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Learning English Vocabulary

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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Studentka se ve své diplomové práci bude věnovat problematice učení/vyučování anglické slovní zásoby. V teoretické části nejprve vydefiniuje klíčové koncepty vztahující se k procesům vyučování/učení anglické slovní zásoby a rovněž se zaměří na faktory, které determinují tyto procesy na základě individuálních rozdílů mezi žáky. Poté autorka přistoupí ke zpracování možných typů učebních úloh zaměřených na vyučování anglické slovní zásoby, a to při uvedení důležitosti klíčových faktorů vyučovacího procesu, tj. zejména cílů, materiálních a nemateriálních didaktických prostředků. V praktické části pak budou představeny výsledky autorčina výzkumného šetření, realizovaného prostřednictvím technik dotazníku a strukturovaného pozorování v prostředí základních škol. Cílem tohoto výzkumu bude zmapovat typy aktivit používaných při vyučování anglické slovní zásoby a analyzovat jejich potenciál.

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně Univerzity Pardubice.

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ABSTRACT:

This thesis deals with practising English vocabulary, which is one of the key components of the language. The theoretical section is divided into three main parts. The first part of the paper analyses factors influencing the learning process, such as learner needs, intelligence, memory, learning styles and strategies and motivation. As these factors determine individual differences in learning, they are investigated deeply. The second part characterizes words, and further focuses on topics closely related to vocabulary learning such as receptive and productive vocabulary, mental lexicon and learnability of words. The last part is based on the development of learner's vocabulary through practice. The emphasis is placed on a variety of activities for vocabulary practice used in the lessons of English. Importance of material didactic teaching aids is also stressed. The practical section includes pedagogical research the main concern of which is to explore the potential of vocabulary activities. The other aim of the research is which material teaching aids are used in the vocabulary practice.

ABSTRAKT:

Diplomová práce se zabývá procvičováním slovní zásoby, která je jedním z klíčových komponentů jazyka. Teorie se skládá ze tří částí. První část analyzuje faktory ovlivňující učení, zejména potřeby, inteligence, paměť, učební styly a strategie, a motivaci žáka. Tyto faktory jsou prozkoumány do hloubky, neboť určují individuální rozdíly žáků v procesu učení. Druhá část charakterizuje slova a dále se zaměřuje na témata úzce spjatá s učením slovní zásoby, a to na receptivní a produktivní slovní zásobu, mentální lexikon, učenlivost slov. Poslední část je založena na rozvoji slovní zásoby žáka procvičením lexikálních jednotek. Hlavní důraz je kladen na aktivity sloužící k procvičení slovní zásoby v hodinách anglického jazyka a také na významnost materiálních didaktických pomůcek. Praktická část obsahuje vyhodnocení pedagogického výzkumu, jehož cílem je probádání potenciálu aktivit a zjištění, jak se žáci těmito aktivitami učí slovní zásobu.

KEY WORDS:

vocabulary, learning, practice, activity, interactive board, dictionary

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THEORETICAL PART

Introduction

“No matter how well the students learn grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way.“

(McCarthy 1990:viii)

Words are basic units of a language and the most essential means of communication. People are able to express their ideas, thoughts and feelings via words. Without words, communication could not start, with lack of words, communication would stop. Allen, further, claims that communication breaks down when people do not use the appropriate words. (Allen 1983:1-5)

“[...] there is a sense in which learning a foreign language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Not being able to find the words you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language.“

(Wallace 1982:9)

People learn new words in everyday situations if they live in the country where the target language is spoken. They learn through experience. However, Czech learners live in the setting where English is not spoken, they meet words of the target language only in newspapers, magazines, computers, when listening to songs or watching television, which is not sufficient for the ability to use words productively, in speaking and writing. However, the best way how to learn vocabulary and the target language itself in the Czech setting is to become a participant of the learning process at school. Learners experience the target language in meaningful lessons.

Firstly, as learner is the fundamental element in the process of learning, the first part of the thesis will devote to individual differences between learners and factors which enable and help them to learn. The main focus will be on learner needs, intelligence, memory, learning styles and strategies, and motivation.

Secondly, the area of vocabulary will be emphasized in the second theoretical part. Initially, the word and its characteristics will be described, next, their frequency, range and grouping will be presented, and finally, how they are used and stored by the learner, what makes them easy or difficult to learn will be analysed.

Thirdly, material teaching aids used in vocabulary practice is quite a broad topic, that is why the usual material aids such as books, cassette players, images, black boards will not be mentioned, however, use of dictionaries and interactive board as the 'potential', 'powerful' and 'helpful' material aids will be described.

Fourthly, theoretical input to vocabulary practice activities will begin with a brief overview of stages in learning/teaching process, namely presentation, practice and production. Special concern will be devoted to activities for vocabulary practice as the theoretical basis for the practical part where the potential of activities will be explored.

Finally, the last part of the thesis will be dedicated to the research where activities for vocabulary practice will be used in the class of the seventh graders. The aim of the research is to explore the potential of activities for vocabulary practice, specifically, how variety of activities helps the students to learn vocabulary. The other aim is to find out which material teaching aids support vocabulary practice. The essential part of the research is the interpretation of the figures of the data obtained from observations, questionnaires and tests.

It is to be noted that in this paper the author uses pronoun she when referring to the word teacher, pronoun he and they when the reference for the words learner, student, child, person, individual, learners, students, learners is needed. Terms used by the author are placed in simple inverted commas. Square brackets are used in the place where part of a quotation is omitted. The first person singular used in the practical part expresses author's opinions and attitudes.

1. Learner

To begin with, learner is the 'essential element' in the process of learning. Without him, no learning or teaching process could exist. The learning process itself is determined by his individuality. As each learner is characterized by his uniqueness,

individual differences between learners should be considered. Learners differ in age, level, needs, aptitude, intelligence, memory, learning styles and strategies and motivation. However, to characterize all the factors influencing individual differences in detail would be a rather demanding task, moreover, this is not the goal of the thesis. Consequently, these important factors which influence learner's individual differences are going to be analysed: needs, intelligence, memory, learning styles and strategies, motivation.

1.1 Learner needs

Teacher often finds it difficult to predict learner needs. Teacher's task is to find out learner needs for the purpose of syllabus design and of each lesson plan. However, as Nunan claims: "the teacher's syllabus and the learner's syllabus might differ." (Nunan, 1991:79) Nunan recommends both the learner and the teacher involvement in learner needs analysis and exchanging ideas for better coordination of syllabus. Firstly, the learner's information can be helpful in the choice of content. Secondly, the teacher's detailed information on the goals, content and learning activities may be acknowledged by the learner. (Nunan, 1991:79)

In addition, Graves states:

"Learning is not simply a matter of learners absorbing pre-selected knowledge the teacher gives them, but is a process in which learners-and others-can and should participate. It assumes that needs are multi-faceted and changeable. When needs assessment is used as an ongoing part of teaching, it helps the learners to reflect on their learning, to identify their needs, and to gain a sense of ownership and control of their learning. It establishes learning as a dialogue between the teacher and the learners and among the learners." (Graves 2000:98)

In the needs assessment, the dialogue and exchange of information between the learner and the teacher is indispensable. However, the learner has to "feel skillful" in

needs assessment and as well “see the value of it, both while doing it and in the results. Likewise, teacher needs to learn how to feel skillful in conducting and responding to needs assessment.” (Graves 2000:100)

Further, needs assessment requires the continual and reciprocal exchange of ideas between the participants of the learning/teaching process since needs the learner has may be perceived differently by the teacher. Even needs assessment becomes rather a complex in its essence as the individuals within the same group have different needs. (Graves 2000:100)

Next, Graves makes distinction between target needs and learning needs. The former includes “what the student needs to learn and for what purposes“, the latter concerns the fact how he “expects to learn and what motivates him“. (Hutchinson and Waters in Graves 2000:105)

According to Graves, needs assessment can be summarized into three temporal stages: pre-course, initial and ongoing needs assessment. Firstly, pre-course needs assessment takes place before the course or the term start and thus the teacher can arrange and focus on the goals, content, activities, coursebook and other materials due to the known information. The teacher may learn about learner target needs and consequently prepare the content of the course responding to learner needs from the very beginning. Secondly, initial needs assessment, where the information about learner needs is gathered, takes place in the first lessons of the course. Thirdly, ongoing needs assessment takes place throughout the term which brings the advantage of possible changing or adjusting the course as it progresses. Such procedure helps to verify what is taught and how the subject matter is taught, what the evaluation is, and whether all is effective for the learner. (Graves 2000:110)

“For a course to meet learner needs it is necessary to gather information about both the current state of the learners, where they stand in terms of language ability, learning preferences, and the desired goals or change, and where they would like to be or what they want to achieve, change, and so on.“
(Graves 2000:101)

Further, Harmer comments on the issue of needs:

“We ask if the subject and content is relevant to our learner needs, whether it is- at least sometimes-realistic, whether it is interesting for the students, and whether there is sufficient variety to sustain motivation.“

(Harmer 1991: 280)

To summarize Harmer’s words, the more learning parallels realistic situation, when the content is interesting and if it reflects learner needs, the more the student can be motivated. In addition, Lokšová and Lokša suggest that by “awakening learner needs is one of the most efficient methods how to raise his motivation to learning.“ (Lokšová, Lokša 1999:25) Motivation is going to be analysed in chapter 1.6. The following chapter is devoted to the learner’s intelligence.

1.2 Intelligence

Intelligence has been studied by many psychologists through the last century. Sometimes intelligence is expressed in the terms, such as: general rational level, mental level, general aptitude, overall rational maturity, intellect capacity, cleverness, and other similar interpretations are known. (Buchtová 1996:137)

Despite various viewpoints to the theory of intelligences, most theorists claim that more or less intelligence is important in person’s adaptation to new tasks and difficult living situation, that it presupposes the ability to understand the gist of the problem, the ability of abstract and logical thinking not only in the theoretical field but also in practice, which undoubtedly concerns the ability to solve living and social situations. Intelligence is the ability to understand new connections and relations and, consequently, it is connected with the ability to learn. (Buchtová 1996:137)

In fact, the intelligence as the notion given to the ability to act and behave efficiently and adaptably was called by a philosopher and a sociologist H. Spencer in late nineteenth century and this issue has been explored and measured since the beginning of the twentieth century. The beginnings of measuring intelligence come

from France from 1905 when a French psychologist Alfred Binet and Théodore Simon were asked to think out some kind of a measure enabling to differentiate children too “feeble-minded“ for education at Paris primary schools. Binet was successful and formed the first test of intelligence which became the basis for evaluation of comprehension, thinking, reasoning and adaptation. The scores were standardized and the individual results could be compared to the norm for the age of the tested child. The basis of the test came from the idea that “intelligence is a single, unchanged, inborn capacity“. (Gardner 1993:5) Further, the term “mental age“ was set. In 1916, an American psychologist Lewis Terman from Stanford University used the term “mental age“ for formulating the formula called “intelligence quotient“. This test proved a lot of disadvantages, so nowadays other type, the divergent test, is used. (Fontana 2003:104)

Since then intelligence has been studied by many psychologists and new views developed. W. Stern considered the intelligence to be the universal ability of man’s psychological adaptation to new living conditions and tasks. According to other theorists the definition of intelligence stem from other conceptions. On the one hand, the intelligence is a common ability of adaptation existing beside specific abilities, on the other hand, it is a complex of relatively independent factors of adaptation, or more precisely, of mental capacity. (Thurstone, Guilford in Nakonečný 1997:100)

According to J. Piaget, the important figure who contributed to the development of theories, intelligence is a common notion which expresses the highest form of cognitive processes. The intelligence is a kind of organizing. Piaget states that by means of intelligence each person structures his own world which is analogous to how each organism structures the environment. (Piaget in Kalhous, Obst 2002:70) D. Wechsler contributes: “intelligence is individual’s total or global ability to act efficiently, to think reasonably and to deal with his environment effectively.“ (Nakonečný 1997:101, my translation) Intelligence is difficult to define, a lot of definitions has been introduced, nevertheless, all the attempts to approach the intelligence are in a certain way controversial.

In addition to exploring the nature of intelligence, in fifties, H. J. Eysenck set the signs of intelligent behaviour:

- “good orientation and good thinking, that is, discretion, prompt and accurate expressing
- vivid perception and good memory
- concentrated focus on a given object of the activity with flexible, prompt and right thinking“ (Nakonečný 1997:101, my translation)

In his theory, Eysenck explains that the intelligence is a complex ability to cope with life problems, which base includes other factors of personality. (Nakonečný 1997:101)

In the mid twentieth century, a Canadian psychologist D. O. Hebb came with a new hypothesis. He divided intelligence into two kinds: “an innate potential intelligence A“, which cannot be measured, and “intelligence B“, which is the part of the intelligence A, which was developed due to the enviromental influence. This model was broaden by a British psychologists P. E. Veron. He came up with “intelligence C“ as the part of the intelligence B which can be really measured. Another theorists, R. B. Catell, suggested a new model of intelligence division. He classified “fluid intelligence“ which represents the influence of biological factors on the intellectual development, and “crystalline intelligence“ as the result of the experience transmitted by the environment. Catell pressuposes that both intelligences are possible to be measured with the difference that biological mechanisms in the “fluid intelligence“ get old after the age of fifteen, while “crystalline intelligence“ may develop with the help of experience the whole life. These are examples of views based on the innate part of intelligence and external influences and as well on the development of intelligence. (Fontana 2003:123)

In the last decades of the twentieth century the term “social“ or “emotional“ intelligence came into existence. Many theorists criticised former focus on “cognitive“ and “intellectual“ idea on human. Old theories defined the intelligence as something what intelligence test might measure or the ability to solve problems promptly. According to H. Gardner, P. Salovey, D. Goleman and other theorists, intelligence cover other aspects, among them:

- “knowledge of own emotions
- coping with emotions
- skills and habits to set adequate goals
- empathy, perception of other people’s emotions
- social and communicative skills, the ability to listen to others, to pose questions
- positive self-evaluation, optimism“

(Čáp, Mareš 2001:346, my translation)

Psychologists Jan Čáp and Jiří Mareš add: “social intelligence is total indication including character and personality’s all moral aspects, its life and development.“ (Čáp, Mareš 2001:345, my translation) E. L. Thorndike supports the theory with the concise, in its basis, general idea that social intelligence is the ability to act wisely in interpersonal relations, which becomes the difference from the general intelligence. (Nakonečný 1997:104)

In the eighties, J. R. Edwards introduced another view of intelligence. He divided intelligence into: “theoretical“, “practical“ and “social“. The theoretical called as well “abstract intelligence“ represents operations with symbols; the practical, “concrete intelligence“, operations with objects; and “social intelligence“ is the ability to control the others. (Nakonečný 1997:105)

All the concepts specified so far were surpassed by the H. Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences. Gardner explains that the concept of IQ should be replaced. According to him, the intelligence can be changed and developed.

Gardner objects:

“But there is an alternative vision that I would like to present-one based on a radically different view of the mind, and one that yields a very different view of school. It is a pluralistic view of mind, recognizing many different and discrete facets of cognition, acknowledging that people have different cognitive strengths and contrasting cognitive styles.“ (Gardner 1993:6)

Gardner is persuaded that people should avoid tests and measuring the intelligence and devote more to other ways of development their skills useful for life.

When considering various roles and occupations, Gardner's multiple intelligence theory regards all of them. (Gardner 1993:7)

Theory of multiple intelligences includes eight intelligences:

- ❖ “Linguistic intelligence-the ability to use language in special and creative ways
- ❖ Logical-mathematical intelligence-the ability to think rationally
- ❖ Musical intelligence-a good ear for music
- ❖ Visual-spatial intelligence-the ability to form mental models of the world
- ❖ Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence-having a well-coordinated body
- ❖ Interpersonal intelligence-the ability to work well with people
- ❖ Intrapersonal intelligence-the ability to understand oneself
- ❖ Naturalist intelligence-the ability to understand and organize the patterns of nature“ (Richards, Rogers 2001:116)

Most theorists agree on the idea that the intelligence is person's general ability to be well oriented in the new situation and the ability to find original attitudes in problem and task solving. Other important fact is that there is no unanimity in the opinion whether the intelligence is innate, or if it can be changed. However, the intelligence is partly inborn and from the great part it can be shaped and developed, with help of all types of learning. What is sure, each person should develop all types of intelligences.

Intelligence is only one of more variables which influence learning and learner's successes. Other factors have their crucial role, such as memory, learning strategies and styles, and motivation.

1.3 Memory

Knowledge of types of memory and how information is stored helps learners to find way how to retain new information as efficiently as possible. (Thornbury 2002:23)

As concerns the kinds of memory, most theorists distinguish between short-term and long-term memory. The short-term memory is “the brain’s capacity to hold a limited number of items of information“ over short period of time, for example, to repeat a word that a learner has just heard in the song or a telephone number until the person dials it. (Thornbury 2002:23)

Gairns and Redman contribute that the ability to hold information for period of time usually up to thirty seconds in duration requires constant repetition. This ability is easily blocked when any distraction or interruption appears.

(Gairns, Redman 1986: 86-87)

In addition Gairns and Redman point out:

“Moreover, it has been established that our capacities for short term retention is remarkably consistent, and that most people experience some breakdown in retention as soon as the number of items or chunks of information exceeds seven.“
(Gairns, Redman 1986: 86-87)

On the other hand, long-term memory enables learners to recall the information however long time it is from the first input. Long-term memory is unlimited in capacity, which means that it has space for new information, and, of course, it logically differs from short-term memory in duration. Once the information enters long-term memory, learner should continue in time to time repetition because long-lasting retention is desirable.

As Gairns and Redman add:

“Long-term memory can accommodate any amount of new information. Not surprisingly this additional information can only be stored at price; it is generally acknowledged that we need to work much harder to commit information to long-term memory, and the type of repetition we described as being essential to short-term retention may not be adequate for long-term retention.“

(Gairns, Redman 1986: 87)

As concerns the terminology, Hendrich uses attributes “operational“ for short-term and “productive“ for long-term memory.

The author marks:

“operational memory is situational since its task is to store information only for needs of the certain activity. After the activity is finished, operational memory has to make space for other purposes as its capacity is restricted. This information suffers from the possibility of being forgotten. The information stored into the short-term memory can be easily lost, otherwise that stored in the long-term memory can be recollected.“ (Hendrich 1988: 59, my translation)

Nevertheless, Thornbury presents different division of memory systems by researchers: “the short-term store, working memory, and long-term memory.“ (Thornbury 2002:23) At first, new information is hold in short-term memory where it serves for immediate use. Afterwards working memory becomes involved and it tries to integrate into long-term memory through various cognitive tasks as reasoning, learning and understanding. As a consequence of this process, the content of working memory is not stable. On the contrary, long-term memory has permanent content. The information that is being processed can be retrieved from the long-term memory or it can come from outside via senses, however, sometimes both happens at once. It is a twenty-second-task of working memory to check the piece of information and decide if it is the same or not. (Thornbury 2002:23)

Learner should repeat vocabulary in short period of time after the first input as, if not so, the information stored can be forgotten soon, or more precisely, forgetting the information arises soon after the first learning. (McCarthy 1990:117) In case the piece of information has been stored in the long-term memory, learner should repeat it not to forget it.

This chapter can be best concluded with Hendrich’s statement: “There is need to automatize all the operations as storing, fixation and recollecting as soon as possible.“ (Hendrich 1988:60, my translation)

1.4 Learning styles

Learning style is viewed as the cognitive factor which influences the learner's way of proceeding information. Each learner has his own style of learning, which means that he differs in the approach to learning. Consequently, the learner chooses the way of learning which he finds the best for him. As a result, sometimes what he considers the best is not definitely the most effective. Moreover, learner is not always equipped with the ability to choose the way how to learn. Then, the teacher should identify the way he learns and help him to modify or change it to the most effective one. The teacher is the person who can identify and influence the learning style most.

Richards and Lockhart claim that learning styles, in other words cognitive styles, could be described as cognitive and physiological behaviours that "serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment." (Richards, Lockhart 1996:59)

Furthermore, cognitive styles could be specified as characteristic manners through which a student perceives, remembers information, thinks, solves problems and decides. Styles predicate about consistent individual differences in the manners, by means of which people organize and direct the information and experience processing. (Mareš 1998:50)

Learning styles relate to personality characteristics. Richards and Lockhart provide examples of learner's responses to various learning situations and his close relation to differences in learner's cognitive styles:

- "preference of individual or group work
- time spent on planning and on completing a task
- the ability to concentrate on one or more tasks at once
- the way learner handles conflicting situation
- solving problems with carefulness or taking risks
- type of the learner-visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile and the like"

(Richards, Lockhart 1996:59-60)

Knowles makes distinction between four types of learners whose characteristics is expressed in the following learning styles:

- ❖ Concrete learning style
- ❖ Analytical learning style
- ❖ Communicative learning style
- ❖ Authority-oriented learning style

(Knowles in Richards, Lockhart 1996:60)

Firstly, as regards the learner with a concrete learning style, he processes information actively and directly. He is characterized by curiosity and spontaneity. Moreover, he takes risks if it is needed. He likes better verbal or visual work, tasks which include variety, rather than routine learning. He enjoys entertainment and full involvement in class work. (Richards, Lockhart 1996:60)

Secondly, the learner with an analytical learning style thinks out his own principles, which is the result of his independency and his liking for solving problems. He values logic and a system in the new information presented with the following freedom of processing the information. Analytical learner takes learning seriously and as a result he works really hard. (Richards, Lockhart 1996:60)

Thirdly, the characteristics of learner with a communicative learning style is best described by the words: interaction, discussion, group work. In other words, he appreciates a social approach to learning. The learner prefers learning in a democratic class. (Richards, Lockhart 1996:60)

Lastly, the learner with an authority-oriented learning style is responsible in his learning. The authority-oriented learner prefers traditional classroom and requires structure and successive progression. He needs clear instructions and to know what he is doing. (Richards, Lockhart 1996:60)

To conclude, it is quite hard to change the learner's learning style as it is stable, however, it is quite easy for the teacher to help the learner identify his style and consequently modify teaching methods, which might lead to more effective and useful learning.

1.5 Learning strategies

Learning strategies are the learner's tools for efficient learning. They can be characterized as certain techniques which learner uses during his learning. Oxford states that learning strategies are "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations." (Oxford in Richards, Lockhart 1996:63)

1.5.1 Characteristics of learning strategies

Learning strategies are usually "problem-oriented", which Ellis supports with the claim that learners use a strategy when a problem appears. Learners are able to describe the activity of learning and to say which strategy they employed. (Ellis 1997:77)

Ellis allocates learner's behavioural and mental approaches to learning. The former includes, for instance, drawing a picture next to a new word which helps to remember it, while the latter might concern using an interview to draw a situational context for understanding new information. (Ellis 1997:77)

1.5.2 Types of learning strategies

Ellis puts the learning strategies into two main groups: "cognitive" and "metacognitive strategies". The learner uses the cognitive strategies when he needs to analyse, synthesize or transform. Metacognitive strategies are used when the learner plans, monitors and evaluates learning. (Ellis 1997:77)

Richards and Lockhart mention Oxford's six general types of learning strategies. Namely:

- ❖ Memory strategies-help the learner to store and retrieve vocabulary
- ❖ Cognitive strategies-help the learner to understand and produce new language
- ❖ Compensation strategies-enable the learner to communicate though they lack some kind of language knowledge

- ❖ Metacognitive strategies-enable the learner to gain control over their own learning; include organizing, planning, evaluating
- ❖ Affective strategies-help the learner to control their emotions, motivation, etc.
- ❖ Social strategies-enable the learner to interact

(Richards, Lockhart 1996:63)

The same authors give Oxford's examples of the above mentioned strategy types:

- ❖ "Memory strategies-thinking out mental linkage, applying images and sounds, reviewing, using action
- ❖ Cognitive strategies-practising, receiving and sending messages, analyzing, taking notes
- ❖ Compensation strategies-guessing, overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
- ❖ Metacognitive strategies-centering learning, planning and evaluating learning
- ❖ Affective strategies-decreasing anxiety, encouraging, discussing feelings with somebody else
- ❖ Social strategies-posing questions, asking for repetition, or an example, cooperating with others, empathizing with others"

(Richards, Lockhart 1996: 64)

Initially, the learner controls his own learning process and has to choose which way he will learn. Specifically, he has to make a choice of the effective strategies to approach learning systematically. As McCarthy claims: "learners adopt a number of strategies, but not all learners are equally good at maximizing their strategic resources." (McCarthy 1990:124)

To conclude, thinking about and being able to recognize learning strategies is valuable for all language learners. Usage of the most appropriate strategy with a certain task or in a specific learning situation helps each learner to cope with the language. However, sometimes learners do not seem to be well prepared to identify the most effective strategies, and that is why the teacher should help them in recognition and appropriate use.

1.6 Motivation

This chapter can be introduced with Hendrich's claim: "Motivation is one of the most efficient forms of psychological regulations. It is a driving force, an agent of learning." (Hendrich 1988:52, my translation)

Motivation at the same time elicits, regulates, supports and influences the learner's need to start the learning process. Buchtová defines motivation as: "the dynamic system of the inner incentives for the activity (or inactivity) of an individual. This dynamic system determines the person's acting and behaviour." (Buchtová 1999:67)

Hendrich adds his view of the dynamics of motivation:

"motivation to learning lies in deep changeability. Characteristic feature of its dynamics is the activity of incentives. Not only should we mention development, transformation and combination of the incentives, but also their fight in the situations when a decision is necessary." (Hendrich 1988:54, my translation)

On the one hand, motivation comes from the learner. Harmer describes motivation as "some kind of internal drive that encourages him to pursue a course of action." (Harmer 1991:3) It is the learner who puts effort into the learning process as he has his own reasons for learning. A motivated learner is enthusiastic about learning because he is aware of its usefulness and it often gives him pleasure. Furthermore, the learner's motivation is closely related to success and achieving goals.

On the other hand, the learner can be motivated from outside, which means that people, conditions, class atmosphere, materials, interesting activities and other things influence him. Both parents and the teacher can provide supportive conditions for learning. Parents praise and help to learn, otherwise teachers evoke a positive atmosphere and conditions for learning, starting with choosing quality materials and textbooks, useful and interesting topics, through adequate difficulty of the tasks, up to comprehensibility of instructions and explanations.

Hendrich points out:

"Every motivated behaviour is the result of the inner motivational dispositions—needs and the things which activate these needs—incentives. Incentive is an impulse that changes a need into a motive of an action. In an English lesson this

incentive might be, for instance, praise, grade, caution about mistake, and so on.“ (Hendrich 1988: 52, my translation)

In case learner is motivated only externally and, moreover, perceives learning as the pressure from his parents or the teacher, then he finds hard to reach the success from the lack of the “internal drive“.

In fact, motivation brings pleasure to learning, and consequently more satisfactory results can be expected. As concerns the achievements, goals are the first step to think about in the learning process. The learning leads to goals and that is why they should be achievable for the learner so that he would do his best. Harmer distinguishes the goals this way: motivated learner can differentiate “short-term goals“ and “long-term goals“. Whereas short-term goals might be associated with passing the vocabulary test, long-term goals might include such things as to know the target language well for working abroad. (Harmer 1991:3)

1.6.1 Different types of motivation

Further, Harmer makes distinction between “intrinsic“ and “extrinsic“ motivation. Intrinsic motivation comes from the individual himself, he does the task since he finds it enjoyable and pleasant. However extrinsic motivation comes from outside an individual. These can be praise in the form of smile, or reward in the form of grade. Such reward brings satisfaction that the task itself does not provide. In addition, “Factors existing in the classroom affecting intrinsic motivation should be mentioned: physical condition, method, the teacher and success.“ (Harmer 1991:5)

Harmer further divides extrinsic motivation into “integrative“ and “instrumental“. The former includes enthusiasm about meeting and integration into the target language culture. The latter means that learner’s success in mastery of the target language serves as the instrument for passing an exam or getting to a philosophical university. (Harmer 1991:4)

Extrinsic motivation includes factors connected mainly with learner’s attitude towards the target language. These factors often exists out of teacher’s sight. Among

those: peer influences, learner's previous experience with the language, parents' attitude towards the culture and many others. (Harmer 1991:4)

In addition, Ellis suggests another type of motivation except the above described instrumental, integrative, extrinsic and intrinsic. The author as well identifies "resultative" motivation which functions both "as the cause of the target language achievement and as the result of learning. This means that learner's success in learning the language leads to higher, or lower motivation." (Ellis 1997:75-76)

To conclude, "given motivation, anyone can learn a language." (Skehan 1989 :49)

2. Words

Words are very essential for living in a world since people must name everything in it. Each person needs to name the reality, the objects of everyday life, events, feelings. (Taylor 1990:1)

The basic unit of the language is a word. Without words any sentence could come into existence and, consequently, communication could not begin. Moreover, Scrivener stresses how powerful the words in communication are. He provides the example of beginner's communication: "Last week. Holiday. And schoolmates. Go swimming." The participants of communication understand well as "the meaning is conveyed by the words themselves". (Scrivener 1994:73) Vocabulary is a powerful tool in communication on the contrary to grammar. The sentence "Please, could you pass me a ..." means nearly nothing without the gapped word, on the other hand, the gapped word "chalk" could presumably stay on its own and communicate the message. "Chalk?" With a large number of words a learner is able to express his ideas more precisely. (Scrivener 1994:73)

To conclude, every single word is an essential component of language learning. A word is a really complex phenomenon since to know a word means to learn its form, pronunciation, its morphology and grammar, meaning and appropriate use. In addition, it's essential to remember words for long or forever, and recall them promptly. As a result, learners need to be able to cope with unknown words, or unfamiliar uses of

known words. (Thornbury 2002:2) The first features the beginner needs to learn about words is their meaning, form and pronunciation. That is why the following chapters focus on them. Next, the other characteristics of words are going to be presented, among these: types, their occurrence, grouping, storage and learnability.

2.1 The meaning and the form of words

Firstly, the essential thing each should know is that the meaning of words is not so accurate as it seems. Sometimes the dividing lines between one meaning and another are not precise, and, moreover, in a way the learner's own interpretations are involved. Scrivener illustrates how doubts on the borderline of words such as a *stream*, a *river*, a *brook* appear. He poses a question when a stream is something else than a stream, and starts being a river or a brook. However, these differences occur in all languages, simply said, a child learns to identify in which stage the stream is a river or a brook and learns to understand this notion from close people and the world itself. So the other view on the meaning is to be mentioned. (Scrivener 1994:75)

Secondly, the meaning is closely connected with the culture of the learner. Scrivener provides the example of words *leaflet*, *booklet* and *brochure* for naming things. He further asks if both mother tongue and second language know these notions and if they name and interpret them the same way. According to him, in one language leaflet, booklet and brochure are different things, in the other these are names for one thing. "Translations of words cannot be exact because different cultures have interpreted the world around them in different ways." (Scrivener 1994:75)

Thirdly, each word does not have a single meaning, for instance, the lexical item *spirits* means *mood*, the other way of understanding could be *ghosts*, and last but not least way of grasping the meaning could be *alcohol*. To be more precise, the mentioned dictionary meanings are not sufficient to provide all the information about the word. Knowing both collocations, the words commonly associated with the item, and connotations is necessary for grasping the meaning. (Thornbury 2002:15)

Add to this, the meaning of words is not the only focus of concern if learner wants to devote to vocabulary. "At the most basic level, knowing a word includes knowing its form and meaning." (Thornbury 2002:15)

You know almost nothing about the meaning of the word from its form. The meaning can be in a way decoded from context or in some cases recognized from the word itself- this concerns cognates and loan words, words which are similar or same in the form in the mother tongue. However, in most cases, meaning is inexplicit from the word graphological form and in some cases it can cause problems. This is going to be described in the chapter learnability. McCarthy confirms that meaning of the word can be described internally, within the system of language, rather than referencing to entities in the real world. (McCarthy 1990:92-93)

To conclude, even knowledge of the meaning and graphological form is not sufficient. Beginner may benefit as well from sound shape of words. Learner needs to know how to read aloud or say the lexical item. As a result he should be aware of the right phonological form of the word to be able to use it properly. That is why the area of pronunciation must not be neglected.

2.2 Pronunciation

Learner needs to be able to say what he wants to say. He should pronounce the word adequately, so that the others understood him. Even one sound totally changes the meaning of word, for instance the pronunciation [i, i:]. Learner should practice individual sounds of English since some of them do not exist in their mother tongue, he should be aware of sound rules and be able to use them in practice. (Harmer 1991:21) Further, knowledge of word stress, sentence stress, intonation and features of fluent connected speech should be practiced. Not only individual sounds and word stress but also features of pronunciation within the sentence are essential. Harmer comments: "In order to develop communicative efficiency in pronunciation the students need to understand how sounds are made and how stress is used." (Harmer 1991:22) The teacher can provide an example or explain it to students. Students as well need to hear English. Listening both to the teacher as the model and to the authentic listening materials is vital since students imitate them and learn with help of them.

Furthermore, words can be grouped together on the basis of phonological similarity, which may have advantages. Words can be learned in groups of lexical items

that have the same stress pattern, as the verbs *reduce*, *reform* and *respect*, or which rhyme, as *bark*, *shark* and *dark*. (McCarthy 1990:110-111) The former is really helpful in learning, however, the latter may cause fuzziness. The words that sound similar but have different meanings are often confused. Examples of such “synophones“ are *affluence*, *influence*; *kitchen*, *chicken*. (Laufer in McCarthy 1990:111) Though “synophones“ may occur in one context coincidentally, in the learning process such confusing ones should be avoided.

To sum up, proper pronunciation is essential for expressing and understanding the communicated message. The best way of learning pronunciation is through listening and imitating. Moreover, practice of phonological features may be, inter alia, based on groups of words with the same stress patterns or similar rhythm. However, using synophones in the same contexts should be predicted and avoided since words with the similar sound features often confuse the meaning of words.

The basic features of words were described, so the other characteristics of words are going to be discussed. The following chapter is going to devote to the idea whether all words are equal or if some of words are more central to the language use.

2.3 Core words

For students, it is essential to be aware of which words they need to know. McCarthy supposes that the most frequent lexical items becomes the most useful for the learner of the second language. Therefore, the basic knowledge of words should be given to learners by beginning with the most frequent words. Moreover, usefulness of words is connected not only with frequency, but as well with their range. In other words, with words which occur in a variety of texts. (McCarthy 1990:86)

To start with, the term “core“ should be explained. In the field of vocabulary core means central to the language. McCarthy presents the idea that if some words might be core or basic at the heart of the language, it would be interesting for language learners and the teacher because learning vocabulary could become easier. Then vocabulary could be isolated and any learner would be “equipped with a survival kit of core words which they could use in virtually any situation, whether spoken or written, formal or informal [...]“ (McCarthy 1990:48) Core words can be used in a lot of situations. In addition, through the set of words, Carter gives the examples of core

words and indicates how can be distinguished. The words meaning that someone *has a weight above the norm* have the other expressions, among them: *overweight, fat, obese, plump, podgy, stout* and many others. *Fat* is the most frequent, and in addition to this, it can define and describe the other words, however, not vice versa. (Carter in McCarthy 1990:49) *Fat* is proved to collocate most often, in the following contexts: *a fat baby, a fat cow; fat* as well forms the antonymy with *thin*; *fat* is used in metaphors and idioms such as *a fat chance*. Moreover, *fat* works as a polysemy and is used in various word classes, for instance, *a fat boy, we can fry food in fat* and so on. According to the tests applied on the mentioned lexical set, 'fat' is the most core. (McCarthy 1990:50)

Naturally, native speakers are good at choosing core words as they have an instinct for it. However, second language learners might have problems with distinguishing the core words and might confuse them with the "cognate words". (McCarthy 1990:50) Cognates are words derived from a common origin, for instance, *vocabulary*. Consequently, more languages have words with similar forms. (Thornbury 2002:27)

2.4 Frequency and coverage

As previously mentioned, usefulness of the word depends on how frequently it is used and what its coverage is. Core or basic vocabulary to learn is formed by items of high frequency. Taylor points out that even though some words may be difficult to spell or pronounce, due to their frequent use and repetition, they become core vocabulary and can be mastered well. The author provides the core and frequent word *people*, which has irregular plural form and, moreover, is undoubtedly difficult to spell. Since this word is repeated and practised often, learners have hardly any problems with that. (Taylor 1990:18) However, when a word is used frequently, it does not always lead to its quick learning, or, conversely, if a word is infrequent, it need not mean that it will not be learned with ease.

Generally, teacher and coursebook writer should apply the mentioned principle of frequency when they decide which vocabulary they will choose in preference. This principle is based on the fact that coursebook writer or teacher select the words which

are most commonly used by native speakers. The rule lies in the fact that most frequently used words should be learned first. (Harmer 1991:154)

The other principle of vocabulary selection is the principle of coverage. Harmer defines the principle: “a word is more useful if it covers more things than if it only has one very specific meaning.” (Harmer 1991:154) These two principles would lead to conclusion that a word like *table*, for instance, can become an early lexical item. It is frequently used by native speakers and has greater coverage than *tablecloth*, *table chart*, *table game*, etcetera. (Harmer 1991:154)

To summarize, teacher can influence the learning process by choosing the appropriate vocabulary items. These are the ones, which fulfill the principle of frequency and coverage. As well range should not be behind. However, other essential information has to be taken into account, such as its use, function, learnability, learner needs, wants, and so forth.

2.5 Range

In the preceding passage the issue of range has been mentioned. Words with a wide range are those words which occur in a wide variety of texts. Range is closely connected with usefulness of lexical items. It may happen that a word is quite frequent but it occurs in just one text, which means that its range is rather small. The criterion of usefulness has to fulfill the condition that words have to be frequent and have a fairly wide range. “Information about range can be presented in the form of statistical comparisons between the occurrence of a word in one part of a corpus and its occurrence in the corpus as a whole.” (McCarthy 1990:68) This is the idea which coursebook writers and teachers should not forget about.

Furthermore, the teacher often has to decide on the likely range of vocabulary items appearing in the texts. Good coursebooks have made this easy for the teacher to a great extent. However, the teacher using supplementary materials from books, magazines or internet has to make decisions which items of vocabulary have a wide range and are useful for learners. Their choice is based partly on intuition and partly on experience.

2.6 Grouping of words

Words are usually learned as the individual items. However, each of them may be used in more contexts, with different meaning, even, it can be put into lexical fields, sets of lexical items, and as a result, learner should be able to approach them in a systematic manner. Vocabulary cannot be perceived as “a random collection of items“, so learner should meet “the organised nature of vocabulary and internalise the items in a coherent way“. (Gairns, Redman 1986:69) Words are systematised into lexical sets, which consist of sets of semantically similar items. These sets might extend from broad areas such as *nature* to small categories such as a *garden* or *garden tools*. Furthermore, the same item occurs in more semantic fields. *Fork* occurs in a semantic field with *garden tools* or *cutlery*. (Gairns, Redman 1986:69) Gairns and Redman suggest that lexical sets can be revised and expanded with learner’s progress and, moreover, they offer a context for practice. (Gairns, Redman 1986:69) In the following paragraphs, the authors provide different types of lexical sets as well as grammatical and phonological sets:

- *Items related by topic*- one of the most common groupings; e.g. *kinds of fruit*
- *Items grouped as an activity or process*- e.g. steps involved in preparing dinner
- *Items similar in meaning*- include easily confused items; e.g. *set of ways of looking: glance, glare, stare, peer*
- *Items forming ‘pairs’*- contain synonyms, antonyms, contrasts; e.g. *old/new*
- *Items illustrating differences of degree*- weather: *hot-warm-cold-chilly-freezy*
- *Items in the word families*- concern word-building, affixation and related phonological difficulties; connected with derivation; e.g. *regular/irregular, bi´ology- bi´ologist- bio´logical*
- *Items grouped by grammatical similarity*- concern e.g. adverbs of frequency; e.g. *often, usually, sometimes, never*
- *Items forming a set of idioms or multi-word verbs*- include e.g. *to wake up, to get through, on top of the world*

- *Items grouped by spelling or phonological difficulty*- can be approached within a topic, e.g. *food: menu, pie, fruit, vegetable, recipe, tough meat*
- *Items grouped by style, variety*- concerns neutral and colloquial style; e.g. *toilet-loo*; varieties of English: *lorry* (BrE)-*truck* (AmE)
- *Items and their different meanings*- concern polysemous words; e.g. *crown*-the thing on the king's head, currency part of the flower or the tooth (Gairns, Redman 1986:69-71)

The preceding chapters have focused, above all, on the characteristics of words, on how frequently, when exactly words occur and how can be grouped. The following chapters are going to focus on organization of learner's vocabulary and learnability of words.

2.7 Receptive vs. Productive vocabulary

In classification of vocabulary into "passive/receptive" and "active/productive", relative agreement in the division is retained. Josef Hendrich defines 'productive' and receptive vocabulary as two components of, so called, "idiolect", which is the vocabulary of each person. (Hendrich 1988:130)

Authors agree on the statement that there is the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary. "We all understand many more words than we use in everyday situations. Our receptive vocabulary is the set of words that we recognize and understand, but tend not to use ourselves." (Scrivener 1994:74)

Gairns and Redman further comment:

"'Receptive' vocabulary mean language items which can only be recognised and comprehended in the context of reading and listening material, and 'productive' vocabulary to the language items which the learner can recall and use appropriately in speech and writing." (Gairns, Redman 1986:64)

The authors dealing with vocabulary illustrate what receptive and productive vocabulary means in the mother tongue. On the one hand, there are vocabulary items

which a person understands, but which he considers not easy to recall or is not sure about their accurate use. On the other hand, there are other items which a person recognises and understands, however, does not use them for subjective reasons. (Gairns, Redman 1986:65) In addition, for learners some words seem to be easier to learn than the others. Learnability of the vocabulary will be discussed in the chapter 2.10.

Receptive vocabulary is substantially larger than the productive one. The proportion of receptive and productive vocabulary is estimated to be one to two, even to five. (Hendrich 1988:130)

However, these figures differ with individuals.

“With native speakers, receptive vocabulary far exceeds productive vocabulary; an educated speaker is able to ‘understand’ between forty-five thousand and sixty thousand items, although no native speaker would pretend that his productive vocabulary would approach this figure.” (Gairns, Redman 1986:65)

Logically, learners of English hardly ever reach those figures, but the proportion of receptive to productive vocabulary is not so distinct. After the thorough analysis of learner’s vocabulary, the way how the vocabulary is organized and stored in the learner’s mind should be described.

2.8 Mental lexicon

The fact that the mind manages to absorb something so extensive as second language vocabulary might seem unbelievable. Learners know a large number of words and though they are able to recollect a required word in a short period of time. (McCarthy 1990:37)

Coady and Huckin compare the mental lexicon to “the memory system in which knowledge of a vast number of words, accumulated in the course of time, has been stored.” (Coady, Huckin 1997:210) When storing vocabulary, the order in organization must be held.

In fact, researchers have developed the idea that words must be organized in the mind in some way. McCarthy is deeply concerned with the issue of word organization

in the mental lexicon and comes with numerous metaphors for mental lexicon such as: a dictionary, a thesaurus, an encyclopaedia, a library, a computer. The dictionary metaphor expresses the idea that a word with its meaning and all the information “is written in“ all at once and can be found quickly. The thesaurus metaphor differs a little bit; it offers semantically related words. The encyclopaedia metaphor provides association of the word to other types of knowledge. The computer metaphor suggests dynamic input, moreover, it is able to re-sort its data and update itself. The library metaphor continuously updates its input and provides easily found paths to the books. Each metaphor described may seem to partially explain the function of the mental lexicon. (McCarthy 1990:35)

However, what is common for all the metaphors is the idea of input, which means, that language is “written in“ in a certain way and later it is “called up“ for usage. The former “holding“ in the mind is called “storage“, and the latter “calling up“ is “retrieval“. (McCarthy 1990:34)

Further, mental lexicon is a dynamic system, which is continually integrating input into the store. (Coady, Huckin 1997:211) Moreover, words in the mental lexicon cannot be viewed as separate “entities“, they are somehow interconnected. (Thornbury 2002:16) Continuously, new words are stored and new connections occur on the basis of the same or similar features. Thornbury states that the mental lexicon includes numerous connections, thus looking for the right word is “like a following a path through the network, or better following several paths at once.“ (Thornbury 2002:17) Over time, individual associations increase or decrease in the strength. (Coady, Huckin 1997:211)

McCarthy comments that words are inputted as the word lists which have definitions, or translations in the learner’s mother tongue. (McCarthy 1990:36) Yet, the idea of the word lists is excluded since it seems to be rather linear and does not overtly confirm the existence of connections among words. Thornbury suggests that “the mind seems to store words neither randomly nor in the form of a list, but in a highly organized and interconnected fashion.“ (Thornbury 2002:16) For instance, words are stored on the basis of similar semantic information or similar phonological properties. As Thornbury supports: “words with similar sound structure are closely interconnected,

so that the search for one may sometimes activate its near neighbour.“ (Thornbury 2002:16) The example how malapropism, the comic effect of this kind of mistake, rises, can be found in Shakespeare:

“Bottom: ‘Thisbe, the flowers of odious savours sweet-’

Quince: ‘Odious’-odorous!’“ (Thornbury 2002:16)

Coady and Huckin add the other word features influencing word store in the mental lexicon. Specifically: “orthography, pronunciation, morphological structure, syntactic characteristics, as well as various sorts of semantic information.“ (Coady, Huckin 1997:211) In addition, to know a word means to be able to realize this characteristics and cognitive, cultural and autobiographical information as well. As a result, two speakers cannot be expected to know a word in the precisely same way. (Coady, Huckin 1997:211)

However, “most theorists agree that words in the mental lexicon should not be regarded as clear-cut-entities.“ (Meara in Coady, Huckin 1997:211) This idea raises from the fact that the information needed of knowledge of the word might become partially available at a certain time. It may happen that learner has a concept in his head but cannot find the exact word for it. Another case is that he is familiar with the shape or the form of the word, however, he does not know its meaning. (Coady, Huckin 1997:211)

Researchers have tried to find out how words of native and second language are stored in the mental lexicon. They have wondered about their location in

“a single store (the extended system hypothesis); in separate stores (the dual system hypothesis); in a common store, which concerns cognates, similar words, on the same basis in more languages; or in separate stores (the tripartite hypothesis), where language-specific words are stored.“

(Coady, Huckin 1997:211)

Nevertheless, these days most theorists support the “subset hypothesis“ which concerns a single store where all words are located. This theory is expressed the way that the subset of mother tongue words are closer to each other than to second language

words, as if mother language words and second language words formed two relatively separate groups of words within one big group of words. (Coady, Huckin 1997:211)

2.9 Learnability of words

Learnability is the result of many factors, among which the most apparent is frequency. The studies have revealed the fact that learners knew better words which occurred more times or regularly, while they found remembering words that appeared only once not so easy. Thus ease or difficulty in the learnability of lexical items is closely related to the frequency. The most frequent words occur regularly, so that learners are likely to absorb them with ease. (McCarthy 1990:86)

2.9.1 What makes learning a word easy

However, it need not become a rule that frequent words are learned easily since some words appear to be rather difficult though repetitively used. Thornbury claims that the easiest words are those which are identical, both in meaning and form, to their mother tongue equivalents. Words that are derived from the common origin and can be transferred from one language to other are called “cognates“. (Thornbury 2002:27) Conversely, McCarthy points out that each learner should be aware of “false friends“, words which are perceived similar to the ones in the mother tongue. False friends are one of the examples of problematic words. (McCarthy 1990:86)

2.9.2 What makes learning a word difficult

Other crucial factors in learnability are spelling and pronunciation. Regarding spelling, learners may have difficulty with some spelling patterns which are not regular. Even native speakers have problems with remembering if single or double consonants are used in words like, for instance, *follow*, *pattern*, *beginning*. As well words that contain silent letters are particularly problematic: *cupboard*, *foreign*, *honest*, *knee*, *muscle*. As concerns pronunciation, learners may have phonological difficulties with

some words. Learners have difficulties both with clusters of sounds in, for example, *available* and *crisps*, and with spelling and pronunciation of words such as *taught*, *thought*, *tough*. (McCarthy 1990:86) Difficult words will as well be those that are unfamiliar to some groups of people-such as *regular* for Japanese learners, a Czech word *řeřicha* for British learners. (Thornbury 2002:27) Even this can become a long-term problem, particularly in the cases where old habits are inveterate. (McCarthy 1990:86)

A point worth mentioning is that learners may have difficulties with syntactic properties of words. In other words, grammar associated with the word is troublesome. To illustrate, verbs *want* and *wish* can be compared. The former is followed by an object or an infinitive, the latter by a variety of nominal clauses, an infinitive or an object. Consequently, *wish* presents more syntactic difficulties. Similar case is the use of infinitive or -ing form after verbs *like*, *love*, *hate*, *hope*. The grammar of phrasal verbs makes problems as well. Some phrasal verbs are separable, while others are not. (McCarthy 1990:86)

Next problem occurs when two words have similar meaning. Learners have to make sure of the right use. They *make beds* and *make an appointment*, but they *do their best* and *do the housework*. Words like *still* and *quite* may become troublesome as well as a result of their multiple meanings. "Having learned one meaning of the word, they may be reluctant to accept a second, totally different meaning." (Thornbury 2002:28) Nevertheless, learning new meanings of words is a gradual process where core meaning is learned at lower levels and other meanings, usually less frequently used meanings, students learn at higher levels.

Another point to emphasize is length and complexity of words. On one hand long words do not have to appear as problematic, but, on the other hand, as the short words occur more often than the long ones, the short words are better learnable. Learner may, of course, have problems with variable stress in polysyllabic words such as with words *transform*, *transformation*, *transforming*. (Thornbury 2002:28)

Further, easy learning of words may be endangered by learner's perception of target words as very close in meaning to his mother tongue. These words become false friends. In fact, *actual* in English does not mean the same as *aktuální* in Czech.

Similarly, *gymnasium* and *gymnasium*, *supply* and *suplovat*, *traffic* and *trafika*. The other case when learnability of the target words can be complicated is perceiving them so close in meaning, that they can hardly be separated. Examples include: *make* and *do*. These similarities may result in difficulties with learning the words. (McCarthy 1990:86)

One more point necessary to discover is range, connotation and idiomacy. Word like *put* can be used in wider range of contexts than words like *impose*, *position*, *place*. This results in perception that wide-ranging *put* is easier. Learners may have problems with connotations of words. Thornbury exemplifies in the word *propaganda*, which has negative connotations in English, however, its equivalent may have meaning *publicity*. (Thornbury 2002:28) As concerns idiomacy, *it is raining cats and dogs* can become troublesome since learners base understanding the sentence on the meaning of the individual words. Consequently, with no knowledge of idioms, learner fails to understand the message.

Last but not least point to state is that learners may be unable to find relation between the meaning of a word and their world experience or the culture they live in. Learner tends not to understand words such as *solicitor* or *estate agent* well, which is a result of his nonacquaintance of these notions in his cultural environment. (McCarthy 1990:86) Thornbury provides the example of words associated with the game cricket: *a hat trick*, *a good innings*, which are unlikely to be easily learned for most learners. (Thornbury 2002:28) Words used in one culture do not have to exist in the other culture since each culture has its own experience, which is marked by its uniqueness. In short, not every word has its precise parallel translation in the other language. That is why such vocabulary items may remain partly-comprehended. (McCarthy 1990:86)

To conclude, how the words are learned depends on their difficulty and easiness for the learners. Frequency of words as well remains essential. Finally, learners needs cannot be left out of consideration.

3. Material teaching aids used in vocabulary practice

As regards material aids, a wide range can be used. In the lessons of English; except textbooks, a blackboard, a cassette player, a computer, and additional materials including pictures, photos, flashcards, copies from other books; other helpful teaching aids may be integrated. Nevertheless, analysing all of them would be useless in this paper, that is why this chapter is going to concern dictionaries and the interactive board.

3.1 Use of dictionaries

This chapter devotes to the use of dictionaries as one of the strategies helping to develop and practice learner's word-store. Learner tries to enlarge vocabulary and the work with dictionary is one of the ways how to achieve this. In some lessons, unfortunately, use of dictionaries is rather neglected.

However, approach to use of dictionaries has changed in the course of time. The types of dictionaries varied according to the current methodology. At the end of the sixties, traditionally used bilingual dictionaries were replaced by explanatory dictionaries in connection with the divert from grammatical-translation method. Many bilingual dictionaries were often criticised for unreliability and inaccuracy. Further, in the late seventies, such theory appeared that work with dictionary was the learner's laziness and unwillingness to use own resources and guess the meaning himself. (Gairns, Redman 1986:79) The use of dictionaries in the class was discouraged for a long time because dependence on a dictionary could inhibit development of skills such as guessing from context. Likewise, in case of bilingual dictionaries, learners may over-rely on mother tongue equivalent. Finally, each bilingual dictionary offers more entries or meanings which can cause the kind of errors where the wrong word might be selected for the intended meaning. (Thornbury 2002:60)

On the one hand a lot of teachers think that the dictionary does not belong in the lessons of English, and consequently, they do not allow students to use it in the lessons. On the other hand some teachers do not object to student's occasional looking up the

word. However, there are still many teachers who support learners to use dictionaries, mostly bilingual at beginner level and explanatory at higher levels. Dictionaries have, of course, certain advantages. The right use enables the learner to continue learning outside the classroom, which gives the learner autonomy about decisions in his learning. The other advantage of dictionaries is its value of support in contextual guesswork. In case the meaning of a lexical item is unambiguous, learner can clarify the uncertainty. (Gairns, Redman 1986:79)

Nevertheless, in a lot of situations learner was used to asking the teacher about the meaning of the word. This resulted in the fact that learner relied on the teacher's translation or explanation of the word. However, the teacher should not be dominant and should intervene only when necessary. Fortunately, nowadays teacher designs more student-centred activities for intended lexical input. Gairns and Redman consider work with a dictionary to be one of the basic strategies of student-centred learning. "Recent developments have emphasised the importance of equipping students with the necessary strategies for dealing with skills activities." (Gairns, Redman 1986:77) Dictionary work, deduction of word meaning from the context, finding out the meaning by asking the other students are the possibilities of learner's way how to know the word meaning.

However, dictionaries offer as well other information than meaning:

"Dictionaries are both a tool and a resource for vocabulary learning, since they contain a wealth of information about words, information that can be applied through classroom activities involving multiple decision-making."

(Thornbury 2002:74)

As Thornbury mentions, dictionary is the essential tool which provides the learner with the meaning. It, further, conveys other information.

- Pronunciation-follows entry word, phonemic transcription inside brackets
- Word stress-indicated by a mark before the stressed syllable or by underlying
- Part of speech-written in each entry, helps the right use in the sentence
the abbreviations stay for them, e.g. *v.* verb
- Inflections-prefixes and suffixes; changes of word form in plural, negative
prefixes of adjectives, past participle forms, etcetera

- Word usage-how a word can be used in sentences
- Sense relations-offers synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms and other related words
- Style-tells more about formality of the word: formal, informal, colloquial, slang

To add, the most important information learner finds in the dictionary is the meaning or the definition of words and their precise pronunciation. In case a word has more than one meaning, each meaning is denoted by a number or a letter. However, to understand and to know a word more profoundly, Scrivener recommends to encourage students to work more often with monolingual dictionaries rather than translation dictionaries since English-English dictionaries offer the above mentioned information on the words, such as typical word usages, sense relations, level of formality, word class, common sentence patterns, etcetera. (Scrivener 1994:73)

Lastly, the dictionary is an important source of vocabulary and essential material teaching aid which should be used in the lessons. However, if the teacher prefers guessing from context, explanation of the word or its translation, and avoids using dictionaries, she should at least use it as the complement. This is because a learner needs to know that a good dictionary offers the right use of the word in the context as each word has more meanings. Moreover, the teacher explains best how to use the dictionary effectively and recommends which dictionary is good for students even for both in the classroom and the out-of-school use. That is why the teacher should train students in the right dictionary use.

3.2 Use of Interactive board

Initially, what the interactive board is needs to be explained since this material teaching aid has not had such a long tradition in our schools like, for instance, a computer or a dictionary. However, the interactive board, as well called the touch board, is a kind of multimedia which is implemented in the classroom. The touch board looks like a usual white board, it is placed on the front wall of the classroom. However, it differs in a way that it is an electronic device connected with the data projector and a computer. In case the school cannot equip the language classrooms with computers,

such device is a real facilitator for teachers. Unfortunately, many Czech schools do not have finance to buy and equip their classrooms with the interactive boards. If they can afford to buy one, they equip a classroom with it and, logically, teachers have to decide which lesson they will support with this multimedia and, consequently, sign in on a schedule.

Next, how the touch board works should be added. While on the black board students write, the touch board is a digital means which offers the possibility of writing, touching, moving the objects and further interactive work. First, the teacher forms pages with various activities before the lesson, even at home, since the teacher is allowed to use the software in own computer. Preparing activities in advance saves teacher's time in lesson. The activities are easy to prepare because the software includes files with pictures, objects and sounds, moreover, material from own files or from web pages can be used as well. Second, the teacher brings the set of prepared pages in the lesson and presents the new subject matter, or let students practice or produce. The advantage is that students have to participate, to write answers on the touch board, to draw or to match. Such work exploits child playfulness and sense for competitiveness. Last but not least thing to mention is that with help of the interactive board, students have possibility to practice the subject matter in an interesting and attractive way.

Finally, the essential fact is that a wide range of activities can be formed for vocabulary practice. Interactive board offers activities as matching, classifying, word building, crosswords, puzzles, riddles, poems, songs, etcetera. Touch board serves as well for playing games such as a Hangman, Noughts and Crosses, guessing and many others.

4. Vocabulary learning- PPP

First, in a vocabulary lesson, the teacher introduces a short list of new words. When the words have some relationship (for example colours, kitchen equipment), the list is likely to be easier remembered. (Scrivener 1994:83) However, presentation in the form of lists does not seem to be the best. Harmer presents the other way how to "bring new words in the classroom," these are: realia, pictures, mime and action, contrast, enumeration, explanation and translation. (Harmer 1991:161,162)

Second, the input is followed by a vocabulary practice activities in which the learner uses the lexical items he has just met or revised. (Scrivener 1994:83) Thornbury suggests: “Nor should the presentation extend so far into the lesson that no time is available to put the words to work.” (Thornbury 2002:76) Third, the productive tasks, the activities where the student employs his knowledge take place.

In addition, Hendrich claims that the teacher introduces the lexical items the way to encourage the ability of expressing and understanding in common situations near to the learner. At the same time the teacher should regard the difficulty of individual items, their relationship to other subject matter and to the mother tongue. (Hendrich 1988:141)

Moreover, the first seeing or hearing a word is only one step. Real learning the scope and limits of a word is a long and gradual process. (Scrivener 1994:83) Beginner learns, for instance, a word *book* gradually and reveals its other meanings and collocations up to the advanced level. He learns, a *black book*, *to book a hotel room*, a *bookworm*, etcetera.

After learner’s first meeting with a vocabulary item, he needs opportunities to be acquainted with it. Scrivener recommends to practice recognition, manipulation and use of the lexical item. (Scrivener 1994:83) Hendrich, further, adds that after presenting a new word, abundant practice should follow immediately in order to repeat new terms often so that they fix in a pupil’s consciousness. (Hendrich 1988:134) When the words are practised sufficiently, the production tasks should ensue so that the learner uses the newly stored items as quickly as possible and the likelihood of retrieval is high.

As regards vocabulary practice, some of it focuses on using the words individually and out of any context. Learner actually learns about the words rather than using them. In vocabulary manipulation the student needs to be provided with chances to use the words in oral or written practice as well. (Scrivener 1994:84)

Finally, it is essential to state that learning vocabulary is a rather extensive field of study including presentation, practice and production. Each of the three areas would cover individual theses, however, the main concern of this thesis is vocabulary practice. Consequently, the following part is going to be devoted to vocabulary practice.

4.1 Activities for vocabulary practice in the classroom

In this chapter, the main focus will be on vocabulary practice in the lessons of English. Vocabulary can be practised in a variety of activities, including games.

Hendrich claims that “the way of practising the vocabulary is in basic features designed by a lesson method, aim and time possibilities.” (Hendrich 1988:140, my translation)

Hendrich introduces the activities for the active vocabulary practice:

- “Naming objects. This is restricted to an opinion (factual, pictured), however, it is interesting, particularly if it is well organized in the classroom. This is frequently used at the initial level.
- Completing words into context. This can be used at all learning levels with adequate degree of difficulty. At higher level, even synonyms can be practised, and styles can be differentiated.
- Word formation according to an example.
- Word grouping according to the word classes.
- Word grouping according to a certain topic.
- Modification of collocations or sentences with substituting new terms.
- Answers to questions formulated the way that a learner has to use the certain expression in his answer.
- Translation of individual words into the second language, but completed with a collocation or setted into the context.
- Translation of collocations, short sentence or longer wholes into the second language.“ (Hendrich 1988:140-141)

Hendrich recommends usual activities for practising the passive vocabulary:

- “Reading (with numerous repetitions of the easiest passages).
- Translation of lexical items or sentences into the mother language, eventually estimate of meaning according to the context.
- Extracting a certain expression from the context.
- Different word grouping according to a certain criteria.“ (Hendrich 1988:141)

Hendrich objects that both types of activities blend together in the school environment. The author consequently claims that the active vocabulary items in the textbook should be managed actively. That is why learners practise and fix expressions through the combination of activities, through which speaking is as well developed. The progress happens due to memorization, reproduction, dramatization, and so on.

According to Hendrich, when practising active vocabulary, the teacher should prefer excellent mastering of minor number of expressions instead of superficial teaching larger amount of vocabulary. (Hendrich 1988:141)

Hendrich points out that individual words should not be practised separately, but in the verbal or situational context. (Hendrich 1988:141) In addition, Scrivener claims that many vocabulary activities are based on the ideas of communicative activities and roleplay which need use of words, and as well, on using vocabulary in the written tasks. (Scrivener 1994:83)

McCarthy further comments that words should be learned in associations, not separately. The theorist specifies “a connection between meaning, form, sound, and as well sight-linkage of similar shapes. To know the word and its associations is necessary since then learners can definitely understand the word.” (McCarthy 1990:64-65)

Moreover, the textbook includes a set limit of vocabulary which should not be extended for the purpose that the teacher plans to teach more, since the expressions learned over the limit of the textbook are as a rule marginal. In case excessive amount of lexical items is practised, then obligatory vocabulary is not practised thoroughly. Teacher prepares the sequence of practice the way so that learner’s communicative skills are gradually developed. (Hendrich 1988:141)

Further, for vocabulary practice Scrivener recommends:

- ❖ “matching pictures to words;
- ❖ matching parts of words to other parts, for example beginnings and endings;
- ❖ matching words to other words, for example collocations, synonyms, opposites, sets of related words;
- ❖ using prefixes and suffixes to build new words from given words;
- ❖ classifying items into lists;

- ❖ using given words to complete a specific tasks;
- ❖ filling in crosswords, grids or diagrams;
- ❖ filling in gaps in sentences;
- ❖ memory games.“ (Scrivener 1994:83)

The choice of activity depends on what students should learn from it. Teacher can either use the material of the coursebook exactly or suit it the class setting and learner needs, or prepare variations of activities of his own. Scrivener provides a short list of activities chosen from a great number of existing activities. The author lists:

- game-learner plays a vocabulary game
- listening-learner listens to a conversation and fills in names of buildings
- role play-learner roleplays a cash desk scene
- etcetera

(Scrivener 1994:26)

4.2 Games for vocabulary practice in the classroom

To start with, word games are useful for vocabulary learning. Well chosen game can be a good source of vocabulary practice and even vocabulary enrichment. Games should not be understood as the source of entertaining passing lesson time or avoiding work, however, their aim is vocabulary practice and revision. (Allen 1983:52)

Wallace states two main reasons for the use of games:

- “-an increasing emphasis on the importance of motivation
 - an increasing emphasis on the importance of ‘real’ communication“
- (Wallace 1982:105)

First, Wallace states that games support suitable emotional atmosphere. Second, games most often result in a desire to communicate in the second language if the games work properly. (Wallace 1982:105)

Further, with games learners often realize that without knowledge of vocabulary, the goal of the game cannot be achieved. In Wallace’s words: “the teacher often becomes a kind of *referee*. The competitive element is often balanced by a co-operative element, especially when the class is divided into *teams*.” (Wallace 1982:105)

Competitive element raises the student's ambition to be successful. To contribute by own knowledge in a groupwork or to win in the wholeclass work brings pleasure and motivates for further work. Moreover, Ellis adds that the choice of games should vary from competitive to cooperative ones in order not to support the competitive element at any costs. The reason is that competition evokes threatening atmosphere for some students. (Ellis 1992:182-183) However, the competitive element motivates most students to get high scores or points for classification.

In terms of vocabulary practice, Wallace proposes that: "vocabulary is a teaching topic which lends itself very easily to the games approach, and there are literally hundreds of vocabulary games ranging from elementary to advanced level." (Wallace 1982:105) According to Ellis, the focus of games may be on "certain word families, specific language patterns, or skills. It may also relate to a topic, such as sports and clothes." (Ellis 1992:182)

In addition, games can be used at different stages of the lesson. Firstly, some of them may be intended for the warm-up at the beginning of the lesson or as preparatory activity for further practice. Such games have to be interactive and quick. Secondly, games can be used as the main activity for practice. Ellis further claims that games can "begin a lesson in a lively and stimulating way, relieve tension after a test, punctuate a more formal lesson when interest is flagging, or give the class the opportunity to be active if the pupils are feeling restless." (Ellis 1992:182)

In addition, with this kind of class work, a variety of grouping can be applied. Whole class work is used in games like Bingo, A Hangman, mime and memory games. Games like Noughts and Crosses require groupwork. Snakes and Ladders, quizzes are most commonly played in pairs.

Bingo

The most used and best recommended vocabulary game is Bingo. It is a quick activity which is suitable at the beginning or at the end of the lesson. First, the teacher and students agree on the list of words to practice. Then, learners make either a four-boxes or six-boxes chart and fill in the words they choose from the list. After, the teacher reads out the words to the learners in random order and their task is to cross out the words which they wrote in the grid and which they heard. The first one to cross out

all his words shouts bingo and is the winner of the game. To practice his pronunciation and to check the right choice of words, the winner reads the words aloud and the other students monitor if these words correspond to the words said by the teacher. This game can be used as the warm-up activity for the further practice of the words.

A Hangman

A hangman is a quick and a simple vocabulary game, which is fine as a warm-up activity at the beginning of the lesson. However, it can be played as well in other stages of the lesson. The teacher leads the game, or one of the learners can take responsibility in leading it. It can be played with the whole class, nevertheless, grouping into two or three groups is recommended to initiate a competition. The teacher writes the topic on the blackboard so that learners know which area of vocabulary it concerns. For each letter of the word to guess he provides a line. The beginners can be as well supported with one letter of the word, for example, T _ _ _ _ as a table for the topic furniture. Groups take turn in guessing the known words on the basis of their spelling the individual sounds. When a student from the group is right and the word contains the letter, another student from the same group can continue in guessing the other letter. In case the word does not contain the letter pronounced, the gallows is continuously built and the next group takes turn. However, this game is not intended for use of English or communicative practice. The only purpose of this game is to practice pronunciation of individual sounds and recalling the meaning of words.

Noughts and Crosses

Noughts and Crosses is the game recommended to be played in pairs or as the whole class activity as a starting task of the lesson to revise vocabulary. Before the lesson the teacher prepares the topics and three to five questions on each. In the lesson the teacher draws two grids on the blackboard, fills in the squares of one grid with various headings, for instance sport, cinema, clothes, food, and leaves the other grid blank. He divides students into two teams, noughts and crosses, and explains the procedure of the game to them. The goal of each team is to make a line of three noughts or crosses to win. In order to get a nought or cross the team must answer the teacher's question concerning the selected square with heading in the grid. In case the team does

not answer, the other team chooses other square. If the answer is correct, the teacher puts a nought or a cross in the square of the empty grid. (Gairns, Redman 1986:166)

Snakes and Ladders

Snakes and Ladders is a game which is best played as the main activity. This board game is suitable for pairwork or groupwork. However, each organisation has its advantages. In the former students take turns faster, thus they practice more. In the latter students react and control more. Though pairwork might “put a greater demand on the student’s ability to co-operate closely with one other person“ (Harmer 1991:245), it should be preferred in Snakes and Ladders since this game becomes more dynamic when being played in pairs. The player needs a board with numbered grid squares, a dice and a counter. The board consists of grid squares with topics, for instance, clothes, words or pictures. Some of the grids include pictures of snakes and ladders connecting squares together. Students take turns to throw the dice and move their counter along the squares. When the student lands on a square, he has to do the task and, subsequently, the other student checks him. In case the answer is incorrect, the student has to go back two squares. If a student gets on a square with a ladder, he may go up the ladder if his answer is correct. The square with the snake’s head means that he has to go down the snake. The winner is the first student to reach the last square. (O’Dell, Head 2003:10)

A Word King

This simple and fast game is recommended for all levels. Word King is suitable as a starting or a closing task in lessons. The teacher chooses words for practice, they do not need to concern one topic or the same syntactical category, which is the advantage of this game. Students stand next to their desk and take turns in translating the required word. The teacher provides a Czech word and the student says the English equivalent. In case he pronounces the word incorrectly, he sits down and the next student answers. If it be to the contrary, he still stands. The advantage of this game is that all students hear the word and all of them practice, even though only one of them answers. The game is played until one student is left. He becomes the winner and the word king.

Memory games

Thanks to memory games, students train their memory through practice of vocabulary they know. Many types of memory games are presented in books and the teacher modifies them according to the level and needs of the students. A simple and quick memory game might include pictures as they enable to recall the words. The pictures of known words from workbooks or extra materials can be used.

The following game should be time restricted. Students watch fifteen to twenty pictures for one minute. Then they must not look at the pictures and their task is to write down the words they recall. The student with highest number of correct words wins.

The other memory game could be called Make a chain or A snake since students make a kind of chain from words. The first type is closely connected with practising both vocabulary and grammar. Learner has to repeat all the sentences said by the previous students and add his sentence at the end of the chain. Or he can deny what the previous student said and create a new sentence. The example can be past simple tense and shopping vocabulary practice. *I was in the town yesterday and I bought a T-shirt.* The second type of the game concerns only vocabulary. The teacher brings cards with written words on one side and pictures on the other. For beginners, the example word could be a *window*, a concrete thing. For intermediate and higher level students the abstract words or collocations without pictures make it more difficult. The procedure is as follows. First of all, the teacher revises the vocabulary by showing the cards to the students. Then, each of them takes one card. The student appointed by the teacher starts and calls out some other word. The called out mate repeats the previous words and adds the other by calling out the word. The snake or the chain is complete when all the words have been used.

Guessing games

In the guessing games vocabulary and grammar is practised through communication. The students have to be aware of what area of vocabulary they are to guess. Then they pose questions to the teacher to find a solution. The one who guessed the word takes turn, thinks the word and answers the questions. The guessing games can be modified according to some typical Czech games or games on television since learners usually enjoy modern games.

Pronunciation games

This group of games includes such as Make a rhyme or Odd one out.

As the name implies, the games focus on the right pronunciation, which has to be fixed correctly already at low levels. In the latter students receive puzzles for rhyming words, usually squares divided into four triangles, each with a part of the word; or letters followed by pictures. They find rhymes for the words in the squares or pictures and say it aloud. In the latter learners look for a word that is pronounced in a different way than the others in the row.

Quizzes

Quizzes offer students finding the appropriate answer through asking. They are made to speak and listen for information to fulfill the task of completing answers. The quizzes can be based on a variety of topics, for example, Christmas. One learner receives the questions on topic Christmas meals, the other on Christmas habits. In pairs a learner answers his mate's questions who makes notes. After both of them change their roles, whole class check-up follows. This way students might compare their answer and enrich their vocabulary. It is often possible to link vocabulary practice and cultural information in this way.

Mime games

Mime games are commonly used with young pupils. Learners can perform in front of the class, which they mostly like as they take over responsibility. Varieties of acting or miming can be used. Students can act sports as *basketball*, actions as *sleeping*, etcetera. The game can be played the way that a student performs an action and next student guesses. After he has guessed, he performs another action and chooses next student. Students think out sentences like, for instance, *Mike is sleeping*. The activity includes both vocabulary and grammar practice. Mime games offer guessing of words, for example, a *book*, or the whole sentences, for instance, *he is skiing*. The teacher brings the cards with words and asks a student to come to her, choose the word and mime it to the others. The task of the students is to be able to guess the word or the sentence. With small pupils, pictures are better.

PRACTICAL PART

5. Research

5.1 Introduction

In the chapter which follows a practical part is going to be introduced. The aim of the research was to discover the potential of activities for vocabulary practice, to be more specific, how variety of activities helps the students to learn the vocabulary. The other aim was to find out if the vocabulary practice is supported with material aids and, especially, which ones except the textbook, blackboard and cassette player. The use of the dictionaries is going to be analysed and students' opinions on the interactive board presented.

As regards the hypotheses of the research, Chráska claims: "Pedagogical research is the activity in which we investigate (prove, verify and test) the validity of the hypotheses." (Chráska 2005:3) The hypotheses are following:

- ✓ Students' most preferred area of English is vocabulary.
- ✓ According to students, games are the most helpful type of activity for remembering vocabulary.
- ✓ Most students use own pocket dictionaries in lesson of English.
- ✓ The arithmetical average of the three vocabulary tests ranges from 1,5 to 2,5.

5.2 Background of the research

The research was conducted at basic school Hálkova in Olomouc in February 2008 in the class of the seventh graders. Hálkova school is the language school, so students can learn two foreign languages. This class's first choice of the second language was German, they started attending English classes in the sixth grade so they were at the elementary level. The students were about twelve to thirteen years old and the length of their learning English was two years. In terms of sex, there were seven girls and five boys.

I have known the teacher from my clinical year experience as we worked closely. She is a qualified teacher and has fifteen year experience in teaching. So, she uses a variety of activities in the lessons. However, for the purpose of vocabulary

practice she applies the same games, those are Word king and A Hangman. Her reason for it is a quick practice and avoiding disruptive behaviour. As I had an opportunity to come to her lessons of seventh graders before the research, I could see what activities are used in the lessons beforehand. We talked to each other before the research and discussed what vocabulary was going to be presented and subsequently practised. We decided on variety of activities, the teacher prepared each lesson precisely, especially vocabulary practice on the interactive board. In my pre-research observing her lessons, the teacher used the interactive board to practice topic-based vocabulary concerning classroom objects. (see Appendix 1)

What I really appreciated was that the teacher accepted my recommendations of games. She played them with the students and after lesson the discussion followed. Though the analysis of the lesson was subjective, she learned about what I had observed and I got to know her ideas if it worked according to her, and she would use the activities in the other lessons.

5.3 The research and its procedure

At the initial stage, I set the goals. Afterwards, for the purpose of becoming familiar with the activities they use and with the syllabus, I observed a few lessons, as I mentioned in the previous subchapter. Next, the teacher and I chose the vocabulary according to the syllabus, and constructed a plan. We agreed on the number of lessons, which was overall ten, in a four week period. We set the goal to find the suitable activities for vocabulary practice. The first two sets of vocabulary were topic-based: sports and clothes. The other set contained selected vocabulary from their unit, including plural of nouns. Then, I set the subgoals which were: thinking out and creating the activities, observing the activities and use of dictionaries and interactive board, followed by testing the vocabulary which had been practised.

For my research I selected three tools for data collection: observations, questionnaires and tests. Another tool for subsidiary data collection chosen for the purpose of my research were interviews with individual students in order to collect the additional ideas on their use of dictionaries. As the school has had the interactive board

for one year, I have decided to ask the students to write down their opinions on the interactive board. Firstly, observations are going to be analysed so that the choice of vocabulary for particular activities and procedure in the activities is obvious. In addition, the analysis of the activities in accordance with the chapter four of the theoretical part is going to be carried out. Secondly, the questionnaires are the focus of concern. After their structure and content have been described, the analysis of the answers follows. I will, additionally, include a brief view of student's ideas on the interactive board. Thirdly, the tests will be analysed. The teacher has chosen the progress test. This kind of test is similar to an achievement test. The progress test aims at what students have learned throughout a course, while the achievement test tends to be given at the end of the course. (Alderson, Clapham, Wall 1995:12)

The teacher has decided for the progress test since she wants to assess how the students learned the vocabulary through vocabulary practice. Lastly, the data collected in the interviews will be summarized. I am going to present all the tools for data collection in detail in the following subchapters.

5.4 Analysis of the filled-in observation sheets

For my research I prepared an observation sheet which I consequently filled-in in the lessons. I focused on the types of activities and on their implementation in the lessons.

As regards the first set of vocabulary, sports, the teacher prepared a wide range of activities:

- ✓ Matching words to pictures on the interactive board
- ✓ Answering the questions
- ✓ Mime game
- ✓ Matching and word grouping
- ✓ Listening
- ✓ Speaking
- ✓ Filling in gaps in sentences

At the initial stage of practice, the teacher warmed the students up by asking them questions, such as: “What is your favourite sport? What sports do you do? What sports do you like?” She randomly asked all of them.

Then, the matching activity followed. It was a whole class work where three pages on the interactive board were used. The teacher called out a student to come to the interactive board and his task was to match the name of the sport to the picture. He could choose which he preferred, “took“ the word and moved it in the right place. (see Appendix 2) The last task for him was to pronounce the word correctly. His classmates controlled him and in case he made a mistake, they corrected him. Next step was the other student’s turn. A boy drew the teacher’s attention to the word softball. She had chosen a picture of a softball player and had prepared the label baseball. I would do so, as till then I had not known the difference between the two sports. We agreed with the teacher on the fact that we had expected only differing rules in them. However, the boy came to the blackboard, drew the pictures for the pitch and the bat, further, he explained the differences between baseball and softball. In consequence, the teacher let him draw a bat for playing baseball and match the label to it. Additionally, the student wrote the right name next to the picture presenting softball. This activity was focused on the recognition, on the meaning, which was introduced by means of pictures, and on pronunciation. Moreover, production was included as well.

The activity answering the questions was a follow-up of the previous activity since the teacher returned to the pages on the interactive board and asked students with pointing at the picture: “What is the man doing?” The students individually answered her question using the name of the sport and the required grammar structure. The student’s answer was: “He is playing squash.“ As a student pronounced weight-training incorrectly, “weight“ as [wait], the others were to correct him. Nobody managed to present the right pronunciation, all of the students had problems with it, so that the teacher demonstrated it to them. First, they repeated individually, next, the whole class.

The third activity for practising the topic sports, particularly the right meaning and pronunciation of the names of sports, was a mime game. The teacher prepared a set of colourful stickers on a sheet of paper with the names of sports. The teacher called out a student, he chose a sport and demonstrated it to others. The first one who guessed the

sport and answered the teacher's question was to demonstrate next sport.

The teacher asked: "What sport is he doing? What is he playing?" The student answered: "He is doing karate." Or "He is playing football." In this activity student's bodily-kinesthetic intelligence from multiple intelligences was as well involved. The meaning was introduced through demonstration. First, students were shy and did not demonstrate overtly, even one girl changed the sport since she was not able to "act". However, after a student in the role of a sportsman had demonstrated climbing with enthusiasm, the atmosphere relaxed and the students following him acted with no abashment. As regards pronunciation, the words "karate" and "climbing" from the sentences "She is doing karate" and "He is climbing" were pronounced incorrectly, as [karati:] and [klaimbin], so the teacher gave a chance the other students to pronounce it well and have a turn.

The fourth activity concerned matching and word grouping. It was an individual work which preceded short checking in pairs and whole class check-up on the blackboard. The students received a piece of paper with the activity which consisted of the box with the names of the sports, fifteen pictures with numbers and blank lines with numbers. (see Appendix 3) Their task was to write the names of the sports on the lines next to the pictures. The above mentioned check-up followed. Consequently, the students put the words in the three columns according to three categories. The first one included the sports they did on their own, the second category covered the sports they could play or do against one other person and the third category consisted of the sports they played in a team. Two girls asked about "polo" as they knew water polo and did not remember the British "polo" played on horses. A boy explained how the sport is played to them. When students were ready, they checked altogether by pronouncing the whole words. A girl had problem with pronunciation of gymnastics. This part of the activity was focused on the classifying. The sufficient spelling check up was the teacher's pointing at the names of the sports on the blackboard.

The fifth activity differed from the preceding activities since it was an authentic listening. Though the activity was based on the textbook, the students nearly did not work with it. The teacher wrote the names of the sports and questions on the blackboard. First, the teacher revised the names of some sports by asking the students to

read the name of a sport on the blackboard and mime it to the others. This way she avoided using translation. Moreover, such pre-activity was quick because the students were not shy to mime any more. Second, the teacher asked three students if they had ever gone to the sports centre and what sports they had done there. She introduced listening: “ Jack wants to join the sports centre. He is talking to the receptionist. Listen and find the information.” (the teacher) The students wrote down these questions from the blackboard to their exercise-book: “1 What is Jack’s full name? 2 How old is he? 3 Where does he live? 4 What sports does he want to play?” After the first listening to the dialogue between Jack and the receptionist, students checked their information in pairs. Check up with the whole class followed the second listening. Students spelled their answers to the ones who did not manage to answer the questions. The whole answer to the question on sports had nine students.

The sixth activity resulted from the listening. The procedure was following: firstly, the teacher elicited the questions the receptionist asked Jack in listening from the students. Next, the teacher gave the students instructions and the students worked in pairs. Then, they prepared the dialogues in which they role-played the receptionist from the sports centre and an applicant for sports activities at the sports centre. After eight minutes each pair role-played the dialogue. They practised numbers, sports, pronunciation and spelling. In case the receptionist did not understand, the applicant spelled his name. As regards sports, the girls most often chose three sports, however, boys named in average six out of ten sports. The problems with pronunciation of the names of sports did not occur.

The last activity was aimed at practising both the sports and present continuous. The students worked individually on the task. The activity was focused on the right spelling since the students wrote verb forms including sports in the gaps. Next to each sentence, the help in the form of the word go or play and pictures was provided. (see Appendix 4) The students worked seven minutes, afterwards they checked the sentences as the whole class, wrote the sentences on the blackboard as well to check the spelling.

Furthermore, next set of vocabulary, clothes, students practised in the following activities:

- ✓ A Hangman on the interactive board
- ✓ Appearance and clothes
- ✓ Game A Word king
- ✓ Snakes and Ladders
- ✓ Listening
- ✓ Guessing game
- ✓ Writing

First, the teacher integrated the use of the interactive board, the interactive material aid. The students practised individual items of clothes in the game A Hangman. Indeed, the teacher practises items of each topic-based vocabulary on the interactive board. According to her, she prepares mainly a Hangman and matching activities on the interactive board since “it is a quick warm-up for the further work and as well she finds it not time demanding to prepare the mentioned activities.” (the information is taken from the session after lesson) In the Hangman, the teacher provided each picture with dashes, which was helpful for students. They knew how many letters the word had. For instance, the picture of cap with _ _ _ three dashes below. (see Appendix 5) The whole class, students randomly chosen, guessed the letters. The teacher drew a part of the hangman for each wrong letter. They had to recollect the meaning through picture and spell the right sound to form the whole word. In case a student knew the whole word, he raised his hand and could spell the individual letters and pronounce the word as a whole.

Second, the next page of the interactive board included the basis of the next activity. The page included pictures of people and two questions: What do they look like? What are they wearing? The first part of the activity focused on the brief people description to revise items concerning appearance like, for instance, tall, short, slim, fat, etcetera. However, the essential part of practice was devoted to the clothes. The teacher pointing at the picture asked: “What is the man wearing?” The student answered: “He’s wearing a blue T-shirt and black shorts.” A girl could not recall the right word for

sandals, that is why the other student helped her. The practice covered both items of vocabulary and grammar. However, the students did not have any difficulty using present continuous since they have known the tense for a year.

Third, the teacher played A Word King with students. The teacher showed a flashcard with an item of clothes and required the English word. In the next lesson she did not use the pictures, but instead, she said a Czech word and the student translated it to English. She could not use any other variety, anything like explaining the word, for instance, because the students were beginners, did not have rich vocabulary and knew simple structures. Standing students one after the other said the English word, in the first lesson for the picture, in the second one, for the Czech word. The students, who did not know the word or pronounced the word incorrectly, sat down. The student standing as the last one won and became A Word king. In the first variety, with flashcards, the game was played once and had four turns. As concerns the meaning, students could not recall the word boots, scarf and trousers. They used shoes and jeans instead. Two students were not able to recall the word scarf. A girl had problems with pronunciation of a cap [k^p] and another girl with blouse [blu:s]. The teacher explained them change in the meaning. The other variety of A Word king, with Czech words, was played in six turns. The students did not have any problems with pronunciation, however, if any trouble occurred, it was recalling the English word. However, this game is a quick practice in which meaning and pronunciation are the most important components.

Fourth, the activity Snakes and Ladders differed from the previous activities since it was a board game, its organizational form was pairwork and the dictionary could be used. Moreover, the students had never done this type of activity before, so the teacher had to explain it in detail. However, the students were enthusiastic about playing it. They threw the dice, counted in English and said the English word for the picture of the item of clothes they stood on. In each pair, the competitor checked the one playing if he counted well and said the right word. The teacher went through the class and functioned as a controller. In case both of the pair could not recall the meaning of the word, they could look it up in the dictionary. Then, they made a note in their exercise-book. The winner was the first of the pair who reached the square with the label “finish“. The activity was time limited since some of the pairs worked quickly. That as

why two pairs managed to play the game twice, one pair nearly twice and the last three pairs played once. The last but not least thing the pairs had to do was presenting the words they looked up in the dictionary. In front of the class they shared with others the way that they drew a picture of the clothes and asked them what it was. Four pairs presented as a whole seven words. This was a fine practice and sharing with the others.

Fifth, listening activity followed. At the pre-listening stage, the teacher asked about the people who they are, what their names are, where they are from. In a previous lesson, they did a kind of listening for revision the basic information about people. Then the teacher asked: “Who is wearing shorts? Who is wearing black trainers?” (see Appendix 7) After, she gave them instructions, the students listened twice to the descriptions of people and their task was to write down the names of the people whose description they heard. Last, the whole class checked up the answers.

Sixth, the guessing game as a speaking activity followed the listening. Each student prepared a short description of a person from the picture and the other students solved who the person was. The first person to have the right guess could present his description. To practice both vocabulary concerning clothes and appearance, the students provided those information. However, in two cases, the teacher asked the student to give more information since a pullover had two boys with short hair.

Seventh, the above mentioned writing activity resulted from speaking. The students worked individually on writing task where they described other person than they were talking about in the guessing game. (see Appendix 8) After five minutes work, they passed it to the class mate who corrected it. The teacher then checked all the descriptions.

Next, the set of activities covered vocabulary from a part of the unit in the textbook: (vocabulary was not topic-based)

- ✓ A Word king
- ✓ Labelling on the interactive board
- ✓ A Hangman
- ✓ Crossword
- ✓ A Snake

Firstly, A Word king was played. The teacher decided for Czech and English equivalents since such abstract words as, for instance, “age, own and together“ is not possible to draw or to represent concretely and unambiguously. The game was modified in the way that a girl, who was at the second place in the regional conversational English competition, who has the best results in the class in English and, moreover, won the Word king last time, took a role of the teacher. However, the teacher intervened when necessary. The last standing student became a Word king.

Secondly, the teacher supported work on the interactive board. The board included pictures with dashes below for labelling. The students practised plural forms of the nouns as, for instance, apple, orange, chair, umbrella, watch, mouse, foot, tooth. The first picture included ONE APPLE and AN _ _ _ _ _ below. Next picture represented TWO APPLES and _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ below. (see Appendix 9) With the first set of pictures, the student had to say: one apple, two apples and come to write the words down on the interactive board. Though plural of nouns is a grammar category, in the case of vocabulary, plural is considered to be the grammar of the word. In addition, word “people“ differs from a “person“ the way that it is entirely new word with different stem.

Thirdly, a Hangman was played on the interactive board. The procedure of the game was analysed above, and that is why the game will be described in short. The students practised vocabulary from one part of the unit. The students were provided with two or three letters of the word, for “communication“ C _ _ _ _ _ C _ _ _ _ N, for “speaker“ S _ _ _ K _ _ . Their task was to spell individual sounds of the word. Each student tried one letter, in the next turn he could say the other letter. The teacher drew a part of the hangman for each wrong letter. If a student knew the whole word, he could pronounce the whole word and spell the individual letters.

Fourthly, crossword was used for vocabulary practice. Since half the vocabulary was abstract, for instance, “communication, really, birthday“, they could not be presented as pictures. That is why the teacher had decided to construct the crossword with Czech words, in a simple way one word on one line with squares corresponding to the number of letters the word consists of. The student’s task aimed at filling in the blank squares with English words. After the individual work, the whole class check up

followed. The teacher asked how many students had the solution and what it was. The students wrote the words in the grids on the blackboard.

Fifthly, a game Snake was introduced by the teacher. First, the teacher showed cards with words to the students. The pronunciation and meaning of words was practised. Next, each student chose a card and held it the side with English word to his classmates. Then, the teacher appointed a student who began. The student said his word, added the word of the other student and this way they continued to the last word to make a snake. The game helped to practice words and as well train memory. In half the game a boy could not recall the preceding vocabulary, that is why the teacher asked a girl to help him. Most boys had problems remembering words. All girls did not doubt and were successful.

Lastly, the teacher practiced all vocabulary in the activity called Noughts and Crosses. Students were familiar with the game. However, the teacher had to explain that the students would play in two teams, each called out student fighting for a nought or a cross. The three times three grid with topics, such as man's clothes, numbers, appearance, sports, etcetera, was drawn on the blackboard. The other grid, three times three blank grid, was drawn next to the first one. A student from one team selected a topic and translated the Czech word said by the teacher. If the word was correct, the team got a nought and the other student continued. In case the player answered incorrectly, the other student from the rival team chose the other topic. The goal of each team was to make a line of three noughts or crosses to win. In this game the winning team got two points, thus crosses scored two to zero.

5.5 Analysis of the questionnaires

The students were given questionnaires which served as a tool providing me with their opinions on vocabulary and material aids. The questionnaire consisted of a set of, predominantly, closed questions. According to Nunan, questionnaires can include both closed and open questions. Each has its advantages. Closed questions are easier to analyse since the researcher stipulates the range of possible answers. (Nunan 1992:143) However, in two question I added "others" to the offered range so that the students

could express their options. (see question three and four in Appendix 10)

As regards the procedure of using the questionnaires, before students' completing them, I told them the purpose of the data collection tool, explained the students that the questionnaire reflects their opinions on the practice of vocabulary in the lessons, on what their attitude towards vocabulary practice is. Additionally, the students' use of dictionaries in the lessons was investigated.

Beside, the questionnaire was conducted in Czech, firstly, to avoid problems with understanding since the students were beginners, secondly, to collect precisely expressed opinions and attitudes. I went through all the questions with the students at the beginning and explained what I meant with the questions. I asked them to read each question carefully and answer them conscientiously.

I intended to discover students' ideas about their vocabulary practice in the lessons, what activities they find useful for remembering vocabulary, how often they use dictionaries and which types.

Though the questionnaire is in Czech (see Appendix 10), the analysis of the gathered data is going to be done in English, indeed. The questions from questionnaires are written in italics. Moreover, I am going to analyse the collected information quantitatively by using the arithmetic average and percentage share. According to Chráska, "when using the arithmetic average, we estimate the ensemble average of which the value is not generally known." (Chráska 2006:49, my translation) However, the ensemble average can be estimated by means of arithmetical average \bar{x} , median \tilde{x} or modus \hat{x} . (Chráska 2006:49) The arithmetic average is the typical value in the set of values.

The formula for calculation of the arithmetic average is:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \quad (\text{Chráska 2006:49})$$

For expressing the results, the graphs and tables are going to be used.

5.5.1 Analysis of the filled-in questionnaires

1. *What area of the English language do you prefer?
(use the numbers 1-4, 1=the most preferred)*

<i>reading</i>	<i>grammar</i>
<i>writing</i>	<i>vocabulary</i>
<i>listening</i>	<i>pronunciation</i>
<i>speaking</i>	<i>spelling</i>

The aim of the first question was to find out what areas of English students prefer and through this reveal the position of vocabulary. From the results, it is evident that vocabulary stands at the second rank of preference. Three students placed the vocabulary on the first rank of preference. The figures are calculated by means of the arithmetical average.

These are the results:

reading	4,42
writing	5,42
listening	4,08
speaking	3,33
grammar	4,5
vocabulary	3,75
pronunciation	5,33
spelling	5,16

2. *What is the most important for you when learning vocabulary?
(use the numbers 1-4, 1=the most important)*

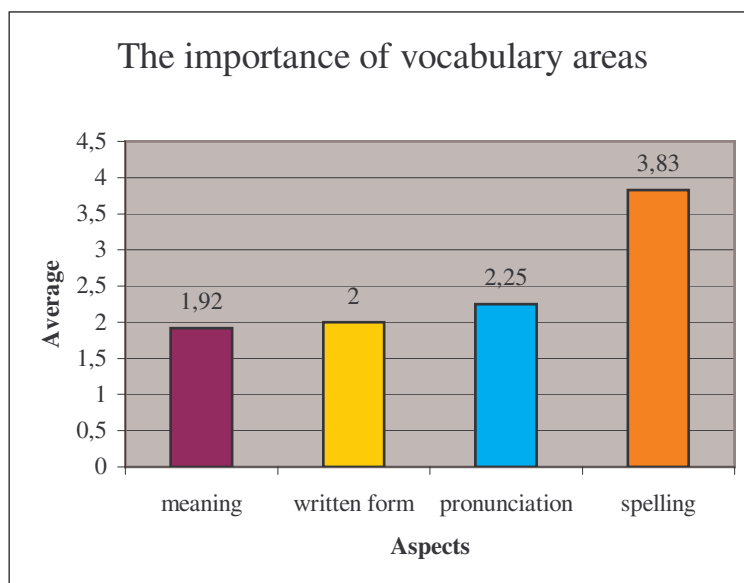
<i>meaning</i>	<i>pronunciation</i>
<i>written form</i>	<i>spelling</i>

The aim of this question was to get to know about how important the students find the aspects of vocabulary. From the figures in the graph 1, it can be seen that students consider meaning as the most important when learning vocabulary. On the other hand, they find spelling the least important. Moreover, written form closely follows meaning. The pronunciation stands on the third rank.

3. What are the most suitable activities for vocabulary practice according to you?
(use numbers, 1-best)

reading texts, work with articles in the textbook
listening (e.g. textbook, songs)
speaking (e.g. dialogues, opinions)
games
activities on the interactive board
looking up words in the dictionary
others:.....

Graph 1



This question focuses on the student's opinions on the best way of the vocabulary practice. As well use of material aids is of the main concern. They could choose from options provided and, moreover, join their own idea and rank it either to number six or to number seven, which is the information I provided them with in advance.

In addition, two students wrote the other option. One of them comics and placed it on the first rank, the other student presented a Word king with the rank number three. However, it must be admitted that A Word king is a type of game. As I asked the student to get the additional information, the girl told me that she did not consider A Word king as a game, but as a kind of oral examining in which the most successful person gets grade one. In this case, it depends on the teacher's presenting the activity and, likewise, on the student's perception.

However, most students find practice on the interactive board as the best way of vocabulary practice, with the arithmetical average for this rank as the lowest, exactly 2,16 (see Graph 2). To add, the solution applies to the material teaching aids involvement as well. The dictionaries rank on the last place with the arithmetical average 5,25. In the additional interviewing the students, seven out of twelve stated that they used dictionaries not for practice, but for looking-up the unknown words. Two students pointed out that they did not use the dictionaries since it was time consuming, the other three minded that with the dictionary they could not hear the sound form of the word. One student mentioned that the dictionary he used in the lesson lacked pictures. The purpose of my research is not to analyse types of learners, however, this topic cannot be neglected. Use of pictures and sound form of the word is closely connected with types of learners and their audio-visual style. When the teacher knows the learner's styles and needs, even choice of dictionaries for classroom use is not underestimated then. Nevertheless, the frequency of dictionary use is going to be analysed below, in the question seven.

Lastly, the other figures should be presented. Games rank at the second place with the arithmetical average 2,25, reading is nearly in balance with speaking and listening is in the average on the fifth place with the arithmetical average 4,58.

(see Graph 2)

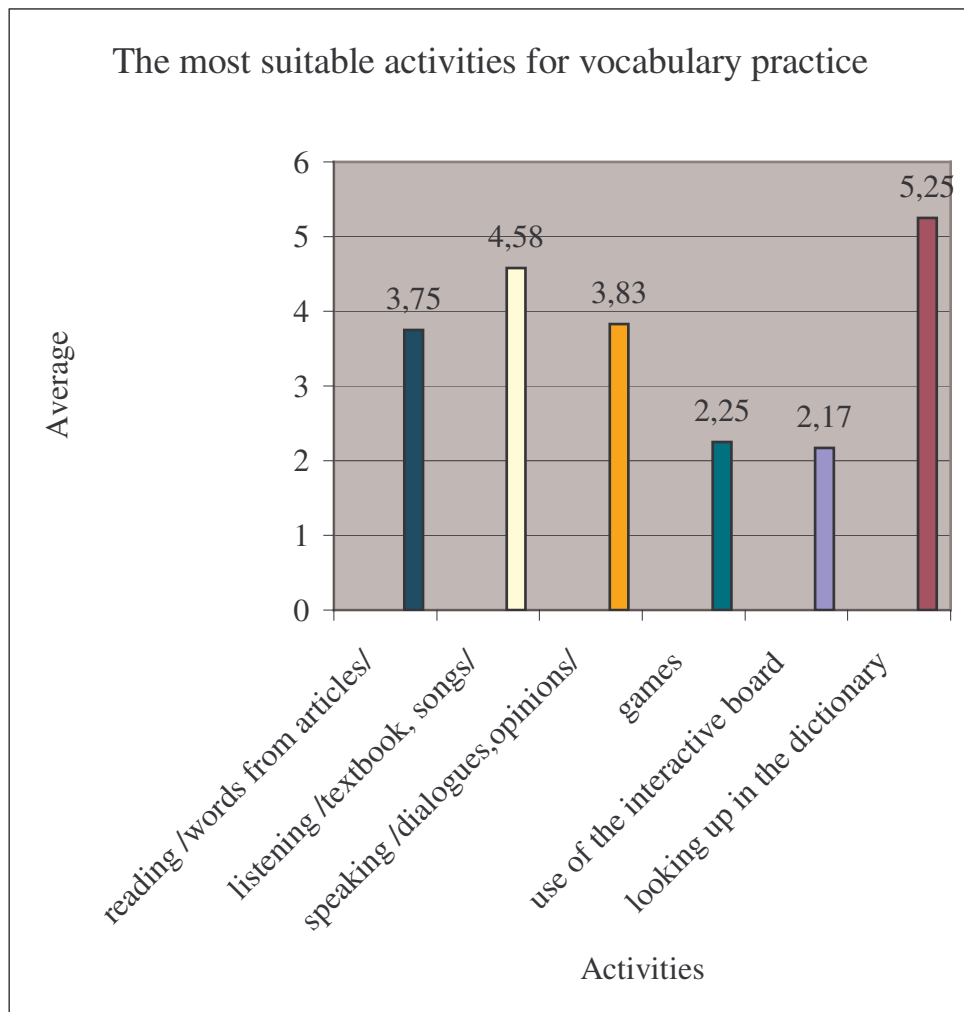
4. *What helps you most in the lessons for remembering vocabulary?
(use numbers, 1-most)*

practice on the interactive board
looking up words in the dictionary
games
listening (e.g. textbook, songs)
speaking (e.g. dialogues, opinions)
reading
others:.....

The purpose of the fourth question was to detect to which extent the students find the activities helpful for remembering vocabulary. From the figures in the graph 3, it is evident that practice on the interactive board is the most helpful for them. Four

respondents out of twelve put it on the first rank. Moreover, games with the arithmetical average 2,3 closely follow the interactive board. In this case as well four of twelve students rank the activity on the first position. Students state that speaking activities help them remembering vocabulary as well. Speaking overall rank is the third, with the

Graph 2



arithmetical average 3,58 and three times first position from all respondents. However, the balanced result of the reading and listening activity is recorder. This figure shows that vocabulary practised in reading and listening helps the students in the same way. As regards looking up words in dictionaries, the arithmetical average 5 shows that students do not find dictionaries to be helpful for remembering vocabulary.

5. Choose one answer you agree with:
(mark it with the arrow →)

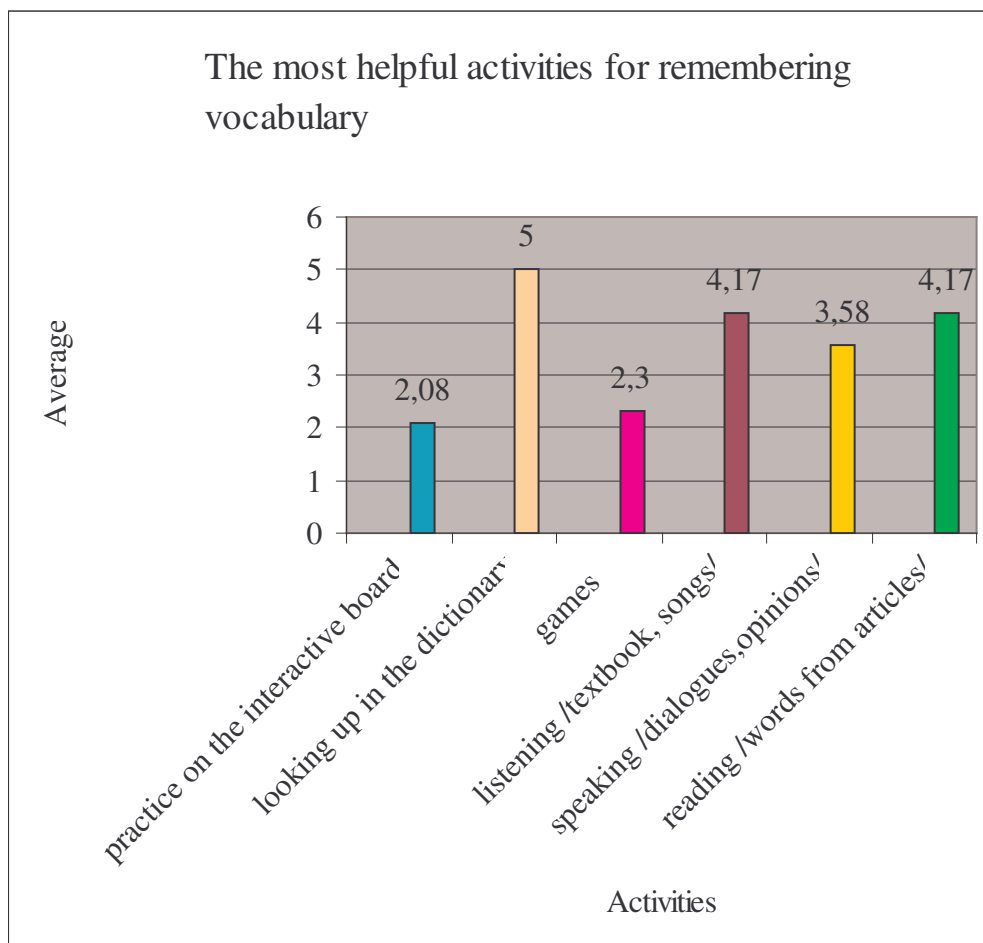
I like practising vocabulary

I do not mind practising vocabulary, but I do not like it much

I do not like practising vocabulary

For the analysis of this question I have decided to use the pie chart since the results can be best seen this way. Three answers are displayed as the proportional division. As regards the popularity of practising vocabulary, rather interesting answers occur. The majority of learners do not mind practising vocabulary, only four learners like it, however, one learner does not like it. (see Graph 4)

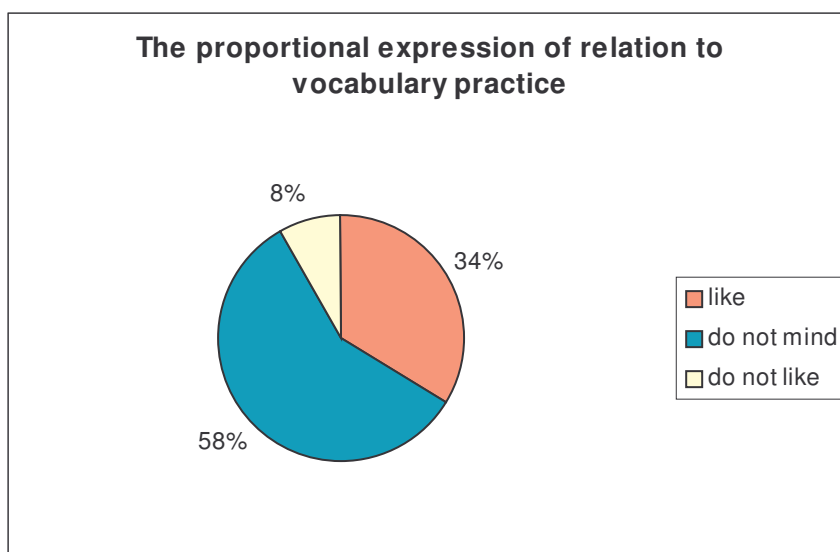
Graph 3



6. What dictionary do you use in the lessons of English?
(mark it with the arrow →)

my own pocket dictionary (English-Czech, Czech-English)
dictionary in my cellphone (English-Czech, Czech-English)
bilingual dictionary (English-Czech, Czech-English)
explanatory dictionary
picture dictionary
I do not use any dictionary

Graph 4



This question concerns the dictionaries students use themselves not depending on whether the teacher brings the school bilingual or thematic dictionaries in the class. For the analysis of this question I have used the pie chart for expressing non/use of dictionaries and the table of frequency distribution since some students chose more options. Therefore, this table brings more clear results.

From the pie chart (see Graph 5), it is evident that eight students, which is 67% of respondents, use the dictionaries in the lessons. As concerns the figures from the table of frequency distribution, one student has chosen two types: explanatory and cellphone dictionary, the other student has marked the bilingual and cellphone dictionary. However, the majority of students use dictionary on the cellphone, only one uses explanatory dictionary, moreover, three students use bilingual dictionaries and two out of eight own pocket dictionary.

However, I asked them what they liked on the work with the interactive board and why. Not surprisingly, all answers were positive. The answers varied a lot. Six students out of twelve stated that a lot of things could be practised by an amusing form. One of the students mentioned that the interactive board brought a lot of new possibilities, above all, touching the language and pictures. The other student wrote down that he liked the possibility of writing on the board. Two students pointed out that writing on the interactive board is better than on the blackboard. The other student claimed that they did interesting things on the interactive board, moreover, she found it amusing. The last but not least contribution was: “the interactive board is good for practising, but the teacher has to be able to work with it perfectly and to use it well, otherwise the lesson is boring and half the lesson we spend correcting her.”(see Appendix 11) Fortunately, this is not the case of the teacher of English. To conclude, all the students appreciated the possibility to work on the interactive board and most of them found it amusing, which is often important when learning.

5.6 Analysis of the tests

Initially, what the test is, what type is used and for what purpose should be mentioned. Vocabulary test is a kind of data collection in which the teacher measures the student’s knowledge of certain group of words. In my research I am going to analyse how the students succeeded in the written test, which focuses on the accuracy, spelling and meaning. Moreover, the teacher used the progress test since she wanted to assess how the students learnt the vocabulary through vocabulary practice. As the authors claim: “progress tests are given at various stages throughout a language course to see what the students have learnt.” (Alderson, Clapham, Wall 1995:12)

Further, the students should be used to the type of the test, the instructions should be simple and easy to understand so that only student’s knowledge was measured. Authors claim: “all test items ask learners to cope with tasks and with data, but in this case it is in order to produce behaviour or language which will give evidence of ability.” (Alderson, Clapham, Wall 1995:40) The authors as well claim that the task has to be familiar to all students so that “all candidates are measured according to their

ability, and not according to their knowledge of what is expected by the test task. In addition, all the test items have to be unambiguous so that the test fulfills the requirement of validity. (Alderson, Clapham, Wall 1995:42)

As regards marking, objective and subjective marking can be used to mark the tests. While subjective marking is used for marking writing or speaking, objective marking is applied to tests where the responses are either “correct“ or “incorrect“. (Alderson, Clapham, Wall 1995:106) In vocabulary tests objective marking is used and, further, the examiner or the teacher assesses the test the way that he “compares the candidate’s or, in this case the student’s, responses to the responses that the item writer has determined as correct.“ (Alderson, Clapham, Wall 1995:106)

Lastly, kind of respondents, test method, criteria used for assessment should be briefly analysed. Logically, respondents were in my case twelve seventh graders whose objective was to learn vocabulary through activities in the lesson. That is to add that they are used to the types of tests applied. The teacher examines their knowledge of vocabulary by written tests where vocabulary is out of context since the students are beginners. She chooses the items which cause no ambiguity. Her most often test method is translation, however, in the sports test she applied as well labelling pictures and grouping words according to a certain criteria. She chose the following criteria for tests assessment: accuracy and spelling. The tests are going to be analysed according to the grades based on points the students received.

Students wrote overall three vocabulary tests. All of them were based on the previous vocabulary practice.

5.6.1 The first test

The first test was constructed to test knowledge of names of sports. (see Appendix 12) This test was the most extensive since topic sport covered the largest number of items, furthermore, the test was divided into three parts. The first part included eight items which students translated into English. The second part consisted of twelve colourful pictures which students labelled with the English word. In the third part they sorted the words from the second part into groups according to given features,

that is why the teacher did not assess the accuracy and spelling, but the right meaning. As concerns the time conditions, the teacher did not time limit to avoid raising stress in students.

In the table below, the results of the test are recorded. The table on the right shows points and marks which students could achieve.

Points	Number of students
31	1
30	2
29	3
28	2
27	1
25	1
23	2

Mark	Points
1	32-30
2	29-26
3	25-22
4	21-18
5	17-0

As regards figures in the tables, three students had grade one, six out of twelve grade two, three students grade three. No one had grade four or five. The arithmetical average of grades is 2.

5.6.2 The second test

The second test tested knowledge of names of clothes. (see Appendix 14) The teacher decided to use translation method since it is most often used with her seventh graders. As regards the time conditions, the teacher set limit of ten minutes for the test, however, she provided three slower students with more time since knowledge, not quickness was tested. And as well, students are individualities whose temperament and fastness of fulfilling the task differs.

Points	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2-0
Mark	1	1-	2	2-	3	3-	4	4-	5
Number of students	4	2	2	1	3	0	0	0	0

The figures show that four students had grade one, number of students who reached one minus and two was balanced, two minus had one student and grade three three students. The arithmetical average of grades is 1,875.

5.6.3 The third test

The third test was constructed to test knowledge of non-topic based vocabulary. The test contained selected vocabulary from the part of unit. (see Appendix 13)

Points	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2-0
Mark	1	1-	2	2-	3	3-	4	4-	5
Number of students	2	4	4	1	1	0	0	0	0

From the figures in the table it is evident that two students out of twelve reached the grade one, grade one minus and two were balanced, four students had each, one student had two minus and the other one grade three. The arithmetical average of grades is 1,79.

According to the obtained data, it has to be concluded that the arithmetical average of students' tests was 2; 1,89 and 1,79 with the best results from the third test. Neither of students got grade four or five, which is a good result.

5.7 The outcomes and conclusions

To conclude, it is obvious from the research that activities for vocabulary practice are helpful to students. The students' attitudes and opinions pleased me. I believe that other teachers will find results of my research inspiring and, consequently, they will apply a variety of activities for vocabulary practice in their lessons to make learning easier for students. The area of vocabulary should not be neglected as it is the basic unit of the language. Each activity included in the research can be adopted to learner's age, level, needs, differences and, further, to syllabus and classroom conditions.

Furthemore, the hypothesis that students' most preferred area of English is vocabulary was not confirmed, however, the vocabulary ranked on the second place. The other hypotheses: according to students, games are the most helpful type of activity for remembering vocabulary, and most students use own pocket dictionaries in lesson of English were falsified as well. In the former, games were overcome by practice on the

interactive board, in the latter cellphone dictionaries gained the first place for number of respondents using them. The hypothesis that the arithmetical average of the three vocabulary tests ranges from 1,5 to 2,5 was confirmed. In Karl Popper words:

“the scientist should not endeavour to prove the hypotheses, but only to falsify them, which means to search for facts that give evidence on their invalidity. If the hypotheses are not falsified, we can adopt them, however not to consider them as proved once for all.“ (Karl Popper in Chráska 2005:5, my translation)

However, because of the low sample of students, the research cannot be generalized. Though the results are valid only for the class where I carried out the research, they are of great value for me as a teacher. In my opinion, even in my pedagogical work I can benefit from the students' responses as concerns the choice of activities and applying material teaching aids. However, the research was as well beneficial to students since they realized how important the vocabulary was for them and that vocabulary practice had various forms which were both helpful and pleasant.

Conclusion

This thesis deals with vocabulary as the most important unit of the language. Since this subskill has been neglected for many years and even nowadays not much focus is on the lexical items, I have decided to explore this topic. First, I devoted to the theory, and next, I carried out a research in the class of seventh graders. The obtained data gathered through observations, questionnaires, tests and additional interviews were analysed in the practical part.

Initially, the aim of the thesis was established, which was finding potential in activities for vocabulary practice and to explore whether learning vocabulary through activities is supported by the material teaching aids. Next, analysing theoretical viewpoints followed, and after, the theoretical background served as the basis for the practical part.

The first part of the thesis, based on theory, was divided into four main parts. In the first part, it was necessary to devote to the learner as the essential element of the learning process. The key factors determining his individuality in learning were analysed. The second part explored the words. From their characteristics, through their division, the reader got to the mental lexicon, as a system in the mind where the vocabulary is stored, and to the learnability, the term which is used for ease or difficulty of learning vocabulary. The third part focused on the material teaching aids, specifically implementation of dictionaries and interactive board as two uncommon ones. The fourth part investigated activities for vocabulary practice in the classroom. Their features and kinds were described. The theoretical part became the source of important viewpoints and the background for practical part of the thesis. Therefore, I have to remark that both parts were closely interrelated.

The second part of the thesis concentrated on the research. I tried to investigate the potential of activities for vocabulary practice and verify how the activities help learners to learn the vocabulary. Through observations, I mapped and analysed the activities, through questionnaires I learned learner's opinions on, above all, what area of language learning they prefer, so that I knew the position of vocabulary. The data gathered showed that after speaking the vocabulary was on the second place. Next, the important finding was that students considered meaning as the most important in the area of vocabulary. Further, according to the students, practice on the interactive board helped them most. The student's attitude towards practising vocabulary was discovered. Most of them do not mind practising it. When taking into account use of dictionaries students use dictionaries occasionally, namely, mostly bilingual dictionaries in their cellphones. The interactive board was accepted well, students see it as a new possibility, as something which helps them learn in entertaining way. Even in activities suitable for vocabulary practice the activities on the touch board were most preferred. As concerns tests, the hypothesis that their arithmetical average would be 1,5-2,5 confirmed.

To conclude, during work with students the teacher should use a variety of activities, so that she could find out which of them are the most adequate and helpful for her group of learners and as well employ material teaching aids since they enable diverse work and a lot of possibilities.

Resumé

Diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou slovní zásoby, a to především jejím procvičením v hodinách anglického jazyka. Cílem této práce je najít potenciál v aktivitách na procvičení slovní zásoby a ověřit, do jaké míry již zmíněné aktivity pomáhají žákům k učení se slovní zásoby. Dále tato práce mapuje, jak jsou ve výuce zapojeny materiální pomůcky, a to slovníky a interaktivní tabule.

Je třeba zdůraznit, že slovní zásoba zastává významnou roli v učení se anglickému jazyku. Oproti gramatice hraje důležitou roli v komunikaci, ve vyjadřování samotném. Svědčí o tom citát lingvisty, který tvrdí: „Bez gramatiky lze sdělit málo, avšak bez slovní zásoby nelze sdělit nic.“ (Thornbury 2002:13, vlastní překlad)

První, teoretická část práce je zaměřena na „učícího se“ jakožto na nepostradatelný subjekt v procesu učení, dále na slova a slovní zásobu. V dalších dvou kapitolách teoretické části bude zájem soustředěn na druhy aktivit sloužících k procvičení slovní zásoby a na materiální pomůcky.

Druhá, praktická část se soustředí na výzkum vykonaný na základní škole s rozšířenou jazykovou výukou, se žáky sedmé třídy, kteří mají anglický jazyk jako druhý po německém, tudíž se jazyk učí dva roky, a dle dosažené jazykové úrovně je lze řadit do začátečníků.

První kapitola se zabývá „učícím se“ a zdůrazňuje jeho individualitu. Ten, kdo je subjektem procesu učení, mluvíme-li o žákovi, studentovi, nebo osobě, je jedinečný. To znamená, že do výuky přináší vlastní zkušenost, názory, postoje, pocity. Každý žák má určité potřeby, kterým by měl učitel naslouchat, zhodnotit je, uzpůsobit jim obsah učiva, aby učivo bylo realistické, zajímavé a motivující. (Harmer 1991:280) Žák je jedinečný ve své inteligenci. Žák s vyvinutou jazykovou inteligencí bude zajisté vynikat v psaní příběhů, skládání básní či písní. Třebaže teoretici dříve věřili, že inteligence je vrozená a neměnná, tento názor byl vyvrácen ve 20. století H.Gardnerem, který tvrdí, že inteligence je vrozená schopnost reagovat na prostředí, avšak lze ji měnit a rozvíjet. Gardner představil teorii mnohačetných inteligencí, z nichž jednotlivých osm inteligencí má každý člověk rozvinutých jinak. Poněvadž lze na inteligence působit a rozvíjet je,

hrají významnou roli při učení. Dalším faktorem určujícím žákovu jedinečnost je paměť. Teoretici je člení na krátkodobou, pracovní a dlouhodobou. Krátkodobá paměť uchovává informaci krátkou dobu pro okamžité použití. Pokud není použita, je zpracována pracovní pamětí a uložena do dlouhodobé paměti. Informace musí být procvičována a opakována, aby se v dlouhodobé paměti uchovala. Důsledkem tohoto procesu dlouhodobá paměť má stálý obsah. Fungování paměti nejlépe vystihuje Hendrichův výrok: „Pro cizojazyčné vyučování je důležité, aby všechny operace s dlouhodobou pamětí– ukládání, upevňování, vyhledávání a vybavování- byly co nejdříve plně automatizovány.“(Hendrich 1988:60) Žák je jedinečný v tom, jaké používá strategie v procesu učení. Pokud dokáže zvolit vhodnou učební strategii, učení se stává účelnější. „Učební strategie jsou konkrétní postupy, kterými se žák snaží něčeho dosáhnout, uskutečnit plán určité úlohy.“ (Mareš 1998:59) Oproti tomu žákův učební styl je daný. Je to způsob, jakým řeší konkrétní problémy, či postup při učení. Učební styl vystihuje následující definice:

„způsob při učení, který se u každého učícího jedince liší kvalitou, strukturou, pružností i způsobem aplikace. Učební styl má složitou, pro učícího se jedince specifickou strukturu. Ta je určována zvláštnostmi žakových poznávacích procesů, charakterem jeho motivačních procesů, specifikou konkrétního sociálního prostředí a v neposlední řadě rovněž úrovní řízení učení (učitelem, technickými prostředky, kvalitou učebnic a jiného studijního materiálu)“.

(Kalhous, Obst 2002:209-212)

Dalším faktorem určujícím jedinečnost žáka a důležitým prvkem v procesu učení je motivace. Hendrich definuje motivaci: „Motivace je jednou z nejučinnějších forem psychické regulace. Je to hnací síla, agens učení.“ (Hendrich 1988:52) Teoretici rozlišují pojem „vnitřní“ a „vnější motivace“. Pokud je žák vnitřně motivován, učí se pro vlastní potěchu, pro radost z toho, co umí, nebo že ho zaujalo učivo či činnost. Naopak žák s vnější motivací se učí se záměrem získání odměny, ve formě známky, výletu s rodiči apod., nebo s cílem vyhnout se trestu.

Závěrem této kapitoly je nutno podotknout, že učitel by si měl uvědomit, že

každý žák je jedinečný, každý má jiné potřeby, cíle, motivaci, učební styl, strategii a mnohá další specifika, která podtrhují jeho osobnost. Proto je úlohou učitele, aby tuto jedinečnost v každém objevil a uzpůsobil tomu učební proces.

Tématem druhé kapitoly jsou slova a slovní zásoba. Nejprve jsou vydefinována slova a jejich charakteristiky, poté jejich užití, vztahy mezi nimi, jak a kde jsou uchovávány v lidské mysli, jak je snadné či obtížné se je naučit. První informace, s nimiž se žák setkává, jsou význam, tvar a výslovnost. Avšak Thornbury konstatuje, že základní informací o slově je jeho tvar a význam. K celkové znalosti slova patří výslovnost, gramatická funkce, ustálená slovní spojení a asociace mezi pojmy a realitou. (Thornbury 2002:15) Další nezbytnou informací je, jaká slova se má žák učit jako první. Odpověď nabízí atribut ta „nejdůležitější“. Podle McCarthy jsou nejdůležitější ta slova, která jsou nejčastěji používána a zároveň se vyskytují v různých textech. (McCarthy1990:69) Nejčastěji se používají „základní slova“, která jsou v anglické terminologii zvána „core words“. Ovšem při výběru slov je třeba přihlídnout i k pokrytí, „coverage“. Harmer definuje princip pokrytí: „slovo je užitečnější, pokud pokrývá více věcí, než když má jeden, velmi specifický význam.“ (Harmer 1991:154, vlastní překlad) Vysvětlením termínu je příklad slova „table“. Toto slovo je častěji používané a má větší pokrytí než např. slovo „tablecloth“, tudíž jej lze zařadit mezi lexikální jednotky, které se učí začátečníci. Charakteristika slov jako jednotlivých lexikálních jednotek již byla provedena, proto může být objasněno, jak lze slova seskupovat. Slovní zásoba není „náhodné seskupení jednotek“, nýbrž je uspořádána do seskupení na základě podobnosti. (Gairns, Redman 1986:69, vlastní překlad) Základem může být např. gramatická podobnost u příslovcí: *často, obvykle, občas, nikdy*; nebo vztah jednotek zastřešený tématem, např. *jablko, hruška, broskev* jsou ovoce; a jiné. Slovní zásoba může být rozdělena na „receptivní/pasivní“ a „produktivní/aktivní“. Do první skupiny patří slova, kterým rozumíme při poslechu nebo při čtení, ale nepoužíváme je. Avšak v druhé skupině jsou slova, která v komunikaci, tzn. v mluveném a psaném projevu používáme. Další téma je mentální lexikon, což je slovní zásoba, kterou jedinec „skladuje“ v mysli. Slova jsou uchovávána na základě vztahů. V neposlední řadě je důležité zmínit, že slovní zásoba obsahuje slova, která se učí snadno, a také slova, která způsobují obtíže. Mezi ně patří „zrádná slova“,

např. anglické *gymnasium* (tělocvična) , české *gymnasium* (grammar school); a také slova s obtížnou výslovností, *availability, creature*; nebo pravopisem, *questionnaire, tomorrow*.

Třetí teoretická část se zabývá materiálními pomůckami, které se používají v hodinách anglického jazyka, především v procvičení slovní zásoby. Bylo by zbytečné analyzovat užití video a dvd přehrávače, magnetofonu či tabule, koncentrace je směřována k užití slovníků a interaktivní tabule, protože tyto dvě materiální pomůcky ve značné míře pomáhají k učení a zejména procvičení anglické slovní zásoby.

Čtvrtá, poslední část teorie, představuje tři fáze učení a vyučování slovní zásoby: prezentaci, procvičení a produkci. Cílem práce není sledovat celý proces učení, avšak se soustředit na procvičení slovní zásoby, a to v různých aktivitách. V této části jsou mapována základní rozdělení a pohledy autorů. Při výběru aktivit by měl učitel předem rozhodnout, co zamýšlí s žáky procvičit a co se mají pomocí aktivity naučit. Učitel má spoustu možností, jak ucelit náplň hodiny. Mnohé aktivity se nabízí v učebnicích, na internetu, na interaktivní tabuli, nebo může jmenované aktivity modifikovat potřebám žáků a aktuální situaci. Do zvláštní skupiny patří hry. Hry jsou přínosné a mnoha aspektech. Zaprvé, jsou prostředkem a zdrojem slovní zásoby. Zadruhé, jsou motivačním prostředkem. Zatřetí, hry, jak Wallace zdůrazňuje, podporují vhodnou emociální atmosféru a vedou k touze komunikovat cíleným jazykem, pokud fungují dobře. (Wallace 1982:105)

Praktická část je založena na výzkumu, který byl proveden se dvanácti žáky sedmé třídy. Cílem výzkumu bylo zjistit potenciál aktivit sloužících k procvičení slovní zásoby a prověřit, do jaké míry si žáci pamatují a naučí se slovíčka na základě předchozího procvičení v aktivitách a hrách vydefinovaných v teoretické části. Dále byl zjištěn postoj žáků k užívání slovníků a interaktivní tabule. Všechna data byla vyhodnocena z deseti hodin observací, dotazníků, testů a dodatečných rozhovorů.

Závěrem lze podotknout, že výsledky výzkumu jsou validní pro třídu, v níž probíhal, nelze však popřít, že vyhodnocená data jsou cenná pro ostatní pedagogy. Tato diplomová práce bude jistě zdrojem inspirace k různým aktivitám, k práci se slovní zásobou a v neposlední řadě k využití slovníků a interaktivní tabule v procvičení slovní zásoby.

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ÚDAJE PRO KNIHOVNICKOU DATABÁZI

Název práce	Learning English Vocabulary
Autor práce	Hana Mlynářová
Obor	Učitelství anglického jazyka
Rok obhajoby	2008
Vedoucí práce	Mgr. Pavel Brebera
Anotace	Práce se zabývá aktivitami sloužícími k procvičení slovní zásoby. V teoretické části autor definuje žáka, slovní zásobu, materiální didaktické pomůcky, aktivity a hry. V praktické části autor zkoumá potenciál aktivit a užití slovníků a interaktivní tabule ve výuce.
Klíčová slova	slovní zásoba výuka procvičení aktivity interaktivní tabule slovník

APPENDIX 1



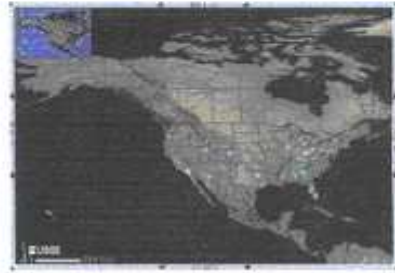
b _____



s _____



n _____ b _____







m _____

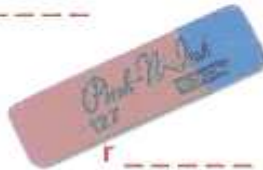




g _____



p _____



r _____



r _____



c _____

SPORTS AND GAMES

weight training

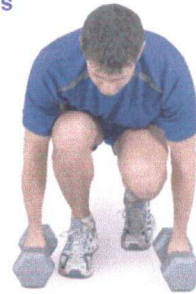
volleyball

squash

table tennis

basketball

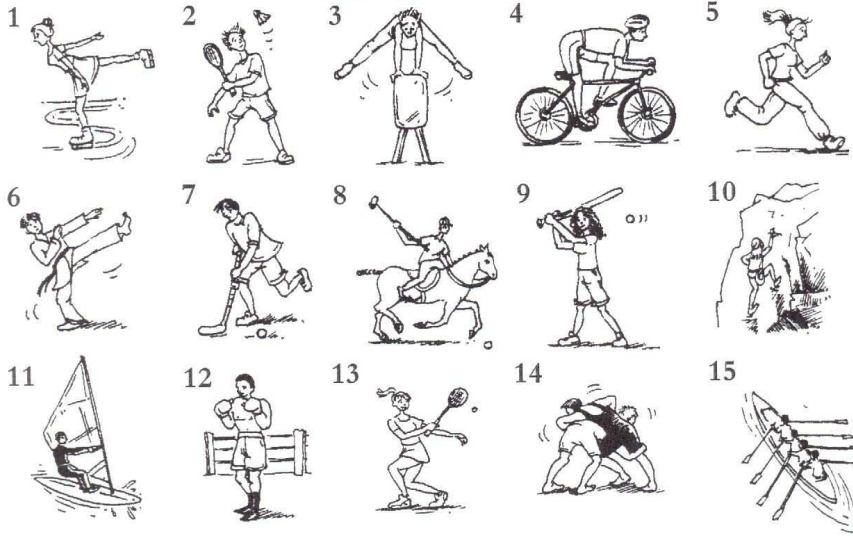
badminton



26 Sports

A Match the words in the box with the pictures.

badminton boxing climbing cycling gymnastics hockey ~~ice skating~~
 polo karate rowing running softball squash windsurfing wrestling



- | | | |
|----------------------|----------|----------|
| 1 <i>ice skating</i> | 6 | 11 |
| 2 | 7 | 12 |
| 3 | 8 | 13 |
| 4 | 9 | 14 |
| 5 | 10 | 15 |

B Put the words from A into the correct group.

sports you can do on your own

- climbing*
-
-
-
-
-

sports you can play or do against one other person

-
-
-
-

sports you play in a team

-
-

APPENDIX 4


SPORTS

Write what they are doing now.


e.g. Mike *is going snowboarding* now.

Eve *is playing badminton* at the moment.

1. Tom now. /play  /

2. Jane right now. /go  /

3. Kate at the moment. /play  /

4. Jim now. /play  /

5. My mum and dad now. /go  /

6. Her brothers now. /play  /

7. My cousin at the moment. /go  /

APPENDIX 6

a  1 Listen and repeat the names.

Ryan Fitzpatrick Bennett Sam Oxford Winters Dublin Ellis

b  2 Listen and complete the speech bubbles.



Speech bubbles:

- Hello. I'm Amy and I'm from Britain. I live in London.
- Hi. My name's Liam Ford. I'm from Britain, too. I live in
- Hi. I'm Mary and this is my neighbour, Peter O'Neill.
- We aren't from Britain. We're from Ireland. We live in
- She's Megan She's my sister.
- Hi. I'm Sophie I'm Amy's cousin, but I don't live in London. I live in Scotland. Where do you live?
- And he's Winters. We're from England and we live in Manchester.
- My name's Parker. I'm from England and I live in Bournemouth. What's your name? Where are you from?
- Hello. I'm Reginald.

3

APPENDIX 7

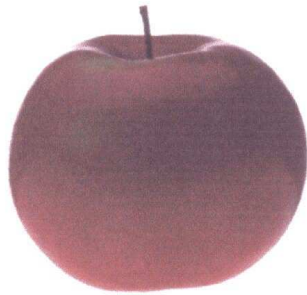
He's got short dark hair. He's wearing a black red and white sweat shirt. He's got blue eyes.

She's got brown hair. She's wearing a blue jacket and white T-shirt. She's got brown eyes.

Navy	1 She's got long dark hair. She's wearing a blue jacket and a white T-shirt.
Sam	2 He's got short fair hair. He's wearing a black jacket, a green shirt and a blue jeans.

APPENDIX 8

PLURALS



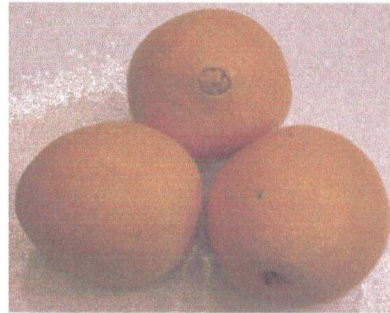
an a _ _ _ _



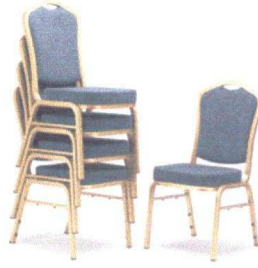
three _ _ _ _



_ _ _ _



_ _ _ _



APPENDIX 10

DOTAZNÍK O PROCVIČENÍ SLOVNÍ ZÁSObY

- Jsem chlapec dívka. (zakroužkuj správnou odpověď)
- Chodím do ...7... třídy.
- Je mi ...12... let.
- Angličtinu se učím ...2... let.

1) Které oblasti v hodinách angličtiny dáváš přednost?
(očísľuj, 1= nejvíce, 8= nejméně)

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| <u>7</u> čtení | <u>4</u> gramatika |
| <u>8</u> psaní | <u>2</u> slovíčka |
| <u>6</u> poslech | <u>3</u> výslovnost |
| <u>1</u> mluvení | <u>5</u> hláskování |

2) Co je pro tebe nejdůležitější při učení slovíček?
(očísľuj 1-4, 1= nejdůležitější)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <u>1</u> význam slov /co slovo znamená/ | <u>2</u> výslovnost /jak se slovo vyslovuje/ |
| <u>3</u> pravopis /jak se slovo píše/ | <u>4</u> hláskování /výslovnost jednotlivých hlásek/ |

3) Jak se podle tebe nejlépe procvičí slovíčka v hodinách angličtiny?
(očísľuj, 1=nejlépe)

- 5 čtení textů, práce se slovy ze článků v učebnici
- 3 poslechy (např. z učebnice, písničky)
- 4 mluvení (např. rozhovory ve dvojicích, názory)
- 2 hry
- 1 aktivity na interaktivní tabuli
- 6 vyhledávání slov ve slovníku
- jiný způsob- (napíš jaký) _____

4) Co ti nejvíce pomáhá v hodinách k zapamatování slovíček?
(očísľuj, 1= nejvíce)

- 2 procvičení na interaktivní tabuli
- 6 vyhledávání slov ve slovníku
- 1 hry
- 3 poslechy (např. z učebnice, písničky)
- 4 mluvení (např. rozhovory ve dvojicích, názory)
- 5 čtení
- jiné: _____

5) Vyber jednu odpověď, s kterou souhlasíš.
(označ ji šipkou →)

- baví mě procvičovat slovíčka
- ___ nevadí mi procvičovat slovíčka, ale moc mě to nebaví
- ___ slovíčka procvičuji nerad/a

6) Jaký slovník používáš v hodinách angličtiny ?
(označ šipkou →)

- vlastní kapesní (anglicko-český, česko-anglický)
- slovníček na mobilu (anglicko-český, česko-anglický)
- překladový (anglicko-český, česko-anglický)
- výkladový (anglicko-anglický)
- obrázkový
- nepoužívám slovník

7) Slovník v hodině angličtiny používám:
(označ šipkou →)

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> nikdy | <input type="checkbox"/> často |
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> občas | <input type="checkbox"/> stále |

😊 Děkuji za odpovědi. 😊

APPENDIX 11

Tabule je na procvičování dobrá,
ale paní učitelka s ní musí
umět perfektně pracovat a umět
jí používat jinak je to munda a
polovinu hodiny strávíme opravováním
k jí.

Tabule je super! Dobře se na ní procvičují
různé věci zábavnou formou.

Mě se to líbí, můžeme si to procvičit
a zároveň se při tom pobavit.
Těby se mi líbí, jak na nás tabule mů-
žeme psát.

interaktivní tabule
se mi celkem líbí. Děláme
velice zajímavé věci. příděmi
to ka'kavne'

APPENDIX 12

SPORTS

A Translate:

jízda na kole	gymnastika
veslování	běh
vzpírání	horolezectví
bruslení	zápas

B Write names of sports below the pictures:



1



2



3



4



5



6



7



8



9



10



11



12

C Put the words from B into the correct group:

sports you can do
on your own

.....
.....
.....

sports you can play or do
against one other person

.....
.....

sports you play in a team

.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX 13

2) časopis - magazine	✓
3) zápisník - notebook	✓
4) recepční - receptionist	✗
5) křesť. souprava -	✗
6) posilování - weight training	✗
7) boty - shoes, trainers	✓
8) světlý - fair	✓
9) tmavý - dark	✓
10) bratranec - cousin	✓
7/10	2-

newspaper
 magazine
 notebook
 receptionist
 ✗
 weight training
 trainers
 fair
 dark
 cousin
 9/10
 1-

APPENDIX 14

~~shirts~~
 sweatshirt ✓ shirt ✓
 trousers ✓ shoes ✗
 shorts ✓ 8/10
 T-shirt ✓
 skirt ✓ 2-
 shoes ✓
 trainers ✓
 cup ✗