood, treat, opinion, belief, respect, principle, scenery, landscape*. But none of this vocabulary takes place in the Word List at the end of the text. The researcher thinks that if these words are not in the list they are not supposed to be taught, but how can a text about Mevlana's philosophy be understood without the knowledge of these words?

The first paragraph of the text is about Mevlana's philosophy but the second paragraph is about his statue in Buca, İzmir. The comprehension questions are about second paragraph. The vocabulary about Mevlana's philosophy makes the text difficult for students to understand but for the comprehension questions are easy, they don't need to learn this vocabulary. So teachers believe that texts are difficult to understand because of vocabulary load whereas students think that they can understand because they can answer the questions given in the book.

Table 19: Comparison of item 4 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 4	The reading texts are short and clear.	2.86	1.097	15 %8.1	64 %34.6	53 %28.6	37 %20	16 %8.6
T4	The reading texts are short and clear.	4.00	.918	0 %0.0	1 %5	5 %25	7 %35	7 %35

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

42,7 % of the students agree with this item. It should be because there are a lot of dialogues, but less reading texts. Only 5 % of the teachers agree, but 70 % disagree. The difference between the students and the teachers should be because of experience. The texts are sometimes short but they are not clear because of the word load or heavy grammar.

Table 20: Comparison of item 5 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 5	In the CB there are different kinds of reading texts such as letters, dialogues or articles.	2.28	1.115	48 %25.9	77 %41.6	30 %16.2	21 %11.4	9 %4.9
T5	In the CB there are different kinds of reading texts such as letters, dialogues or articles.	2.90	1.165	2 %10	7 %35	3 %15	7 %35	1 %5

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

In NBS, majority of the reading texts are given in dialogues, and there are also seven letters. Although there are some texts like articles, the origins (where they are taken from) are not mentioned. Students cannot see whether they can meet that kind of text in another published document such as newspapers, magazines, cartoons, etc.

The percentage of teachers who agree is 45 % whereas the percentage of teachers who disagree is 40 %. It should be because of the teacher's way of lesson planning. It is thought that some teachers are skipping some parts of the book, while others are trying to follow the book word by word.

Table 21: Comparison of item 6 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 6	Original (authentic, not simplified) reading texts improve vocabulary learning.	2.23	1.075	52 %28.1	70 %37.8	39 %21.1	17 %9.2	7 %3.8
T6	Original (authentic, not simplified) reading texts improve vocabulary learning.	2.10	1.447	11 %55	3 %15	0 %0.0	5 %25	1 %5

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Nearly 70 % of both the students and the teachers agree with this item. But there is no authentic text in NBS or the origins are not mentioned. All of the texts are especially written for the book. As can be seen from the literature review authentic texts improve vocabulary learning because they are examples of real life. When the texts are simplified it becomes difficult to see the colloquial language.

Table 22: Comparison of item 7 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 7	Authentic reading texts help to learn the culture of the L2.	2.15	1.096	59 %31.9	71 %38.4	33 %17.8	13 %7	9 %4.9
T7	Authentic reading texts help to learn the culture of the L2.	1.80	1.240	12 %60	4 %20	1 %5	2 %10	1 %5

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Nearly 70 % of the students and 80 % of the teachers agree with this item. They think that authenticity brings culture.

Although going abroad becomes easier, it is difficult for most of the students to go abroad and have the opportunity to observe the culture where it takes place. One of the aims of the language learning is to learn the culture of L2. So it's believed that as a coursebook NBS should have reflections of L2 culture. When investigated it can be seen that in every unit names of other cultures; countries, peoples and situations are mentioned but in most of the units Turkish culture is presented. Although all of the units include English names, they do not reflect the cultural perspectives of the people living in those societies. However Turkish culture is overemphasized in the textbook as most of the dialogues, reading passages and four skill activities are based on the samples from Turkish culture.

It may be good for the Turkish students to learn the vocabulary of Turkish culture in English when they try to express themselves but they should have the opportunity to compare the culture of other countries.

Table 23: Comparison of item 8 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 8	The level of reading texts is suitable to the level of the students.	2.40	1.04	32 %17.3	84 %45.4	41 %22.2	19 %10.3	9 %4.9
T8	The level of reading texts is suitable to the level of the students.	3.50	1.357	3 %15	1 %5	4 %20	7 %35	5 %25

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

There is a difference between the answers of the students and the teachers. 62.7 % of the students agree or strongly agree with this item whereas 60 % of the teachers disagree or strongly disagree.

NBS is supposed to be an elementary book. As an elementary book the length of the texts and the number of unknown words makes the texts difficult to understand. But when the education system is taken into consideration it should be kept in mind that the level of these students should not be elementary. After at least five years (in some private schools from the first grade, i.e. after at least eight years) the level should not be “elementary”. Also the beginning unit should not be “introducing oneself”.

Table 24: Comparison of item 9 (Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 9	The topics of the reading texts are realistic.	2.69	1.156	23 %12.4	73 %39.5	47 %25.4	23 %12.4	19 %10.3
T9	The topics of the reading texts are realistic.	3.25	1.070	1 %5	4 %20	6 %30	7 %35	2 %10

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Although nearly half of the students agree or strongly agree, 45 % of the experienced teachers disagree or strongly disagree. The difference should also be originating from the experience. There are a lot of dialogues for the students but as some topics are difficult to simplify, simplification makes the dialogues unrealistic.

Table 25: Comparison of item 10(Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 10	The topics of the reading texts distract the students' attention.	3.12	1.189	16 %8.6	42 %22.7	58 %31.4	41 %22.2	28 %15.1
T 10	The topics of the reading texts distract the students' attention.	4.15	.813	0 %0.0	1 %5	2 %10	10 %50	7 %35

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

30 % of the students agree that the topics are interesting but only 5 % of the teachers think that topics distract the attention of the students. The difference between the students and the teachers may be because of the fact that the students do not pay enough attention to the lesson, or do not try to answer the teacher's questions, or do not attend the lesson.

Table 26: Comparison of item 11(Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 11	To understand the reading texts students need to know the English culture.	3.49	1.212	14 %7.6	28 %15.1	38 %20.5	63 %34.1	42 %22.7
T 11	To understand the reading texts students need to know the English culture.	3.40	1.536	4 %20	2 %10	2 %10	6 %30	6 %30

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Approximately 60 % of both the teachers and the students disagree with this item. The reason may be that there are a few texts mentioning English culture. Most

of the texts are about Turkish culture. There are also some texts about eastern culture. The reason of this may be that the writers of the book are Turkish and most of the culture mentioned is Turkish culture. As mentioned before, the English equivalent of the vocabulary of Turkish culture may be helpful for the students to express themselves to foreigners, but learning a foreign language means learning a lot about the culture of that country.

Table 27: Comparison of item 12(Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 12	The reading texts teach enough vocabulary so there is no need to do extra.	3.92	1.037	5 %2.7	13 %7	38 %20.5	65 %35.1	64 %34.6
T 12	The reading texts teach enough vocabulary so there is no need to do extra.	3.80	1.240	1 %5	2 %10	5 %25	4 %20	8 %40

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Approximately 65 % of both the teachers and the students disagree with this item. This means that some extra work about vocabulary is needed. Learning/teaching vocabulary is considered to be a complex job and all the skills need vocabulary for the proficiency. So the teachers and the students should do something extra to teach/learn enough or more vocabulary.

As mentioned before, for example vocabulary about crime is not enough to communicate fluently about crime although a lot of vocabulary is given in the unit.

Table 28: Comparison of item 13(Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 13	During getting meaning from the texts, the pictures of the CB are helpful.	2.80	1.233	24 %13	66 %35.7	42 %22.7	29 %15.7	24 %13
T 13	During getting meaning from the texts, the pictures of the CB are helpful.	3.70	1.342	1 %5	4 %20	3 %15	4 %20	8 %40

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Although nearly half of the students agree with this item, 60 % of the teachers disagree. It may be because the teachers are familiar with qualified textbooks. The pictures may be helpful to guess the topic but it should be difficult to guess the meaning from one big picture. In the book NBS the pictures of the texts take a lot of place. In some pages there are nearly only pictures. But the pictures are childish. For example on page 122 half of the page is for a patient in the hospital, but the text is about the day before. The picture doesn't help the students to guess the meaning.

Table 29: Comparison of item 14(Reading texts)

Item no	Item	Mean	SD	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
S 14	The reading texts are understandable.	2.42	1.076	34 %18.4	79 %42.7	44 %23.8	17 %9.2	11 %5.9
T 14	The reading texts are understandable.	3.65	1.040	0 %0.0	2 %10	6 %30	6 %30	5 %25

1= Strongly Agree 2= Agree 3= Somewhat Agree 4= Disagree 5= Strongly Disagree

Although more than half of the students agree, more than half of the teachers disagree with this item. It may be because the students think that they understand the texts, but as the teachers mentioned they cannot get answers to the comprehension questions. Or it may be because the students understand the texts but do not show their understanding. To understand may mean different to the students and the teachers. The teachers may expect the students to take part in the lesson.

4.1.1.3 Comparison of the answers about the techniques teachers use in the classroom

In this section the answers of the teachers and the students about the techniques teachers use in the classroom will be compared and contrasted from the tables.

Table 30: The techniques teachers use in the classroom (according to the students)

	Yes (%)	No (%)
(1) S/he makes other sentences with the word.	155 (%83.8)	30 (%16.2)
(2) S/he wants us to make sentences with the word	154 (%83.2)	31 (%16.8)
(3) S/he explains the word with other expressions.	150 (%81.1)	35 (%18.9)
(4) S/he wants us to read English books.	145 (% 78.4)	40 (%21.6)
(5) S/he tells the synonym/antonym of the word.	139 (%75.1)	46 (%24.9)
(6) S/he explains the word with her/his gestures and mimes.	134 (%72.4)	51 (%27.6)
(7) S/he wants us to look up the word in the dictionary.	128 (%69.2)	57 (%30.8)
(8) S/he wants us to read the word aloud and repeat it.	126 (%68.1)	59 (%31.9)
(9) S/he stresses the prefix, suffix or the root of the word.	107 (%57.8)	78 (%42.2)
(10) S/he pre-teaches the vocabulary of the text.	98 (%53)	87 (%47)
(11) S/he tells the Turkish translation of the word.	88 (%47.6)	97 (%52.4)
(12) S/he explains the word by drawing.	87 (%47)	98 (%53)
(13) S/he makes up stories with the words.	87 (%47)	98 (%53)
(14) S/he lists the words.	85 (%45.9)	100 (%54.1)
(15) S/he teaches the words with games, puzzles, etc.	54 (%29.2)	131 (%70.8)
(16) S/he teaches words in groups such as animals, furniture.	44 (%23.8)	141 (%76.2)

(17) S/he wants us to write the words more than once.	32 (%17.3)	153 (%82.7)
(18) S/he wants us to keep a vocabulary notebook.	23 (%12.4)	162 (%87.6)

When the table is studied it can be seen that the students say their teachers mostly make another sentence with the word, want them to make other sentences and explain the word with other expressions. It can also be said that teachers are doing one of the items in the list anytime, but keeping a vocabulary notebook or writing the words more than once is among the ones that are done rarely.

The answers of the students show that the teachers rarely play vocabulary games, and they rarely teach the words in groups such as animals, or furniture.

Table 31: The techniques teachers use in the classroom (according to the teachers)

	Yes (%)	No (%)
(5) I tell the synonym/ antonym of the word.	20 (%95.2)	1 (%4.8)
(4) I want them to read English books.	19 (%90.5)	2 (%9.5)
(2) I want them to make sentences with the word.	18 (%85.7)	3 (%14.3)
(3) I explain the word with other expressions.	17 (% 81)	4 (%19)
(1) I make other sentences with the word.	17 (% 81)	4 (%19)
(6) I explain the word with my gestures and mimes.	16 (%76.2)	5 (%23.8)
(12) I explain the words by drawing.	13 (%61.9)	8 (%38.1)
(7) I want the students to look up the word in the dictionary.	13 (%61.9)	8 (%38.1)
(9) I stress the prefix, suffix or the root of the word.	12 (%57.1)	9 (%42.9)
(16) I teach the words in groups such as animals, furniture.	12 (%57.1)	9 (%42.9)
(8) I want the students to read the word aloud and repeat it.	10 (%47.6)	11 (%52.4)
(13) I make up stories with the words.	9 (%42.9)	12 (%57.1)
(15) I teach the words with puzzles, games, etc.	8 (%38.1)	13 (%61.9)
(10) I pre-teach the vocab. of the reading text.	7 (%33.3)	14 (%66.7)
(14) I list the words	5 (%23.8)	16 (%76.2)
(18) I want the students to keep a vocab. notebook.	5 (%23.8)	16 (%76.2)
(11) I tell the Turkish translation of the word.	4 (%19)	17 (%81)
(17) I want the students to write the word more than once.	3 (%14.3)	18 (%85.7)

When the table is studied it can be seen that the teachers say they mostly tell the synonym/ antonym of the word, want the students to read English books and want the students to make other sentences.

The first six item of the students' list is in the first six of the teachers' list but the order is different. It means that telling the synonym /antonym of the unknown vocabulary is one of the techniques mostly used by the teachers. The teachers also advise the students to read in English. Extensive reading is believed to be a good way to learn and remember vocabulary. If the students are faced with the words more than seven they may remember it easily, so reading is advised to improve vocabulary. Making sentences is also another technique that the teachers use. By this way the students may be able to make meaningful sentences. Using facial expressions, mimes and gestures is another technique the teachers use. Referring to a dictionary is also used, but in this part bi- or mono-lingual dictionary is not mentioned. Nearly half of the teachers say that they stress the prefix, suffix or root of the word. This is one of the techniques which will help the students to guess the meaning, so it should be used widely. Nearly half of the teachers say that they try to help the students to pronounce correctly by letting them read the words aloud and repeating them. Pre-teaching is said to be done by 30 % of the teachers, but it is also considered to be a helpful technique to understand the reading texts easily. In pre-teaching brainstorming may be included.

It can also be said that teachers are doing one of the items in the list anytime, but giving a list of the words, keeping a vocabulary notebook or writing the words more than once are among the ones that are done rarely.

It is thought that translation is believed to be one of the things that a teacher should not do, so there is a problem in this item. Although nearly half of the students say that the teachers tell the Turkish translation of the word, 20 % of the teachers accept this.

4.1.1.4. Comparison of the answers about the techniques students use when they meet an unknown word

In this section the answers of the teachers and the students will be compared and contrasted from the tables.

Table 32: The techniques the students use when they meet an unknown word (according to the students)

	Yes (%)	No (%)
(1) I learn the words by looking them up in an English-Turkish dictionary.	139 (%75.1)	46 (%24.9)
(2) I try to guess the meaning from the text.	139 (%75.1)	46 (%24.9)
(3) I ask my friends.	126 (%68.1)	59 (%31.9)
(4) I learn other words while looking up an unknown word in the dictionary.	116 (%62.7)	69 (%37.3)
(5) I guess the meaning from the gestures and mimes of the teacher.	111 (%60)	74 (%40)
(6) I learn the words by looking them up in an electronic or on-line dictionary.	107 (%57.8)	78 (%42.2)
(7) I learn the words that the teacher explains.	102 (%55.1)	83 (%44.9)
(8) I learn the words when I look them up in an English-English dictionary.	99 (%53.5)	86 (%46.5)
(9) The teacher helps me about how to learn words.	99 (%53.5)	86 (%46.5)
(10) I guess the meaning by thinking about if it is a noun, an adjective, etc.	90 (%48.6)	95 (%51.4)
(11) I ask the teacher.	83 (%44.9)	102 (%55.1)
(12) I guess the meaning from the drawings of the teacher.	66 (%35.7)	119 (%64.3)
(13) I learn the words better by puzzles, games.	51 (%27.6)	134 (%72.4)
(14) I try to find out the prefix, suffix or the root of the word.	44 (%23.8)	141 (%76.2)
(15) I don't know how to learn the words.	37 (%20)	148 (%80)
(16) I learn only the words that are important to me.	34 (%18.4)	151 (%81.6)
(17) I don't mind the unknown words.	25 (%13.5)	160 (%86.5)

When the table is studied it can be said that nearly three quarters of the students look up the words in a bi-lingual dictionary and try to guess the meaning from the text. Nearly 70 % of the students ask their friends and nearly 63 % of the students benefit the use of dictionary, that is to say they learn other words while looking up one unknown word in the dictionary.

It can also be said that students are doing one of the items in the list anytime, but unknown words are important for them, 86.5 % is a high percentage. It means that they feel themselves responsible to do something with these words.

20 % say that they know how to learn the vocabulary but the researcher believes that they are not educated enough about their abilities or learning techniques. Nearly 45 % say that they ask the meaning to the teacher whereas nearly 70 % ask their friends. It should be because of the atmosphere of the classroom, and because of their being young. They may be afraid of being seen as a lazy student, or they may believe that the teacher won't answer their question.

When using dictionaries is mentioned, bi-lingual dictionaries come the first, second comes the on-line or electronic dictionaries. Mono-lingual dictionaries come at last. The reason of this may be that the students believe that they don't know enough to understand what is said in mono-lingual dictionaries, but the dictionaries also have levels and when they find out they understand from the example or expression given in the dictionary they become good learners the language. They begin to learn other words while looking up a word.

Table 33: The techniques the students use when they meet an unknown word (according to the teachers)

	Yes (%)	No (%)
They ask me.	17 (%81)	4 (%19)
They guess the meaning from my gestures and mimes.	17 (%81)	4 (%19)
They learn the words that I explained.	15 (%71.4)	6 (%28.6)
They ask their friends.	14 (%66.7)	7 (%33.3)
They learn the words when they look them up in an English-Turkish dictionary.	13 (%61.9)	8 (%38.1)
They learn the words when they look them up in an electronic or on-line dictionary.	12 (%57.1)	9 (%42.9)
They get help from the teachers about how to learn the words.	12 (%57.1)	9 (%42.9)
They try to guess the meaning from the text.	11 (%52.4)	10 (%47.6)
They try to guess the meaning from my drawings.	11 (%52.4)	10 (%47.6)
They learn better with the puzzles, games, etc.	11 (%52.4)	10 (%47.6)
They guess the meaning by trying to find out if it is a noun, adjective, etc is.	10 (%47.6)	11 (%52.4)
They don't know how to learn the words.	9 (%42.9)	12 (%57.1)
They learn the words when they look them up in an English-English dictionary.	8 (%38.1)	13 (%61.9)
They don't mind the unknown words.	8 (%38.1)	13 (%61.9)
They learn other words while looking up an unknown word in the dictionary.	7 (%33.3)	14 (%66.7)
They try to find out the prefix, suffix or the root of the word.	7 (%33.3)	14 (%66.7)
They learn only the words that are important to them.	7 (%33.3)	14 (%66.7)

When table 33 is studied it can be said that nearly 80 % of the teachers say that the students ask them or try to guess the meaning from the gestures or the mimes of the teacher. It means that the students find the teachers as the real source of knowledge. This is problematic because it means that the students have learned the easiest way. As they get the meaning easily, it will be easy for them to forget too.

Nearly 70 % of the teachers say that the students learn only the words that are mentioned. It means that teachers think that they are the source of teaching. If the teachers don't try it is impossible for the students to learn. The big part of learning depends on teachers.

It can also be said that students are doing one of the items in the list anytime, but teachers think that the students are not doing their part.

4.1.1.5 Comparison of the answers about the techniques students use when they try to learn new vocabulary

In this section the techniques students use to learn vocabulary will be compared and contrasted according to the answers of the teachers and the students.

Table 34: The techniques the students use when they try to learn new vocabulary (according to the students)

	Yes (%)	No (%)
1. I learn the Turkish translation.	166 (%89.7)	19 (%10.3)
2. I read English readers/ magazines/ newspapers.	132 (%71.4)	53 (%28.6)
3. I use the words in a sentence.	126 (%68.1)	59 (%31.9)
4. I revise the worksheet.	112 (%60.5)	73 (%39.5)
5. I learn the synonym/ antonym of the word.	109 (%58.9)	76 (%41.1)
6. I read aloud.	109 (%58.9)	76 (%41.1)
7. I visualize the word.	109 (%58.9)	76 (%41.1)
8. I learn when I repeat and revise.	108 (%58.4)	77 (%41.6)
9. I associate the words with the Turkish ones.	106 (%57.3)	79 (%42.7)
10. I learn only the ones that I am responsible for the exam.	70 (%37.8)	115 (%62.2)
11. I keep word lists.	64 (%34.6)	121 (%65.4)
12. I make up stories with the words.	54 (%29.2)	131 (%70.8)
13. I learn the ones whose pronunciation is the same.	45 (%24.3)	140 (%75.7)
14. I write the words again and again.	44 (%23.8)	141 (%76.2)
15. I do puzzles, or play vocabulary games.	40 (%21.6)	145 (%78.4)
16. I group the words (Fruits, animals etc.)	36 (%19.5)	149 (%80.5)
17. I keep a vocabulary book.	36 (%19.5)	149 (%80.5)

When table 34 is studied it can be said that nearly 90 % of the students say that they learn new vocabulary with its Turkish equivalent/ meaning/ translation. Nearly 70 % say that they read English papers, magazines or books/readers. One of the most frequently used technique to learn a word is also said to be using it in a

sentence. Worksheet is also meant as a source to revise, so it means that only the book is not necessary to learn/teach.

The students say that they rarely play puzzles or vocabulary games, or learn the words in groups, or keep a vocabulary book.

From the answers of the students it can be said that the students don't have enough knowledge about the techniques of how to learn new vocabulary. It is also believed by the researcher that the students are not aware of their learning styles.

Table 35: The techniques the students use when they try to learn new vocabulary (according to the teachers)

	Yes (%)	No (%)
(3) They use the words in a sentence.	16 (%76.2)	5 (%23.8)
(4) They revise the worksheet.	16 (%76.2)	5 (%23.8)
(2) They read English readers/ magazines/ newspapers.	16 (%76.2)	5 (%23.8)
(5) They learn the synonym/ antonym of the word.	15 (%71.4)	6 (%28.6)
(1) They learn the Turkish translation.	11 (%52.4)	10 (%47.6)
(8) They learn when they repeat and revise.	11 (%52.4)	10 (%47.6)
(15) They do puzzles, or play vocabulary games.	10 (%47.6)	11 (%52.4)
(16) They group the words (Fruits, animals etc.)	9 (%42.9)	12 (%57.1)
(10) They learn only the ones that they are responsible for the exam.	9 (%42.9)	12 (%57.1)
(6) They read aloud.	8 (%38.1)	13 (%61.9)
(7) They visualize the word.	6 (%28.6)	15 (%71.4)
(11) They keep word lists.	6 (%28.6)	15 (%71.4)
(9) They associate the words with the Turkish ones.	5 (%23.8)	16 (%76.2)
(12) They make up stories with the words.	5 (%23.8)	16 (%76.2)
(14) They write the words again and again.	5 (%23.8)	16 (%76.2)
(17) They keep a vocabulary book.	5 (%23.8)	16 (%76.2)
(13) They learn the ones whose pronunciation is the same.	4 (%19)	17 (%81)

When table 35 is studied teachers say that the students learn new vocabulary mostly (76.2 %) by using them in a sentence, by revising the worksheet, and by reading English books, readers, newspapers and magazines. Next technique teachers say that the students use is learning the synonym/ antonym of the word. They say

that students rarely use the homophones (e.g. Tail or tale). The reason for this may be that the teachers don't mention these words.

According to the teachers the students rarely associate the words with the Turkish ones, make up stories with the words, write the words again and again, or keep a vocabulary book.

When Table 34 and 35 is compared it can be seen that the first five in the list is again in the first five in the second list. It means that the students and the teachers agree. The teachers believe that revision is needed but the students say that they don't revise. It can be said that keeping vocabulary book is not considered to be an aid to learning/teaching vocabulary.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

As in the saying “Knowing a language means a person, knowing two languages means two people.”, it has been very important in Turkey to learn a second language. English has been a world- wide language; as a result a lot of people in Turkey and all over the world try to learn English. Knowing English helps us to keep pace with recent developments. So education of a foreign language has been gaining importance.

Teaching English to a lot of people is one of the aims of teachers, institutions and governments. However, it is really a difficult job. Teaching does not always mean that learners have learned. There are a lot of methods, activities or materials but they should be chosen according to the needs of the learners.

New Bridge to Success (NBS) is a good step because it is the first coursebook written by Turkish speaking teachers. It needs some justifications. Teachers and the students who use this coursebook as the only course material should convey their needs and expectations to the writers, so the justification can be realized.

Vocabulary is an inevitable part of any language. As language is complicated it is really difficult to say it is learned. In every skill vocabulary is needed. As reading being the vital element of coursebooks, it is really needed to pay attention to vocabulary teaching/learning in reading skill.

5.1.1. Conclusion about the coursebook

When the questionnaire results of the students and the teachers are compared and contrasted some differences between the students and the teachers are seen. The

reason of this may be experience, expectation and knowledge. The participant teachers were mostly experienced and have known some other types of coursebooks. They could have made comparisons. As the students are teenagers and have little experience on the coursebooks, and although as a coursebook NBS has been less colorful than the other English coursebooks, but more colorful than the other courses' books it may attract students' attention.

The answers of the teachers about using another coursebook may reveal a problem with the book. The reason of this may be that NBS is a compulsory coursebook. Until this book the teachers were allowed to use other MoE approved books as a coursebook. Now they have no option. Not being able to choose a coursebook according to the needs of the students may cause problems.

The answers for the success of the students show that the students may consider themselves successful, although they are not good enough to communicate. As in the Turkish education system 45 points out of 100 is enough for the students to pass that subject, some of the students may feel that they are good enough in that subject.

When other sources are needed to teach vocabulary, it is the teachers' responsibility to teach or not. The aim of this coursebook is to balance the education all over Turkey, but when the responsibility depends on the teacher there may be great differences.

5.1.2. Conclusion about the reading texts

After the answers of the teachers and the students are compared and contrasted, and some reading texts of the book are analyzed, it can be concluded that the teachers' answers show the fact. The texts are long and difficult for the level of the students. They should be revised.

There is also a problem about the level of the book. Although 9th grade students should have learned English since the 4th grade, the level of the book is still “elementary”. Although it is elementary, the texts are not elementary. It needs at least four or more years of English education.

There are a lot of dialogues in the book, which may be helpful for speaking but the texts are not authentic. In the texts Turkish culture is mentioned. This may be helpful to express ourselves but English is a world wide used language and coursebooks printed in other countries show different cultures more. English should not be considered to be only a foreign language course, as by reading different texts a person can improve his/her knowledge about anything.

The reason why the teachers say that the texts don’t attract the students’ attention may be because the students don’t take part in the lesson, or they only sit and listen to the teacher.

5.1.3. Conclusion about the techniques used to teach/learn vocabulary

There is a difference between the answers of the teachers and the students. The students say that they look the words up in the dictionary or guess the meaning, but the teachers say that the students ask them.

For the teachers they are the source of teaching. If they don’t teach, the students won’t try to learn, because they are not curious enough to learn by themselves.

Some answers of the teachers may show that they are doing what should be done. In translation, the students say that the teachers use, but the teachers don’t accept. It may be because of the education the teachers had. If they were taught that translation has negative effect and they should use it minimum, they don’t want to accept that they translate. As for the time limitations, they may not have time to let the students look up the words in the dictionary, so they may translate. Sometimes,

especially at the beginning of the academic term the students get afraid when they only listen to English, and are not able to understand what is said.

As mentioned before, because there is no vocabulary teaching section in the book, the students may not be informed about all kinds of vocabulary teaching/learning techniques. If the book is revised again for vocabulary and a section for different techniques are mentioned, the teachers would be able to teach all of the techniques the students need.

5.2 Recommendations

This research is done to find out the teaching/learning aspect of vocabulary in reading texts. However, research of vocabulary teaching in every skill may be more helpful for the writers who will improve the NBS.

There are also some problems about the reading texts. During revision the texts should be considered according to readability. The experience of the teachers in the classroom should also be taken into account. After-use evaluation is one of the ways to improve the coursebooks, so the ideas and expectations of the teachers have great value in evaluation.

As this research is done only in 7 Anatolian High Schools in Ankara, the similar questionnaire may be sent to every school, and after the analyze of the data new techniques to vocabulary teaching may be added to the teachers' book of the NBS.

REFERENCES

- Allen, V. F. (1983) *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford American English
- Alptekin, C. (1993). Target-language culture in EFL materials. *ELT Journal* 47, 136-143.
- Alptekin, C. (2002). Towards intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 56(1): 57-64.
- Alyousef, H.S. (2005). Teaching Reading Comprehension to ESL/EFL Learners. *The Reading Matrix* Vol. 5 No 2 September 2005. Available at: <http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/alyousef/article.pdf>
- Amer, A.A. (1997). The effect of the teacher's reading aloud on the reading comprehension of EFL students. *Forum*, 51(1-4):43.
- Appleton, J. (2005). Visualisation and the Implications for Writing Extensive Readers. Developing Teachers com. [On-Line]. Available at: http://www.developingteachers.com/articles_tchtraining/junglefever1_jo.htm
- Baddeley, A. (1990) *Human Memory: Theory and Practice*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Badrawi, N. (1992). The reading dilemma: Meeting individual needs. *Forum*, 30(3):16-17.
- Banville, S. (2005). Creating ESL/EFL lessons based on news and current events. *The internet TESL Journal*, 11 (9). [On-Line]. Available at: <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Banville-News/>
- Benevento, J. (1984). Choosing and using textbooks *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American council on the teaching of foreign languages*. Chicago. IL
- Breen, M.P and Candlin. C.N. (1987). Which materials? A consumer's and designer's guide. In L. E. Sheldon (ed), *ELT Textbooks and Materials. Problems in Evaluation and Development*, (pp. 13-28). Oxford: Modern English Publications.
- Brooks, N. (1964) *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice*. 2nd ed. New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Brown, G. (1990). Cultural values: The interpretation of discourse. *ELT Journal*, 44(1), 11-17.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Byrd, P. (2001). Textbook: Evaluation for selection and analysis for implementation. In M.Celce-Murcia, (Ed.). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Cartwright, G., and Cartwright, C. (1985). Selection of Instructional Materials. (On- Line]. Available at :
http://www.saskschools.ca/curr_content/adaphandbook/curric/material.html#top

Celce-Murcia, M. (1991) Grammar pedagogy in second and foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 459-480.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2001) Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview. In *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. (3rd ed. 1-11) Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Claridge, G. (2005). Simplification in graded readers: Measuring the authenticity of graded texts. *Reading in a foreign language*, 17(2). [On-Line]. Available at:
<http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/October2005/claridge/claridge.html>

Coady, J. (1993). High Frequency Vocabulary and Reading Proficiency in ESL Readers. In Huckin, T., Haynes, M., & Coady, J. (Eds.) *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary Learning*, (pp. 3-23) Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Channell, J. (1988). Psycholinguistic considerations in the study of L2 vocabulary acquisition. In R. Carter & M. McCarthy (Eds) *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Chun, D.M. and Plass, J.L. (1996). Effects of multimedia annotations on vocabulary acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(2), 183-198.

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching and assessment, (2001) Council of Europe. Available at:
http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf

Cook, V. (1991) *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.

Cross, D. (1991), *A Practical Handbook of Language Teaching*, Pearson Education Limited 1999

Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your coursebook*. Oxford: Heinemann Publishers Ltd.

Daoud, A. & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Selecting and evaluating a textbook. In M. Celce-Murcia, & L. McIntosh, (Ed.). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Cambridge: Newbury House Publishers.

Daskalos, K. and Ling, J.J. (2005). Authentic Texts or Adapted Texts- That is the Question. [On-Line]. Available at:
<http://dspace.mah.se:8080/bitstream/2043/1964/1/authenticandadapted.pdf>

Day, R. & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive Reading In The Second Language Classroom* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

DeCarrico, J. S. (2001). Vocabulary Learning and Teaching. In M. Celce Murcia (ed.) (2001) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (3rd ed), Heinle & Heinle: Boston. 285-300.

Deveci, T. (2004). Why and how to teach collocations. *English Teaching Forum*, 42(2), 16-19.

Dhaif, H.A. (1990). Computer assisted language learning: A client's view. *CALICO Journal* 7(4), 67-81.

Dlugosz, D.W. (2000). Rethinking of the role of reading in teaching of a foreign language to young Learners. *ELT journal*, 54(3):285- 289.

Dougill, J. (1987). Not so obvious. In L. E. Sheldon, (Ed.). *ELT textbooks and materials: problems in evaluation and development*. *ELT Documents* 126, 29-35.

Dubin. F. Olshtain, E. (1986). *Course Design. Developing Programs and Materials or Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1997). The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), (36-42).

Ellis, P. and Ellis, M. (1987). Learning by Design Criteria for ELF Coursebooks. In L. E. Sheldon (ed.) *ELT Textbooks and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and Development*, (pp. 90-98). Oxford: Modern English Publications.

Evangelidou, E., Polymenidou, P., Tsitsopoulou, E., and Vacharoglou, A. (1990). Reading skills. *English Teaching Forum*. 28,4 (October,1990) 30-32.

Fredrickson, A.T. (2001). Narrow Reading-A Powerful Way to Improve Your English [On-Line]. Available at:
<http://bangkokpost.net/education/site2000/ptau2401.htm>

Gairns, R. and Redman, S.(1986) *Working with words*. CUP.

- Garinger, D. (2001). *Textbook evaluation*. *TEFL Web Journal*. Available at: <http://www.teflweb-j.org/v1n1/garinger.html>
- Ghani, S.A. (1993). ESP reading: Some implications for the design of materials. *Forum*, 31(4):42-43.
- Gephard, J.G. (1987). Successful comprehension: What teacher can do before students read. *Forum*, 22(3):52.
- Glisan, E.W. (1988). A plan for teaching listening comprehension: Adaptation of an instructional reading model. *Foreign Language Annals*. 21, 9-16.
- Gonzalez, N. (1999). What will we do when culture does not exist anymore? *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 30, 431-435.
- Grant, N. (1987). *Making the most of your textbook*. London: Longman.
- Gu, Y. (1994) Politiness, Pragmatics and Culture. Hu Wenzhong. *Culture and Communication*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Researching Press, 496-511.
- Hatch, E. & Brown, C. (1995) *Vocabulary, Semantics and Language Education*, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Heather, L.W. (1993). Do Simplified Texts Simplify Language Comprehension for ESL Learners? [On-Line]. Available at: http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/content_storage_01/0000019b/80/15/b4/7c.pdf
- Hill, J. (1992). *Teaching Literature in the Language Classroom*. Macmillan Publishers Ltd., London and Basingstoke, pp.56-57.
- Hippner-Page, T. (2002) Semantic clustering versus thematic clustering of English Vocabulary words for second language instruction: Which method is more effective? ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED445550.
- Holloway, J. (1999). Improving reading skills of adolescents. *The Internet TESL journal*, 57(2). [On-Line]. Available at : <http://www.ascd.org/readingroom/edlead/9910/holloway.html>
- Howard, K. L. (2004). Universal Design for Learning: Meeting the needs of all students. *Learning and Leading with Technology*, 31(5), 26-29. Available at: <http://4.17.143.133/udl/index.cfm?i=4992>
- Hsia, S. & Others (1995). ESL learners' word organization strategies: A case of Chinese learners of English words in Hong Kong. *Language and Education*. 9, 2, 81-102.

Hubbard, P. (1983) Bridging the gap between chaos and coherence in ESL Composition. *CATESOL Occasional Papers*, 9.

Huthchinson, T. (1987). What is underneath? An interactive view of the materials evaluation. In L. E. Sheldon (ed.), *ELT textbooks and materials: Problems in evaluation and development*, (pp. 37-44), Oxford: Modern English Publications.

Hutchinson, T. and Torres, E. (1994) The textbook as Agent of Change. *ELT Journal* 48(4): 315-26.

Hutchinson, T & Waters, A. (1987). *ESP– A Learning-centered Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jones, E. (1999). A comparison of all web-based class to a traditional class. ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service ED432286.

Jones, L. & Plass, J. (2002). Supporting listening comprehension and vocabulary acquisition in French with multimedia annotations. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86 (4), 546-561.

Kaelin, A.M. (1991). The effects of instruction using a mnemonic graphic organizer on vocabulary acquisition among adult English-as-a-second-language students. ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service No ED334546.

Kang, s. (2004) Using visual organizers to enhance EFL instruction. *ELT Journal*, 2004:58:58-67.

Kilickaya, F. (2004). Guidelines to evaluate cultural content in textbooks. *The Internet TESL Journal*.10, 12.

Knight, S. (1994) Dictionary: The tool of last resort in foreign language reading? A new perspective. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78 (3), 285-299.

Knott, D. (2005). Critical Reading toward Critical Writing. New College Writing Centre. [On-Line]. Available at:
<http://www.writing.utoronto.ca/advice/reading-and-researching/critical-reading>

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Pergamon Press, Oxford, p.48.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 2nd ed. Oxford University Press.

Laufer, B. (1997). The lexical plight in second language reading: words you don't know, words you think you know and words you can't guess. In *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: a Rationale for Pedagogy*, eds. J. Coady and T. Huckin. Cambridge University Press. pp. 20-34.

Laufer, B. (1998) 'The Development of Passive and Active Vocabulary in a Second Language: Same or Different?' *Applied Linguistics* 19/2: 255-271

Leather, S. 2001. Training across cultures: Content, process, and dialogue. *ELT Journal*, 55, 3, 228-237.

LeLoup, J.W. and Ponterio, R. (2005). Vocabulary support for independent online reading. *Language learning and technology*, 9(2). [On-Line]. Available at : <http://llt.msu.edu/vol9num2/net/default.html>

Lewis, M.(1993) *The Lexical Approach*. London: Language Teaching Publications

Lewis, M., and Hill, J. (1985). *Practical Techniques for Language Teaching*. Language Teaching Publications, London, p.107.

Lopes, D. (1991). From reading to writing strategies. *Forum*, 24(4):42.

Martin, D. (1991). How to be a Successful Student. [On-Line]. Available at: <http://www.marin.cc.ca.us/~don/study/7read.html>

McDonough, Jo. & Shaw, C. (1993). *Materials and methods in ELT*. Oxford: Blackwell.

McLeod, B. (1976). The relevance of anthropology to language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*. 10, 211-20.

MEB Anadolu Lisesi (hazırlık sınıfı ve 9, 10, 11. sınıflar) İngilizce dersi öğretim programı, (2002). MEB Ortaöğretim Genel Müdürlüğü. Milli Eğitim Basımevi: Ankara.

Nation, I.S.P. (1978) Language through code. *Modern English Teacher* 6,4: 13-15.

Nation, I.S.P. (1990) *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary* New York: Newbury House.

Nation, I.S.P.(2001) *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. CUP

Nattinger, J. (1980) 'A Lexical Phrase Grammar for ESL' *TESOL Quarterly* 14: 337-344

Nattinger, J. (1988) Some current trends in Vocabulary Teaching. In R.Carter & M.Mccarthy (Eds) *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. London: Longman

Nunan, D. (1997). Autonomy and independence in language learning. In P. Benson and P. Voller (ed.), *Designing and adapting materials to encourage learner autonomy*. UK: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd.

Nunan, D. (1998) *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Paivio, A. and Desrochers, A. (1981) Mnemonic techniques in second-language proficiency. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73, 780-795.

Razi, S. (2005). The Effects of Cultural Schema and Reading Activities on Reading Comprehension. [On-Line]. Available at:

<http://www.readingmatrix.com/conference/pp/proceedings/razi.pdf>

Rea-Dickens, P. and Germaine, K. (1994). *Evaluation*. In Candlin and Widdowson (ed.), Oxford University Press.

Reis, L.A.V.P. (1993). Pre-warm-up activities. *Forum*. 31(4):38.

Rivers, W.M. (1981). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, p.52.

Richards, C. J. (1998). *Beyond Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2001). *The role of textbooks in a language program*. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, C. J. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rivas, R.M.M. (1999). Reading in recent ELT coursebooks. *ELT journal*, 53(1):12, 14-19.

Rivers, W.M. (1981) *Teaching Foreign Language Skills* 2nd Ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Rixon, S. (1981) *How to use games in language teaching*. Essential Language Teaching Series. London: Modern English Publications.

Robb, T.N., and Susser, B. (1989). Extensive reading vs skills building in an EFL context. *Reading in a foreign language*, 12(2). [On-Line]. Available at:

<http://www.cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp/~trobb/robbsuss.html>

Royer, P.N. (1972). Effects of Specificity and Position of Written Instructional Objectives on Learning from Lecture. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 69-1. 40-5.

Sakar, A. and G. Ercetin. (2004) Effectiveness of hypermedia annotations for foreign language reading. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 21, pp. 28-38.

Sarıçoban, A. (2001) *The Teaching of Language Skills*. Ankara: Hacettepe Taş.

Schmitt, N. (2000) *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Schmitt, N. and McCarthy, M. (eds) (1997) *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sheehan, A. (2004) Making Sense of Words: What is the current thinking on the role of vocabulary in ELT? English Teaching Forum, January, 2004.
<http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/04-42-1-d.pdf>

Sheldon, L. E. (Ed.). (1987). Introduction. In L. E. Sheldon, (Ed.), *ELT textbooks and materials: problems in evaluation and development*. *ELT Documents*

Sheldon, L. E. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42(4), 237-246.

Shelton, S. (2006). Encouraging Extensive Reading -2. Developing Teachers com. [On-Line]. Available at :
http://www.developingteachers.net/articles_tchtraining/extread2_scott.htm

Sinclair, J. and A. Renouf, (1988) A lexical syllabus for language learning. In R. Carter & M. McCarthy (eds) *Vocabulary & Language Teaching*. 140-160. Harlow Essex: Longman.

Skierso, A. (1991). Textbook selection and evaluation. In M. C. Murcia (ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 432-453), Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Sökmen, A. J. (1997) 'Current trends in teaching second language vocabulary' In N.Schmitt and M. McCrthy, (eds) *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*. 237-257 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Stanley, J. (2005) *Knowledge and Practical Interests* Oxford: OUP

Stoller, F. L. & Grabe, W. (1997). A six-T's approach to content-based instruction. In M. A. Snow & D. M. Brinton (Eds.), *The content-based classroom: Perspectives on integrating language and content* (pp. 78-94). NY: Longman.

Straub R. (1999) A sourcebook for responding to student writing Cresskill, N.J: Hampton Press

Taylor, L. (1990) Teaching and Learning Vocabulary. Prentice Hall International.

Thornbury, S. (2002) *How to Teach Vocabulary*. Longman

Thuss, A. (1999). Reading Comprehension. [On-Line]. Available at : <http://web.archive.org/web/20050207031016/www.hio.ft.hanze.nl/thar/reading.htm>

Tinkham, T. (1993) The effect of semantic clustering on the learning of second language vocabulary. *System*, 21 (3), 371-380.

Tomlinson, B. (1998). Glossary of basic terms for material development in language teaching and introduction. In B. Tomlinson, (Ed.). *Materials development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Underwood, J. (1989) HyperCard and Interactive video. *CALICO*, 6(3), 7-20.

Ur, Penny (1996). *A course in language teaching – practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallace M (1980). *Study Skills In English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wesche, M. & T.S.Paribakht (1994) Enhancing vocabulary acquisition through reading: a hierarchy of text-related exercise types. ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service No ED369291.

West, M. (1953) *A General Service List of English Words* London: Longman.

Wilkins, D.A. (1974) *Second Language Learning and Teaching* London: Edward Arnold.

Williams, D. (1983). Developing reading comprehension skills at the post-primary level. *Forum*, 21(3):11-16.

Willis, J. (1982). *Teaching through English*. England: Longman Group Ltd.

Willis, J.D. (1990) *The Lexical Syllabus*. London: Collins COBUILD

Xue,G. and I.S.P. Nation (1984) A University Word List. *Language Learning*, 3, 215-229.

Yakhontova, T (2001). Textbooks, contexts and learners. *English for specific purposes*, 20 (3), 397-415.

Yang, N. (1995) Effective awareness-raising in language learning strategy training. ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service No ED392278.

Yumuk, A. (1998). *A case study on evaluating the effectiveness of English language Support 201 course materials for Bureau Management and Secretarial Studies at Bilkent University*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, METU, Ankara, Turkey.

Zenger, W. F. (1982). *Textbook evaluation: A guide and checklist*. Sonataga, California: Rae Publishers.

Zhang, Z. & J.S. Schumm (2000) Exploring effects of the keyword method on limited English proficient students' vocabulary recall and comprehension. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 39,3,202-21.

Zimmerman, C.B. (1997) Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J.Coady & T.Huckin (eds) *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendices I Questionnaire 1 (For Students)

Değerli Öğrenciler,

Elinizdeki anket “New Bridge to Success Grade 9 Elementary” adlı ders kitabında yer alan okuma parçalarının kelime öğretimi açısından değerlendirilmesi amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz cevaplar bir araştırmaya kaynaklık edecektir. Güvenilir ve geçerli sonuçlar elde edilebilmesi için cevaplarınızın gerçeği yansıtmaları çok önemlidir.

Anketin hiçbir bölümünde adınızı kullanmayacaksınız. Vereceğiniz yanıtlar araştırma kaynağı olmanın dışında hiç kimse tarafından kullanılmayacaktır.

Ankete katkılarınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Meltem Dilek
Gazi Üniversitesi
İngilizce Öğretmenliği

Bölümü

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Okulunuz:

Cinsiyetiniz: Erkek _____ Kız _____

Ders kitabı:

	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
Ders kitabını öğretici buluyorum.					
Kitaptaki okuma /kelime aktiviteleri ilgimi çekiyor.					
Bu kitabın yerine daha kapsamlı başka bir kitap kullanmak isterdim.					
Kitaptan çok kelime öğrendim.					
Kitapta tüm becerilere (okuma/ yazma/ konuşma/ dinleme) eşit oranda yer verilmiş.					
Bir ünite de öğrendiğim kelimelerle daha sonraki ünitelerde de karşılaşmam öğrenmemi pekiştiriyor.					
Kitap kelime öğretimi açısından yeterli. Başka kitaplara/ kaynaklara ihtiyaç duymuyorum.					
Kitapta kelime ile ilgili aktivitelerin az olması okuma, yazma, konuşma ve dinleme becerilerindeki başarıyı düşürüyor.					

Okuma parçaları:

	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
Okuma parçaları çok uzun.					
Okuma parçalarında kullanılan dil Türkçe kitaplarda, dergilerde, günlük konuşmalarda karşılaştığım dil gibi.					
Okuma parçalarında bilmediğim kelime çok olduğu için anlamakta zorlanıyorum.					
Okuma parçaları kısa ve açık.					
Kitapta değişik türde okuma parçalarına (mektup/diyalog/ makale) yer verilmiş.					
Orijinal (gerçek hayattan alınmış, basitleştirilmemiş) okuma parçaları okumak dil öğrenimine katkıda bulunur.					
Orijinal okuma parçaları o dilin kültürünü öğrenmemi sağlar.					
Okuma parçalarının dili benim seviyeme uygun.					
Okuma parçalarının konuları gerçekçi.					
Okuma parçalarının konuları ilgimi çekiyor.					
Okuma parçalarını anlamam için İngiliz kültürü hakkında bilgi sahibi olmam gerekiyor.					
Okuma parçalarında yeterince kelime öğreniyorum bu yüzden fazladan kelime çalışması yapmaya gerek yok.					
Okuma parçasındaki kelimelerin anlamını çıkarırken kitaptaki resimler faydalı oluyor.					
Okuma parçaları anlaşılır.					

Okuma parçalarını işleyişiniz ve kelime öğretimi açısından öğretmeninizin yaptıklarına işaret koyunuz.

Öğretmenimiz bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili olarak;

- ___ Okuma parçasından önce kelimeleri öğretiyor.
- ___ Kelimelerin eş/zıt anlamlısını söylüyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri başka ifadelerle anlatıyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri bir başka cümlede kullanıyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri şekillerle anlatıyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri sözlükten bulmamızı istiyor.
- ___ Kelimelerin Türkçe karşılığını söylüyor.

- ___ Kelimeleri jest ve mimiklerle anlatıyor.
- ___ Kelimelerin ön eklerini, köklerini veya son eklerini vurguluyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri gruplar (hayvanlar/ ev eşyaları vb.) halinde öğretiyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri bulmacalarla, oyunlarla öğretiyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri cümlelerde kullanıyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri sesli okutup tekrarlatıyor.
- ___ Kelimelerle hikayeler oluşturuyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri listeler halinde veriyor.
- ___ Kelimeleri tekrar tekrar yazdırıyor.
- ___ Kelime defteri tutturuyor.
- ___ Ders dışında İngilizce kitap okutturuyor.

Anlamını bilmediğiniz kelimelere ilgili olarak doğru olanları işaretleyiniz..

- ___ Kelimeleri nasıl öğreneceğimi bilmiyorum.
- ___ Anlamına Türkçe-İngilizce sözlükten baktığımda öğreniyorum.
- ___ Anlamına İngilizce'den İngilizce'ye sözlükten baktığımda öğreniyorum.
- ___ Anlamına elektronik veya on-line sözlükten baktığımda öğreniyorum.
- ___ Sözlükten anlamını bilmediğim kelimeyi ararken yeni başka kelimeler öğreniyorum.
- ___ Bu kelimeler üzerinde durmuyorum.
- ___ Öğretmenime soruyorum.
- ___ Parçadan çıkarmaya çalışıyorum.
- ___ İsim mi, sıfat mı vs. olduğunu düşünerek anlamını çıkarıyorum.
- ___ Ön ekini, kökünü veya son ekini bulmaya çalışıyorum.
- ___ Arkadaşlarıma soruyorum.
- ___ Öğretmenin çizdiği şekillerden anlam çıkarıyorum.
- ___ Öğretmenin jest ve mimiklerinden anlam çıkarıyorum.
- ___ Kelime oyunları ve bulmacalarla daha iyi öğreniyorum.
- ___ Sadece bence önemli olan kelimelerin anlamını öğreniyorum.
- ___ Öğretmenimin anlamını açıkladığı kelimeleri öğreniyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri nasıl öğrenebileceğim konusunda öğretmenim yardımcı oluyor.

Kelimeleri öğrenmekle ilgili olarak yaptıklarınızı işaretleyiniz.

- ___ Cümlede kullanıyorum.
- ___ Eş/zıt anlamlarını öğreniyorum.
- ___ Türkçe karşılıklarını öğreniyorum.
- ___ Türkçe'deki kelimelerle çağrışımlar yapıyorum.
- ___ Sesli okuyorum.
- ___ Grupluyorum.(Yiyecekler/ hayvanlar vb.)
- ___ Benzer şekilde söylenenleri bir arada öğreniyorum.
- ___ Bir hikaye oluşturuyorum.
- ___ Hayalimde canlandırıyorum/Gözümün önüne getiriyorum.
- ___ Tekrar tekrar yazıyorum.
- ___ Tekrarladıkça öğreniyorum.
- ___ Kelime defteri tutuyorum.
- ___ Listeler halinde yazıyorum.
- ___ Sadece sınavda çıkacaklara çalışıyorum.

- ___ Kelime oyunları oynuyor, bulmacalar çözüyorum.
___ Çalışma kağıtlarını (worksheet) tekrarlıyorum.
___ İngilizce hikaye kitapları/dergiler/gazeteler okuyorum.

Konu ile ilgili eklemek istediğiniz her hangi bir şey varsa lütfen yazınız:.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendices II Questionnaire 2 (For Teachers)

Sevgili Meslektaşım,

Elinizdeki anket “New Bridge to Success Grade 9 Elementary” adlı ders kitabında yer alan okuma parçalarının kelime öğretimi açısından değerlendirilmesi amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz cevaplar bir araştırmaya kaynaklık edecektir. Güvenilir ve geçerli sonuçlar elde edilebilmesi için cevaplarınızın gerçeği yansıtmaları çok önemlidir.

Anketin hiçbir bölümünde adınızı kullanmayacaksınız. Vereceğiniz yanıtlar araştırma kaynağı olmanın dışında hiç kimse tarafından kullanılmayacaktır.

Ankete katkılarınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Meltem Dilek
Gazi Üniversitesi
İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Cinsiyetiniz: Bayan:____ Erkek:____

Kaç yıldır öğretmenlik yapıyorsunuz? 1-5 yıl ____
6-10 yıl ____
11 -15 yıl ____
16 -20 yıl ____
20 yıldan fazla ____

Kaç yıldır 9. sınıfları okutuyorsunuz? 1-5 yıl arası ____
6-10 yıl arası ____
11-15 yıl arası ____
16-20 yıl arası ____
20 yıldan fazla ____

Ne kadar süredir “New Bridge to Success Grade 9 Elementary” kitabını kullanıyorsunuz?

Bu yıl başladım:____
İki yıldır:____
Üç yıldır:____
Dört yıldır:____
Beş yıldır:____
Kullanımı zorunlu olduğu tarihten beri:____

Ders kitabı:

	Kesinlikle	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle
Ders kitabını öğretici buluyorum.					
Kitaptaki okuma /kelime aktiviteleri ilgi çekici.					
Bu kitabın yerine daha kapsamlı başka bir kitap kullanmak isterdim.					
Kitap çok kelime öğretiyor.					
Kitapta tüm becerilere (okuma/ yazma/ konuşma/ dinleme) eşit oranda yer verilmiş.					
Bir ünite de öğretilen kelimelere daha sonraki ünitelerde de rastlanması öğretimi pekiştiriyor.					
Kitap kelime öğretimi açısından yeterli. Başka kitaplara/ kaynaklara ihtiyaç duymuyorum.					
Kitapta kelime ile ilgili aktivitelerin az olması okuma, yazma, konuşma ve dinleme becerilerindeki başarıyı düşürüyor.					

Okuma parçaları:

	Kesinlikle	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle
Okuma parçaları çok uzun.					
Okuma parçalarında kullanılan dil Türkçe kitaplarda, dergilerde, günlük konuşmalarda karşılaşılan dil gibi.					
Okuma parçalarında bilinmeyen kelime çok olduğu için öğrenciler anlamakta zorlanıyor.					
Okuma parçaları kısa ve açık.					
Kitapta değişik türde okuma parçalarına (mektup/diyalog/ makale) yer verilmiş.					
Orijinal (gerçek hayattan alınmış, basitleştirilmemiş) okuma parçaları okumak dil öğrenimine katkıda bulunur.					

Orijinal okuma parçaları o dilin kültürünü öğrenmeyi sağlar.					
Okuma parçalarının dili öğrenci seviyesine uygun.					
Okuma parçalarının konuları gerçekçi.					
Okuma parçalarının konuları öğrencilerin ilgisini çekiyor.					
Okuma parçalarını anlayabilmeleri için öğrencilerin İngiliz kültürü hakkında bilgi sahibi olması gerekiyor.					
Okuma parçalarında yeterince kelime öğretiliyor bu yüzden fazladan kelime çalışması yapmaya gerek yok.					
Okuma parçasındaki kelimelerin anlamını çıkarırken kitaptaki resimler faydalı oluyor.					
Okuma parçaları anlaşılır.					

Okuma parçalarını işleyişiniz ve kelime öğretimi açısından öğretmeninizin yaptıklarına işaret koyunuz.

Bilinmeyen kelimelerle ilgili olarak;

- ___ okuma parçasından önce kelimeleri öğretiyorum.
- ___ kelimelerin eş/zıt anlamlısını söylüyorum.
- ___ kelimeleri başka ifadelerle anlatıyorum.
- ___ kelimeleri bir başka cümlede kullanıyorum.
- ___ kelimeleri şekillerle anlatıyorum.
- ___ kelimeleri öğrencilerin sözlükten bulmalarını istiyorum.
- ___ kelimelerin Türkçe karşılığını söylüyorum.
- ___ kelimeleri jest ve mimiklerle anlatıyorum.
- ___ kelimelerin ön eklerini, köklerini veya son eklerini vurguluyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri gruplar (hayvanlar/ ev eşyaları vb.) halinde öğretiyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri bulmacalarla, oyunlarla öğretiyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri cümlelerde kullanıyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri sesli okutup tekrarlatıyorum.
- ___ Kelimelerle hikayeler oluştuyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri liste halinde veriyorum.
- ___ Kelimeleri tekrar tekrar yazdırıyorum.
- ___ Kelime defteri tutturuyorum.
- ___ Ders dışında İngilizce kitap okutturuyorum.

Öğrencilerin anlamını bilmediği kelimelere ilgili olarak yaptıklarını işaretleyiniz..

- ___ Kelimeleri nasıl öğreneceklerini bilmiyorlar.
- ___ Anlamına Türkçe-İngilizce sözlükten baktığımda öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Anlamına İngilizce'den İngilizce'ye sözlükten baktığımda öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Anlamına elektronik veya on-line sözlükten baktığımda öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Sözlükten anlamını bilmediği kelimeyi ararken yeni başka kelimeler öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Bu kelimeler üzerinde durmuyorlar.

- ___ Öğretmene soruyorlar.
- ___ Parçadan çıkarmaya çalışıyorlar.
- ___ İsim mi, sıfat mı vs. olduğunu düşünerek anlamını çıkarıyorlar.
- ___ Ön ekini, kökünü veya son ekini bulmaya çalışıyorlar.
- ___ Arkadaşlarına soruyorlar.
- ___ Öğretmenin çizdiği şekillerden anlam çıkarıyorlar.
- ___ Öğretmenin jest ve mimiklerinden anlam çıkarıyorlar.
- ___ Kelime oyunları ve bulmacalarla daha iyi öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Sadece kendilerince önemli olan kelimelerin anlamını öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Öğretmenin anlamını açıkladığı kelimeleri öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Kelimeleri nasıl öğrenebilecekleri konusunda öğretmenden yardım alıyorlar.

Öğrencilerin kelime öğrenmekle ilgili olarak yaptıklarını işaretleyiniz.

- ___ Cümlede kullanıyorlar.
- ___ Eş/zıt anlamlarını öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Türkçe karşılıklarını öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Türkçe'deki kelimelerle çağrışımlar yapıyorlar.
- ___ Sesli okuyorlar.
- ___ Grupluyorlar.(Yiyecekler/ hayvanlar vb.)
- ___ Benzer şekilde söylenenleri bir arada öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Bir hikaye oluşturuyorlar.
- ___ Hayallerinde canlandırıyor/Gözlerinin önüne getiriyorlar.
- ___ Tekrar tekrar yazıyorlar.
- ___ Tekrarladıkça öğreniyorlar.
- ___ Kelime defteri tutuyorlar.
- ___ Listeler halinde yazıyorlar.
- ___ Sadece sınavda çıkacaklara çalışıyorlar.
- ___ Kelime oyunları oynuyor, bulmacalar çözüyorlar.
- ___ Çalışma kağıtlarını (worksheet) tekrarlıyorlar.
- ___ İngilizce hikaye kitapları/dergiler/gazeteler okuyorlar.

Konu ile ilgili eklemek istediğiniz her hangi bir şey varsa lütfen yazınız:.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendices III Reading Texts and the Results of the Flesh-Kincaid Readability Test

Unit 2 Page 13 Listening & Reading

Dear Bilge,

Hi! I'm Steve. I am fourteen years old. I am tall with fair hair and green eyes. I am a student at John Short Secondary School. I have got a big family.

My mother's name is Sarah. She is forty-two. My father's name is Simon. He is forty-five. My parents are both bus drivers. Their job is difficult. I have got a brother and a sister. My sister is nine. Her name is Susan. She is a student at St. George Primary School. She is tall with blond hair and brown eyes. She is hard-working. My brother's name is Stephanie. He is a student at London High School. He is eighteen. He is tall with black hair and blue eyes.

My grandparents' names are Sergio and Julia. They are from Italy. My grandmother is a housewife. My grandfather is an engineer. They have got a beautiful house with a garden. The garden is very big and colorful.

My cat's name is Socks. She has got four kittens. The kittens are lovely. They have got big blue eyes and white fur. Have you got a pet?

Well, that is all about my family and me.

What about you? How many sisters and brothers have you got?

Write soon,

Steve

Number of characters (without spaces) :	841.00
Number of words :	213.00
Number of sentences :	38.00
Average number of characters per word :	3.95
Average number of syllables per word :	1.36
Average number of words per sentence:	5.61

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	5.25
---------------------	------

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :

Coleman Liau index :	2.10
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	2.66
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	-0.03
SMOG :	6.55
Flesch Reading Ease :	85.96

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text :

- They have got a beautiful house with a garden.
- My grandparents' names are Sergio and Julia.
- I am a student at John Short Secondary School.

Unit 4 Page 27 Reading & Writing

There are some traffic problems in New York, USA. You cannot drive fast during the rush hours because there is a terrible traffic jam, so you cannot arrive home in time every day. Traffic rules are strict here. You cannot break the rules because police officers and cameras are everywhere. It is the good part of NT traffic.

Traffic in India is enjoyable but difficult. There are a lot of cows, people, bicycles, trucks and cars on the streets. You can see some road signs or traffic officers. The roads are in chaos. You cannot go fast, turn right or left or find a parking place. The traffic is bad.

Cyclists are everywhere here in Beijing, China. Men, women, children and even business people are on their bicycles, without helmets. It is dangerous for them. You cannot see many cars on the streets. It is very nice because you can park your bike everywhere. You can buy a bike easily because they are cheap. Don't forget! You cannot ride fast, because it is not polite.

Trucks are very important in Pakistan. They are very special for their drivers. They can carry a lot of goods or people. There are no rules for them. People can drive them in the town center or in the mountains. So you cannot drive or walk easily on the streets. Be careful and go slowly!

Number of characters (without spaces) :	996.00
Number of words :	230.00
Number of sentences :	26.00
Average number of characters per word :	4.33
Average number of syllables per word :	1.46
Average number of words per sentence:	8.85

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	6.49
---------------------	------

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :

Coleman Liau index :	6.31
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	5.10
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	3.39
SMOG :	7.68
Flesch Reading Ease :	74.27

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text :

- You cannot drive fast during the rush hours because there is a terrible traffic jam, so you cannot arrive home in time every day.
- You cannot break the rules because police officers and cameras are everywhere.

Unit 6 Page 45 Reading & Speaking

He is a British musician. People call him Sting, but his real name is Gordon Matthew Summer. He is a fantastic singer and songwriter. He is also a poet and an actor.

He lives with his family in a mansion near London. His house is in the countryside. His wife's name is Trudy Stiller. He is the father of six children.

He is sensitive and intelligent. He tries to save the rainforests all around the world. In his concerts, he collects millions of dollars for peace, the environment and social problems.

He does yoga for about two hours a day because this gives him great energy. He says, "When I do yoga, I hear music and rhythms all the time."

He enjoys playing different styles of music. He is interested in blues, rock'n roll and classical music. He thinks music is a common language for people.

He is a real workaholic. He has fifteen Grammys - the award for the best musician in the world - and ten solo albums.

He has millions of fans worldwide. Everybody admires him.

Number of characters (without spaces) :	766.00
Number of words :	177.00
Number of sentences :	20.00
Average number of characters per word :	4.33
Average number of syllables per word :	1.48
Average number of words per sentence:	8.85

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	7.16
---------------------	------

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :

Coleman Liau index :	6.30
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	5.33
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	3.38
SMOG :	8.05
Flesch Reading Ease :	72.63

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text :

- He has fifteen Grammys - the award for the best musician in the world - and ten solo albums.
- In his concerts, he collects millions of dollars for peace, the environment and social problems.
- He does yoga for about two hours a day because this gives him great energy.
- He says, "When I do yoga, I hear music and rhythms all the time.
- He is interested in blues, rock'n roll and classical music.
- He lives with his family in a mansion near London.

Unit 9 Page 71 Reading and Writing

It is a three-day festival. It is the end of the 30 days' Ramadan fasting. Young people kiss their elders' hands, and the elders give them pocket Money or candies. People help poor people in different ways. All family members usually meet at their grandparents' house. Then, they also visit other relatives.

At the moment, I am having a nice diner with a family in my neighbourhood. Bye for now. See you tomorrow.

We are in Ankara now. Here we are doing the shopping for Ramadan feast. It is the end of the 30 days' Ramadan fasting.

Number of characters (without spaces) :	428.00
Number of words :	98.00
Number of sentences :	12.00
Average number of characters per word :	4.37
Average number of syllables per word :	1.48
Average number of words per sentence:	8.17

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	8.98
<i>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :</i>	
Coleman Liau index :	6.25
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	5.05
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	3.22
SMOG :	8.92
Flesch Reading Ease :	73.37

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text :

- At the moment, I am having a nice diner with a family in my neighbourhood.
- Young people kiss their elders' hands, and the elders give them pocket Money or candies.
- All family members usually meet at their grandparents' house.

Unit 14 Page 110 Reading & Speaking

It is hard to imagine life without technology. No one can dream of living without it. Inventors make our lives easier, safer and simply better.

We have more comfortable lifestyles than before. We live in modern houses and flats. Some machines such as dishwashers, vacuum cleaners and washing machines make our lives easier. We travel long distances in airplanes. We send astronauts to space. Then they try to find ways to live on other planets. Genetic engineers are trying to find cures for some diseases.

There is no doubt that, new inventions and Technologies will continue to change our lives.

Today's robots, for instance, are not functional enough to diagnose but someday they will be small enough to travel through the bloodstream and eliminate diseases. Maybe they will have a major role in education and the entertainment industry. With the help of science, today's environmental problems will disappear. There will be enough food, water, and endless energy for everyone.

Technology brings people together and develops our minds, and as long as we use it wisely the future of humanity will surely be a good one.

Number of characters (without spaces) :	915.00
Number of words :	185.00
Number of sentences :	16.00
Average number of characters per word :	4.95
Average number of syllables per word :	1.64
Average number of words per sentence:	11.56

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	10.68
---------------------	-------

Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :

Coleman Liau index :	10.74
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	8.25
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	7.65
SMOG :	10.98
Flesch Reading Ease :	56.54

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text:

- Today's robots, for instance, are not functional enough to diagnose but someday they will be small enough to travel through the bloodstream and eliminate diseases.
- Technology brings people together and develops our minds, and as long as we use it wisely the future of humanity will surely be a good one.
- Some machines such as dishwashers, vacuum cleaners and washing machines make our lives easier.
- Maybe they will have a major role in education and the entertainment industry.

Unit 20 Page 156 Reading & Writing

Feng Shui

Despite not being scientifically true, all of us, more or less, believe in superstitions. There is no one in the world who doesn't have any. A black cat brings good luck when it walks towards you, whereas an owl brings bad luck when it hoots in your garden. The beliefs change from culture to culture and we have hundreds of them. Perhaps, Feng Shui is the most harmless of all.

Feng Shui means wind and water and it balances the energy of life. It directs the flow of energy through your home. It uses some methods to strengthen the energy: repaint and renew. It also uses shapes, colours, sounds, lights and the arrangement of the furniture.

Chinese people think that those principles help to keep away negative thoughts and catch good luck, health and wealth. So they practice them in their houses. To start with, they clean their house from ceiling to floor and every corner. If their belongings come apart, they repair them. If necessary, they repaint the faded parts immediately. They put crystal balls, mirrors and incense in the right place. For instance, if someone puts a mirror just across from the door, it brings good luck. Wind chimes, bonsai, flowers and an aquarium are necessities according to this belief. They always keep something red to gain energy although some psychologists think it is irritating.

To sum up, Feng Shui is an ancient belief which tries to turn negative to positive, bad to good, poor to rich. The practice helps people to get on in life. It changes the environment like interior decorators do in houses. Do you think you'll try it?

Number of characters (without spaces) :	1,267.00
Number of words :	276.00
Number of sentences :	22.00
Average number of characters per word :	4.59
Average number of syllables per word :	1.48
Average number of words per sentence:	12.55

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	8.50
---------------------	------

<i>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :</i>	
Coleman Liau index :	8.85
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	6.75
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	6.46
SMOG :	9.18
Flesch Reading Ease :	69.04

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text :

- To sum up, Feng Shui is an ancient belief which tries to turn negative to positive, bad to good, poor to rich.
- They always keep something red to gain energy although some psychologists think it is irritating.
- A black cat brings good luck when it walks towards you, whereas an owl brings bad luck when it hoots in your garden.
- Chinese people think that those principles help to keep away negative thoughts and catch good luck, health and wealth.
- Despite not being scientifically true, all of us, more or less, believe in superstitions.
- Wind chimes, bonsai, flowers and an aquarium are necessities according to this belief.

Unit 22 Page 172 Reading & Speaking

The Significance of Birthday Parties and Celebrations

Many years ago, no one paid attention to the anniversaries, such as birthdays. However, in today's world, birthday celebrations have become a tradition for young and old, rich and poor. People all around the world celebrate birthdays in different ways according to their cultures.

In Asia, girls and boys always dress in their traditional clothes. In China, family members take along special food or clothes with tiger designs to the newborns because they believe tigers protect children. Hindu children can't celebrate their birthdays until they are sixteen. They don't go to school on their sixteenth birthdays. Their parents shave a Hindu child's head on this day. It symbolizes the renewal of the soul.

In Europe, people in Holland hang birthday calendars to remind them of the birth dates of all their family and friends. Scandinavian people fly the country's flag outside their home to show that someone in the family is having a birthday. They place the gifts around the children's beds while they are asleep. Another tradition is that English people make birthday cakes with symbolic objects baked inside. In medieval times, they mixed coins into the batter. People believed that the person who got the coin would be wealthy. Today small figures, fake coins and small candies are more common.

Number of characters (without spaces) :	1,122.00
Number of words :	219.00
Number of sentences :	16.00
Average number of characters per word :	5.12
Average number of syllables per word :	1.63
Average number of words per sentence:	13.69

Indication of the number of years of formal education that a person requires in order to easily understand the text on the first reading

Gunning Fog index :	10.77
---------------------	-------

<i>Approximate representation of the U.S. grade level needed to comprehend the text :</i>	
Coleman Liau index :	12.18
Flesh Kincaid Grade level :	9.04
ARI (Automated Readability Index) :	9.54
SMOG :	10.87
Flesch Reading Ease :	54.65

List of sentences which we suggest you should consider to rewrite to improve readability of the text :

- The Significance of Birthday Parties and Celebrations Many years ago, no one paid attention to the anniversaries, such as birthdays.
- In China, family members take along special food or clothes with tiger designs to the newborns because they believe tigers protect children.
- Scandinavian people fly the country's flag outside their home to show that someone in the family is having a birthday.
- In Europe, people in Holland hang birthday calendars to remind them of the birth dates of all their family and friends.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Müge TAVİL for her guidance and endless, valuable support throughout my studies.

I would like to express my great respect to Prof. Dr. Aydan ERSÖZ for her backing me up that helped me to have courage to study in this field.

I would like to thank to all my lecturers and friends who shared their time and experience with me.

Special thanks to all the participants, who were very keen on participating in the collection of data. Without their help, this study could not have been realized.

I am also grateful to my husband for his great support, my family and my daughters for their real patience and enormous encouragement throughout these years.

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE DERS KİTABINDAKİ OKUMA PARÇALARININ KELİME ÖĞRETİMİ AÇISINDAN İNCELENMESİ: NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS ÖRNEĞİ

Dilek, Meltem

Yüksek Lisans, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Ana Bilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Müge TAVİL

Eylül – 2009

Bu çalışmanın amacı “*New Bridge to Success for Grade 9 Elementary*” (NBS) adlı ders kitabında yer alan okuma parçalarını kelime öğretimi açısından incelemektir.

Çalışma Mart 2009’da Ankara’daki yedi farklı Anadolu Lisesi’nden 21 öğretmen ile 185 öğrenci üzerinden yapılmıştır. Çalışmada iki tür veri kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak, NBS’yi tek ders kitabı olarak kullanan Ankara’daki 7 Anadolu Lisesi’nin 185 öğrencisine ve aynı okullarda dokuzuncu sınıflarda ders veren 21 öğretmene anket uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra öğrencilerle öğretmenler arasındaki benzerlikler ve farklılıklar bulunmuş, durum ders kitabı ile karşılaştırılmaya çalışılmıştır. Ankette öğretmen ve öğrencilerin ders kitabını okuma becerisi açısından nasıl değerlendirdikleri, ders kitabındaki okuma parçalarını kelime öğretimi açısından nasıl değerlendirdikleri, okuma parçalarını işlerken ve kelime öğretimi yaparken öğretmenlerin kullandıkları teknikler, öğrencilerin bilinmeyen kelimelerle karşılaştıklarında uyguladıkları teknikler, öğrencilerin kelime öğrenme teknikleri belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Veriler ortalama, yüzde ve frekans hesaplamaları yoluyla analiz edilmiş, okuma parçalarından rastgele seçilen yedi tanesine Flesch-Kincaid okunabilirlik testi uygulanmıştır.

Sonuçlar hem öğretmenlerin hem de öğrencileri kitaptaki okuma parçaları ve kelime öğretimi konularında olumsuz düşündüklerini göstermiştir. Okuma parçalarının kelime yükü ve cümle yapısı açısından basitleştirilmesi gerektiği öğretmenler tarafından vurgulanmıştır. Ders kitabının gözden geçirilmesi gerektiği ve bu gözden geçirme sırasında kelime konusunun özellikle dikkate alınması görüşü özellikle vurgulanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kitap inceleme, Kelime öğretimi/öğrenimi, Okuma becerisi ve kelime bilgisi , New Bridge to Success (Elementary)

ABSTRACT

AN EFL COURSEBOOK EVALUATION STUDY
FOR VOCABULARY TEACHING IN READING TEXTS
A CASE STUDY: NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS

The purpose of this study is to investigate vocabulary teaching aspect of reading texts in the coursebook titled “*New Bridge to Success for Grade 9 Elementary*” (NBS).

The study was conducted with 21 English teachers and 185 students from 7 different Anatolian High Schools in Ankara during March 2009. Two sets of data were used for this study. First, a questionnaire was distributed to 185 students and to the 21 teachers of the 9th grades of 7 Anatolian High Schools in Ankara, who follow the NBS as the only coursebook. Then, the correspondences and discrepancies between the teachers’ and students’ reports were determined and the coursebook is investigated according to these findings. In the questionnaires how the students and the teachers evaluate the coursebook according to reading skill, how they evaluate the reading texts according to vocabulary teaching aspect, the techniques the teachers use to teach vocabulary while reading, the techniques the students use when they meet an unknown word and the techniques the students use to learn new vocabulary are investigated. The data in the questionnaires was analyzed by calculating the mean scores, percentages and frequencies. Flesch-Kincaid readability test was administered to randomly selected seven reading texts in terms of determining the readability.

The results revealed that both the teachers and the students felt negative about the most of the characteristics of the reading texts and vocabulary aspects of the coursebook. Majority of the teachers mentioned that the reading passages needed to be simplified in terms of both vocabulary load and structures. It was also mentioned that the book needs revision and during revision special attention should be paid to the vocabulary teaching/learning aspect.

Key words: Textbook Evaluation, Teaching/learning Vocabulary, Reading skill and vocabulary, New Bridge to Success (Elementary)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
SIGN PAGE OF THE MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
ÖZET.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	v
 CHAPTER I	 1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Presentation.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Aim of the Study.....	4
1.3 Significance of the study.....	5
1.4 Assumptions.....	9
1.5 Limitations.....	10
1.6 Definitions of Terms.....	10
 CHAPTER II.....	 11
REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	11
2.0 Presentation.....	11
2.1 Role of Textbooks in ELT.....	11
2.2 Evaluating ELT textbooks.....	14
2.2.1 What is evaluation?	14
2.2.2 Criteria for Materials Evaluation.....	17
2.2.3 Evaluating the presentation of vocabulary in ELT textbooks.....	29
2.2.3.1 What's reading?	29
2.2.3.2 Types of Reading Skills	32
2.2.3.2.1 Scanning	32
2.2.3.2.2 Skimming	32
2.2.3.2.3 Reading Aloud.....	33

2.2.3.2.4 Intensive Reading.....	33
2.2.3.2.5 Extensive Reading.....	33
2.2.3.2.6 Narrow Reading.....	34
2.2.3.2.7 Critical Reading.....	34
2.2.3.2.8 Sustained Silent Reading.....	34
2.2.3.3 Selection of Reading Material.....	35
2.2.3.3.1 Interest Factor in Selection of Reading Material	35
2.2.3.3.2 Difficulty Level of Reading Material	35
2.2.3.3.3 Authentic Texts.....	36
2.2.3.3.4 Simplified Texts.....	36
2.2.3.4 Readability.....	36
2.2.3.4.1 Advantages of Readability Tests	38
2.2.3.4.2 Things Readability Tests Can't Tell	38
2.2.3.5 Examples of Readability Tests	39
2.2.3.5.1 Flesh Reading Ease Formula	39
2.2.3.5.2 The Flesh Reading Ease Readability Formula	39
2.2.3.5.3 The Flesh-Kincaid Grade Level	41
2.3 Inspection criteria for this study.....	42
2.4 Techniques for teaching vocabulary.....	46
2.4.1 Historical Review.....	46
2.4.2 Current Trends.....	47
2.4.3 Major Issues in the Teaching of Vocabulary	48
2.4.3.1. The Definition of Word Knowledge	49
2.4.3.2. Implicit versus Explicit Teaching of Vocabulary	49
2.4.3.3. The Selection and Sequencing of vocabulary.....	50
2.4.4 Effective Strategies for Vocabulary Teaching	51
2.4.5 Vocabulary Teaching Techniques	67
2.4.5.1 Visual Technique	67
2.4.5.2 Aural Technique	68
2.4.5.3 Verbal Technique	68
2.4.5.3.1 Definition	68
2.4.5.3.2 Synonyms/Antonyms.....	68
2.4.5.3.3 Hyponyms	68
2.4.5.3.4 Word Formation.....	68
2.4.5.3.5 Using Cognates.....	69
2.4.5.3.6 Series.....	69

2.4.5.3.7 Semantic Field.....	69
2.4.5.3.8 Concept Forming.....	69
2.4.5.3.9 Using a Dictionary.....	70
2.4.5.3.10 Translation	70
2.4.5.3.11 Loci.....	70
2.4.5.3.12 Paired Associates	70
2.4.5.3.13 Formal Grouping	71
2.4.5.3.14 Word Families.....	71
2.4.5.3.15 Collocations.....	71
2.4.5.3.16 Mnemonic Devices.....	71
2.4.5.3.17 Key Words	71
2.4.5.3.18 Cognitive Depth	71
2.4.5.3.19 Historical, Orthographical Similarity.....	72
2.4.5.3.20 Games... ..	72
2.4.6 Why to teach vocabulary	72
CHAPTER III	78
METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION.....	78
3.0. Presentation.....	78
3.1 The Present Situation	78
3.1.1 Anatolian High Schools	78
3.1.2 The Coursebook NBS	79
3.1.2.1 The history of the coursebook NBS	79
3.1.2.2 The Present Situation of the book NBS	80
3.1.2.2.1 The organization of the units	81
3.1.2.2.1.1 <i>Let's Start</i>	81
3.1.2.2.1.2 Language Skills.....	81
3.1.2.2.1.3 The combination of language skills	82
3.1.2.2.1.4 <i>Let's practice</i> and <i>Let's remember</i>	83
3.2 Reading Skill in NBS	83
3.3 Vocabulary teaching in NBS	85
3.4 Data collection	85
3.4.1 The questionnaires	85
3.4.2 Reading Texts	87
3.4.3 The pilot study	88
3.4.4 The participants	89
3.4.5. Data Analysis	90
3.5 Limitations	90

CHAPTER IV	91
DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS	91
4.0 Presentation	91
4.1. The Analysis and Interpretation of the Questionnaires	91
4.1.1 Comparing the results obtained from the students and the teachers	92
4.1.1.1 Comparison of the answers about the coursebook	94
4.1.1.2 Comparison of the answers about the reading texts	102
4.1.1.3 Comparison of the answers about the techniques teachers use in the classroom	115
4.1.1.4 Comparison of the answers about the techniques students use when they meet an unknown word	118
4.1.1.5 Comparison of the answers about the techniques students use when they try to learn new vocabulary	121
CHAPTER IV	125
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	125
5.1 Conclusion	125
5.1.1 Conclusion about the coursebook	125
5.1.2 Conclusion about the reading texts	126
5.1.3 Conclusion about the techniques used to teach/learn vocabulary	127
5.2 Recommendations	128
BIBLIOGRAPHY	129
APPENDICES	139
1. Questionnaire 1 (For Students)	129
2. Questionnaire 2 (For Teachers)	143
3. Reading Texts and the results of the Flesh-Kincaid Readability Test	147

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Participants (Students)	92
Table 2: Participants (Teachers)	92
Table 3: The period of teaching experience	92
Table 4: The period of teaching experience with 9 th grades	93
Table 5: The period of teaching experience of NBS	93
Table 6: Means, Standard deviations and Percentages of the items on the coursebook (Students)	94
Table 7: Means, Standard deviations and Percentages of the items on the coursebook (Teachers)	95
Table 8: Comparison of item 1 (Coursebook)	96
Table 9: Comparison of item 2 (Coursebook)	96
Table 10: Comparison of item 3 (Coursebook)	97
Table 11: Comparison of item 4 (Coursebook).....	97
Table 12: Comparison of item 5 (Coursebook)	99
Table 13: Comparison of item 6 (Coursebook)	100
Table 14: Comparison of item 7 (Coursebook)	101
Table 15: Comparison of item 8 (Coursebook)	102
Table 16: Comparison of item 1 (Reading texts)	103
Table 17: Comparison of item 2 (Reading texts)	105
Table 18: Comparison of item 3 (Reading texts)	106
Table 19: Comparison of item 4 (Reading texts)	107
Table 20: Comparison of item 5 (Reading texts)	108
Table 21: Comparison of item 6 (Reading texts)	109
Table 22: Comparison of item 7 (Reading texts)	109
Table 23: Comparison of item 8 (Reading texts)	110
Table 24: Comparison of item 9 (Reading texts)	111
Table 25: Comparison of item 10(Reading texts)	112
Table 26: Comparison of item 11(Reading texts)	112
Table 27: Comparison of item 12(Reading texts)	113
Table 28: Comparison of item 13(Reading texts)	114
Table 29: Comparison of item 14(Reading texts)	114
Table 30: The techniques the teachers use in the classroom (according to the students)	115
Table 31: The techniques the teachers use in the classroom (according to the teachers)	116
Table 32: Techniques of students used when they meet an unknown vocabulary	

(according to the students)	118
Table 33: Techniques of students used when they meet an unknown vocabulary	
(according to the teachers)	120
Table 34: Techniques of students used when they try to learn new vocabulary	
(according to the students).....	122
Table 35: Techniques of students used when they try to learn new vocabulary	
(according to the teachers).....	123