TEACHING AND LEARNING VOCABULARY STRATEGIES IN AN ALGERIAN EFL CONTEXT:

The Case of 3rd Year Students of English at The Ecole Normale Supérieure of Constantine.

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language in Candidacy for the Degree of "Doctorat ES-science" in Linguistics and English Language Teaching.

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2017

In memory of Prof. S. Laraba, may his soul rest in peace.

To god we belong and to him we return

Dedication

To my dear parents: baba & mama, may God protect them and keep them the candle which alights my life

To the apple of my eyes: Ramy, Samy, Manar and Mouatez

To Wafik ... To my brother and sisters

To all my friends ...

I dedicate this work

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to express my deep gratitude to my teacher and supervisor Prof. Ryad Belouahem for high sense responsibility and guidance throughout the final steps of this thesis.

I wouldn't miss to thank Prof. Lamine. Kouloughli for the time and efforts he spent over reading and monitoring this work. His contribution and involvement in different parts of the study are undeniable.

I'd like also to express my sincere thanks to Prof. Farida. Abderrahim for her support and unconditioned help. She taught me the real meaning of professionalism and intellectual generosity; I'm really indebted to her.

My thanks are also presented to the board of examiners for the reading and evaluation of this thesis. Their remarks will certainly add more value and worth to the present work.

Special thanks to the participants in the population of the study and to their teachers for their cooperation throughout the different phases of the investigation.

Thanks to all my colleagues and friends at L'ENSC for their moral support and precious advice in difficult moments ... special dedication to Dr. K. Bougherara Prof. H. Hamada and Dr. L. Djouimaa.

Abstract

This study investigates the teaching and learning of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) in an Algerian EFL context; the case of third year students at l'ENSC (l'Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine). Three major questions about ENSC students' use of different vocabulary learning strategies, the impact of their proficiency level on such use as well as the effect of strategy training on learners with a lower proficiency level are raised at the onset of the study. On this basis, three main hypotheses are formulated. Firstly, ENSC students make use of different VLS but some strategies, such as dictionary use are more common among students than other strategies. Secondly, students' proficiency level may have an impact both on the quantity and quality of the strategies in use. Thirdly, strategy training may have a positive impact on students' use of the strategies under study. The study population consisted of twenty (20) third year students from the English department at l'ENSC. The participants were divided into two groups of ten students each, representing successful and less successful learners. In the second stage of the investigation, only ten students (less successful learners) took part. To test the stated hypotheses, the study employed two main tools of investigation: focus groups and a strategy training program, each of them was carried out through further sub tools. In the first phase; focus group discussions, direct observation of learners' behaviours while performing reading tasks, verbal reporting from the participants about the strategies they made use of in addition to two vocabulary tests were administered in each group separately. In the second phase, a pre- and a post-test were administered at the beginning and at the end of the training respectively. The results show that ENSC students' use of various VLS corresponds to Shmitt's (2000) classification. Two strategies, in particular; 'dictionary use' and 'contextual guessing', are most common among students in the population of the study, but at the same time carried out differently by higher and lower achievers. The results also show that successful learners use more strategies and more strategy types than less successful learners. In addition, results of the pre-and post tests show that the training program has had a positive impact on less successful learners' performance in relation to the strategies under study.

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List of Abbreviations

CD-ROM: Compact Disc- Read Only Memory

DVD: Digital Versatile Disk

ENSC: Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

GSL: General Service List

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

VLS: Vocabulary Learning Strategies

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Recent approaches to language teaching and learning emphasise the active involvement of learners in the learning process. Knowledge is no longer presented as an independent set of information which is passively transmitted from the teacher to the students, but mainly under the form of problem solving activities which call for learners' thinking and reflection about the task at hand. This 'learning by doing' philosophy believes that learning is less meaningful if learners are not able to apply the acquired knowledge in the wider social context. Through learning by doing, learners understand better when they discover knowledge by themselves and the new information sticks longer in their minds so that they are able to use it outside the walls of the classroom.

In such an attempt to discover knowledge, students use various strategies which help them cope with the different learning tasks. The use of these learning strategies is a good sign of active involvement, self-regulation and self-management which in turn make learning more successful. Chamot et al. (1999) explained that the active engagement of learners in problem solving activities make them more successful in performing different learning tasks.

Within the larger field of learning strategies, language learning strategies (LLS) become an interesting area of investigation for many researchers (Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 1998, Chamot et al, 1999). It is the use of such strategies which makes the process of second/foreign language learning different from L1 acquisition (Tackac, 2008). Language learning strategies are "specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students employ -often consciously- to improve their own progress in internalising, storing, retrieving, and using the L2" (Oxford, 1990, p. 175).

The central role of vocabulary in language learning makes the study of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS), within the larger field of Language Learning strategies (LLS), an

issue of paramount importance. Vocabulary is seen as a key element facilitating language use both orally and in writing. In other words, knowledge of vocabulary increases learners' command of the language and makes communication a possible task. Wallace (1982) emphasising the importance of vocabulary over other aspects of the language argued: "it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the vocabulary we need, it is usually possible to communicate" (p. 9). Hence, researchers are increasingly interested in examining learners' attempts to widen their vocabulary store. They not only seek to discover learners' various strategies but also to classify them according to some principles representing the main feature underlying such use.

Schmitt (1997, as cited in Schmitt, 2000) proposed a list of 31 different VLS divided into four main categories: Determination strategies, Social strategies, Memory strategies, Cognitive strategies, and Metacognitive strategies. Moreover, Schmitt (2000) divided these vocabulary learning strategies into two main categories: *identification* and *consolidation* strategies. The former category refers to those strategies necessary for the discovery of word meaning. Their role is to help learners get the meaning of new vocabulary. These include strategies like contextual guessing, dictionary use and study of word parts. Consolidation strategies, on the other hand, aim at strengthening new word meanings after they have been learnt. Their main role is to assist learners in storing the new vocabulary so that they are able to use it at a later time. Examples of consolidation strategies include using vocabulary notebooks, semantic mapping and the key word method.

The use of both LLS and VLS differs from one student to another according to many factors including age, gender, motivation for learning and level of proficiency (Nyikos & Fan, 2007). Further, the difference in learners' use of the various strategies is acknowledged as a major distinctive feature between successful and less successful students (Oxford, 1990;

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Chamot et al, 1999). Whereas the former show more involvement, self-confidence and self-independence in using various strategies; the latter seem to have fewer solutions for their learning difficulties. Schmitt (2000) emphasising the same point argued that learners' use of these strategies may be affected by many factors including learners' proficiency level which may entail that advanced learners will be more willing and, therefore, more successful than less advanced learners in using different strategies.

Furthermore, a major characteristic of these learning strategies is that they are 'teachable' and 'transmittable' (Chamot et al, 1999). In other words, learners' use of different VLS (including the above mentioned strategies) can be improved as a result of explicit instruction. Grenfell and Macaro (2007) argued that learners can develop more strategic behaviour as a consequence of explicit teaching. The latter should, according to Chamot et al (1999), focus not only on students' products or outcomes but also on their learning processes. Cohen (1998), for his part, argued that students' use of learning strategies can be improved through direct instruction or training. For him, learners who receive explicit strategy training generally learn better than those who do not.

Statement of the Problem

In the Algerian EFL context, the teaching and learning of English starts at the first year of middle school which represents the sixth year of official schooling. During the first five years, pupils are instructed in Arabic; their mother tongue, and French (starting from the third year). Being a foreign language in the Algerian society, English is mainly used for study purposes which are mostly related to the classroom context even at the university level. This means that the teaching and learning of English follows conscious and planned instruction which may imply that students develop varied strategies to improve their English vocabulary. The use of these strategies differs among students as a result of many factors, including their

level of proficiency. The latter can be both a cause and a consequence of efficient strategy use in vocabulary learning. Adequate use of VLS may lead the students to be successful in their learning process and by the same token successful learners may develop better strategies than less successful ones. This implies that low achievers or less successful learners face many problems, not only in vocabulary learning but in language learning in general. An important issue then, is the possibility of getting these learners improve their use of different VLS which may in turn be reflected in successful language learning. Explicit strategy training, as argued earlier in the introduction, can be a useful means to achieve such an aim. The investigation about the effectiveness of such training on Algerian learners with a lower proficiency level in English is a central issue in the present study.

Aims of the Study

The present study aims at investigating Algerian learners' use of different VLS as well as the impact of students' proficiency level on such use. Furthermore, the study attempts to investigate the impact of strategy training on learners with a lower proficiency level in English.

As a first step, the study aims at describing the most common strategies among Algerian students of English. At this level, the study investigates the extent to which students' use of different VLS match Schmitt's (2000) proposed classification about vocabulary learning strategies.

On the basis of Oxford (1990), Chamot et al (1999) and Nyikos and Fan (2007) assertion about the impact of learners' proficiency level on their use of different VLS, the study also attempts to investigate the correlation between ENSC students' proficiency level (successful versus less successful learners) and their use of different strategies.

Furthermore, the present study aims at putting to the test Cohen (1998), Chamot et al (1999) and Grenfell and Macaro (2007) assertion about the teachable and transmittable character of VLS, by investigating, in the practical context of Algerian learners of English at l'ENSC, the impact of VLS instruction on learners with a lower proficiency level in English.

Research Questions

Three major questions, hence, lie at the core of the present study:

1. Which vocabulary learning strategies are most common among Algerian students of English at l' ENSC? To what extent does students' use of different VLS match Schmitt's (2000) classification about vocabulary learning strategies?

2. What is the impact of students' proficiency level on their use of vocabulary learning strategies?

3. What is the impact of strategy training on Algerian students with a lower proficiency level in English?

Hypotheses

On the basis of the aforementioned research questions, we hypothesize that:

1. Algerian students of English at l'ENSC make use of different vocabulary strategies matching to a large extent Schmitt' (2000) classification about VLS. However, some strategies; such as dictionary use, may be more commonly used than other strategies.

2. Students' proficiency level in English has an impact both on the quantity and quality of the strategies they make use of. In other words, successful learners use more strategies and use them more efficiently than less successful learners.

3. Strategy training has a positive impact on students' use of the strategies under study. If students receive explicit instruction about the use of some strategies, their performance will improve considerably.

Tools of Investigation

In order to investigate Algerian students' use of different vocabulary learning strategies as well as the impact of students' proficiency level on such use (hypotheses 1, 2), two focus groups representing successful and less successful EFL learners at the ENSC are administered as a first, preliminary step. The focus groups serve to identify ENSC students' most common strategies, the extent to which their VLS correlate with Schmitt's (2000) classification and the impact of their proficiency level on their use of different VLS.

In addition, a strategy training program is carried out to investigate the effect of training in strategy choice and use on less successful EFL Algerian learners at l'ENSC.

In the first stage, the focus groups provide qualitative data about learners' attitudes about language learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular; in addition to the most frequent strategies from their learning experiences. The use of a 'discussion guide'; a set of pre-prepared questions, will assist the researcher throughout the discussion of relevant issues. Moreover, the role of focus groups is not only restricted to the discussion of students' vocabulary strategies, but also to check their answers in a more practical context. Two reading sessions will take place to check learners' use of the different vocabulary strategies which the researcher will be able to observe. The reading sessions will focus on the strategies students make use of in reading texts. In a further step, two vocabulary tests will be administered a month after the reading sessions. The aim of these tests is to collect quantitative data about students' ability to remember the newly acquired vocabulary items and consequently to check the efficiency of the vocabulary strategies which they have used during the reading sessions.

In the second stage, a strategy training program will be designed and administered with less successful learners. The training will establish a mini-syllabus including all the necessary ingredients for the fulfilment of the training task. To check the impact of the training on

learners' acquisition of the strategies under study, a pre-test and a post-test will be administered at the beginning and at the end of the training respectively. These tests will enable the collection of quantitative data about learners' possible improvement in the use of the target strategies and thus to test the main hypothesis of the study.

Population of the Study

Twenty students from the third year level will take part in the first stage of the investigation. The population of the study represents 27% of the total third year population consisting of 74 students.

Students in the sample population will be divided into two groups of ten students each. The main criterion for their selection will be their high or low annual average scores as indicated by the department's deliberation sheets. The first group (Upper Group) will include the ten students with the highest annual average scores. The second group (Lower Group) will include the ten students with the lowest annual average scores.

The number of subjects in each group is considered appropriate enough for the rational of the study. Including more than 10 students in the upper group will allow the inclusion of students with an annual average less than 11.48 out of 20 which will no longer be representative of high achievement. By the same token, having more than 10 students in the lower group will permit above average students (with more than 10.30) to take part in the study, which means deviating from the main aim of the training program focusing mainly on learners' with a lower proficiency level.

In the second stage, investigating the impact of strategy instruction on students with a lower proficiency level, only students in the Lower Group will take part in the training. This means that less successful learners will be dealt with at more length in the study than upper group participants.

Structure of the Thesis

The present study is divided into two main parts tackling several issues about the teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies.

The first part, consisting of the three first chapters, accounts for the discussion of vocabulary, language learning strategies and subsequent vocabulary learning strategies in some details. The second part, consisting of the three last chapters, collects first hand data about Algerian learners' use of different vocabulary strategies, the impact of their level on such use, in addition to the impact of the training on low achievers' use of the strategies under study. The study concludes with a discussion of some of the pedagogical implications in a more concrete teaching and learning situation.

The first chapter discusses prominent issues about English language vocabulary. It focuses on the most significant areas about vocabulary which bear a direct relevance to the research questions. As such, the opening chapter includes a discussion about vocabulary, vocabulary instruction and vocabulary assessment.

The second chapter is devoted to the discussion of vocabulary learning strategies within the wider context of language learning strategies. It accounts for the major findings about both LLS and VLS as indicated by subject specialists in this domain. It presents in some detail a discussion of the main features, classifications, facilitating factors about both LLS and VLS. It also presents a comparison between high and low achievers' use of the different strategies. Moreover, the important issue of strategy training is also devoted some discussion in terms of the major steps involved in the training, as well as the different factors which contribute to the success of such training.

The third chapter sheds light on the six vocabulary learning strategies that will be used in the training program: contextual guessing, dictionary use, and study of word parts as

identification strategies, in addition to the use of vocabulary notebooks, semantic maps and the key word method as consolidation strategies. The chapter provides information about the teaching and learning of each of the six strategies in ESL/EFL contexts.

The fourth chapter investigates Algerian learners' use of the different identification and consolidation vocabulary strategies. It presents an analysis of the most common strategies among Algerian learners and the difference between successful and less successful learners' use of the different strategies in terms of the number of the strategies in use and the efficiency of the applied strategies in learning new vocabulary items.

The fifth chapter presents a detailed description of the training program designed for the purpose of the investigation at hand. It also provides a discussion and analysis of the results of the pre- and post-tests administered at the onset and outset of the training.

The sixth chapter about pedagogical implications suggests a link between the major findings of the study and the teaching/learning context about vocabulary learning strategies. It sheds light on those issues which would make the teaching and learning of vocabulary and vocabulary learning strategies a successful experience for teachers and learners of English in the Algerian EFL context.

Definition of Variables

General Definitions

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

According to Tackac (2008), vocabulary learning strategies are "specific strategies utilised in the isolated task of learning vocabulary in the target language" (p. 52). Furthermore, the term 'strategy' is defined by Gu (2005) as "the process of planning, monitoring, evaluating as well as implementing a series of actions we take in order to achieve a desired result" (p. 11). Therefore, vocabulary learning strategies are those actions (ranging

from basic planning to deeper evaluation) taken by learners in the process of learning the vocabulary of the target language.

Learners' Proficiency Level (Higher Vs Lower Levels)

The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (1989) defines the term 'proficiency' in relation to being proficient which is further defined as "the ability of doing something in a skilled or expert way because of training and practice" (p. 994). In the light of this definition, students with higher proficiency level may be described as being skilful and successful in carrying out different learning tasks. Successful learners are defined, in the same reference, as "having success; achievement of a desired end" (Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary, 1989, p. 1284). This implies that successful learners are those students who achieve positive results in their study process as opposed to less successful learners (lower achievers) who achieve less success after a certain period of instruction.

Strategy Training

According to Weaver and Cohen (1998), strategy training means "explicitly teaching students how to apply language learning and language use strategies" (p. 66). In other words, strategy training requires both teachers and learners to assume certain roles in order to make possible the acquisition of both learning and use strategies. Oxford (1990) argued that "learners need to learn how to learn and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process" (p. 201).

Operational Definitions

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

In the context of this study; vocabulary learning strategies refer to students' strategies in learning new vocabulary, illustrated by their performance in the different tasks which are presented to them throughout the various steps of the investigation.

Though the study tackles general VLS in an attempt to discover Algerian students' most common vocabulary strategies, the training program focuses on six strategies in particular: contextual guessing, study of word parts and dictionary use as identification strategies; and semantic mapping, using vocabulary notebooks, and the key word method as consolidation strategies.

Higher / Lower Proficiency Levels

Students with higher proficiency level in English, in the context of this study, are those students who achieved the highest average scores, ranging from 14.02 down to 11.48 out of 20, at the end of the second year of their study of English at L'ENSC. These students showed success in different English modules throughout the year as indicated by the English department deliberation sheets. They are also referred to as 'successful learners', 'high achievers' or 'students of the upper group'.

Students with lower proficiency level, on the other hand, are students with the lowest annual average scores, ranging from 10.00 to 10.30 out of 20, at the end of the second year of their study of English at L'ENSC as indicated by the English department deliberation sheets of the same year. In this study, they are also described as 'less successful learners', 'low achievers' or 'students of the lower group'.

Strategy Training

In the context of this study, strategy training refers to the course designed by the researcher and performed by the students in the population of the study in the pursuit of the investigation at hand. The training consists of a program with clearly defined objectives and carefully selected content and activities. The training is carried out independently from the students' set modules.

<center>**Chapter One**</center>

<center>**Vocabulary, Vocabulary Instruction and Vocabulary Assessment**</center>

Introduction

Vocabulary constitutes a major part in language teaching/learning and is considered by many researchers the main source of information that builds up students' background knowledge. Stahl (2005) argued: "vocabulary knowledge *is* knowledge" (p. 95). The importance of vocabulary makes it a common concern for both teachers and learners especially in an EFL context. For teachers, the English session is always an opportunity to introduce new vocabulary. It is not a surprise, then, to see many teachers prescribing vocabulary notebooks for their learners to record the newly introduced items. For students, having a large vocabulary means getting a good command of the language both in its oral and written aspects. This will certainly increase their self confidence and have a positive impact on their performance in different language tasks. Willis (2008) argued: "With enhanced vocabulary, students grow in skills of verbal fluency, writing, and comprehension" (p. 80).

The importance of vocabulary is not solely related to the classroom context, but to different personal and professional situations which a person may come through. To a large extent, our vocabulary indicates our educational level, social background, personality traits and so on. Stahl (2005) explained: "The words we know and use are who we are. Words can define; to the outside world (and maybe even to ourselves), how smart we are (or think we are), what kinds of jobs we do, and what our qualifications for jobs might be" (p. 95).

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It is very difficult, however, to write about vocabulary because of the wealth of literature about it. The aim of this opening chapter is to shed light on those areas about vocabulary which are central to the study in hand. As such, the chapter includes three main parts: vocabulary, vocabulary instruction and vocabulary assessment. The first part tackles fundamental issues such as defining the concepts of vocabulary and vocabulary knowledge; discussing the types of vocabulary, the different problematic factors in learning vocabulary in addition to the ways which help language learners increase their vocabulary store. The second part about vocabulary teaching implicitly addresses three main questions; why, what, and how to teach vocabulary. It opens by an identification of the purposes for teaching vocabulary, then it proceeds with a presentation of the content of a vocabulary program, and finally it suggests different techniques/strategies which might be used in vocabulary instruction. The last section in the second part accounts for the advantages as well as problematic issues in relation to vocabulary teaching.

The third part in this chapter tackles the important issue of vocabulary assessment. It starts with a discussion of the different purposes of vocabulary testing, then it presents the main characteristics of good vocabulary tests as well as the possible approaches that can be followed in vocabulary testing. The last section presents some test formats that can be used for testing both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

I.1. What is Vocabulary?

Several definitions have been given to vocabulary stressing different aspects. A basic definition about vocabulary is that it is "the collection of words that an individual knows" (Linse 2005, p. 121). On this basis, people might be said to have different vocabularies according to which words they know. Comprehension is a key element, however. It is not enough to know words, i.e. be able to recognise their shape and form, but to know their

meaning. Thus vocabulary can also be defined as "the knowledge of meanings of words" (Heibert & Kamil, 2005, p. 3).

In addition to knowledge of word meaning, vocabulary also involves the pronunciation of words that we use in communication. The latter can be carried out orally through listening and speaking; or in writing through reading and writing. Tankersley (2003) explained that vocabulary is "the number of words that we understand or can actively use to listen, speak, read, or write" (p. 52). On the light of this, Tankersley presumes that each person has four different vocabularies: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Carter (1998) gave various definitions for vocabulary stressing different aspects. From an orthographic view point a word is defined by Carter as "any sequence of letters (and a limited number of other characteristics such as hyphen and apostrophe) bounded on either side by a space or punctuation mark" (p. 4). This definition can be appropriate for purposes like counting words for an essay, playing word games like scrabble and so on. From a semantic angle, Carter defined a word as "the minimum meaningful unit of a language" (ibid).

In a nutshell, vocabulary tends to have different dimensions related to the form and content of words in a particular language. Whereas form refers to such aspects as spelling, pronunciation and other orthographic features, content is mainly related to the semantic properties of the word which are embodied in comprehension and communication both orally and in writing.

I.2. What is Vocabulary Knowledge?

The diversity in defining the concept of vocabulary makes the definition of vocabulary knowledge also a debatable issue among authorities in this area. According to

Scott (2005), "knowing a word can range from being able to supply a definition to having a vague understanding of its semantic field" (p. 70). Scott's definition implies that words can be known but with different degrees. Well known words are those about which we can give a definition. Less known words, on the other hand, can be vaguely explained by referring to their semantic field rather than giving their exact meaning.

Stahl (2005) believed that knowledge of a word not only implies giving a definition about it, but also implies how that word fits into the world. A person can get the definition of a word from the dictionary for example, but unless he/she is able to use this word in its appropriate context, he/she cannot be said to know it. Therefore, Stahl stresses knowledge of the different meanings of a word which fit in different situations.

Thornbury (2002) stressed syntactic and semantic aspects in word knowledge. He argued that knowing a word involves knowing its *form* and its *meaning* (p. 15).

In addition to knowing its meaning, to know a word according to Mc Carthy & O'Dell (1994, p. 2) also involves knowing its pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, as well as the different words that can be associated with it.

The syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations are also recognised as important factors in word knowledge. According to Carter (1998), "knowing a word in a language means to know *both* its syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations" (p. 191). Carter further argued that knowing a word also involves knowing it in context. Syntactic and semantic knowledge must also include pragmatic knowledge.

Finally, Nation (2001) divided word knowledge into three areas: knowledge of form, knowledge of meaning and knowledge of use. Each of these areas corresponds to a different kind of learning and involves specific type of activities.

Kinds of knowledge		Kinds of learning	Activities
Form		implicit learning involving noticing	repeated meetings as in repeated reading
Meaning		strong explicit learning	depth of processing through the use of images, elaboration, deliberate inferencing
Use	grammar collocation	implicit learning	repetition
	constraints on use	explicit learning	explicit guidance and feedback

Table 1: Classification of Vocabulary Knowledge (Nation 2001, p. 50)

I.3. Types of Vocabulary

Words are not all of the same type. They differ according to their syntactic, semantic, grammatical and phonological features. Hiebert and Kamil (2005, p.3) argued that words have at least two forms: oral and print. *Oral* vocabulary includes words related to speaking or reading orally, whereas *print* vocabulary consists of words a person knows or uses when writing or reading silently. It is further argued that oral vocabulary exceeds print vocabulary (Hiebert and Kamil, 2005, p.3).

Another important distinction is made between receptive and productive vocabulary (Allen, 1983; Read, 2000). *Receptive,* also known as passive vocabulary is the set of words that can be recognised or understood while reading or listening; whereas *productive* or

active vocabulary refers to the vocabulary a person can use to fulfil certain purposes in speaking or in writing. Moreover, it is believed that a person's receptive vocabulary is larger than one's productive vocabulary (Allen, 1983; Read, 2000)

Another classification is suggested by Nation (2001) who explained that in a sample text, four categories of words can be distinguished: high frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low-frequency words.

a. High Frequency Words

This category includes function words like *in, for, the, of, a*, etc in addition to many content words such as: *government, forest, production, boundary*, and so forth. A good example of high frequency word lists is West's (1953) General Service List (GSL) which contains around 2000 word families (Nation 2001, p. 11).

b. Academic Words

They represent vocabulary that is common to academic texts. The best example of this type of vocabulary is Coxhead (1998)'s Academic Word List (Nation 2001, p. 12). This list is important mainly for academic purposes in learning English as a foreign language.

c. Technical Words

They refer to words that are common in a particular topic area such as economics, geography, education, etc. They differ from one subject area to another.

d. Low-frequency Words

According to Nation (2001), this category includes the biggest number of words in a language. It represents words out of the three previous categories, i.e. they are neither high

frequency nor technical or academic vocabulary. They refer to words that we rarely meet in a language.

Vocabulary can also be classified according to the specific requirements of the learning task, and to learners' needs for carrying out these tasks. McCarthy and O'Dell (1994) distinguished three main types of vocabulary based on learners' different needs:

1. Words that you don't need at all

2. Words that you need to understand in speech or in writing (when you hear or read them),

3. Words which you need to be able to use yourself; this last category deserves more time and attention to learn them.

Another distinction is made between *formal* and *informal* vocabulary (McCarthy & O'Dell, 1994). Between these two extreme points, there exist degrees of formality ranging from very formal to very informal as illustrated in this example by Brown (1980, p. 4)

Informal			**formal**
a chat	a talk	a speech, an address	an oration

What Make Vocabulary Difficult to Learn?

Learning vocabulary can be both an enjoyable and a challenging task for students especially in an EFL context where the contact with the language is limited to the classroom. Stahl and Nagy (2006) argued that Vocabulary is "one of the primary challenges facing students who come from non-English-speaking homes" (p. 6). In this context, McCarthy (1990) identified six problematic factors that may affect learners' acquisition of new vocabulary:

1. Spelling Difficulties

Learners of English, and even native speakers, may be confused about the spelling of some words. For example, they may forget whether a certain word is written with single or double consonants in words like: 'occurrence', ''parallel', and 'beginning'.

2. Phonological Difficulties

This type is more related to the oral use of vocabulary. It concerns words with clusters of sounds like 'thrive' and 'crisps' which make their pronunciation a bit more difficult. Another problem is caused by the confusion between the spelling of a word and its pronunciation. For example, the word 'worry' can be pronounced the same way as 'sorry' because they have a similar form.

3. Syntactic Difficulties

Syntactic difficulties are mainly related to the different combinations of vocabulary items. Some words tend to be simpler than other words because they can combine with a limited range of words. For example, the English verb 'want' tends to be syntactically easier than 'wish' (McCarhty, 1990, p. 86); 'want' is followed by an infinitive or an object, whereas 'wish' may be followed by the infinitive as well as different verb patterns in 'that' clauses.

4. Semantic Links

Some words are very close in meaning to each other, which make it difficult for some learners to separate them. For example, the verbs 'make' and 'do' can be used interchangeably; however, they tend to have different uses.

5. False Friends

This is the case of words which have similar forms, but different meanings in two different languages. For example, the word 'actually' in English means really, truly, whereas 'actuellement' in French means happening just now. Another example is the word 'cave'; in English 'cave' means 'a kind of cavern' but in French it means 'a basement' (Wallace, 1982, p. 26).

In addition to the above factors, Thornbury (2002, p. 27-28) mentioned other problematic features such as the length and complexity of the new word, the grammar associated with it as well as the range, connotation and idiomaticity of the word; i.e. words that can be used in limited range of contexts are more difficult than those which are applicable to a wider range of contexts.

Moreover, Laufer (1989) introduced the concept of 'deceptive transparency' to describe a major factor contributing to word difficulty. A deceptive transparent word is "a word which seems to provide clues to its meaning but does not" (Laufer, 1989, p. 11). In other words, deceptive transparency is a misleading factor where words seem to be known whereas, in reality, they are not. A word like 'shortcomings' might be treated as a compound of short plus comings; and thus be understood as short visits. Therefore, it can be described as a deceptive transparent word.

I.5. Expanding Vocabulary Knowledge

According to Hiebert and Kamil (2005) "the expansion and elaboration of vocabularies is something that extends across a life time" (p. 2). While some of our vocabularies are acquired in schools following direct and explicit instruction, a large proportion seems to be acquired unintentionally throughout different activities. The

National Reading Pannel (2000) argued that much of students' vocabulary is acquired as a by product of other activities than explicit vocabulary learning.

Tankersley (2003) emphasised the importance of both explicit and implicit approaches in vocabulary extension. He argued that most vocabulary is acquired indirectly through listening to conversations, being read to, or by reading new words in context. Word meanings can also be explicitly taught through getting an explanation of new vocabulary from the teacher or from a reference book like the dictionary. Further examples of expanding learners' vocabulary knowledge according to Tankersley include extensive reading; directly building background knowledge in students; linking words to other words and experiences; building neural connections in the brain; providing opportunities for playing with words and manipulating words; and providing ways to use words on a daily basis (p. 55).

The expansion of vocabulary knowledge, thus, entails the exposure to comprehensible input mainly through listening and reading. TaKac (2008) emphasised the importance of context as a major source of vocabulary in L2 learning. Context-based inferencing, according to TaKac, provides students with a wide range of information about new vocabulary including "the knowledge of morphological rules, collocations, and additional meanings" (p. 17).

An important issue at this point is the role of outside activities in learning new words. Vocabulary expansion is a phenomenon that extends the walls of the classroom to include different types of informal linguistic input. Milton (2009) described some of these 'informal' ways of expanding one's vocabulary store including reading comic books, listening to songs (in his experiment, Greek songs), and watching DVDs with subtitles. The results of the studies dealing with the three described methods showed considerable vocabulary gains for the subjects. A key factor, according to Milton, which contributed to

this positive result, is that of 'time'. Vocabulary expansion for him requires the devotion of many hours, in addition to the classroom interaction, to engage in meaningful daily life activities.

I.2. Vocabulary Instruction

Until recently, vocabulary instruction received little interest compared with other language aspects (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp, 2009; O'Dell, 1997; Chacon-Beltran, Abello-Contesse & Torreblanca-Lopez, 2010). Two main reasons, according to Stahl and Nagy (2006, p. 7) have contributed to this negative attitude towards vocabulary teaching:

1. The belief that there should be more focus on interpretation and critical thinking than on single vocabulary knowledge.
2. Linking vocabulary instruction to the traditional, ineffective, methods of memorisation of vocabulary and practice in writing new sentences.

In recent years, however, second language vocabulary acquisition has become an interesting topic for teachers, researchers, and course designers (Coady & Huckin, 1997; Sokmen, 1997; Moir & Nation, 2008). The importance of vocabulary as a driving force in different language tasks has alerted subject specialists about the importance of making vocabulary an integral part of language teaching programs. Several attempts have been made to set clear objectives for vocabulary instruction and to discuss issues like the type of vocabulary that should be taught, different approaches and methods for vocabulary instruction as well as the different activities that can be presented for teaching or testing purposes. Most of these issues are discussed in the coming sections of this chapter.

I.2.1.The Purpose of Vocabulary Instruction

The choice of goals for vocabulary instruction is an important preliminary step because of its implications for both the content and the methods of instruction and even the

assessment of vocabulary teaching and learning (Wallace, 1982; Nagy, 2005). In other words, setting clear objectives for vocabulary teaching will not only indicate for the teacher 'what' should be taught, but also 'how' to teach the specified content. Furthermore, with clear objectives in hand, the teacher will be able to check whether students succeeded in performing what they were expected to do or not.

For some pedagogical reasons, a distinction is often made between 'aims', 'goals', and 'objectives'. Though all three concepts express an educational intention, they differ in the scope of stating this intention, ranging from a vague description of the purpose of a particular subject area, to a very specific statement of learners' performance at the end of the lesson. In the context of this study, however, the difference between the three concepts is overlooked as more focus will be put on the reasons or purposes for teaching vocabulary in an L2 or EFL context.

One of the most basic reasons for vocabulary instruction according to Stahl and Nagy (2006) is linked to the nature of vocabulary as being cumulative. In other words, the more words we know, the easier it is for us to learn further words. Teaching vocabulary in this case becomes a means and an end itself. Vocabulary is taught to increase learners' lexical store which in turn will enable them to learn new words as a by product to different learning tasks mainly reading and listening activities.

A rather pedagogical goal for vocabulary instruction is to help students improve their comprehension (Nagy, 2005; Stahl & Nagy, 2006). Nagy (2005) emphasised the reciprocal links between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. He argued: "having a big vocabulary does contribute to being a better reader. But being a good reader also contributes to having a bigger vocabulary" (p. 34). Indeed, vocabulary is given a central place in reading as it acts as a bridge between word level processes (phonology) and the cognitive processes of comprehension (Hiebert & Kamil, 2007).

At a broader level, the goals of the vocabulary component of a course will be "to increase learners' usable vocabulary size and to help them gain effective control of a range of vocabulary learning and coping strategies" (Nation, 2001, p. 618). By usable vocabulary, Nation refers to the vocabulary which learners are able to manipulate to perform different learning tasks.

I.2.2. Which Words to Teach?

The decision about the content to be taught is a key element in any teaching situation. To ensure the success of the teaching program, the selection should not be done at random; rather it has to be based on well defined criteria. The latter might include learners' needs and interest, the relevance of the content to the course objectives as well as to teachers'/course book writers' predictions.

Beck, Mckeown, and Kucan (2005) argued that instruction should focus on the most frequent words, which they called 'tier two' vocabulary as opposed to 'tier one'; which includes basic vocabulary like clock, baby, happy; and 'tier three' vocabulary comprising less frequent words mostly involving technical terminology like: *isotope, lathe, peninsula.*

In teaching 'Tier two' vocabulary, Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2005, p. 214) suggested three main criteria:

1. *Importance and Utility:* words that are likely to occur in a variety of topics and are characteristic of mature language users; they appear frequently in different domains.

2. *Instructional Potential:* words that can be worked with in a variety of ways so that students can build rich representations of them and of their connections to other words and concepts.

3. *Conceptual Understanding:* words for which students understand the general concept but provide precision and specificity in describing the concept.

I.2.3. Principles of Vocabulary Instruction

An approach to language teaching is a set of principles or assumptions about how a language should be taught and learned. These principles are put into practice by a certain method which includes such elements as the textbook, the lesson plan and other decisions that may affect the teaching/learning situation. The method is further implemented by a variety of techniques which are introduced by the teacher and used by the learners inside the classroom.

Nation (2001, p. 624) suggested some principles for vocabulary instruction in relation to three main areas: content and sequencing, format and presentation, monitoring and assessment.

Content and Sequencing	- Use frequency and range of occurrence as ways of deciding what vocabulary to learn and the order in which to learn it. - Give adequate training in essential vocabulary learning strategies - Give attention to each vocabulary item according to the learning burden of that item. - Provide opportunity to learn the various aspects of what is involved in knowing a word. - Avoid interference by presenting vocabulary in normal use rather than in groupings of synonyms, opposites, free associates, or lexical sets. - Deal with high frequency vocabulary by focusing on the words themselves, and deal with low frequency vocabulary by focusing on the control of strategies.

Format and presentation	• Make sure that high frequency target vocabulary occurs in all the four strands of meaning focused input, language focused learning, meaning focused output, and fluency development.
	• Provide opportunity for spaced, repeated, generative retrieval of words to ensure cumulative growth.
	• Use depth of processing activities.
Monitoring and assessment	• Test learners to see what vocabulary they need to focus on.
	• Use monitoring and assessment to keep learners motivated.
	• Encourage and help learners to reflect on their learning.

Table 2: Principles of Vocabulary Instruction (Nation, 2001, p. 624)

I.2.4.Techniques for Vocabulary Instruction

Nagy (2005) argued that effective vocabulary instruction "must be multifaceted, encompassing: teaching individual words; extensive exposure to rich language, both oral and written; and building generative word knowledge" (p. 28). In order to achieve the main objectives of vocabulary instruction (some of which have been stated in I.2.1), teaching vocabulary has to follow certain steps leading learners gradually to widen their vocabulary store and increase their ability to use the new lexicon both receptively and productively. Bishop et al. (2009) suggested various strategies and sub-strategies for teaching vocabulary. The selected strategies are organised into three main categories on the basis of their primary purpose and when they are likely to occur instructionally.

1. Strategies for Identifying Students' Knowledge of Vocabulary

They represent strategies for the pre-teaching of vocabulary mainly intended to spark students' curiosity about words and provide the teacher with the opportunity to assess what

the students already know about the words and the concepts to be taught. Three possible activities are suggested by Bishop et al. (2009) to fulfil this aim:

a. Knowledge Ratings

This type of activity is meant to determine what students already know – or think they know – about a word or concept before teaching. With this strategy, teachers ask the students to rate their understanding of a word or words through such activities as printed Targets (concentric circles), coloured Dots, and various sizes of paper.

b. Possible Sentences

This teaching strategy requires students to think about a small number of words and combine them in meaningful sentences. This can be a good indicator for the teacher about learners' knowledge of the various semantic and syntactic relations of vocabulary.

c. Known and New Charts

This strategy is useful for motivating students to learn new words and for assessing what students already know about the specialized vocabulary of a content area. It is much similar to Ogle's (1986) K-W-L (Know, Want to Know, Learned) strategy (Bishop et al**.**, 2009, p. 30).

2. Strategies for Introducing New Words

They include strategies for presenting and explaining new vocabulary items. The following techniques are further suggested by Bishop et al. (2009)

a. Friendly Explanations

Instead of having the teacher to explain the meaning of new words or asking the students to look for explanation from the dictionary; the teacher may allow for explanations from learners themselves to take place. Working in pairs or groups, learners will exchange information and explain for each other many of the words which they cannot

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understand. Friendly explanations are recognised as useful techniques especially for shy students who cannot express their misunderstanding in front of the whole class. In this case, an explanation from a peer may be more beneficial because it is expressed in simpler language than the teacher's or the dictionary's explanation.

b. Semantic Maps

Semantic Maps are graphic organizers that display the knowledge associated with a concept. They may be used to teach students new words or to review words already introduced (Bishop et al. 2009). Teachers can introduce new vocabulary to students by drawing semantic maps on the board or chart paper, talking about the maps, and keeping them on display for students' reference. An important aspect of semantic mapping is the talk that accompanies it. Moreover, students should be prompted to verbalize the relationships that are displayed on the map and talk about the information.

c. Verbal and Visual Word Associations

The verbal and visual word association strategy, according to Bishop et al (2009) requires students to think about a word in several ways and to record their thinking in boxes. This will not only facilitate their understanding of new words but also increase their ability to memorise and recall the newly acquired vocabulary for later use.

3. Strategies for Reinforcing and Extending Students' Understanding of Words

After the identification of new words' meanings, Students need to reinforce the newly acquired lexis to make it stick longer in their minds. One of the possible ways for extending students' understanding of words can be achieved through multiple encounters with the words in a variety of contexts. The strategies described in this section provide students with experiences with words beyond their initial introductions.

a. Word Sorts

Word sorts require students to organize words into meaningful groups. Students may be let free to group the words in the way that is most meaningful for them (open sorts) or be restricted to a certain structure set by the teacher (closed sorts).

b. Content Links

Content Links, also known as Word Links (Yopp, 2007 as cited in Bishop et al, 2009), is another strategy that requires students to think about the meaning of words by connecting them together. At the end of each unit, the teacher may write all new words on separate sheets of paper and distribute them on students. The latter would try to combine words of the same meaning together.

I.2.5. Explicit Vocabulary Instruction

Explicit or direct instruction is recognised as an effective method for vocabulary learning and comprehension. From a psychological view point "the more one manipulates, thinks about, and uses mental information, the more likely it is that one will retain that information" (Schmitt 2000, p.121). Applying this to vocabulary, learners have more chances to understand and remember a new word if they actively engage in deep processing of the new information.

1.2.5.a. Principles

Direct vocabulary instruction is based on the belief that vocabulary constitutes a major part in language learning and should, thus, be devoted enough time for the presentation, explanation and practice of new vocabulary. Bishop et al (2009, p. 114) argued that good teachers should not rely on incidental learning, which can be acquired unconsciously by learners themselves, but they also have to make an effort in selecting words and planning activities as part of an explicit word instruction. For this instruction to be successful, Sokmen (1997) provided the following principles:

➢ Build a large sight vocabulary.

➢ Integrate new words with old.

➢ Provide a number of encounters with a word.

➢ Promote a deep level of processing.

➢ Facilitate imaging.

➢ Make new words "real" by connecting them to the student's world in some way.

➢ Use a variety of techniques.

➢ Encourage independent learning strategies. (p. 241)

These principles emphasise conscious, organised and planned instruction which may result in effective learning of vocabulary. Moreover, Sokmen's principles clearly focus on deep levels of processing and the use of a variety of teaching techniques and independent learning strategies. According to Schmitt (2000), explicit teaching is essential for the most frequent words of a language as well as technical vocabulary necessary for a particular area because they are prerequisites for language use. Less frequent words, however, may be best learned incidentally through extensive reading.

I.2.5.b. Techniques

The implementation of the above mentioned principles can be achieved through the use of some techniques which can be presented by the teacher and performed by learners during the language session. The National Reading Pannel (2000, p. 4-7) explained that in an explicit approach for vocabulary instruction, the teacher is required to:

➢ Give definitions or other attributes of words to be learned.

➢ Give specific algorithms for determining meanings of words.

➢ Give external cues to connect the words with meaning.

Some examples of explicit vocabulary teaching, according to the National Reading Pannel include the pre-reading activities aiming at introducing the new vocabulary which

is likely to be encountered in a specific reading selection, and the teaching of words' parts (roots and affixes).

Furthermore, Tankersley (2003, p. 56) argued that during the reading process, some words need to be explicitly taught. These words include:

➢ Words that are vital to the comprehension of the material being read so that students can relate these words to the content of the story.

➢ Words that the student is likely to see or encounter again and again in the material being studied.

➢ Words that have multiple meanings like the word 'bank' for example.

➢ Words that have different pronunciations and different meanings but are spelled the same, such as *bow* as in "a knot with loops for a package" and *bow* as in "the front of a boat." (Tankersley, 2003, p. 56)

I.2.5.c. Word Lists

One way for direct vocabulary teaching is the use of word lists. The latter may be monolingual; involving words with their synonyms or antonyms in the foreign language, or bilingual; including equivalent words in students' mother tongue. This method was very popular in traditional, structural approaches and is still recognised as a useful technique especially for beginners. West's (1956) General Service List (GSL) is a good example illustrating this method. With its 2,000 word entries drawn from a corpus of two to five million words, the list gives access to about 80 per cent of the words in any written text (Carter 1998, p. 207). As such the GSL can be a good source for teachers to decide about which words are worth for instruction.

Nonetheless, teachers' use of word lists should not be done randomly, rather, they have to consider the content they are teaching as well as the lesson's objective(s). Beck et

al. (2005, p. 222) invited teachers to design their own word lists by following four main steps:

Step 1: selecting an appropriate reading material; this may take the form of a story, an extract from a chapter book or novel, etc

Step 2: drawing a list of all words which are likely to be unfamiliar to the students.

Step 3: analysing the word list so that it includes only vocabulary which is crucial for comprehension.

Step 4: deciding about which words need profound and elaborate explanation and which can be superficially dealt with.

I.2.6. Implicit Vocabulary Instruction

Implicit or indirect instruction is based on the argument that there are too many words in a language to be taught explicitly. Moreover, direct instruction is more useful at beginning levels. Once learners have some basic vocabulary store, incidental learning is more effective. For many teachers and researchers, implicit teaching or incidental learning of vocabulary is better achieved through wide reading. The more students read the more vocabulary terms they acquire from context. Moreover, vocabulary knowledge can be both a cause and a consequence of effective reading. The more students read the more words they learn, and this in turn makes reading easier and encourages them to read more.

Words in Context

A major weakness with explicit approaches to vocabulary teaching/learning is that it is not possible to account for 'all' words in English. Cunnigham (2005) argued: "even the most tailored and comprehensive instruction cannot shoulder all of the vocabulary learning that must take place in the school years and beyond" (p. 46). Though word lists such as the GSL attempt to provide information about the most frequent English vocabulary, it failed

to cover some of the more recent vocabulary (Carter, 1998, p. 207). Moreover, word lists are recognised as useful tools at beginning stages, the more advanced the learner becomes, "the more 'inferential' or 'implicit' and learner-centred vocabulary learning strategies will have to become" (Carter, 1998, p. 209).

Learning words in context represents a more active and independent form of vocabulary learning. Very often, teachers encourage their learners to guess first before seeking help from external sources like the dictionary or another person. Brown (1980) emphasised the benefits learners get from learning words in context regardless to whether their guess is correct or wrong:

> If a student guesses correctly when he does consult the dictionary, he has the satisfaction of thinking 'Ah yes, I was right!' This is a reward feeling and builds confidence to guess another time. If the guess was wrong, still an effort was made and that in itself is better than being passive in the learning process (p. 15)

I.2.7. Advantages of Vocabulary Instruction

The National Reading Panel (2000) insisted that the choice of teaching techniques and strategies has to take into consideration learners' age and ability to achieve successful results and make the learning of vocabulary most beneficial for them. The following are some of advantages of vocabulary instruction as described by the National Reading Panel (2000):

1. Computer vocabulary instruction shows positive learning gains over traditional methods.

2. Vocabulary instruction leads to gains in comprehension.

3. Vocabulary can be learned incidentally in the context of storybook reading or from listening to the reading of others.

4. Repeated exposure to vocabulary items is important for learning gains. The best gains were made in instruction that extended beyond single class periods and involved multiple exposures in authentic contexts beyond the classroom.

5. Pre-instruction of vocabulary words prior to reading can facilitate both vocabulary acquisition and comprehension.

6. The restructuring of the text materials or procedures facilitates vocabulary acquisition and comprehension, for example substituting easy for hard words. (National Reading Panel, 2000, p. 4-6)

I.2.8. Problems with Teaching Vocabulary

Whether the teacher follows a direct or an indirect approach to vocabulary instruction, he would certainly face some obstacles. Stahl (2005, p. 96) listed four main problems with explicit vocabulary instruction to young children:

1. The sheer number of words that children need to learn so as to understand and use with proficiency both oral and written language.

2. The gap in levels of word knowledge among children.

3. The gap in levels of word knowledge begins even before children enter school.

4. Traditional vocabulary instruction does not teach children word-learning strategies and how to appreciate words.

Moreover, Sokmen (1997) accounted for some weaknesses of implicit approaches or learning from context. First, the acquisition of vocabulary via contextual guessing is a very slow process especially for ESL/EFL learners whose contact with the target language is very limited. Besides, this strategy presents learners, especially low achievers, with many

difficulties which may lead to failure and frustration about using it. Furthermore, being able to guess words from context does not necessarily result in long term retention. In other words, inferring word meanings is not always conductive to efficient vocabulary learning.

In general, teaching vocabulary can be an enjoyable experience for both teachers and learners if both parts assume certain roles. Whereas teachers' responsibility is mainly related to explicit or direct instruction, learners' task is to consolidate the learning they receive in the classroom through extensive encounter with the foreign language outside the classroom. As it has been argued earlier, vocabulary acquisition is a never ending process. It requires both explicit and implicit methods that would increase learners' vocabulary knowledge.

I.3. Vocabulary Assessment

Testing is an important component in any teaching/learning situation. Through tests, teachers not only test learners' abilities in specific areas, but also shape their attitude towards learning a particular subject matter. According to Schmitt (2000), "students tend to take the learning they are undertaking more seriously if they know in advance they will be tested about it" (p. 161).

In general, vocabulary tests are administered to measure both the quantity and quality of students' knowledge of vocabulary. In other words, teachers are often interested in the breadth of students' vocabulary (how many words they know) as well as the quality of their vocabulary knowledge, i.e. how well they know certain vocabulary.

I.3.1. Purposes of Vocabulary Assessment

Schmitt (2000) identified four main purposes for testing vocabulary:

1. *To test learners' achievement after a period of instruction*: the main reason here is to determine whether learners have learned the words they were taught or they were

expected to have learned. This purpose can be achieved through *achievement tests* usually administered after instruction and in relation to a specific content.

2. *To closely examine learners' strengths and weaknesses*: at different points during instruction, teachers need to identify areas in vocabulary learning which are still problematic for learners. The identification of such problems enables the teacher to provide a remedy to help learners overcome their weaknesses. This is related to what is called *diagnostic tests*, and as the name indicates, they are related to vey specific points and are administered regularly throughout instruction.

3. *To place learners in appropriate classes on the basis of their level*: this aim is achieved through *placement tests* which are usually administered before instruction. Moreover, this type of tests tends to be 'general' in nature, in that they do not bear on specific items since they come before instruction.

4. *To indicate learners' vocabulary size as a means of measuring their language proficiency*: this is best achieved through *proficiency tests* such as the TOEFL.

I.3.2. Characteristics of Good Vocabulary Test

To achieve the above described aims, teachers have to be careful while designing their tests. According to Milton (2009), good vocabulary tests have two main characteristics: reliability and validity

a. Reliability

In its broad sense, reliability means "the ability of a test to measure something consistently and accurately" (Milton, 2009, p. 17). This means that the test should give the same results (scores) under different conditions. In other words, the test scores are not affected by the place (size of the classroom, familiarity of the students with the test room)

or the time (whether the test is administered in the morning or in the afternoon) of the test, or the scorer (if the test is corrected by different persons, the scores would be the same).

The reliability of a test, according to Milton, is also related to what he calls 'equivalence estimates'; i.e. students have to show the same amount of knowledge regardless to the type of the test they have taken. On this basis, some test types tend to be more reliable than others. For example, multiple choice tests, where the required answer is either correct or wrong, are more reliable than essay tests for which the answer is not obviously correct or wrong. Therefore, the former test type is said to be 'objective' whereas the latter is 'subjective' test types.

b. Validity

A test is said to be valid when it measures what it is supposed to measure and not something else (Milton, 2009, p. 18). In other words, the validity of a test is related to the degree to which test scores accurately reflect the test-takers' various abilities (Eyckmans et al, 2007, p. 61). Milton (2009) further divided validity into four main types: content validity, construct validity, concurrent validity and face validity:

Content validity is related to the appropriateness of the content of the test. This means that the test should include items which have been covered by the different lessons.

Construct validity implies that the test should measure only the skill it is supposed to measure. A test of vocabulary, for example, should concentrate on students' knowledge of vocabulary and not other skills such as reading or writing skills, unless these two skills are taken as indicators of good vocabulary proficiency. Indeed, this is what makes construct validity the most challenging characteristic, according to Milton, because language knowledge is abstract and therefore requires the use of production measurements which may involve other skills that are not intended by the test.

Concurrent validity is rather a method for testing both content and construct validity of a test. It involves administering two different tests 'of the same quality' and for the same population to decide whether the test is working well or not. If the results of both tests correlate positively, the test is said to be valid, if not some revision of one or both tests is required.

Face validity is related to the credibility of the test as being familiar to users in testing what it is supposed to measure (Milton, 2009, p. 19). Put in simpler words, face validity is related to the form of the test. For example, students may take it for granted that a vocabulary test consists of multiple choice items. They will then be surprised if the test takes another form.

I.3.3. Approaches to Vocabulary Assessment

Read (2000) identified three 'dimensions' for vocabulary assessment based on two different, but complementary, trends in language testing: the *discrete-point approach* (emphasising assessment of independent items) and the *communicative approach* (involving more contextualised, task- based testing). Read's assessment model of vocabulary constitutes of three main sets of dichotomies: discrete Vs embedded, selective Vs comprehensive, context-independent Vs context-dependent as illustrated in the below table:

Discrete	Embedded
A measure of vocabulary knowledge or use as an independent construct	A measure of vocabulary which forms part of the assessment of some other, larger construct
Selective	**Comprehensive**
A measure in which specific vocabulary items are in the focus of assessment	A measure which takes account of the whole vocabulary content of the input material (reading/listening, or response of the test takers (writing/speaking tasks)
Context-independent	**Context-dependent**
A vocabulary measure in which the test-Taker can produce the expected response Without referring to any context	A vocabulary measure which assesses the test-takers ability to take account of contextual information in order to produce the expected response.

Table 3: Three Dimensions of Vocabulary Assessment (Read, 2000, p. 9)

I.3.4. Types of Vocabulary Tests

Earlier in this chapter (section I.3) a distinction was made between receptive and productive vocabulary as acknowledged by many researchers in the field (Nation, 2001, Read, 2000). On this basis, Read (2000, p. 156) distinguished between tests of *comprehension* (emphasising recognition of certain vocabulary) and those of *use* (requiring production of vocabulary). As for the former type, assessment can be done by exposing the learners to listening or reading materials followed by questions about specific vocabulary from the oral or printed material. This test determines how well learners can understand certain target words. Tests of vocabulary use, on the other hand, prompt learners to produce vocabulary. This can be achieved by 'setting controlled tasks' (Read, 2000).

a. Receptive Vocabulary Tests

Allen (1983) suggested the following test formats which are appropriate for assessing learners' understanding of the target vocabulary:

Word Association

One of the 'better' kinds of vocabulary tests according to Allen (1983) is to give learners a paragraph with a number of underlined words. The students have to read the paragraph and decide which words are closest in meaning to the underlined words from the suggested alternatives. The number of options (suggested answers) in this case is larger than the number of underlined words to make the task more challenging for learners.

Fill in the Blank

Fill in the blank tests involve the use of a paragraph with several blanks (missing words) which the learners have to find out to complete the meaning of the paragraph. Here, students are provided with a list of words, put in alphabetic order and the learners have to put the appropriate word in the appropriate space. Similar to the previous test format, the suggested list of words includes some distracters; words which are intruders and do not fit any of the suggested blanks.

Dictation

Though dictation is mainly a test of spelling, it can also be used as a measure for vocabulary knowledge. In the latter case, the teacher may start by showing a picture with a brief description to provide a context for the dictated words. Then, s/he dictates a set of words (related to the topic of the picture) and the learners have to write them on a blank sheet of paper and in ordered numbers.

In addition to the previous test types, Nation (2001, p. 424) described five different formats of vocabulary tests which, except for the translation test, are all appropriate for assessing learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge:

True / False

In a typical true/false test, students are given a number of sentences and have to decide whether each statement is True (T) or False (F) in the provided space. In general, this type of questions is used to test learners' comprehension of a specific reading material, but when used as a vocabulary test, independent statements can be used Eg:

We cut time into minutes, hours and days _____ (Nation 2001, p. 425)

Vocabulary Breadth Test

This test is mainly designed to measure learners' vocabulary size. For example: choose four words that go with the test word. Choose at least one from each of the two boxes (ibid).

Sudden

beautiful	change
surprising	noise

Definition Completion Test

This test is similar in format to the fill in the blank test. Learners are asked to choose the appropriate word (from the given list) to complete the definition (Nation 2001, p. 425):

An illness which is very serious is _____

(faint – acute – common – bare – alien – broad – direct)

Multiple Choice Tests

This test type presents learners with a statement followed by a number of possible answers from which the students have to choose the most appropriate. Only one answer is correct, the other alternatives are called distracters as their role is to confuse learners and make their task more challenging.

Chronic means   a. lasting for a long time   d. Effective and harmless

                           b. dissatisfied   e. don't know

                           c. to greatly decrease

Translation Test

Unlike the previous tests, the translation test is more productive in that the learner is not given any hints or suggestions about the correct answer. Another characteristic for this test format is that it is 'bilingual' requiring learners to find equivalent words in their mother tongue for the given words in the target language or the other way round, e.g.,

Translate the underlined words into your first language:

      You can see how the town has developed   ———

      Her idea is a very good one   ———

A major advantage of translation test is that is it is easy to design and quick to mark (Milton, 2009, p. 119). Besides, it tends to be more objective in scoring since the answer is clearly correct or wrong. The latter characteristic makes translation quite a reliable test. Despite its many advantages, translation is often not a preferable test as it represents an indirect measurement of learners' vocabulary (testing target language vocabulary through the use of the learners' native language). Moreover, the translation test is more appropriate

to traditional, structural approaches emphasising aspects of form and accuracy at the expense of meaningful, more context based information.

b. Productive Vocabulary Tests

Milton (2009) argued that measurements of productive vocabulary knowledge are smaller than those of receptive knowledge. He further described four test formats that are appropriate for testing learners' productive vocabulary.

Elicitation Tests

Elicitation tests allow for more contextualised and communicative measures of vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, they involve learners to use vocabulary of the target language without any resort to their native language. Two examples of elicitation tests as described by Milton (2009) are the 'C-test' and 'gap-fill' test. Both procedures involve learners in a completion task by providing the correct word in each of the given sentences. Besides, the first two letters of each missing word are suggested to limit the scope of the required answer. The best example of this test type is Nation's (1990) vocabulary levels' test.

e.g.   He has a successful car........ as a lawyer.

The thieves threw ac......... in his face and made him blind.

Free Production Tests

This is a more advanced measure for learners' ability to produce appropriate vocabulary in the target language. This type of tests refers to measures of learners' spontaneous production of vocabulary in speech or in writing. Learners are not only required to produce lexically or grammatically correct utterances, but also language which is appropriate in the given context. In other words, the free production test lays more

emphasis on learners' communicative competence and other aspects of fluency. The best examples of this type are the 'essay' and the 'oral test'. Though described as subjective and 'unreliable' tests, both test formats are very common in language teaching especially with intermediate and advanced levels.

Association Tests

The association test requires the students to respond to a given stimulus by brainstorming as many words as possible in relation to the stimulus item. An advantage of this test format is that it measures learners' productive vocabulary without necessarily producing grammatical and well structured language (Milton, 2009, p. 141). Unlike the receptive association test described earlier in this section, the productive associative test requires the students to give the answer themselves instead of choosing it from the suggested list of words. A good example of this test format is Lex 30 (Meara & Fitzpatrick, 2000 as cited in Milton, 2009). A sample Lex 30 is suggested in the following example (Milton, 2009, p. 142).

Look at the words below. Next to each word, write down any other words that makes you think of. Write down as many as you can (more than three if possible). It doesn't matter if the connections between the word and your words are not obvious; simply write down words as you think of them.

1. Attack .... *war, castle, guns, armour*

2. Board .... *plain, wood, airport, boarding pass*

3. Close .... *lock, avenue, finish, end*

4. Cloth .... *material, table, design*

5. Dig .... *bury, spade, garden, soil, earth, digger*

Conclusion

Vocabulary is the corner stone of any language. This makes the teaching and learning of vocabulary an ultimate goal for both teachers and learners of a second /foreign language. In this opening chapter, much focus was put on the discussion of vocabulary, in general and on vocabulary instruction in particular. Though the discussion of vocabulary instruction also entails vocabulary learning, this chapter laid more emphasis on the teacher's side by tackling different issues in relation to vocabulary teaching. The conclusion that can be drawn is that for vocabulary instruction to be successful and almost beneficial, some important elements have to be taken into consideration. First, a successful instruction has to start with clear objectives of the course. At this point, the teacher or course designer has to make clear statements about learners' expected outcomes after a certain period of instruction. Setting clear objectives would make the selection of the content relatively an easier task. The chosen syllabus will account for data which will enable learners to achieve the already set objectives. Moreover, presenting this content to the learners requires the teacher to adapt efficient methods or techniques that will make possible the understanding of the given information. Therefore, the teacher's choice of the classroom activities should go in harmony with the objectives as well as the selected content. Finally, the teacher needs to check learners' ability to grasp the given instruction. This may be realised through activities that take place regularly during the lesson or as final examination as a result of the accumulation of a number of teaching points. Once again, for vocabulary assessment to be successful and beneficial it has to be based on clear objectives. The teacher should have a clear idea about which abilities are being tested, and then designs the test which most fulfils the purpose of the test.

<div align="center">**Chapter Two**</div>

<div align="center">**Language Learning and Vocabulary Learning Strategies**</div>

Introduction

Learning a foreign language involves learners in carrying out different oral and written tasks. However, students' reactions to the various activities as well as their involvement in the learning process differ from one student to another. The study of students' learning styles and strategies becomes a major concern for many researchers and educationists. The importance of learning strategies is that they make learning "easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). In general, learning strategies tend to have a positive, facilitating role in the students' learning process and are determined as the main factor distinguishing between successful and less successful language learners (Oxford, 1990; Chamot et al, 1999).

Within the area of language learning strategies (LLS), vocabulary constitutes a focal point due to its central role in performing the different language tasks. The study of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) examines the various steps and techniques employed by language learners to improve their knowledge and understanding of vocabulary. The second chapter in this study presents a discussion about both LLS and VLS in relation to English language learning. The first section, about language learning strategies, starts with a definition of the key concepts 'strategy' and 'learning strategies'. It proceeds with a presentation of major classifications about learning strategies as described by key writers

in this domain. Then, a discussion about strategy training is presented by providing a possible approach for this training as well as the different factors that facilitate an effective training in strategy use. The second section, dealing with vocabulary learning strategies, opens with a definition of VLS, then proceeds with the different taxonomies of the vocabulary strategies. The last section discusses the different factors that may have an impact on students' use of the different vocabulary strategies.

II.1. Language Learning Strategies

II.1.1. Definitions

The term strategy, according to Gu (2005), implies "the process of planning, monitoring, evaluating as well as implementing a series of actions we take in order to achieve a desired result" (p. 11). In other words, a strategy is a carefully planned process which targets a specific purpose. This process involves the interaction of several actions which make the achievement of the set objectives a possible task.

Oxford (1990, p. 7) went back to the origin of the concept strategy which stems from the ancient Greek term 'strategia' meaning generalship or the art of war. A related word is 'tactics' which are tools to achieve the success of strategies.

Cohen's (1998) definition of the term strategy tends to be specifically related to language learning since he described it as referring "both to general approaches and to specific actions or techniques used to learn a second language" (p. 9). Cohen (1998) described learning strategies as "those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or

foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language" (p. 4).

Tackac (2008) defined learning strategies as "specific actions, behaviours, steps or techniques that learners use (often deliberately) to improve their progress in development of their competence in the target language" (p. 52).

From a psychological perspective, learning strategies are defined as "specific plan, action, behaviour, step, or technique that individual learners use, with some degree of consciousness, to improve their progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language" (Oxford & Schramm, 2007, p. 47). This definition emphasises an important characteristic of learning strategies which is 'consciousness'. The latter is described as a key element distinguishing strategic from non strategic processes (Cohen, 1998, p. 4). Moreover, Oxford (1993, p. 175) argued that the *conscious* use of L2 strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency. In other words, the more conscious the learner is when applying the different strategies, the more successful he will be in carrying out the various learning tasks.

Another important characteristic of learning strategies is that they are 'selective'. Cohen (1998) argued that learning strategies are "processes which are consciously selected by the learner. The element of choice is important here because this is what gives a strategy its special character" (p. 4).

From a technical view point, learning strategies are defined by Oxford (1990) as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p. 8).

Further definitions about learning strategies are suggested by Tackak (2008) in the following chart.

Source	Definition
Tarone (1981)	An attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language.
Rubin (1987)	What learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning.
Chamot (1987)	Techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate learning, recall of both linguistic and content information.
Wenden (1987)	The term refers to language behaviours learners engage in to learn and regulate the learning of L2, to what learners know about the strategies they use (i.e. strategic knowledge), and to what learner know about aspects of L2 learning.
Weinstein and Mayer (1986)	Behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process.
Oxford (1990)	Behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable.
Ellis (1995)	Generally, a strategy is a mental or behavioural activity related to some specific stage in the process of language acquisition or language use.
Ridley (1997)	Broadly speaking, the term strategy denotes procedures _ which are sometimes conscious and sometimes unconscious _ used by a person as a way of reaching a goal.
Cohen (1998)	Processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a L2, through the storage, recall and application of information about that language.
Purpura (1999)	Conscious or unconscious techniques or activities that an individual invokes in language learning, use or testing.

Table 4: Definitions of Language Learning Strategies (Takac, 2008, p. 51)

II.1.2. Features of Language Learning Strategies

As it has been explained at the onset of this chapter, the term 'strategy' is not reserved solely to language learning, but is relevant to different tasks including even

military operations. In language learning, strategies are particularly important in that they promote independent learning and active involvement; ensuring success in different learning tasks. Oxford (1990, p. 9) discussed some features of language learning strategies which make them different from other non-linguistic, or non-instructional strategies. The suggested characteristics emphasise many aspects about LLS. In addition to being consciously used by learners, learning strategies are also characterized by being both overt (observable) and covert (abstract) involving many cognitive and non-cognitive aspects of learning. They are beneficial for both learners and teachers. For the former, they contribute to the independence and self-monitoring of learners; whereas for teachers, LLS open new perspectives of the teacher role inside the classroom being a guide, prompter and supporter not only limiting themselves to spoon feeding their students with a predetermined set of information.

Language learning strategies

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teachers.
4. Are problem-oriented.
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. Are not always observable.
9. Are often conscious.
10. Can be taught.
11. Are flexible.

Table 5: Features of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990, p. 9)

II.1.3. Different Classifications of L2 Learning Strategies

A common characteristic of learning strategies as explained in the opening section of this chapter is that they are mental operations that are consciously and selectively applied to achieve specific purposes. However, these strategies are not all of the same type. Several classifications have been suggested as part of profound analyses of learners' actions in carrying different language tasks.

One of the leading studies in language learning strategies is that of Oxford (1990, 1993). Oxford (1993, p. 177) classified learning strategies into five categories:

1. Metacognitive Strategies

They deal with pre-assessment and pre-planning, on-line planning and evaluation, and post-evaluation of language learning activities and of language use events (Cohen 1998, p. 7). The use of these strategies is a characteristic of higher-proficiency students. Examples of metacognitive strategies include: organising, evaluating, and planning for learning.

2. Cognitive Strategies

This category encompasses the language learning strategies of identification, grouping, retention, and storage of language material, as well as the language use strategies of retrieval, rehearsal, and comprehension or production of words, phrases and other elements of the second language (Cohen 1998, p. 7). Further examples of this type of strategies include: analysing, reasoning, transferring information, taking notes, and summarising.

3. Compensation Strategies

Are mainly those strategies which compensate for learners' deficiencies in carrying out certain language tasks. Cohen (1998) used the term 'compensatory strategies' to refer to strategies which involve the creation of an impression that learners are taking control over their learning whereas in reality they are not. Hatch and Brown (1995) used the term 'communication strategies' to explain and exemplify Oxford's compensation strategies. They referred to a study by Tarone (1997, 1980 as cited in Hatch & Brown 1995, p. 392) which identified strategies like avoidance (shown in avoidance of topic and message abandonment), paraphrase (illustrated by subjects' use of approximation –pipe for water pipe- and word coinage – airball for the word balloon-), conscious transfer including literal translation from L1 and language shift as communication or compensation strategies used by the subjects in Tarone's study.

4. Memory Strategies

They refer to those actions which are meant to store the new information to be recalled at a later time. They involve grouping and structured reviewing. Examples of memory strategies include connecting the new word to a previous personal experience, grouping words together to study them and using semantic maps (Schmitt, 2000).

5. Affective Strategies

As indicated by their name, affective strategies serve to regulate emotions, motivation, and attitudes (Cohen 1998, p. 8). They include strategies for reduction of anxiety and for self-encouragement. For example, before a job interview in a second language, a learner may engage in positive self-talk about focusing on the message rather than on the inevitable grammatical errors that will emerge (Cohen, 2010).

5. Social Strategies

They include the actions through which learners manage to interact with other learners and with native speakers. For example, asking questions, cooperating with others in order to complete tasks.

For his part, Cohen (1998) divided learning strategies into two main types: language *learning* strategies and language *use* strategies. Language learning strategies deal with the reception and comprehension of information. Language use strategies, on the other hand, are related to the production of language in meaningful contexts. Each type is further divided into different sub-categories.

a. Language *learning* Strategies

Language *learning* Strategies are defined by Cohen (1998) as "the conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language" (p. 68). Cohen further divided learning strategies into five different types:

➢ Strategies for identifying the material that needs to be learned.

➢ Distinguishing it from other material if need be.

➢ Grouping it for easier learning, for example grouping vocabulary by category into nouns, verbs, adjectives, and so on).

➢ Having repeated contact with the material through classroom tasks or the completion of homework assignments for instance.

➢ Formally committing the material to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally. This can be done through rote memory techniques such as repetition, the use of mnemonics, or some other memory techniques.

b. Language *use* Strategies

As far as language *use* strategies are concerned, Cohen (1998) identified four sub-strategies: retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, cover strategies, and communication strategies.

1. *Retrieval strategies* refer to those strategies which are used to recall (remember) the learned material through different memory searching strategies. The latter may include keeping a list of new vocabulary and visualising it in their minds, using the key word mnemonic, and so on.

2. *Rehearsal strategies* can be part of both language learning and language use strategies. For example, memorising some language forms (such as asking for permission, or making a request) can be considered a learning strategy, but this strategy is followed by a language use strategy which consists of actually using it in a meaningful communicative exchange.

3. *Cover strategies* are types of 'compensatory or coping strategies which involve creating an appearance of language ability so as not to look unprepared or foolish' (Cohen 1998, p. 6). In other words, cover strategies help learners show a positive picture of themselves to cover for their weaknesses. An example of this kind of strategy may be to use a memorized utterance (sometimes not understood by the learner) to keep the action going.

4. *Communication strategies* refer to those strategies which help convey a meaningful and informative message for the listener or reader. Some examples of communicative strategies include topic avoidance or abandonment, message reduction, code switching and paraphrasing.

In addition to learning and use strategies, Cohen (1998) further suggested two other types of strategies:

Behavioural strategies: Those strategies which can be directly observed, such as asking a question for clarification and even those which are not easily observable such as paraphrasing.

Mentalistic strategies: abstract, not directly observed strategies such as making mental translations into the native language for the sake of clarification.

Another classification of LLS is that of Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999) who established a metacognitive model of learning strategies. The model consists of 27 strategies classified under four main processes: Planning, Monitoring, Problem solving, and Evaluating.

1. Planning Strategies

They are those strategies which learners apply before going through a learning task. This first step requires learners to set goals and objectives for the task so that they will approach it purposefully. They correspond to the metacognitive strategies in Oxford's above described classification. Examples of planning strategies include: setting goals, directing attention, activating background knowledge, predicting, and self-management.

2. Monitoring Strategies

They play the role of a 'thermostat' in this model (Chamot et al. 1999). They not only indicate for learners how are they doing as they work, but also help them adjust their learning to fulfil the task. Strategies like: deduction/induction, taking notes, using imagery, role-playing, and cooperating with classmates all help learners manage their learning task and make it almost achievable.

3. Problem Solving Strategies

They are those actions which are meant to provide solutions to learning difficulties. As with the previous strategies, problem-solving strategies are employed by good language learners who, in this case, will use available resources to solve their problem(s). According to Chamot et al. (1999), "students who actively and appropriately engage in problem solving are more successful at learning tasks" (p. 25). Examples of problem solving activities include: guessing or making inferences, making substitutions, asking questions to clarify and using available resources which can be either internal like examining the context of difficult words or external by making reference to materials such as dictionaries, computer programs, CD-ROMs, and the internet.

4. Evaluating Strategies

Evaluating strategies come as the last step in the achievement of a certain learning task. Learners, mainly good ones, check whether their objectives for this specific task are achieved or not. In the latter case, they would reflect on what has gone wrong so that they avoid it in the future. In making their evaluation, students use such strategies as verifying predictions and guesses, summarising, evaluating one self and evaluating the applied strategies.

II.1.4. Good learners Vs Less skilled L2 Learners

Strategies are important because they are associated with successful learning (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007, p. 27). Rubin (1975 cited in Oxford 1993, p. 178) identified the following characteristics of good language learners:

- ➢ They are willing and accurate guessers.
- ➢ They have a strong drive to communicate.

- They are often uninhibited and willing to make mistakes.

- They focus on form by looking for patterns and analysing.

- They take advantage of all practice opportunities.

- They monitor their own speech and that of others.

- They pay attention to meaning.

Unlike successful learners, less skilled language learners seem to have troubles in selecting, applying and evaluating the most appropriate strategies for their learning activities. Oxford (1993) gave three main characteristics of less successful language learners:

1. Less skilled learners use not only fewer strategies, but also highly restricted type of strategies than good language learners. Their strategies include non-communicative behaviours such as translation and heavy use of dictionaries, rote memorisation, folding papers into columns to create vocabulary self-tests, and uncreative forms of repetition.

2. Less skilled learners are also unable to describe their strategies. In other words, these students may be using some strategies but they fail to report them successfully.

3. Ineffective learners do not demonstrate the careful orchestration and creativity. Put differently, they have problems in monitoring and adjusting the limited range of strategies they know to the various tasks in hand. Their 'thermostat' tends not to function adequately.

Furthermore, Gu (2005) carried out four case studies involving two successful (top group) and two unsuccessful (Bottom group) learners and concluded that successful learners were more motivated in learning, used a wide a range of strategies, took care of important details and gave themselves more chances to learn words in their natural contexts.

	Successful learners	**Unsuccessful learners**
Self-initiation	Very active, always plan, monitor And evaluate learning	Very passive, little or no planning, Monitoring and evaluation of learning
Selective attention	Know what's important (to task at hand and learning in general)	Random, non selective
Beliefs about language	See language as an integrated system; and vocabulary as integral & dynamic part of language	See language as separate systems of grammar rules and vocabulary; and vocabulary as words of fixed meanings
Strategies (what)	Use a wide range of strategies	Use a narrow range of mainly rote strategies
Strategies (how)	Flexible and principled use of strategies and strategy combinations	Inflexible choice of strategies (stick to a narrow range); inflexible or even non-rational use of strategies
Activation / Use of English	Try to use English as much as possible	Never use English
Affective reaction	- in comfortable control of learning; - enjoy learning; enjoy English	- despair (if seeing English as important) -avoid English altogether

Table 6: Differences between Successful and Unsuccessful Learners (Gu 2005, p. 154)

II.1.5. Strategy Training

Strategy training, according to Weaver and Cohen (1998) means "explicitly teaching students how to apply language learning and language use strategies" (p. 66). However, teaching learners to learn and use effective strategies is not restricted to learners mainly unsuccessful ones, but also imply training teachers in how to facilitate the task of their trainees (Oxford , 1990).

Moreover, Weaver and Cohen (1998) set two main goals for strategy training: (1) "to explore ways that they can learn the target language more effectively"; and (2) "to promote learner autonomy and learner self direction by allowing students to choose their own strategies and to do so spontaneously" (p. 66). Moreover, strategy training for Weaver and Cohen should focus on how, when and why strategies can be used.

II.1.6. An Approach to Strategy Training

Based on Oxford (1990) study, Cohen (1998) suggested seven steps for effective strategy training:

Step 1/ Determining Learners' needs and Available Resources for the Training

This first step involves collecting information about learners in terms of level of proficiency, experience with language strategy use, learning styles and personality characteristics as well as their beliefs and attitudes about language learning. Moreover, factors such as the schedule or amount of time to be devoted for the training, funding or sponsoring the training program in addition to determining 'who' will conduct the training are all important issues that need to be studied at the onset of any training program.

Step 2/ Selecting the Strategies

The decision about which strategies to include in the training program is largely determined by the information gathered in the first step, mainly learners' needs and available resources. In addition to the above mentioned information about learners, the selection of the strategies also depends on learners' educational and cultural background, age, gender, career orientation, previous language study and levels and types of motivation. Furthermore, the number of the strategies to be taught also depends on the available time and funding for the training.

Step 3/ Considering the Benefits of Integrated Strategy Training

Strategy training brings considerable benefits to learners undergoing the training. To achieve these benefits, the strategy based instruction ought to be contextualised and individualised according to the needs of learners. Moreover, it should allow for practice and reinforcement of the strategies during authentic language learning tasks.

Step 4/ Considering Motivational Issues

In any teaching/learning situation, the motivation of learners is a key element in the achievement of the set objectives. Some of the ways to help increase learners' motivation in following a strategy training program include granting extra credit as well as allowing the students to choose the strategies to be learned.

Step 5/ Preparing the Materials and Activities

To ensure the success of the training, it is important that the strategy-based materials reflect the different learning tasks included in the curriculum. Moreover, efforts should be made as to include a variety of interesting and meaningful activities. These materials can include awareness-raising activities in addition to training, practice and reinforcement activities (Cohen, 1998).

Step 6/ Conducting Explicit Strategy Training

One major characteristic of learning strategies is that they are used *consciously*. For this reason, learners need to be informed about the strategies they are being taught, the purpose of employing them, and the possible ways for transferring the acquired strategies to other learning tasks. The main belief is that the more students are aware of the strategies presented to them, the more likely they will be using them spontaneously even after the training is over.

Step 7/ Evaluating and Revising the Strategy Training

This is an important step not only in relation to strategy training but in any teaching/learning situation. Though generally, the evaluation seems to be the responsibility of the teacher or teacher trainer, students can bring a useful feedback about the success of the teaching/learning operation. Some examples of the evaluative criteria for the strategy training as suggested by Cohen (1998) include: improved student performance across language tasks and skills, general learning skill improvement, maintenance of the new strategies over time, as well as an effective transfer of strategies to other learning tasks.

It is clear from the discussion of the previous steps that strategy training is a carefully planned process involving many technical, instructional and even financial matters before, during and after the training. Nation (2001) also suggested that teachers or strategy trainers should design a mini syllabus for strategy training and listed some 'directives' which would contribute to the success of the training program:

➢ The teacher models the strategy for the learners.

➢ The steps in the strategy are practised separately.

➢ Learners apply the strategy in pairs supporting each other.

➢ Learners report back on the application of the steps in the strategy.

➢ Learners report on their difficulties and successes in using the strategy when they use it outside class time.

➢ Teachers systematically test learners on strategy use and give them feedback.

➢ Learners consult the teacher on their use of the strategy, seeking advice where necessary.

II.1.7. Factors Facilitating Effective Strategy Training

The importance of strategy training is based on the belief that it affects learners' achievement in the different learning tasks. Strategy training is considered an important part of language education (Oxford, 1990).

Chamot et al. (1999, p. 35) identified some individual and instructional factors that may have a fostering effect on strategy instruction. Whereas the individual factors refer to students' and teachers' beliefs, the instructional factors involve the teaching/learning social context as well as the approach/approaches followed in the instruction.

a. Student Beliefs

Effective strategy instruction relies to a large extent on students' positive attitude toward strategy training and the belief that they can take control of their own learning. Students must believe that they are independent learners, and that success or failure in learning is not an innate ability, but is the result of effective or ineffective use of learning strategies.

b. Teacher Beliefs

On the other side, teachers need to be aware of the importance and utility of learning strategies for their students and that these strategies are, indeed, teachable. Moreover, teachers must not underestimate the ability of their learners to become independent and active learners. In other words, teachers have to play the role of a prompter and facilitator rather than a dictator of knowledge. According to Oxford (1990), the strategy trainer "helps each student to gain self-awareness of how he or she learns, as well as to develop the means to maximize all learning experiences, both inside and outside of the language area" (p. 12).

c. Classroom Context

The social context inside the classroom is very important. Both teachers and learners come to the classroom with pre-determined goals. The achievement of these goals can only take place in a healthy atmosphere where each side assumes its expected roles.

d. Language of Instruction

An important characteristic of learning strategies as described at the onset of this chapter is that they are most of the time abstract. This means that strategy instruction should be based on the discussion of some mental procedures to describe the use of these strategies. At elementary levels, Chamot et al. (1999) believe that the discussion is better carried out in the students' mother tongue to avoid confusion and misunderstanding from the learners' part. Nonetheless, teachers can do it in the foreign language using simple vocabulary, gestures and examples.

II.2. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

II.2.1. Definition

Vocabulary learning strategies are part of language learning strategies which in turn are a part of general learning strategies. Tackac (2008) defined vocabulary learning strategies as "specific strategies utilised in the isolated task of learning vocabulary in the target language, however, they can be employed in all kinds of tasks" (p. 52). Tackac's definition emphasizes the tight link between learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies. Therefore, all what has been written earlier in this chapter about language learning strategies is applicable for the discussion of Vocabulary learning strategies.

II.2.2. Different Taxonomies of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Nation (2000) defined the concept of taxonomy as "a matrix with the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word listed along one side, and the sources and processes along the other" (p. 353). He divided vocabulary learning strategies into three main categories:

1. Planning Vocabulary Learning

It includes strategies involving the learner to decide on where, how, and how often to focus attention on the new item. This involves choosing words, word knowledge, strategies and planning repetition.

2. Sources; Finding Information about Words

They include different strategies which help learners get information about the new word. Such information can be obtained from different sources: the word itself (word analysis), the context in which it appears (context analysis) or from drawing on analogies and connections with other languages consulting a reference source in L1 or L2, and using parallels in L1 and L2).

3. Processes; Establishing Vocabulary Knowledge

The strategies in this third category aim at helping students recall the already learned vocabulary for later use.

The three categories are ordered from the simplest (less demanding) to the most complex as illustrated in the table below:

General Class of Strategies	Types of Strategies
Planning: Choosing what to focus on and when to focus on it	Choosing words Choosing the aspects of word knowledge Choosing strategies Planning repetition
Sources: Finding information about words	Analysing the word Using context Consulting a reference source in L1 or L2 Using parallels in L1 and L2
Processes: Establishing knowledge	Noticing Retrieving Generating

Table 7: Nation's Taxonomy of VLS (Nation 2000, p. 353)

Schmitt's Taxonomy of VLS

Schmitt (1997, cited in Schmitt, 2000) suggested a list of 31 different VLS divided into five main categories: Determination strategies, Social strategies, Memory strategies, Cognitive strategies, and Metacognitive strategies.

1. Determination Strategies (DET)

They refer to the strategies which the learner employs by himself without resort to any external source. Examples of these strategies include guessing from context, using the dictionary, analysing word parts, etc.

2. Social Strategies (SOC)

They include strategies which involve the students in several interaction patterns in relation to other people like the teacher or classmates.

3. Memory Strategies (MEM)

They are also known as word mnemonics as they involve matching the target word with "some previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery, or grouping" (Nation 2000, p. 135). Examples of memory strategies include: Connecting the word to a previous personal experience, Using Keyword method, connecting the word to its synonyms and antonyms, and so forth.

4. Cognitive Strategies (COG)

They include "repetition and using mechanical means to study vocabulary, including the keeping of vocabulary notebooks" (Nation 2000, p. 136). Repetition can be verbal or written, in addition to some mechanical strategies like putting English labels on physical objects.

5. Meta-cognitive Strategies (MET)

This type of strategies involves "a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study" (Nation 2000, p. 136). Using English language media like songs and movies, and testing oneself with word tests are two examples of meta-cognitive strategies.

The above stated strategies are grouped into two main categories: (1) strategies necessary for discovering new words' meaning, and (2) strategies necessary for consolidating (memorizing) the new words as illustrated in the below table:

Strategies for the Discovery of a New Word's Meaning	
Strategy Group	*Strategy*
DET	Analyse part of speech
DET	**Analyse affixes and roots**
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyse any available pictures or gestures
DET	**Guess meaning from textual context**
DET	**Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)**
SOC	Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1 translation of new word
	Ask classmates for meaning
SOC	

Strategies for Consolidating the New Words	
Strategy Group	*Strategy*
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
SOC	Interact with native speakers
MEM	Connect word to a previous personal experience
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
MEM	**Use semantic maps**
MEM	Image word form
MEM	**Use Keyword method**
MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Study the spelling of a word
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Put English labels on physical objects
COG	**Keep a vocabulary notebook**
MET	Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
MET	Use spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal)
MET	Test oneself with word tests
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time

Table 8: Schmitt's (1997) Classification of VLS (Schmitt 2000, p. 134)

II.2.3. Factors Influencing VLS Use

Nyikos and Fan (2007) identified four main factors influencing learners' use of the different vocabulary strategies:

a. Proficiency Level of Learners: Proficient Vs less Proficient Vocabulary Learners.

Several researchers have emphasised the link between learners' proficiency level and their use of the different vocabulary strategies. Section II.1.4.in this chapter already accounted for some characteristics of both skilled and less skilled learners. Furthermore, Nyikos and Fan (2007) reviewed some studies which all reported a clear advantage in favour of successful learners who followed a more structured approach characterised by disciplined, independent study involving more self-devised tasks. On the other hand, unsuccessful learners showed little awareness and were less systematic, motivated, and disciplined.

b. Individual Variation and Gender Differences

Individual variation is an important factor affecting VLS use even among proficient learners. Nyikos (1987 as cited in Nyikos and Fan, 2007, p. 257) concluded that men were more successful in using visual and colour association strategy in learning German vocabulary whereas women found simple colour coding more useful as a retrieval strategy.

c. Strategy Development and Proficiency

The proficiency of learners in this context is related to the extent of which learners master the language they are learning, entailing beginners, intermediate, and advanced levels. Nyikos and Fan (2007) argued that strategies like using written repetition, word spelling, word lists, and flash cards decrease as students move to higher proficiency levels.

On the other hand, more proficient learners employ such strategies as using bilingual dictionaries, guessing from context, imaging word meanings, asking teachers for paraphrase or synonym, skipping new words, analysis of part of speech, and connecting words to personal experience.

d. Learning Environment: Classroom-restricted Vs Socially-embedded VLS Learning

The discussion of the impact of the learning environment on strategy use is mainly related to whether the target language is a foreign (thus restricted to classroom use) or second language (offering more practice outside the classroom). The poor linguistic environment for EFL learners prompts them to rely more on curricula activities and the use of specific strategies such as reviewing readings, words, and notes unlike ESL learners who tend to practice the newly acquired vocabulary in their daily life conversations.

Conclusion

Learning strategies are described as mental actions or operations used by learners to cope with different learning situations. These operations can be applied to various areas of language learning including vocabulary. Language learning strategies are characterised by being conscious and selective and are recognised as the main factor distinguishing between successful and less successful learners. Research in this area concludes that successful language learners not only use more strategies, but better strategies than less successful students. They are able to monitor their strategy use and adjust it to their various learning tasks.

Vocabulary learning strategies, a sub-class of language learning strategies, concentrates on the strategies learners make use of in pursuit of the task of vocabulary learning. Two major VLS categories are distinguished by Schmitt (1997 as cited in Schmitt 2000); identification strategies and consolidation strategies, each with a set of sub

strategies including determination, social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. Schmitt's classification is central to the present study. Its main principle is that the task of vocabulary learning goes through two main stages: getting the meaning of the new word (through the use of identification strategies), then fixing the new vocabulary in learners' memory (through consolidation strategies). The interaction between the two steps leads to efficient vocabulary learning.

A major characteristic of LLS and VLS is that they are teachable and transferable. The issue of strategy training is based on the belief that poor learners' use of the language can be improved as a result of direct instruction and that the difference between skilled and less skilled learners is not innate but is mainly the result of efficiency or inefficiency of their learning strategies. Strategy training focuses on elements of identification of learners' needs, selection of relevant strategies, designing various activities that reinforce learners' use of the selected strategies and finally evaluating the training process to check the degree of success of the training program. To ensure an ultimate rate of success, the training ought to focus on the teacher's role and sense of responsibility, the learners' autonomy and contribution as well as the classroom environment. The interaction among these factors makes the strategy training program a successful experience for both teachers and learners.

Chapter Three

Identification and Consolidation Strategies: Six Main Strategies

Introduction

The previous chapter discussed various strategies learners may employ to learn new vocabulary. Indeed, it is very difficult either for research or teaching purposes to concentrate on all above mentioned strategies and give them equal importance. The danger of doing so is that students' attention might be dispersed leading them to get confused about which strategies are more useful than others. Another reason might be the fact that there are certain strategies which are relatively easier than others, thus receiving little focus by the researcher or by the teacher in the classroom.

This chapter presents a detailed description of six important vocabulary strategies as emphasised by many writers and researchers in the field. The strategies are presented in two main parts based on Schmitt's (2000) VLS classification. The first part examines strategies necessary for the identification of new words' meanings. It provides a detailed description about three main strategies: contextual guessing, dictionary use and study of word parts. The second part tackles consolidation strategies or strategies for remembering the newly acquired vocabulary. Three strategies in particular are to be discussed: semantic mapping, using vocabulary notebooks and the key word method.

III.1. Guessing from Context

Of the six strategies under study, contextual guessing seems to be the most appealing for practitioners in this domain. Stahl and Nagy (2006) argued that most students'

vocabulary knowledge is acquired through context. Nation (2001) shared the same view explaining that "incidental learning via guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning" (p. 232).

The importance of guessing is that it represents a natural way of acquiring new vocabulary. Thornbury (2002) explains that guessing from context is "one of the most useful skills learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom" (p. 148). Further, the acquisition of this skill makes reading and subsequently vocabulary learning more enjoyable as the learner is not obliged to focus on every word in a text. McCarthy and O'Dell (1994) advised: "While reading, don't stop at the meaning of every single word as this may lead to boredom" (p. 2).

Furthermore, deriving vocabulary from content learning material is very beneficial for students as indicated by the National Reading Panel (2000, p. 4-26). First, it would assist the learner in dealing with the specific reading matter in content area materials. Second, it would provide the learner with vocabulary that would be encountered sufficiently often to make the learning effort worthwhile.

III.1.1. What is Context/ Context Clues?

In general, *context* refers to the linguistic environment of a given word in speech or in writing. According to Davy and Davy (2006), the context of a word is "the setting in which the word occurs in speech or in written materials" (p. 29).

Context clues are defined by Mirrors & windows (2009) as "other words or information in the passage that hint at the meaning of the word" (p. 3). In other words, context clues are those linguistic or rhetoric devices which assist the reader in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words. The use of such clues could substitute for resorting to external resources like the dictionary or asking another person.

III.1.2. Steps for Guessing from Context

Tankersley (2003) believed that contextual guessing is a high level skill even for native speakers, but it tends to be crucial for EFL learners. For him, guessing is a "monumental task for non-English language learners as it involves a high level of processing, background knowledge, and cultural understanding" (p. 65).

McCarthy (1990) argued that inferring involves creating a schema for the unknown word(s), based on world knowledge and previous experience, both of the world and texts; it means drawing conclusions as to word meaning by following certain rational steps in the face of the evidence available.

An illustrative example about some of the mental processes that take place during the construction of meaning from context is the following:

'there are a lot of nasty snags yet to overcome' (McCarthy,1990, p. 125)

In this example, the reader may guess that 'snags' are something which can be 'overcome' just like 'problems' or 'obstacles' or 'difficulties'. Subsequently, the word 'nasty' can be guessed as being an adjective which has a negative meaning (cannot be something good) since it is associated with problems and difficulties.

Being such an important and challenging skill at the same time, contextual guessing involves learners to process information at several levels ranging from an analysis of the word itself to examining its larger linguistic context then matching it with one's already existing knowledge (schemata). Thornbury (2002, p. 148) recommended seven steps for guessing from context, shifting gradually from word examination to its immediate context, then to its wider context:

1. Decide the part of speech of the unknown word (is it a noun, verb, adjective, etc). Its position in the sentence may be a guide, as might its ending (e.g. an *-ed* or *-ing* ending might indicate it is a verb).

2. Look for further clues in the words' immediate collocates – if it is a noun, does it have an article (which might suggest whether it is countable or not)? If it is a verb does it have an object?

3. Look at the wider context, including the surrounding clauses and sentences – especially if there are 'signposting' words, such as *but*, *and*, *however*, *so*, that might give a clue as to how the new word is connected to its context.

4. Look at the form of the word for any clues as to meaning. For example: *downhearted* is made up of *down* + *heart* + a participle affix (*-ed*).

5. Make a guess as to the meaning of the word, on the basis of the above strategies.

6. Read on and see if the guess is confirmed; if not – and if the word seems critical to the understanding of the text – go back and repeat the above steps. If the word does not seem to critical, carry on reading. May be the meaning will be clearer later on.

7. When all else fails, consult a dictionary.

To the above mentioned steps, Nation (1990, as cited in Nation 2001) argued that guessing does not involve solely making an inference about the meaning of unfamiliar words, but it goes further to checking the correctness of this guess. To do so, Nation suggested the following steps as a means of checking the suitability of our guess:

1. See that the part of speech of your guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word. If it is not the same, then something is wrong with your guess.

2. Replace the unknown word with your guess. If the sentence makes sense, your guess is probably correct.

3. Break the unknown word into its prefix, root and suf-fix, if possible. If the meanings of the prefix and root correspond to your guess, good. If not, look at your guess again, but do not change anything if you feel reasonably certain about your guess using the context.

Another method for guessing word meanings was made by Tankersley (2003) who suggested different strategies like pronunciation of the unknown word, analysis of its component parts (affixes and prefixes) and the resort to a dictionary or another person if none of the previous strategies proves to be efficient. Tankersley's proposition consists of six main steps:

1. Using the words in the rest of the sentence to predict a word that would make sense in the sentence.

2. Sounding out the letters in the word to see if the word is a recognizable word.

3. Looking for root words, prefixes, suffixes, or endings that are known in the word.

4. Trying to pronounce the word to see if the word is a recognizable word.

5. Continuing to read the passage to see if the meaning becomes clear with additional reading.

6. Using a dictionary, asking someone for help, or skipping the word.

III.1.3. Types of Context Clues

The guessing strategy is based essentially on the use of context and context clues which are the main source of information for the learner to make a prediction about the meaning of unknown vocabulary. Gairns and Redman (1986) emphasised the importance of context clues by arguing that the guessing strategy involves "use of the context in which the word appears to derive an idea of its meaning or in some cases to guess from the word

itself" (p. 83). These context clues tend to be of different types as indicated by Peterson's Master TOEFL vocabulary (2006, p. 11):

a. Restatement Clues

Restatement clues provide a definition of the new word immediately after or before the word is stated. For example:

In many Native American tribes, *the shaman*, or medicine man, acted as a ceremonial priest. (The word shaman means a medicine man).

b. Inferential Clues

This type of context engages the reader in a "detective work" requiring him to combine linguistic information from the text with his background knowledge. An example of this type might be the following:

In 1862, in order to support the Civil War effort, congress enacted the nation's first income tax law. It was a *forerunner* of our modern income tax in that it was based on the principles of graduated, or progressive, taxation and of withholding income at the source.

Context Clue	**+**	**what I know**	**=**	**inference**
Was a *forerunner*		*fore* means before or precedes		forerunner means before

3. Contrast Clues

The context in this case presents an opposite or contrast to the unknown word; e.g. I was afraid that my latest mother in law would be a *menace* to our already cranky family, but she turned out to be a great peace maker. In this sentence, the contrast between menace and peace maker may indicate that menace means 'threat'.

Moreover, McKeown, & Beck (2004) suggested another classification of context clues based on the role they play in getting the reader closer to the real meaning of the unknown word. Four main types of context are recognised: Directive, General directive, Non- directive, and misdirective.

1. Directive Contexts

As the name suggests, directive contexts provide the reader with enough information to make an accurate guess about the meaning of the unknown word. An example of a directive context is the following:

Madelaine watched as Nora grew smaller and smaller and finally *vanished*. Now she was really alone.

In this example, the reader is able to guess that 'to vanish' means to disappear.

2. General Contexts

These are contexts which give the reader a general idea about the new word. In other words, the reader is able to place the target word in a general category but not to get its exact meaning. Let's examine the following example:

Brian said *morosely*, 'This miserable town will be the death of us'.

Here the student may be able to guess that 'morosely' implies a negative feeling, but it is not clear whether it anger or fear or disappointment.

3. Nondirective Contexts

Nondirective contexts provide little information for the reader as to the real meaning of the unknown word. In the following example:

"Freddie looked over the members of the team she'd been assigned. Each looked more *hapless* that the next"

the meaning of the word 'hapless' cannot be inferred easily because the context provides little assistance about it.

4. Misdirective Contexts

Misdirective contexts lead the reader to make an incorrect guess about the meaning of the unknown word. It is generally this type of context which opponents of the guessing strategy use to argue about the ineffectiveness of contextual guessing and the need for direct, more explicit strategies for vocabulary learning. An illustrative example of the misdirective context is the following:

"Sandra had won the dance contest, 'every step she takes is so perfect', Ginny said *grudgingly"*.

In this example the word 'grudgingly' may be guessed as being a positive comment from Ginny expressing her excitement about Sandra's dance, indeed it is completely the opposite.

What is important in this classification is the point that context clues are not always helpful. Sometimes, the context gives little assistance, or even worse, it provides misleading information about the meaning of some words. Stahl and Nagy (2006) argued that "it is logically impossible for context to be 100 per cent informative" (p. 176). Students, then, have to be prudent and as indicated earlier it is necessary to evaluate one's guess as being correct or wrong before continuing reading. Therefore, giving learners some training in the use of context becomes more than necessary in this case.

III.1.4. Teaching Use of Context

Similar to different vocabulary learning strategies; contextual guessing is a transferable, teachable strategy for which some kind of training can be offered to improve learners' inferring abilities. Nation (2001, p. 250) emphasised the role of the teacher in helping learners improve their ability to learn vocabulary from context. He suggested the following ways for pedagogical purposes:

1. Helping students find and choose reading and listening material of appropriate difficulty

2. Encouraging them to read a lot and helping them gain a lot of comprehensible spoken input

3. Improving their reading skills so that they read fluently and with good comprehension

4. Providing training in guessing from context.

For their part, Bishop, Yopp and Yopp (2009, p. 192) highlighted the importance of instruction about the guessing strategy and suggested the following recommendations:

1. Emphasis should be on meaning, both in oral and written language interactions. This encourages students to anticipate, think, and approach language interactions as meaning makers.

2. Contextual analysis should be taught explicitly; teachers should familiarize students with the variety of clues that authors provide to support meaning, while also reminding students that not all contexts are helpful in determining word meanings.

3. Teachers should model the use of context to confront unknown words by thinking aloud. Students need to witness contextual analysis in action in authentic circumstances, such as when the teacher reads aloud.

4. Teachers should scaffold students' use of context to build initial hypotheses about the meaning of an unknown word.

III.1.5. Testing the Guessing Strategy

Assessment is an integral part in the teaching/learning process as it indicates for both teachers and learners the extent to which their goals have been achieved. Before deciding on a test format, some factors need to be taken into consideration to get the maximum of benefit from the designed tests. Nation (2001, pp. 254-255) suggested four main factors:

1. T*he effect of the word form:* using word form can have both positive and negative effects on guessing unfamiliar words. Students may be mislead by another word having a similar form but a different meaning. On the other hand, words with familiar affixes (prefixes and suffixes) may facilitate the understanding of this word. Therefore, students should concentrate more on the context than on word forms. In testing, it is necessary to take this point into consideration.

2. *Previous knowledge of the word to be guessed*: the guessing test should face learners with new words, i.e, words they do not know before. One way of doing this is to provide a blank or a nonsense word instead of the word to be guessed.

3. *The ratio of known to unknown words:* this refers to the density of unknown words in relation to the size of the context. When the density of unknown words is high (many new words in a small context), students may fail in producing correct guesses. Liu and Nation (1985 cited in Nation 2000) suggested that at least 95% of the words in a text should be familiar to the reader.

4. *The types of words that are guessed*: familiar vocabulary is easier to guess than unfamiliar one. In a guessing test, it is important that the teacher vary the types of words to be guessed so that the test is neither easy nor difficult for the learners.

All in all, contextual guessing tends to be an essential strategy for vocabulary development. Learning words in context promotes active and independent learning from the part of the student. Brown (1980) argued: "when we encourage students to use the context to find the meanings of words we are encouraging them to rely on their natural intelligence and not first to use a dictionary or ask another person" (p. 9). Developing a good inferring habit requires knowledge about different kinds of context and context clues which can be fostered by careful instruction, practice and assessment to ensure a correct use of this strategy.

III.2. Dictionary Use

Another important vocabulary learning strategy is the use of the dictionary. The latter seems to be a necessary document in language learning be it a first or second/foreign language. Moreover, the dictionary has a long term validity rendering it the only document which the individual keeps using several years after the end of one's studies. Carter (1998), emphasising the importance of the dictionary and the 'prestigious' status it has argued:

> Dictionaries have a good image. They have social prestige.
> Many families believe that every good home should have one.
> Almost every learner or user of English as a second or foreign
> language owns one; and it is probably one of the few books which
> are retained after following a language course. (p. 150).

III.2.1. Definition

A dictionary is defined by Peterson's Master TOEFL vocabulary (2006) as "an alphabetical reference list of the words in the language" (p. 3).

The importance of the dictionary is that it provides its users with a variety of information, in addition to the advantage that it can be used for several purposes. McCarthy (1990) explains that dictionaries "contain vast amounts of useful information to meet the needs of the learner and are the results of long and detailed research" (p. 135). Moreover, Flower, Berman and Powel (1989) argued that the dictionary is not only used to explain words but also to check pronunciation, useful idioms and fixed expressions, and most importantly to give students an idea about word combinations.

According to Thornbury (2002), the dictionary can be used both *receptively*; to check the meaning of some words as an alternative to contextual guessing, or *productively* both for "generating text and as resources for vocabulary acquisition" (p. 151).

Good dictionaries according to McCarthy and O'Dell (1994, p. 10) offer a variety of information. In addition to word meaning, they provide such information about a word as synonyms and their differences e.g. *mislay* and *lose*; antonyms e.g. *friend ≠ enemy*; collocations; i.e. the way(s) words are grouped together e.g. auburn combines only with hair; and pronunciation involving learning some symbols to be able to pronounce the new word correctly.

III.2.2. Types of Dictionaries

The ideal learners' dictionary, according to McCarthy (1990) "should give a sufficiently clear explanation not only for the learner to *decode* meaning but also to *encode* without error" (p. 134). On this basis, two main types of dictionaries can be distinguished:

a. Encoding Dictionaries

They are also referred to as 'production' dictionaries as they help learners in checking the different uses of a word as well as its collocational patterns (Carter, 1998, p.

179). For example; the learners can use the words sad, unhappy, be fed up with, etc instead of repeating a single known word. Therefore, encoding dictionaries represent an active form of learning since they contribute to the autonomy of language learners.

b. Decoding Dictionaries

This seems to be the most common dictionary type for learners especially in an EFL context. In this case, the dictionary contributes to the understanding of the difficult vocabulary. Though this may represent less active modes of learning, it is indeed recognised as a major source for expanding one's knowledge of vocabulary.

III.2.3. Monolingual / Bilingual Dictionaries

Monolingual dictionaries "are written all in one language" (Nation, 2001, p. 357). So, an English monolingual dictionary has an English headword, an English definition, and all the examples and other information in English. Three monolingual dictionaries, in particular are recognised by McCarthy (1990, p. 132) as being important for native speakers as well as ESL/EFL learners: Hornby's *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (OALDCE) first edited in 1948 and the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE), in addition to *Collins COBUILD English Learner Dictionary* (1987).

Bilingual dictionaries use two languages. The head word and the examples are in one language and the meaning is in another language (Nation, 2001, p. 358). Though bilingual dictionaries are often considered inferior to monolingual dictionaries (McCarthy, 1990), they should not be underestimated. Carter (1998) argued that bilingual dictionaries tend to be more useful at initial stages of language learning. As the learners' proficiency gets higher, monolingual dictionaries are more recommended (Carter 1998, p. 151). Two dictionaries, in particular, are recognized by Carter to have considerably contributed to the

design and development of dictionaries for non-native speakers are the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* (1974) and *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1978).

Furthermore, Allen (1983) argued that using bilingual dictionaries is no harm because using it appropriately will pave the way to more accurate use of monolingual dictionaries. She further stressed the point that students should try to use the context of the unknown word before using the dictionary. The following steps, according to Allen (1983) might be of some help:

1. Students should read and think about the whole sentence including the unknown word. They should ask themselves how much of the sentence can be understood without the meaning of the unknown word.

2. Look carefully at the unknown word and determine whether it is a noun, verb, an adjective, etc

3. Think of some possible meanings of the word in the context in which it appears

III.2.4. Thesaurus

According to Peterson's Master TOEFL vocabulary (2006), the word thesaurus has a Greek origin meaning "collection" or "treasure". A thesaurus is a "reference book that contains synonyms and antonyms" (p. 6). It is helpful for students to express their ideas and to find out other words than they already know. This would largely increase learners' vocabulary store.

McCarthy (1990) argued that thesaurus-type books arrange their entries around semantic fields. For him, the most famous thesaurus for English is *Roget's Thesaurus*, first published in 1852. Other examples of more recent thesauri include the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* (1981) and the *Collins New World Thesaurus* (1981).

III.2.5. Which Dictionary to Use?

Faced with such a variety in dictionary types, EFL learners may be confused about the kind of dictionary which is most appropriate for them. The decision about which dictionary to use is largely determined by learners' needs as well as their level of proficiency. Peterson's Master TOEFL vocabulary (2006, p. 4-5) suggested four criteria for appropriate selection of the dictionary:

1. A dictionary that satisfies its user's needs; i.e. one which contains all the words that someone is likely to encounter in different learning situations including standardized tests.

2. One that provides a simple explanation of the words; using an easy language. (The words explained in terms that you can understand).

3. It should be of an appropriate size to be used in different places.

4. A printed dictionary is more practical than an online dictionary requiring the use of the computer each time.

III.2.6. Training in Dictionary Use

Certainly, the appropriate selection and use of the dictionary requires some explicit instruction which would facilitate learners' task. The role of the teacher here is very important. Brown (1980) argued: "Without a teacher's guidance the dictionary may be either over- or- under used" (p. 87).

Thornbury (2002, p. 151-152) emphasised the importance of training learners in effective dictionary use which will be a source of vocabulary knowledge even after the accomplishment of their studies. Such training may involve the following skills:

➢ Recognising features of dictionary layout, such as use of alphabetical order, headwords, grammar and pronunciation information, definitions, etc.

➢ Understanding the way dictionary entries are coded – particularly the use of abbreviations such as *adj* (adjective), *sth* (something), *ScotE* (Scottish English) etc.

➢ Discriminating between the different meanings of a word especially a word with many **polysemes** such as *course* or *fair*, or words that are **homonyms** such as *bill*, *bat*, and *shed* or **homographs** such as *windy*, *live*, and *led*.

➢ Cross checking (in the case of bilingual dictionaries) that the translation equivalent that is offered is the best choice for the meaning that is required. For example, the French word '*embrasser*' may have several equivalents in the English dictionary such as *embrace*, *hug*, *kiss* and *include*. Students then have to be careful in selecting the appropriate English word.

➢ Using synonyms, antonyms and other information to narrow the choice of best word for the meaning intended. For example, to correct the sentence "they told everyone their engaged" the learner will find both the noun *engagement* and the correct verb *announced* under the entries alongside *engaged*.

➢ Inferring the spelling of an unfamiliar word from only having heard it, in order to check its meaning in the dictionary.

All in all, using the dictionary is one of the most common strategies in an EFL context. The appropriate use of the dictionary requires the development of certain sub-skills concerning the selection and use of the appropriate dictionary type in the appropriate context. The great advantage of the dictionary is that it helps to make the student responsible for his own learning outside the classroom.

III.3. Study of Word Parts (Stems & Affixes)

The study of word parts is another important vocabulary learning strategy given the fact that more than half of English words are morphologically complex; i.e. they contain more than one meaningful element (Nation, 2001; Peterson's Master TOEFL vocabulary, 2006; Bishop, Yopp &Yopp, 2009). Consequently, a large number of words can be divided into parts which are commonly known as roots and affixes.

III.3.1. Definitions

The *word root* or *base word* is a group of letters to which a prefix or suffix is attached. (Mirrors & windows, 2009, p. 20)

Affixes are the additional parts which appear at the beginning or at the end of words. Affixes, according to Nation (2001, p. 421) are of two main types: inflectional and derivational. Whereas inflectional affixes in English are all suffixes, derivational affixes include both suffixes and prefixes.

A *prefix* is a letter or a group of letters placed at the beginning of a word to change its meaning (Nation, 2001, p. 421).

A *suffix* is a letter or a group of letters placed at the end of a word to change its meaning. (ibid). McCarthy and O'Dell (1994) divided suffixes into three main parts: noun suffixes, adjective suffixes and verb suffixes

III.3.2. Types of Suffixes

a. Noun Suffixes

er – or: used for the person who does an activity, e.g. writer, worker, shopper, actor, supervisor

er/or: also used for things which do a particular job, e.g. pencil-sharpener, bottle opener, projector

-er and –ee: express contrast in meaning, person who does something (-er) and person who receives something (-ee) e.g. interviewer, interviewee / employer, employee.

-t (ion): used to make nouns from verbs, e.g. complication, pollution, donation

-ist (person), **-ism** (activity or ideology): used for people's politics, beliefs, and ideologies, e.g. physicist, terrorist, Marxism, Buddhism, journalism,

- ist: also used for people who play musical instruments, e.g. pianist, violinist, cellist

-ness: used to make nouns from adjectives goodness, readiness, happiness, weakness

b. Adjective Suffixes

-able / -ible: when used with verbs mean 'can be done', e.g. drinkable, washable, edible, flexible

c. Verb Suffixes

-ise or –ize: used to make verbs from adjectives, e.g. modernise, industrialise, commercialise

d. Other Suffixes

-ment: nouns (excitement, employment, replacement)

-ity: nouns (flexibility, productivity, scarcity)

-hood: abstract nouns especially family terms (childhood, motherhood)

-ship: abstract nouns especially status (friendship, partnership, membership)

-ive: adjectives (passive, productive)

-al: adjectives (brutal, legal, rural)

-ous: adjectives (delicious, dangerous)

-ful: adjectives (helpful, useful)

-less: adjectives (useless, harmless)

-ify: verbs (purify, terrify)

III.3.3. Common English Prefixes

Baudoin et al. (1994) suggested a list some of the most common English prefixes with their meanings:

Prefixes

com-, con-, col-, cor-, co-	together, with	cooperate, connect
in-, im-, il-, ir-	in, into, on	invade, insert.
in-, im-, il-, ir-	not	impolite, illegal.
micro-	small	microscope, microcomputer
pre-	before	prepare, prehistoric.
re-, retro-	back, again	return, retrorocket
ante-	before	anterior, ante meridiem (A.M)
circum-	around	circumference
contra-, anti-	against	anti-war, contrast
inter-	between	international, intervene
intro-, intra-	within	introduce, intravenous
post-	after	post-game, post-graduate

sub-, suc-, suf,	under	subway, support
sug-, sup-, sug-,		
super-	above, greater, better	superior, supermarket
trans-	across	trans-Atlantic, transportation

III.3.4. The Word Part Strategy

As it has been argued earlier in this chapter, the use of context is not always helpful. Moreover, the use of the dictionary is not very encouraged as an immediate solution to deal with unknown vocabulary. Therefore, examining word morphology can provide an alternative to both strategies. Nation (2001) suggested a two step strategy for using word parts to learn new words:

1. Break the unknown word into parts: this step requires learners to be familiar with English prefixes and suffixes.

2. Relate the meaning of the word parts to the meaning of the word: in this step, students are required to recognise the meaning of the common word parts.

To be successful in using the word build strategy, learners must be familiar with common English affixes and their meaning as illustrated in the previous section. Though learners may find lists of prefixes and suffixes difficult to learn by heart, teachers have to come up with interesting activities that would encourage learners to deal with affixes and motivate them to use the word part strategy.

III.3.5. Techniques for Teaching Word Parts

Bishop, Yopp & Yopp (2009) suggested useful techniques teachers can use in the classroom to help their learners improve their word study skills.

a. Cut, Mix, and Match

Using word cards, the teacher writes different compound words. Students try to cut the cards according to the different morphemes constituting these words. For example; the compound word 'airplane' may be cut into two simple words: *'air'* and *'plane'*.

As a second step, students may resemble the cards to create new compound words. For example, from the given compound words: *sailboat, lighthouse, tablecloth, airplane, sunshine, manhunt, yearlong*; students can form new compound words such as: *houseboat, sailplane, sunlight, boatman, boathouse, airman.*

Moreover, students can create original compound words and illustrate them (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp, 2009, p. 176). For example, from *air* and *house* they may create '*airhouse*' and draw a picture of a house hovering in the air.

b. Find a Partner

Another teaching strategy for introducing morphemic vocabulary for students is to make each of them hold a card on which a morpheme is written. Students then have to move around and find a partner with whom they can form meaningful compound words.

Students can also work in groups of three or four asking them to find classmates with common roots. For example, students with the cards containing *astronomy*, *astronomer*, and *astronaut* may join the same group.

c. Semantic Maps

Semantic maps are useful tools which help learners establish relationships among words. Students draw a circle at the middle, then think of all possible words with a similar word part. The following diagram illustrates the semantic map for the word 'do'.
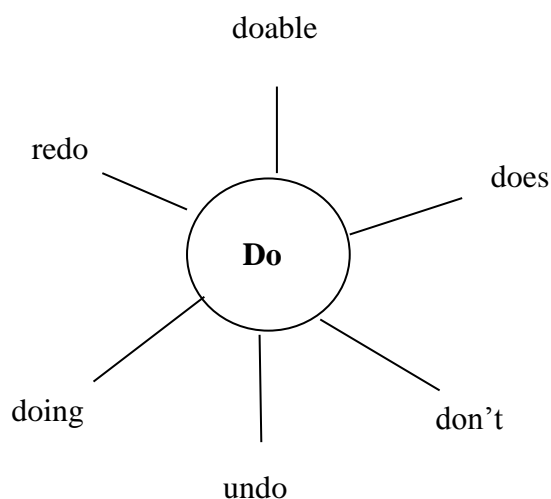
Figure 1: Semantic Map for 'Do' (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp 2009, p. 178)

d. Word Sorts

The teacher provides the class with a list of morphemic words which they have to sort according to a particular principle of their own choice. For their third-grade students, Bishop, Yopp and Yopp (2009) provided the following list: *unhappy, refold, unfriendly, rewrite, misplace, unknown, redo, unafraid, mislead, unkind, redraw, reheat, unbeaten, uncover, rearrange, misread*, and *mislay*. Students were then let free to sort these words in two, three, or more piles. For example, students may decide to group all words with the prefix 'un' together; those with 're' together and so on.

In addition to the above activities, The British Council Centre of Singapore (1980) provided sample exercises based on morphological features which can be used as teaching or assessing tools:

1. Word Families

Working in groups, learners will attempt to find as many words as possible (using prefixes and suffixes) in relation to the given basic roots (The British Council Centre, 1980, p. 86).

	ic	tele		geo		y
Graph	ite	para	graph	para	graph	ing

2. Classification

This may have the form of fill in the blank with appropriate grammatical forms as illustrated in the following table (The British Council Centre, 1980, p. 86):

Noun	Verb	Adj.	Adv.
———	Separate	———	Separately
Imagination	———	imaginative	———

3. Classification with Affixes

This is a similar exercise to the above activity with a presentation of some affixes and their area of meaning (The British Council Centre, 1980, p. 87):

Prefix	Area of meaning	Examples
anti		
	against , before	prehistory
post		post-mortem

4. Fill in the Blank at Sentence Level

Working in pairs or groups, learners have to find the appropriate form of the missing word, for example an adjective from the given noun (The British Council Centre, 1980, p. 87):

These are very —————— chairs (comfort).

The losing card player became very —————— (anger).

It is —————— to go swimming after a hard day at work (enjoyment).

In a nutshell, the study of word parts is an essential vocabulary learning strategy. Knowledge of affixes and roots has two values for a learner of English: It can be used to help the learning of unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words or to known prefixes and suffixes, and it can be used as a way of checking whether an unfamiliar word has been successfully guessed from context (Nation, 2001, p. 323).

III.4. Semantic Mapping

III.4.1. Definitions

A semantic map (also called concept map) is a graphic organiser to explain the new word and its relationship to meaning or other content (Tankersley, 2003, p. 64). The map according to Tankersley may contain information about new vocabulary such as giving a definition, examples, characteristics of the new word, etc.

Semantic mapping, according to Sokmen (1997), refers to "brainstorming associations which a word has and then diagramming the results" (p. 250). Sokmen asked

her low-intermediate ESL students about words that came to their minds when they heard the word 'faithfulness', they mentioned several words like: friend, family, trust, gossiping. These words were then grouped together to form the semantic map for the word faithfulness:
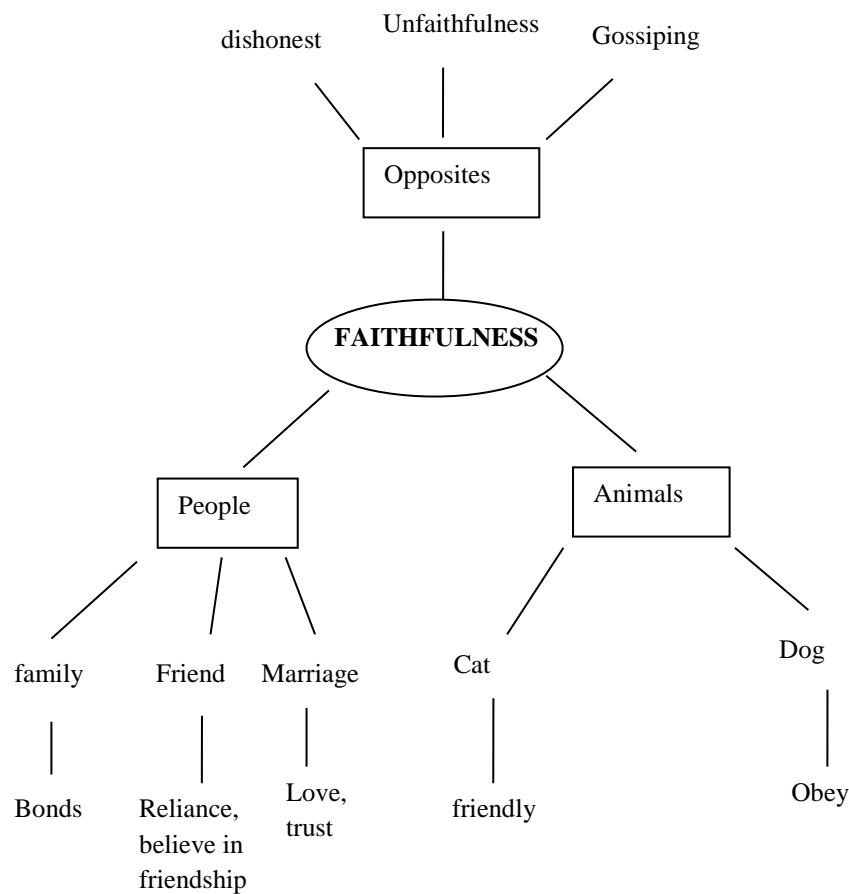
Figure 2: Semantic Map for the Word 'Faithfulness' (Sokmen, 1997, p. 250)

III.4.2. Is Semantic Mapping a Learning or Teaching Strategy?

Unlike the other strategies, semantic mapping seems to be applicable both as a learning and a teaching strategy. In the former case, the use of semantic maps contributes to the consolidation of word meaning by drawing an image for the newly acquired word.

Because of its visual characteristic, learners are not only able to remember the new word, but also some words and concepts which are related to it.

Semantic mapping is also considered a teaching technique which can be used in the explanation of new vocabulary. Allen (2007) described semantic mapping as "a teacher-directed study of a word or concept in relation to other related words and ideas" (p. 110).

Bishop, Yopp, and Yopp (2009) also presented semantic maps as a teaching technique that is suitable for both explanation and revision purposes. For them, teachers can introduce new vocabulary to students by drawing semantic maps on the board or chart paper, talking about the maps, and keeping them on display for students' reference (Bishop, Yopp, and Yopp, 2009, p. 127).

III.4.3. Elements of the Semantic Maps

According to Oxford (1990), semantic mapping involves "making an arrangement of words into a picture, which has a key concept at the centre or at the top, and related words and concepts linked with the key concept by means of lines and arrows" (p. 41). In other words, this strategy relies on 'paralinguistic' materials illustrated by the use of geometrical shapes (squares, lines and arrows). The use of these maps involves meaningful imagery, grouping and associations; it visually shows how certain groups of words relate to each other.

Moreover, the use of semantic mapping as a teaching technique goes through two main steps (Allen, 2007, p. 110):

1. The teacher begins by presenting a word or concept to be studied.
2. Students brainstorm as many information about the word as possible. This may involve giving some characteristics, attributes, related words and ideas, and so forth.

As such, the use of this teaching technique in the EFL classroom paves the way for different interaction patterns among teachers and learners which may create a lively atmosphere and an enjoyable experience in relation to teaching or learning the foreign language.

III.4.4. Advantages of Semantic Mapping

Certainly, semantic mapping represents a different form of vocabulary teaching and learning. This may itself be an advantage for 'visual' learners who cannot memorize long linguistic explanations and who may find the map an efficient way to understand and remember new concepts.

Moreover, the use of semantic maps promotes group interaction because learners can discuss the different pieces of information which might be included in the map (Sokmen,1997, p. 250-251).

Furthermore, the semantic map is open-ended, that is learners can keep adding more words to the map over time (ibid).

Finally, the significance of semantic mapping lies in its positive impact on students' ability to remember the targeted words. As such, it can be described as an effective learning strategy for the consolidation of new words' meanings regardless to whether the map is introduced by the teacher or by the learners themselves.

III.5. Keeping a Vocabulary Notebook

The vocabulary notebook is probably the most common form of written student record. An important feature of small notebooks is that they can be carried round easily and added to and studied at any time (McCarthy, 1990, p. 127).

III.5.1. Organising a Vocabulary Notebook

The organisation of the notebook is, in its most natural forms, personal. Nonetheless, learners can be provided with useful hints about the way they may organise their notebooks to make them more practical. The classic pathfinder 4 (p. 70) suggested that the notebook can be divided into three main sections:

1. Domains such as family/ home, school/ classroom, meeting and greeting, etc.
2. Grammatical function, for example; verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc.
3. Classroom talk subdivided into teacher instructions and pupil request.

For their part, McCarthy and O'Dell (1994) argued that there is no exact way for organising a vocabulary notebook. Nonetheless, they suggested four possible ways of doing so:

1. Organising words by meaning: this requires learners to build families of words where meaning is the main feature. For example, the notebook can be divided into sections of words expressing feelings, describing places, words for movement, words for thinking, and so forth.

2. Using various types of diagrams: this can be referred to as a visual organisation where different types of diagrams can be used. The Tree-diagram and the bubble network are two examples as illustrated below (the dots and question marks indicate that more words can be added):
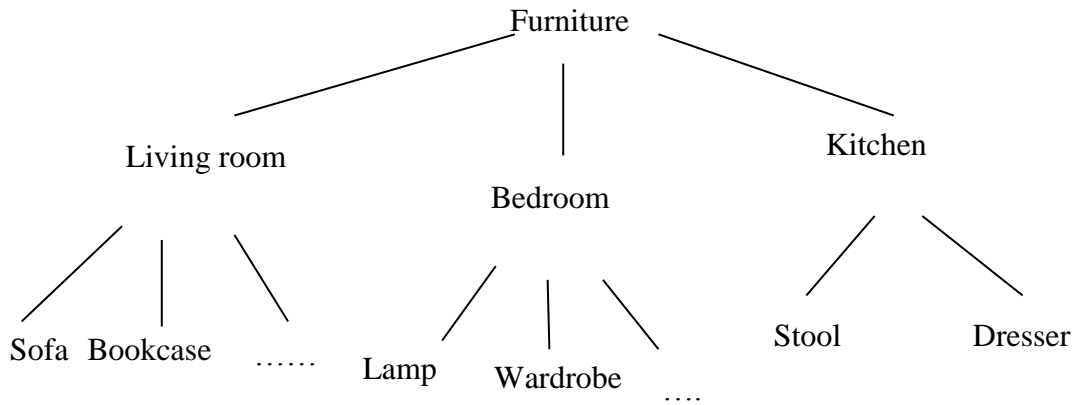
Figure 3: A Tree Diagram for Organising Vocabulary Notebooks (McCarthy and O'Dell 1994)
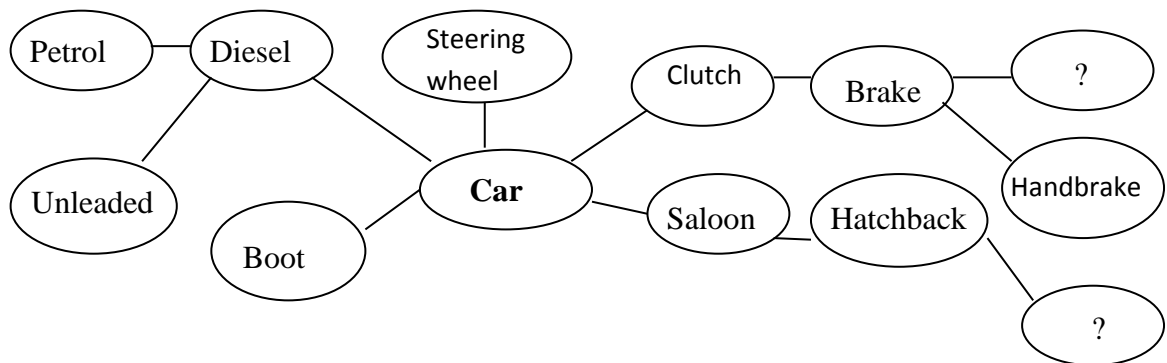
Figure 4: A Bubble Diagram for Organising Vocabulary Notebooks (ibid)

3. Organising by word class: involves classifying words according to their grammatical category, i.e. whether they are verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc.

4. Synonyms and antonyms: words are arranged in pairs having similar or opposite meanings. For example, urban ≠ rural, stop = cease.

Moreover, McCarthy (1990) argued that particular sections of the notebook can indicate what happened in the classroom. The way students organise their vocabulary notebooks can be formal; well organised; based on semantic grouping of the words (Example 1) or at other times, they may seem just like a mechanic, random entering of the new words (Example 2).

1. To give up = cut down (my smoking)

   To take down a book

   To pick up a book

2. Fled – go away / waist start to spread – dead – gobble up (eat very quickly) – gob = mouth – to nod off – (I nodded off on the underground).

In the first example, it is clear that the lesson was about the use of 'up' and 'down' in different phrasal verbs. Whereas the second example is a mere accumulation of words, which seems to be more meaningful in the context of the lesson. The student uses the sign for 'equals' (=) to indicate that the words are synonymous. This may suggest that the notebook, as its name suggests, includes quick notes rather than full sentences.

III.5.2. Training Students in Using Vocabulary Notebooks

Keeping vocabulary notebooks, like any other vocabulary learning skill requires some classroom training. Thornbury (2002, p. 157) suggested useful ideas for assisting learners organise their notebooks:

➢ Advise learners to have a special notebook solely for vocabulary. Ideally, it should be of a size that they can carry with them.

- From previous classes, save examples of 'bad' and 'good' vocabulary records and contrast between both models. The discussion should focus on the best way to organise vocabulary.

- Ask learners regularly to compare and comment on their vocabulary notebooks.

- Elicit any useful tips about the organisation of words, their forms and meanings.

- Set an example yourself, by planning board work in such a way that it is easy for learners to copy and organise their own vocabulary record. If possible reserve one section of the board for new words. Mark word stress and any other problematic features of pronunciation.

- Allow time in the lesson for learners to record vocabulary and to devise mnemonics. Rushing students may result in disorganised notebooks.

- Check students' vocabulary notebooks from time to time. This provides an incentive to learners to maintain a record of their vocabulary learning.

III.5.3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Vocabulary Notebooks

The use of vocabulary notebooks is a beneficial strategy for EFL learners but with different degrees. Whereas for certain learners it represents an active engagement in vocabulary learning, it might be considered a laborious and time consuming strategy for some others.

One of the advantages of the word study notebook is that it offers different choices for learners in using vocabulary in speech or writing. In this respect, Mirrors and Windows (2009) argued:

Word study notebooks help you actively increase the words you use in your daily writing and speech, making your communication more precise and effective. Why say something smelled bad when you could say it was rank,

stinking, rancid, foul, fetid, reeking, or rotten? Why call a shoe a shoe when you could call it a sneaker, loafer, pump, running shoe, mule, sandal, ballet slipper, or hightop? (p. 1)

Furthermore, the classic pathfinder 4 (p. 69) accounted for both positive and negative aspects of vocabulary notebooks.

Advantages

1. Using notebooks makes the learning of vocabulary organised and this helps learners memorise words and make their learning more effective.

2. Using notebooks enables students to think about form as well as function of the new words.

3. It can be a good solution for the problem of 'forgetting' new words. The notebook provides a constant record for new words, and is thus a helpful tool for learners with memory limited capacity.

4. The vocabulary book serves as a focus for regular revision.

Disadvantages

1. Pupils, especially youngsters, may not find enough time to keep a vocabulary notebook in addition to their different learning tasks.

2. It demands a regular correction by the teacher to ensure that information is recorded accurately. Otherwise, students might be learning from a faulty model.

3. It may create 'translation thinking' which is not good for L2 learning.

Finally, using vocabulary notebooks can be a useful strategy for learners, but also an important source of information for teachers about their students' learning styles.

McCarthy (1990) argued that students' notebooks offer a fascinating insight into the individual learning styles that may be present in groups, and can alert the teacher to learning problems which might not otherwise be so clearly revealed (McCarthy, 1990, p. 129).

III.6. The Key-Word Method

The Keyword Method is a mnemonic device which learners can use to remember the meaning of new words. According to Oxford (1990), the key word method means "remembering a new word by using auditory and visual links" (p. 41). Therefore, the keyword mnemonic involves both an *acoustic* link – i.e. a native language word or phrase (the key word) that is similar in sound to part or all of the target language word, and an *imagery* link – i.e. an image of the key word 'interacting' with the native language word or phrase (Cohen, 1998, p. 5).

An illustrative example about the keyword method is the case of the French word "potage" (soup). To learn this word, the English speaker associates it with a pot (having a similar pronunciation) and then pictures a pot full of *potage* (Oxford, 1990, p. 41).

III.6.1. A Strategy for Using the Key Word Method

From the above description, it is clear that the key word method consists of two main stages: (Mc Pherson, 2000).

1. Link the foreign word with an English word that sounds like some part of the foreign word (e.g., the Spanish word *carta* sounds like the English word *cart*. Therefore, 'cart' is the key word.

2. Link the key word with the English meaning of the foreign word by forming an interactive image (e.g., *carta* means *letter,* so one could visualize a letter inside a cart).

III.6.2. Factors Affecting Learners' Use of the Key Word Method

The key word method is mainly an associative technique involving both auditory and visual links. Moreover, this mnemonic device relies to a large extent on translation especially as far as the pronunciation of the new word is concerned. On this basis, two main factors are recognised by Nyikos and Fan (2007, p. 262) to have an influence on the use of the key word method:

1. The closer the L2 is related to the L1, the more successful the key word method is. In other words, the key word method works better when there is greater similarity in both pronunciation (acoustic similarity) and writing systems, enabling greater fit between target words and available L1 words to map them to.

2. This method works better with concrete vocabulary. In other words, the more readily imaginable the word is (concrete rather than abstract), the more readily the keyword strategy can be applied.

In addition, McPherson (2003) argued that self-generated keywords are better remembered than those provided by someone else (the teacher, for example). In other words, when learners create their own auditory and imagery links, they are more likely to remember the word than when they easily get it from another person.

III.6.3. Advantages and Disadvantages

The key word method, being essentially a mnemonic device, has a positive impact on learners' ability to remember new vocabulary through auditory and imagery interaction between the target word and students' native language. Hulstijin (1997) argued that the key

word method has a facilitating rather than an inhibiting role. One of the main advantages according to Hulstijin is that it facilitates the association between word form and meaning.

Nonetheless, this method is generally considered by learners to be time consuming and sometimes frustratingly difficult to create images, causing many to switch the imaging portion of the key word to a more semantic approach (Brown & Perry 1991 as cited in Nyikos and Fan, 2007, p. 262).

Moreover, Hulstijin (1997) argued that among the disadvantages of the key word, which has made it less appealing is that it cannot be applied for all vocabulary. This strategy works more successfully with concrete vocabulary or, more precisely, those words "which refer to objects that can be perceived visually" (p. 210). Furthermore, the key word mnemonic according to Hustijin is more related to 'receptive' rather than 'productive' vocabulary knowledge. In other words, it is more helpful for learners in comprehension tasks like reading rather than productive activities like writing.

Conclusion

Vocabulary learning strategies are those operations taken by learners to learn new vocabulary. Some of these operations are used for the discovery of new words' meaning, whereas other strategies help in reinforcing and consolidating the newly acquired vocabulary to be recalled for later use.

To get the meaning of new words, learners may use different strategies like contextual guessing, consulting a dictionary, and studying word parts. The selection of these strategies is determined by such factors as learners' level of proficiency, their needs as well as the nature of the task itself. In general, research encourages learners not to focus

on the meaning of single words, but to try to learn them in meaningful contexts. As such, contextual guessing tends to be an effective strategy especially in carrying out different reading or listening tasks.

However, because the context is not always informative, students may rely on other strategies like the study of word parts as a key to understanding. This can be a suitable solution for many inflected English words whose meaning can be derived from their different constituents. Furthermore, identifying word meaning can be realised though the use of the dictionary. The latter is recognised as a rich source of information not only in giving explanation about words, but also in relation to pronunciation, idiomatic expressions and different word combinations. Such information can be used both in encoding or decoding meaningful messages.

To consolidate the newly acquired vocabulary, learners may apply other strategies like semantic mapping, the key word method and the use of vocabulary notebook. The aim of these strategies is to give learners further practice about vocabulary, thus contributing to the reinforcement of new items which will easily be remembered in future situations.

Though some of the above mentioned strategies can be applied informally as part of students' efforts in the learning process, Learners' use of these strategies can be fostered by explicit training under the teacher's direct supervision. Once mastered, learners can apply them for outside activities and for personal rather than instructional purposes.

Chapter Four

An Investigation of Algerian Learners' Use of Vocabulary Strategies and the Effect of Students' Level of Proficiency on Such Use.

Introduction

In their learning process, students attempt to use various strategies to deal with their learning difficulties. These strategies differ from one student to another in the sense that learners have different personalities, mental capacities, motivation towards learning and so forth. Grenfell and Macaro (2007) argued that "some learner types are more likely to use strategies or use them more successfully than other learner types" (p. 27).

One of the major factors influencing students' use of different learning strategies is their proficiency level. Research findings have emphasised the argument that good language learners not only use more strategies and more strategy types but are also able to describe the strategies they make use of, unlike the less skilled language learners (Oxford, 1993). Indeed, learners' success in learning English as a second or foreign language can be both a cause and effect of the use of appropriate learning strategies. Good learners are better users of learning strategies, but at the same time it is the use of effective strategies which distinguishes between successful and less successful learners.

Research on language learning strategies collects data in several ways. Nation (2001, p. 63) described four possible methods which can be applied to collect qualitative data about learners' use of different strategies. (1) Written questionnaires or oral interviews aiming at gathering information about learners' description of what they usually do; (2)

Think aloud procedures requiring learners to constantly describe what they are doing while performing a certain task; (3) Verbal reports from learners after they finished a particular task involving learners to think back and describe what they did; (4) Direct observation of what learners do while spontaneously involved in a certain activity; i.e. learners are not aware that they are being observed.

This chapter investigates the different strategies used by EFL Algerian students and the impact of students' proficiency level in English on their use of different vocabulary strategies. Most of the above mentioned tools were selected to collect valid and reliable data about the problem at hand. At a first step, focus group discussions (a kind of oral interviews held with a group of participants) were held with two groups of participants representing successful and less successful learners. Besides, direct observation of learners' actions while reading particular texts was carried out. Students were also involved in verbal reporting of what they had done after they finished the reading task. In addition, Vocabulary tests were another tool of data collection administered one month after the reading sessions. The main purpose of these tests was to measure the efficiency of both successful and less successful learners' strategies identified in the reading sessions.

IV.1. Aims of the Investigation

This study attempts to spot light on the different vocabulary strategies used by Algerian students of English at L'ENSC (Ecole Normale Superieur de Constantine). Moreover, the study aims at investigating the impact of learners' proficiency level in English (successful Vs less successful learners) on their use of the different vocabulary strategies in terms of the quantity and quality of the strategies being used. Parallel to these two main aims, the study investigates the extent to which Algerian learners' use of different vocabulary strategies matches Schmitt's (2000) classification of VLS.

IV.2. Population of the Study

The sample population consisted of twenty students from the third year level at the English department of L'ENSC. Because the investigation started right at the beginning of their third year, students were chosen on the basis of their annual average scores in the previous year; i.e., the second year. The deliberation sheets were obtained from the administration of the English department. After getting the lists of all third year students with their average scores in nine different modules (AS), the students were reordered on the basis of their average scores without the 'French' and 'Computing' modules, and without coefficients for the rest of the modules (AV). Finally, the ten students with the highest scores were put in the same group to represent successful language learners (table 9), and the ten students with the lowest average scores were put in another group to represent less successful learners (table 10).

	CL 2	C.P 1	Gr. 2	Ling 1	OE 2	Phon 1	RT 2	WE 2	Fr 2	AS	AV
A	15.00	13.63	13.75	15.13	13.08	11.75	14.92	14.67	13.50	14.02	14.04
B	16.00	11.63	13.50	15.38	12.20	14.50	10.67	13.00	13.50	13.28	13.60
C	15.25	13.13	13.88	12.00	13.50	12.00	11.08	14.67	12.50	13.26	13.19
D	10.00	10.88	13.50	15.38	13.00	14.75	11.17	12.58	14.50	12.70	12.91
E	15.00	11.50	08.75	15.88	12.90	10.00	11.92	11.83	12.50	12.21	12.32
F	09.50	10.63	13.88	12.50	12.92	11.25	11.17	13.50	13.75	12.25	12.10
G	13.00	12.88	10.00	13.00	14.33	10.00	12.67	10.92	09.25	11.75	11.98
H	13.50	11.50	10.75	13.25	10.00	12.75	09.33	12.33	11.75	11.52	11.70
I	14.50	10.75	08.50	13.75	09.67	11.50	11.50	12.33	13.75	11.77	11.67
J	12.00	09.88	10.38	11.13	11.00	12.00	13.00	10.25	13.00	11.48	11.39

Table 9: Participants in the Upper Group

	CL 2	C.P 1	Gr. 2	Ling 1	OE 2	Phon 1	RT 2	WE 2	Fr 2	AS	AV
1	10.38	12.13	09.00	08.50	10.33	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	09.74
2	10.00	12.25	10.02	09.13	10.33	11.00	09.00	09.00	11.00	10.07	09.78
3	11.50	10.75	10.00	07.00	10.83	10.00	11.66	07.67	10.00	10.07	09.80
4	10.00	12.50	09.25	10.00	10.53	09.50	08.66	11.00	11.00	10.19	09.84
5	06.50	12.50	08.50	09.88	10.00	12.00	11.33	11.00	12.50	10.27	09.88
6	10.00	11.38	08.38	10.00	11.00	09.00	10.67	10.33	11.50	10.27	09.91
7	11.00	12.00	08.75	08.75	11.10	12.00	09.33	08.66	10.25	10.06	09.94
8	10.50	11.13	06.50	10.13	10.33	10.00	12.33	10.33	12.00	10.35	10.01
9	12.00	12.25	07.75	10.38	10.70	10.00	09.00	10.33	11.50	10.35	10.02
10	10.00	10.00	07.75	09.75	11.00	07.25	12.33	12.66	10.00	10.30	10.10

Table 10: Participants in the Lower Group

The tables above present the participants in both groups as well as their annual scores which were the main criterion for their selection. Unintentionally, each group included seven girls and three boys. This is true for the whole situation in the ENSC where girls represent the great majority of students. The tables indicate that students had nine different modules; all of which, except for computing (CP) and French (Fr), are taught in English. For this reason, these two modules were excluded during the selection of the participants. The English modules are: 'Culture of Language' (CL), 'Grammar' (Gr), 'Linguistics'(Ling), 'Oral Expression'(OE), 'Phonetics'(Phon), 'Reading Techniques'(RT), and 'Written Expression'(WE). All modules are annual with two exam series. The scores in the above tables represent the average of two exam scores or three scores for the modules which have a TD mark.

Furthermore, the tables show that most modules have the same importance as indicated by their coefficients. Of the nine modules, six have a coefficient of two. Three,

however, have a coefficient of one; this is mainly the case of computing, linguistics, and phonetics. The column AS represents students Annual Scores as indicated in the deliberation sheets of the English department. The column AV represents students' Average scores without coefficients and without the French and computing modules.

The participants were informed about their selection and about the main purpose of the study. They were not told, however, that they were either upper or lower members of the two groups to avoid any feeling of superiority or inferiority.

IV.3. Procedure

The investigation went through three different phases:

1. Focus groups' discussion about learners' experiences in relation to vocabulary learning in general and vocabulary strategies in particular.
2. Reading sessions aiming at putting learners in a more concrete situation involving the use of different vocabulary strategies, mainly identification strategies.
3. Vocabulary tests administered one month after the reading sessions with the aim of testing the efficiency of students' strategies, mainly the consolidation strategies.

IV.3.1. Focus Groups

Focus groups are tools of data collection through group discussion about one or several topics. Its purpose, as explained by Anderson (1998), is "to address a specific topic, in depth in a comfortable environment to elicit a wide range of opinions, attitudes, feelings or perceptions from a group of individuals who share some common experience relative to the dimension under study" (p. 168). In the present study, focus groups were formed on the basis of learners' level of proficiency in English and the main theme of the discussion was students' use of various vocabulary strategies. Two focus groups were established; an

'Upper' group representing successful learners, and a 'Lower' group representing less successful learners.

As a first step, discussion about several issues in relation to English vocabulary learning, and the use of different VLS was carried out. The discussion was held in the two groups separately, and moderated by the researcher herself. To ensure a careful recording of data, and after getting the permission of the participants, all discussion sessions were videotaped (see appendix 1). In addition, key information was noted down constantly during the discussions. This first stage took three sessions; two with the upper group and one with the lower group; each session lasting one (1) hour and 30 minutes (1h30mn).

All questions were open and students were asked to respond in turn to each question. To avoid the dominance of certain subjects over the others, especially those who were verbally more expressive, students yielded the floor in turn one after another, or raised their hands whenever some of them wanted to intervene.

Focus Group Discussion Guide

In order to moderate the discussion in each group and tune it towards the objective at hand, a set of questions was prepared in advance to help collect valid and reliable data. The study adapted Gu's (2005) discussion guide for investigating the vocabulary learning strategies of his Chinese participants. The adapted version consisted of three main parts, each with a set of different questions (see appendix 2):

Part One: About English Vocabulary Learning

The first part dealt with English vocabulary learning in general. It aimed at collecting qualitative data about students' perception of vocabulary as well as their attitudes and experiences with vocabulary learning. It consisted of five questions eliciting information about the importance of vocabulary in the students' learning process (Q 1), their opinion

about English vocabulary; whether they find it easy or difficult to learn (Q2), some problems they face in learning vocabulary (Q3) as well as the way(s) they manage to get solutions to their problems (Q4), and finally their opinion about learning new vocabulary (Q5).

Part Two: About Self in Vocabulary Learning

The second part dealt with students' personal experiences with vocabulary learning. It included three questions dealing with students' self evaluation as being good or not in learning vocabulary (Q6), the types of vocabulary strategies which they use successfully (Q7) in addition to the different attempts they make to widen their vocabulary store (Q8).

Part Three: About Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The third part aimed at eliciting information about the vocabulary learning strategies that are employed by students in both groups. The first question investigated learners' awareness about the existence of some strategies which make the learning of vocabulary both easier and faster (Q9). The second question elicits information about the strategies which best work for students as well as those which do not (Q 10). The third and fourth questions dealt respectively with students' strategies for the discovery of new words meanings and those for consolidating new words after they have been learnt (Q 11, 12).

IV.3.2. Reading Sessions

After getting information about students' conception of vocabulary learning in general, and the different strategies they use to learn new vocabulary, it was necessary to expose the subjects to a vocabulary learning situation where they had to validate the information they gave in the first stage. For this purpose, two reading sessions were held. The reading task tended to focus more on vocabulary learning than on comprehension of the texts. In each group, students had to read a text and underline all the difficult words.

After that, students were asked to identify the meaning of the underlined words, using different strategies they are familiar with. Students were asked to behave spontaneously and act as if they were reading the text alone, at home or in the classroom. The role of the researcher was to observe and note down important information about students' response to the task and the different strategies they attempted to employ. The reading sessions were also videotaped to make sure not to miss any important detail.

After reading the texts and identifying all new words, students were asked to give the meaning of the words and to report the various strategies they employed to get the words' meaning. Wrong answers about new words' meanings were corrected with the participation of the whole group. All words were discussed and explained, the researcher's attention by the end of the reading task was focused on the way students' attempted to consolidate the new words; i.e., store their meaning after they had been explained.

Texts for the Reading Sessions

Two different texts (a text for the upper group and another for the lower group) were used at this stage of the investigation. The texts were carefully selected to meet two main criteria: first, the texts had to be of approximately the same length (to make sure it would be possible to finish them in the set time); second, one of them had to contain more difficult words than the other. The text with more difficult words was used with the 'Upper' group whereas the text with the smaller number of difficult words was used with the 'Lower' group to make the reading task equally challenging for students in both groups. For this purpose, six different texts were subject to pilot testing.

In the pilot test, twelve third year students (not belonging to either upper or lower groups) were randomly chosen to read six different texts and underline all the difficult, unfamiliar vocabulary. Each text was read by two students which made it possible to

calculate the average number of unknown vocabulary in each text and thus to make a decision about the most suitable texts for the purpose at hand.

Texts	Length (number of words)	Number of Difficult words
Being different	287	4
Priceless	400	13
Graveyard of the Atlantic	*431*	*40*
The new invasion	432	11
Your actions speak louder	*420*	*18*
"Be water, Be water"	548	12

Table 11: Pilot Texts for the Reading Sessions

After the pilot test, two texts; 'Graveyard of the Atlantic' and 'Your actions speak louder' were selected.

Text One: Graveyard of the Atlantic

The text was adapted from *Newsweek's* "Graveyard of the Atlantic," (as cited in Baudoin et al., 1994, p. 84). The original text contained about 1140 words. The adapted text was reduced to 431 words. It was about the 'Bermuda' triangle and the mysteries that surround it (see appendix 3). After the pilot test, students identified 40 difficult words. On this basis, it was chosen for the upper group.

Text Two: Your Actions Speak Louder

The second text was adapted from Melvin Schnapper's "Your actions speak louder" (as cited in Baudoin et al., 1994, p. 36-38). The original text contained about 1536 words; the adapted text was reduced to 420 words (see appendix 4). The text tackled the issue of

cultural differences in which different actions and behaviours may be interpreted differently by different societies. Students in the pilot test identified 18 difficult words, which made it suitable for lower group students.

IV.3.3. Vocabulary Tests

To further investigate the efficiency of students' strategies, a third step aiming at checking learners' ability to remember the newly acquired vocabulary, was necessary. One month after the reading sessions, two vocabulary tests were administered to each group separately. The tests had two main purposes:

1. To check learners' ability to remember the new words which they have learnt from the reading texts.
2. To evaluate the effectiveness of the vocabulary strategies that learners in both groups used to consolidate new words' meanings.

The tests included all the words which had been learnt during the reading sessions. The words were put in new contexts to avoid giving any hints at the correct answer. In each test, a number of filling the blank sentences, equal to the number of the new words, was given. Students were required to fill in the blanks with the appropriate words.

Test for the 'Upper' Group

It included 40 filling the blank sentences corresponding to the total number of lexical items which have been learned from the text "Graveyard of the Atlantic". The words were put in new contexts to test learners' ability to remember them (see appendix 5).

Test for the 'Lower' Group

A similar procedure was used except that this test included 16 sentences which the students had to fill in with the appropriate words which they have learned from the text "Your Actions Speak louder" (see appendix 6).

IV.4. Results and Analysis

Stage One: Focus Group Discussion

I/ About English Vocabulary Learning

Q1. How important is vocabulary learning in learning a Foreign Language? From what experiences have you generalised this idea?

The aim of this question was to investigate the importance students give to vocabulary, which in turn may influence the strategies they make use of. If students find vocabulary important in learning a foreign language, they will be more motivated to use different strategies that would help them widen their vocabulary store.

Students in the upper group agree that vocabulary is of paramount importance. All students, without exception, answered that vocabulary plays a major part in their learning process. For them, the importance of vocabulary is that it gives them enough confidence in performing certain tasks especially in speaking and writing. One student argued: "*with a small vocabulary store, students keep repeating the same words*". Therefore, vocabulary gives learners enough power to be more creative. Moreover, vocabulary for good language learners determines students' level of proficiency. In other words, students with a larger vocabulary store tend to have a higher level of proficiency. For, a rich 'repertoire' enables them to tackle any learning situation successfully. In their words "*without vocabulary you stay always a beginner*".

One student, however, admitted that vocabulary is important but not the most important aspect of the language. Equally important is 'grammar'. The student's point of view raised an interesting debate about the role of vocabulary and grammar in language learning and which of them is the most important. 90 per cent of the students believed vocabulary is the most important. According to one student: "*vocabulary is the skeleton of the language whereas grammar is its skin*". For another student: "*vocabulary is the raw material of the language, if you know vocabulary you know the language*".

In the lower group, students had the same opinion. All students recognised the importance of vocabulary in developing their language. "*Vocabulary is very important, it improves our language*" said one student. "*Without vocabulary we can't communicate, we can't express ourselves*" said another. Moreover, students believed that vocabulary is language itself: "*if you have vocabulary you have the foreign language*" argued one of the students.

In brief, students in both groups seem to be aware of the importance of vocabulary in learning English as a foreign language. Their learning experiences contributed to this view to a large extent. Students feel good in the foreign language because they are comfortable with their vocabulary. That was the case of the upper group students who were discussing, arguing, trying to convince one another very comfortably. This is why the discussion phase took two sessions with the upper group, and it could have taken more had they been given more time. In the lower group, however, the situation was very different. Though all students expressed their positive attitude towards the importance of vocabulary, their answers were very short and straight to the point. They were calm and restricted themselves to answer the question, no more.

Moreover, students' arguments (in both groups) were based on both linguistic and psychological reasons. Vocabulary improves their performance in the foreign language especially in writing and speaking. It also raises their self esteem and makes them capable of tackling any learning situation. In one student's words "*vocabulary is like a weapon in a battle, it helps develop self confidence*".

Q2: Do you find English vocabulary easy or difficult to learn? Justify your answer in either case.

After getting an idea about the importance of vocabulary to students, it was necessary to know how difficult it is for them. This is a significant question in the present study. If students find learning vocabulary a difficult task, this may imply that they have some problems in using effective strategies which help them overcome these difficulties.

For most students in the upper group, learning vocabulary is not a hard task. One of the facilitating factors, according to them, is their knowledge of 'French' which helps them understand many of the English words. Students admitted, however, that this is a two-edged sword because it sometimes tends to be misleading especially with false cognates. In general, students find vocabulary easy to learn, more difficult however, is to be able to remember the newly learned words. Unconsciously then, students raised the issue of learning vocabulary and consolidating the new vocabulary. It is clear that students in the upper group have fewer problems with getting the meaning of the new words than with consolidating their meaning. One reason, according to students, is lack of practice especially with less frequent vocabulary.

In the lower group, students said that vocabulary 'seems' to be easy to learn, but in fact it is not. Similar to the argument given by students in the upper group, a major problem for students in the lower group is lack of practice. This makes vocabulary easily

forgotten. Moreover, students argued that written vocabulary is easier than oral vocabulary. This is an important point which implies that weak students have more problems with listening than with reading. A possible interpretation is that written vocabulary can be read, reread, guessed from context, or simply explained from the dictionary or another person (teacher, classmate).

In general, students in the population of the study tend to have fewer problems with learning vocabulary especially when this vocabulary comes in the written form. Lack of practice, however, makes the new vocabulary easily forgotten. In other words, students need several exposures with the new word before it is finally stored in their memory which implies that students need to develop more consolidation than identification strategies.

Q3: What are some of the problems that you face in learning vocabulary?

According to Thornbury (2002, p. 27) several factors may be responsible for learners' problems in learning vocabulary. Some of these factors include: difficult pronunciation, spelling (sound-spelling mismatches), in addition to length and complexity of the new words.

For students in the upper group, a major problem in learning vocabulary is with less frequent words. Because the contact with these words is very limited, they tend to be easily forgotten. Good examples of these words are those with Latin or Greek origin, best known as 'old' English. Students face this kind of vocabulary especially in literature; novels, plays and poems. According to the students, such words tend to have 'strange' spelling and pronunciation which render the learning of these words quite a difficult task.

Students in the lower group gave a completely different argument. Their major problem with vocabulary is psychological rather than linguistic. This lies in the lack of self confidence which in turn is due to the lack of practice. Students confirmed that they do not

participate in the classroom, and so they have little opportunity to use the language especially in its oral aspect. The result is that they find themselves unable to produce vocabulary neither orally nor in writing. This is a serious problem which can be considered a cause and a consequence at the same time: On one hand, lack of confidence may be due to lack of vocabulary but at the same time lack of vocabulary leads to lack of confidence because of the fear of making mistakes.

Another problem with vocabulary learning for lower group students is related to their inability to memorise the new words. Most students asserted they have problems with remembering the new vocabulary. Some of the reasons have already been explained by students themselves; mainly lack of practice. However, the problem may have another dimension. Students are probably not aware of the existence of some vocabulary strategies that help them consolidate the new words and therefore store them in their short or long term memory. Their knowledge of the different vocabulary strategies is limited to how they should get the meaning of the new word, i.e., to the use of some identification strategies. This is a very important issue implying that knowing a word for less successful students is equated with getting its meaning. Students feel that their task is over once they get the meaning of the new word. In reality, this tends to be only half the job!

In general, students' problems tend to be of two main types: linguistic and psychological. Whereas good language learners showed to be more concerned with linguistic difficulties about less frequent vocabulary, less successful learners seem to face both linguistic and psychological problems. Lack of confidence is described as the major problem for participants in the lower group, which in turn is caused by a shortage in their vocabulary store. This problem has a negative effect on students' participation in the different learning activities in the classroom.

Q4: How do you attempt to solve problems in learning vocabulary? In other words, are there any specific strategies that you employ to make the learning of vocabulary easier and faster?

Facing learning problems with vocabulary or any other aspect of the language is quite natural. Indeed, these problems push learners to use different strategies to get some solutions. Learners react differently to their learning problems; i.e., the strategies they make use of may not necessarily be the same. The aim of this question, then, is to shed light on the different strategies used by successful and less successful learners to overcome their learning difficulties in relation to English vocabulary.

Students in the upper group reported their use of a variety of strategies including: the use of notebooks, the use of the dictionary, reading loudly, writing diaries, listening to different English materials especially songs, speaking to other people in English, and noting down the new words on a big paper.

It is clear that most of these strategies are indeed strategies for consolidating new words' meanings. This means that students are more concerned with how to store the newly acquired vocabulary to be able to recall them for later use. This correlates positively with their answers in the previous question where they confirmed that they have fewer problems with getting the meaning of new words than with being able to remember them because of lack of practice.

Students in the lower group reported their use of such strategies as looking words up in the dictionary, looking for synonyms in French, transcribing the new words, speaking in English with friends, guessing from context; and according to two students, writing the new words on their room's wall.

Unlike students in the upper group, students in the lower group seem to be equally concerned with strategies for getting the meaning of new words as well as those of consolidation. This may implicitly mean that low achievers have problems with both aspects of vocabulary learning. Moreover, lower group students tend to emphasize more on 'mechanical' strategies: dictionary use, translation, transcription in addition to verbal and written repetition.

Q5. *What does it mean to you to have learned a word?*

Knowledge of word meaning (as explained in I.1.2.) involves the examination of both the form and content of the new word. According to successful language learners in the population of the study, knowing a word has different connotations. Knowing a word for them implies understanding its meaning. In addition to content meaning, knowing a word also implies getting different information about it; i.e., its grammatical category, function, root, pronunciation, whether it is formal or informal, etc. Therefore, students focus on both form and meaning in learning new words. Both aspects tend to complete each other and contribute to the overall understanding of vocabulary.

Moreover, to know a word for the students of the upper group is not only related to getting information about it. It further implies being able to produce it when necessary. Students argued that knowing a word means being able to use it orally, with correct pronunciation, and in writing with correct spelling. Finally, students explained that knowing a word for them equals being able to recognize it in different contexts whether in reading or in listening.

It is clear that students in the upper group accounted for different aspects of vocabulary learning. Knowing a word means getting information about its form and content meaning. It also means being able to use this word both receptively; in reading and

listening, and productively, in speaking and writing. At this point, most students asserted that their reading vocabulary is larger than their writing vocabulary. Therefore, students confirmed research findings that students' receptive vocabulary exceeds their productive one. Hiebert and Kamil (2005) argued: "recognition or receptive vocabulary is larger than production vocabulary" (p. 3). Wallace (1982) further argued that "it is much more difficult to produce a word correctly: one has to pronounce or spell it in the right way, use it in the correct grammatical form, use it appropriately with the correct words coming before and after it, and so on" (p. 23).

On the other hand, students in the lower group gave different explanations for the same question. Though expressed in broad terms; knowing a word for them, means being able to give a synonym to it. It also implies being able to use it in the right context. Furthermore, students confirmed that knowing a word requires knowledge of both meaning and grammatical function of that word.

In a nutshell, students in both groups seem to be aware of the importance of vocabulary despite their different learning experiences. Learning vocabulary for students in both groups, means not only getting the meaning of new words, but also implies being able to use these words whenever necessary. Learning vocabulary, however, tends to be less difficult for high than for low achievers. As proposed earlier, the problem for successful learners is mainly linguistic, related to the less frequent vocabulary, whereas for less successful learners the problem has both a linguistic and a psychological dimension.

II/ About self in vocabulary learning

5. Do you see yourself as good at learning vocabulary? In what ways are you good at it?

After getting an idea about students' conception of vocabulary in general, this section aims at collecting data about their personal experiences with vocabulary learning. The first

question in this section deals with students' self assessment as being good or less good in learning new vocabulary. This is an important point because it gives an idea about students' self evaluation which in turn may reflect students' self sesteem about the efficiency of their strategies.

Most students in the upper group said they are not 'so' good at learning vocabulary. Though this seems a negative answer, it may imply that students feel 'just good' and not 'so good'. This may reflect a modest attitude from the part of learners who are supposed to be the better ones in their promotion. Moreover, students argued that they cannot say they are absolutely good or bad; it depends on their needs, interests, and even their moods. In other words, students think they are better at learning the vocabulary which they need or which is interesting for them.

In the lower group, most students said they are not good in vocabulary. This negative attitude is due to many factors as explained by the students themselves. According to one of the participants, he finds himself not good because he *"does not have the right strategies, he has no organisation, and he does not plan to learn vocabulary"*. That was a surprising confession from the part of the students who tend to be not only aware of the fact that they are not good but also about the reasons which make them so. Moreover, they mentioned that their low level is "*due to the lack of certain strategies*"; which means they are aware of the existence of learning strategies, and of the importance of these strategies in facilitating vocabulary learning. This can be a good indicator that if these students were given some training in strategy use, their level might improve considerably.

Thus, students' answers to this question tend to be quite realistic. Students are aware of their real level which reflects how successful they are in vocabulary learning. This

correlates positively with their previous argument *"if you have vocabulary you have the language".*

6. What is your approach to vocabulary learning: intentional (you intend to learn new words) or accidental (while performing other tasks and activities).

From a psychological view point "the more one manipulates, thinks about, and uses mental information, the more likely it is that one will retain that information" (Schmitt 2000, p.121). Applying this to vocabulary, learners have more chances to understand and to remember a new word if they actively engage in deep processing of the new information, i.e., when they consciously study it.

On the other hand, implicit, indirect vocabulary learning is based on the argument that there are too many words in a language to be learned explicitly. Moreover, direct instruction is more useful at beginning levels. Once learners have some basic vocabulary store, incidental learning is more effective. For many teachers and researchers, incidental learning of vocabulary is better achieved through wide reading. The more students read the more vocabulary terms they acquire from context (Marzano, 2004).

For most students in the upper group, vocabulary is most of the time learned accidentally; i.e., unconsciously. This confirms the above argument that implicit learning of vocabulary is more effective with advanced levels. Moreover, students' opinion may indicate that vocabulary is not taught explicitly, and that it is better learned in context as in reading for example.

One student, however, answered that she attempts an explicit approach to vocabulary learning. Occasionally, she opens the dictionary at random and learns the first word that her eyes come across. In this way, she has come to learn many new words.

The debate about which approach is more fruitful for the students led to another debate about whether they should focus on the meaning of every word or concentrate on the global meaning of the reading or listening material. Advocates of the first approach were in a way representing explicit vocabulary learning. Their argument, according to one student, is that understanding the meaning of every word gives her a clearer image of the passage than when she gets a general, 'shady' picture especially when the passage is very important.

Unlike successful learners who were mainly concerned with unintentional learning of vocabulary, students in the lower group seemed to be concerned with both explicit and implicit approaches. This is a further justification of the argument that explicit learning is more a characteristic of lower levels of proficiency. Besides, it strengthens the importance of explicit teaching of vocabulary for less successful learners.

7. *How do you attempt to widen your vocabulary?*

Vocabulary is central to language learning, and it is something that is present in every language act. The way students attempt to acquire new vocabulary reflects some learning strategies which students employ, not necessarily for learning vocabulary per se but for improving their language in general.

In the upper group, the strategies which have been identified by the participants can be divided into four main categories:

Reading: is the most commonly used by the students in the upper group. It takes several forms: reading books, e-books, short stories, etc.

Listening: is also a very frequent strategy for students. It includes listening to songs, news channels, movies, and so on. This listening is often followed by imitation. The listening materials can be both formal and informal as indicated by students themselves.

Practice: it involves the use of the language both orally and in writing. It takes several forms according to the students:

Speaking in English: With the great advance in technology, students have more opportunities to interact with native speakers of English. Many students mentioned that they used to orally interact with friends from different parts of the world. Another student explained that he used to talk in English with friends like African students on campus.

Vocabulary games: Students also mentioned the use of word games like crosswords as a means of acquiring new vocabulary. Furthermore, one student said she used to make deals with her brothers at home; they ask her about the meaning of a word, if she doesn't know she loses. Then she tries to look the word up in a dictionary and get its meaning.

Free writing: Practicing the new vocabulary also includes writing. Some students in the upper group said they like free writing, more particularly writing poems in English. For them, this is a very good means for putting the new vocabulary into practice, thus making this vocabulary stick longer in their minds.

Making associations: Another form of practice involves making associations. In other words, students attempt to relate the new vocabulary to something they already know. Furthermore, students mentioned the use of the thesaurus in addition to dictionaries as a rich source for learning new vocabulary.

In the lower group, students mentioned different strategies which they use to widen their vocabulary. Unlike learners from the upper group, low achievers tend to focus more on oral strategies than those involving reading and writing. Students named such strategies as:

- ➢ Speaking with native speakers on the net (chatting). One student added that native speakers understand him but he doesn't understand them.

- ➢ Watching English movies. While doing so, they listen to pronunciation and read the subtitles (translation) in Arabic in order to catch meaning.

- ➢ Listening to English songs.

- ➢ Watching BBC news.

Students also mentioned reading as a means for widening their vocabulary. However, it was only vaguely mentioned in that students didn't give any specification about the type of the reading materials that are most frequently read.

These results indicate that good language learners have *more* strategies at their disposal to widen their vocabulary knowledge. Their answers included a variety of strategies covering almost all language aspects: reading and writing, listening and speaking. Low achievers, on the other hand, tend to have fewer solutions and a limited range of strategy types.

Moreover, most students in the lower group seem to take a rather 'passive' role in vocabulary learning. Their answers were all based on 'receptive' skills mainly listening, watching and reading. Even when they try to practice, like speaking for instance, their speech is not comprehensible to their interlocutors as expressed by the students themselves.

III/ About vocabulary learning strategies

8. Do you think there are strategies that can make vocabulary learning fast and easy? Why do you think so?

In the previous question, students mentioned different strategies they tend to employ to learn new vocabulary. The aim of this question is to investigate whether students are conscious about the existence and the use of such strategies or not.

Students in both groups answered that their use of the different strategies is most of the time done unconsciously. The learning situation they are facing pushes them to try to find some solutions for their learning tasks. It also determines the kind of strategy most appropriate to that situation.

9. What, in your opinion, are the vocabulary learning strategies that work best for you? And those that don't work for you?

Students use a variety of strategies to learn new vocabulary. Their answers to the seventh question illustrated some of these strategies. Whether they use them consciously or not, students are surely better in some strategies than in others. The aim of this question is to elicit information about the strategies that are successfully carried out and those that are not.

According to students in the upper group, strategies that work best for them include:

➢ Listening to the teacher and writing the new word(s) in a notebook.

➢ Searching for meaning in a dictionary.

➢ Using this word, orally or in writing.

➢ Discussing the newly acquired word(s) with classmates.

➢ Relating the new word to something concrete.

➢ Using context clues.

Students' answers to this question correlate positively with their answers in the seventh question about the different ways they use to widen their vocabulary. Students

mentioned the same categories described previously; namely *reading* (using context clues, searching words in the dictionary), *listening* (paying attention to the teacher and noting down important information), and *practice* (using the new vocabulary orally and in writing, discussion with classmates, making associations; relating the new word to a concrete image). This indicates a kind of consistency from the part of upper group learners who tend to be confident about their answers. They also showed a capacity to remain concentrated on the questions by giving coherent answers most of the time. Moreover, this may also indicate that good language learners are monitoring; i.e. taking control over their strategy use, which is the main reason of being able to report such use without confusion.

On the other hand, some strategies tend to be less successful for learners. Though the dictionary was cited among those strategies working well for learners, it is also mentioned as giving learners some difficulties: For some students, it is not always easy to pick up the right definition especially when the word has several entries.

Compared with the six strategies proposed by students of the upper group, students in the lower group mentioned only four different strategies which work best for them. These strategies include:

➢ Checking the dictionary, sometimes rewording the definition using their own words.

➢ Asking another person, for example the teacher or a classmate.

➢ Consolidating a word when confronting it several times.

➢ Listening and imitating.

A first reading of the above strategies shows that students resort to other elements to learn new vocabulary. They tend to be more successful in 'receptive' strategies requiring assistance; from the teacher, classmates, the dictionary and other sources which provide

them with various stimuli. This correlates positively with their answers in the seventh question where most of their described strategies were receptive in nature. Nonetheless, students reported their use of rewording the definition using their own words, which is mainly a productive strategy; however, this strategy seems to constitute a small percentage of the overall strategies working well for upper group participants.

As far as those strategies which do not work for them, students cited the following:

> ➢ Using the dictionary, for some students.
>
> ➢ Word games, because they are not available.
>
> ➢ Reading English newspapers and magazines, also because they are not available.

Like their upper group counterparts, students in the Lower group mentioned using the dictionary as being both an easy and a difficult strategy. This indicates the extent to which this strategy is common for Algerian learners, and how challenging it is for them.

In addition, students referred to the lack of practice especially in relation to word games and reading authentic English materials. The argument given by the students is the unavailability of these materials in that students cannot get them easily. The problem, however, may have another interpretation. Students' lack of practice may be due to the lack of 'motivation' and not really to the shortage of authentic materials. With the great advantages the internet provides for EFL learners, students can have access to a variety of materials especially in relation to English language learning which is becoming a worldwide issue attracting the attention of many professionals all over the world.

10. What are, if any, the vocabulary learning strategies that you employ to discover a new word's meaning?

In their learning process, students face different situations of vocabulary learning. The way they react to these situations differs according to many factors.

Schmitt's (2000) classification of VLS distinguishes two major categories: (1) strategies for the identification of new words' meaning and (2) strategies for consolidating new words after they have been learnt. As far as the first category is concerned, Schmitt makes a distinction between Determination Strategies (DET) and social strategies (SOC). The former imply that the learner relies on himself to get the meaning of new words. Examples of determination strategies include: analysis of part of speech, analysis of affixes and roots, checking for L1 cognate, analysis of any available pictures or gestures, guessing meaning from textual context and using the dictionary. On the other hand, Social strategies require the learner to interact with his social context, for example asking the teacher for information about the new word, or asking a classmate for meaning.

In the light of Schmitt's classification, this question aims at investigating the vocabulary learning strategies that are used by Algerian learners at the ENSC as a means of getting a new words' meaning and, incidentally, the extent to which Schmitt's classification matches the Algerian context. In addition, the question also attempts to measure the *frequency* of such use, i.e., to discover the most common strategies among Algerian learners illustrated by the fact that some strategies will be mentioned by the majority of participants in both groups.

The following table presents a comparison between Schmitt's and upper group students' identification strategies. Strategies in bold characters represent uncommon strategies; i.e., strategies mentioned by Smith and not used by Algerian students or the opposite.

	Schmitt's Strategies	**Upper Group Students' Strategies**
DET	Analyse part of speech	Analyse part of speech
	Analyse affixes and roots	Study of word form (stems & affixes).
	Check for L1 cognate	**Associate it with familiar words**
	Analyse any available pictures or gestures	**Ignore the word.**
	Guess meaning from textual context	Guess its meaning.
	Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)	Check the word up in a dictionary
		Reread the word.
SOC	Ask teacher for explanation	Ask the teacher
	Ask classmates for meaning	Ask classmates

Table 12: Identification Strategies for Upper Group Learners

The table shows that students in the upper group use both 'Determination' and 'Social' strategies. As far as 'Determination' strategies are concerned, students mentioned analysis of part of speech, study of word form, making associations, ignorance or avoidance of the new word, contextual guessing, dictionary use and rereading. As for the 'Social' strategies, students named the teacher and their classmates as the main sources of information about new words.

Overall, students tend to use seven different 'Determination' strategies as opposed to six strategies in Schmitt's classification. In addition, 66.66% of Schmitt's strategies (four out of six strategies) are stated as being applied by Algerian students in the upper group. These common strategies include:

➢ Analysis of part of speech.

- ➢ Analysis of affixes and roots.

- ➢ Guessing meaning.

- ➢ Using the dictionary.

Two strategies, however, i.e. 33.33% from Schmitt's classification are not mentioned as being used by upper group students. This is the case of 'checking for L1 cognate' and the 'analysis of available pictures or gestures'. A possible reason in relation to the first strategy might lie in the big difference between students' L1 (Arabic) and English, which reduces the chances for students to benefit from any similarity (though some English words tend to have an Arabic origin, these constitute only a small part of the whole English vocabulary).

Analysing available pictures and gestures, known as paralinguistic materials, may be helpful for learners to get the meaning of new vocabulary. Students, however, did not mention this strategy in their answers. A possible interpretation is that paralinguistic materials are generally used at lower levels as beginners or pre-intermediate. At a university level, learning materials seldom rely on such paralinguistic materials. As a consequence, students tend to be less reliant on such strategy, and that is confirmed by students' answers in this question.

On the other hand, students mentioned some strategies which are not included in Schmitt's above classification. These strategies include: ignoring the new word, re-reading, and making associations with familiar vocabulary. Though the latter strategy may include association with L1 cognates, but this constitutes only a small part as argued previously. The point here is that students make a reference to familiar English vocabulary that might be of some help to understand the word in front of them. The association can be made with

familiar words having the same form (spelling) or meaning. It may also be related to a familiar object or experience.

Students also mentioned ignoring the new word and concentrating on the context in which the word occurs. This can be a useful strategy especially in reading, because sticking to the meaning of every word may not only slow down reading but also cuts the flow of thought. Yet, context clues help students learn the general meaning of a new word, not necessarily its exact definition.

Re-reading can also be useful for students. This is also known as 'backward' strategies, allowing for closer analysis of the unknown word. The use of this strategy by Algerian learners in the upper group may indicate the active involvement of these students and the wealth of the strategies they make use of to deal with the various learning tasks.

As far as 'Social' strategies are concerned, students tend to rely on their teachers or classmates to get information about the new words. Both strategies are mentioned by Schmitt and imply that learners get assistance from the classroom social context.

All in all, students in the upper group reported their use of a variety of strategies. Whereas some of these strategies confirm Schmitt's (2000) VLS classification, others tend to be more specific to the Algerian EFL context.

As for the frequency of use of the different strategies, some strategies tend to be common to most students, while others might be rarely used. The table below presents the frequency of each of the presented strategies according to students' answers.

	Upper Group Students' Strategies	Frequency
DET	Check the word up in a dictionary.	100%
	Guess its meaning.	70%
	Ignore the word.	60%
	Study of word form	20%
	Reread the word.	20%
	Analyse part of speech	10%
	Associate it with familiar words	10%
SOC	Ask the teacher	20%
	Ask a classmate	20%

Table 13: Frequency of Upper Group Students' Identification Strategies

The table classifies students' strategies from the most to the least frequent. Using the dictionary tends to be the most frequent, i.e. the most common strategy since it was mentioned by all students in the group (100%). The second most frequent strategy is contextual guessing with 70% followed by word ignorance, a strategy not mentioned by Schmitt, with 60%. Less frequent strategies include 'study of word form' and 're-reading the new word', another strategy not mentioned by Schmitt; both mentioned twice, i.e. 20%. That was also the case of each of the 'Social' strategies, each with 20%. The least frequent strategies, as the table indicates, are 'Analysis of part of speech' and 'making associations with similar words', with a 10% frequency.

Though students use different strategies to learn new vocabulary, they seem to rely on some strategies more than others. Students' answers to this question show that 'using

the dictionary' tends to be the most common strategy among Algerian students of English as a foreign language. All students in the group mentioned the dictionary as a means of getting the meaning of new words.

However, the dictionary is not always used as the only and immediate source of information about new words. According to students' answers, they sometimes use the dictionary as a means of consolidation after using another strategy. Furthermore, some students use the dictionary not only to explain new words but also to learn new words. As mentioned earlier, one student said she used to open the dictionary at random and learn the first word her eyes come across.

Another frequent strategy is 'guessing from context' being mentioned seven times in students' answers (70%). This indicates the importance of this strategy for students and at the same time their active engagement in vocabulary learning.

Another common strategy for students is 'Ignoring the new word'. Though this may be considered a useful strategy itself, it may implicitly refer to another strategy which is 'guessing from context'. When students ignore the word and carry on reading, their attention is more focused on getting the gist of what they are reading than on understanding every single word.

Less frequent 'identification' strategies are indeed those which require deeper analysis of the new words. Study of word form, Reread the word, analyse part of speech, Associate it with familiar words. These strategies are most appropriate when vocabulary is being explicitly learned, which is not the case for most students in the upper group. This correlates positively with their answers to the Eighth question when most students answered that their learning of vocabulary is most of the time carried out implicitly.

This is not the case, however, of the 'social' strategies namely asking the teacher and classmates for words' meanings. Though these two strategies tend to be less frequently used by students, this may not refer to the complexity of such strategies but merely indicate that students are more reliant on themselves than on external sources.

Identification Strategies for Lower Group Students

In the 'Lower' group, students mentioned different strategies which help them identify the meaning of new words:

	Schmitt's Strategies	Lower Group Students' Strategies
DET	Analyse part of speech Analyse affixes and roots Check for L1 cognate **Analyse any available pictures or gestures** Guess meaning from textual context Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)	Examine word parts (stems & affixes). Translate to Arabic or French Guess meaning. Check the word up in a dictionary **Transcribe the word.**
SOC	Ask teacher for explanation Ask classmates for meaning	

Table 14: Identification Strategies for Lower Group Learners

The table indicates that students make use of five different strategies in order to learn new vocabulary: study of word parts, making translation to Arabic or French, guessing from context, using the dictionary, and making transcriptions. Indeed, all these strategies are 'Determination' strategies requiring the learners to work individually on getting the meaning of new words.

The table also shows that students use most determination strategies in Schmitt's classification. These common strategies include: analysis of stems and affixes, check for

L1 (and even L2) cognate, guess meaning from context and using the dictionary. Two strategies, however, are not used by students in of this group; analysis of part of speech and analysis of any available pictures or gestures.

On the other hand, students mentioned another strategy which is transcribing the new word. This may indicate that students proceed by checking the pronunciation of the new word first before attempting to use another strategy. It also confirms the view that less successful language learners prefer to use mechanical strategies more than cognitive ones.

Though students confirmed their use of different strategies to learn new words, none of these strategies is 'social' in nature. This may reflect introvert behaviour from the part of learners who seem to be unwilling to interact with other people inside or outside the classroom. This confirms previous results indicating that lower group learners are much more concerned with psychological problems in learning new vocabulary.

Overall, students in the lower group rely on determination strategies whenever they face a new vocabulary learning situation. Most of these strategies are 'mechanical' requiring little use of deep processing. Moreover, students seem to stick to one category of vocabulary learning strategies, that of determination strategies. Even within this category they use fewer strategies than successful learners (five strategies as opposed to seven strategies used by upper group students). Moreover, the overall number of identification strategies is five for lower group learners versus nine strategies for upper group students. This indicates an advantage for successful language learners in terms of the quantity of the strategies being used.

As far as the frequency of students' strategies is concerned, the table below shows that using the dictionary is the most common strategy for lower students (70%) followed

by contextual guessing (60%) then translating (30%). Less frequent strategies include study of word parts and transcribing the new word with a frequency of 10% each.

	Lower Group Students' Strategies	Frequency
DET	Check the word up in a dictionary	70%
	Guess its meaning.	60%
	Translate to Arabic or French	30%
	Examine word parts (stems & affixes).	10%
	Transcribe the word.	10%

Table 15: Frequency of Lower group Students' Identification Strategies

Therefore, using the dictionary and guessing meaning from context tend to be the most common strategies among less successful students in the sample population. This result correlates positively with upper group students' most common strategies but with a lesser percentage.

Using the dictionary and guessing from context are thus the two strategies that are the most common for students of English in the Algerian context regardless to their level of proficiency. A major difference however, as far as the use of the dictionary is concerned is that upper group students use it both receptively and productively, whereas less successful learners tend to use the dictionary only receptively, i.e. to explain the meaning of new words. Indeed, using the dictionary seems to be a very logical strategy for EFL students whose first language is very different from English.

11. After you get the meaning of a new word, what are the strategies that help you store this word in your memory and be able to remember it for later use?

Learning new vocabulary, according to Schmitt (2000), goes through two main steps: getting semantic knowledge about the new word, then working on some strategies to fix it in one's memory. Therefore, getting the meaning of a new word does not necessarily mean that one has learnt it. If the person is not able to recall it for later use, there's a gap in its learning. For this reason, learners need to develop useful strategies for storing (fixing) the newly acquired words to be part of their background knowledge. Schmitt's (2000) classification listed different consolidation strategies including social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive categories.

Upper Group Students' Consolidation Strategies

Participants in the upper group argued that their use of consolidation strategies take place almost unconsciously. In other words, they most of the time do not intend to use certain strategies to store the new words in their memory. Moreover, they explained that their use of this kind of strategies depends on the word itself. If it is important and they know they may need it in the future, they consciously apply some strategies which help them store and remember it. If not, which is the case of some technical and scientific words, they don't attempt to use any of these strategies.

Overall, upper group students named 11 different strategies, included in the four different categories proposed by Schmitt (2000).

Category	Upper group Students' Consolidation Strategies
Social	• Participate in forums • Have a challenge with a friend
Memory	• Associate the new word with a specific event/setting • Use it in a funny way • Use key word method • Classify the word

Cognitive	• Verbal and written practice
	• Verbal repetition (sing the new word)
	• Use a notebook
metacognitive	• Use English-language media like songs, series, movies, and talk shows.
	• Play games

Table 16: Upper Group Students' Consolidation Strategies

As far as social strategies are concerned, students mentioned '*participating in online forums*' and '*getting in challenges*' with colleagues as their main strategies. This is what Schmitt (2000) meant by practicing meaning in groups and interacting with native speakers. Some students answered that they used to join forums in English. This offers them a good opportunity to practice the language which is, according to most students, the best means of consolidating new words. This correlates positively with a previous question where these students argued that their most important challenge in learning new vocabulary is lack of practice.

Students also mentioned interacting with people in their social environment like the classroom. For example, one student reported the use of challenges with friends or colleagues. The challenge involved two persons with the second person having to give a word beginning with the last letter in his partner's word. For example: A. consolidation; B. natural; A. letter, B. relevant and so on. The one who ends with a repeated letter or fails to find a word in the appropriate time loses the challenge.

In the 'Memory' category, learners mentioned the following strategies:

> ➢ associating the new word with a specific event or setting

> ➢ using the new word in a funny way (for example telling a joke about the new word)

> ➢ using the key-word method (making both visual and phonological associations)

> ➢ classifying the word under a particular category (simple/complex, literary/scientific, useful/useless)

Of the four categories, memory strategies tend to be the largest because consolidation strategies are, in a way or another, related to memory. Moreover, students' above mentioned strategies can be classified into two main types: first, making associations and second, making repetitions. Though both types refer to memory, the involved processes are very different. Schmitt (2000) distinguished between mechanical strategies, involving repetition, and deeper strategies, requiring more complex processes such as making associations. He further argued that good language learners tend to use deeper strategies more frequently than weak learners whose strategy use is characterized by mechanical, rehearsal strategies. In the light of Schmitt's classification, it is clear that upper group participants use more association than repetition strategies. They make visual, phonological, social, and physical associations.

Cognitive strategies refer to mental actions which help learners store the new words in their minds. These strategies mainly focus on repetition, verbal or written, in addition to the use of vocabulary notebooks. This has been confirmed by students' answers in the upper group which included verbal and written practice, verbal repetition; sometimes by singing the new word according to one student, and using vocabulary notebooks.

The fourth category in the consolidation strategies is the 'metacognitive'. It involves "a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study" (Nation 2000, p. 136). Some of the metacognitive strategies as explained by Schmitt (2001) include: The use of English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.), the Use of spaced word practice (expanding rehearsal), testing oneself with word tests, skipping or passing new word, and continuing to study word over time.

Upper group students' metacognitive strategies consisted mainly in using English media like songs and TV programs, films, series, talk shows which are numerous nowadays and present EFL students with easy and direct access to English language in different forms: formal, informal, academic; both oral and written.

In addition, playing games was also noted as a useful strategy enabling students to consolidate new words. The importance of games is that it presents learners with practice in more concrete situations for using the new word which may help them fix it in their minds.

All in all, upper group students reported their use of different social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies for the purpose of consolidating new words' meanings. Though students are not conscious about such classification, their use of such a variety of strategies points to the active engagement of these learners, and the availability of various learning tools at their disposals.

Lower Group Students' Consolidation Strategies

In the second group, students were asked the same question concerning the strategies they make use of to store the newly acquired words in their memory. Their answers are presented in the following table:

Category	Lower Group Students' Consolidation Strategies
Memory	• Create an image about the new word
Cognitive	• Note it down (in a notebook, in hand, on the table, Or in the text where it appears) • Verbal and written practice • verbal repetition

Table 17: Lower Group Students' Consolidation Strategies

Results show that lower group students use four main strategies representing 'Memory' and 'Cognitive' categories. Students named only one memory strategy which is making an image of the new word. In the cognitive category, students mentioned verbal and written practice, verbal repetition, and noting the new word in different places like the notebook, the table, one's hand, or in the text where the new word appears.

A first interpretation of these results is that less successful students use a limited range of consolidation strategies furthermore involving only two of the four possible categories proposed by Schmitt (2000).

Compared with successful language learners, these students don't make use of any social and/or metacognitive strategies.

This result, in turn, may have two possible explanations: first, students do not use the latter strategies because they ignore them, second, students may be using some social and metacogntive strategies, but they are unable to report such use. A good example reinforcing the latter argument is the students' answers to the ninth question about the strategies which work best for them. They mentioned "asking another person", for example

the teacher or a classmate. In both cases, lower group students, compared with upper group participants, seem to be at a disadvantage as far as the use of consolidation strategies is concerned.

In a nutshell, the focus groups were a valuable tool of data collection in the present study. The discussion in both groups elicited important information about successful versus less successful learners' conception as well as their use of the different vocabulary learning strategies. Students' answers converged in some points as shown so far by the analysis of their answers. Students in both groups agreed about the importance of vocabulary in their learning process. They also emphasised the use of two main strategies which are: using dictionary and guessing from context. Both strategies tend to be the most common for students regardless of their level of proficiency.

On the other hand, an analysis of students' answers about their use of different vocabulary strategies showed some differences between the two groups. A major difference is that successful language learners use more identification and consolidation strategies than less successful students. Participants in the upper group not only used more strategies but they used a variety of strategies covering both 'determination' and 'social' categories for the identification strategies and 'social', 'memory', 'cognitive' and 'metacognitive' categories for the consolidation strategies. Their consistent answers clearly show their active engagement with both strategy types which make the learning of vocabulary relatively easier than for their lower group counterparts as indicated by their answers to one of the questions.

Students in the lower group used fewer strategies and covered less categories in both identification and consolidation strategies. In total, they used nine (09) different vocabulary strategies (05 identification and 04 consolidation strategies) as opposed to

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twenty (20) different strategies for upper group students (09 identification and 11 consolidation strategies). Their strategies covered only one category in the identification strategies (determination strategies) and only two categories in the consolidation strategies (memory and cognitive). This means that lower achievers used not only fewer strategies but a limited range of strategy types, which means that these students have little choices in dealing with different vocabulary learning situations.

Stage Two: Reading Sessions

After students in both groups described the different VLS they use to identify and to consolidate new words' meanings, it was necessary to put them in a situation where they would put their strategies into practice. For this purpose, two reading sessions were held in both groups separately. The major aim of the reading task was to expose learners to new vocabulary items allowing the researcher to directly observe the students' reaction and the possible strategies they might employ to get the meaning and to store these new words.

The reading sessions went through three main steps:

Pre-reading: students were introduced to the texts through a short discussion aiming at evoking their background knowledge about the topics.

During reading: this step was itself carried out through two stages: a first reading aimed at enabling students to get the main idea of the text and to identify the new vocabulary therein, a second reading for the purpose of identifying and getting new words' meanings.

Post reading: it involved a discussion of the new vocabulary in the texts as well as a description of the different strategies that were employed to get these meanings. It also

aimed at giving some hints at the different strategies learners made use of to consolidate new words.

Upper Group Students' Strategies

A text entitled "graveyard of the Atlantic" was used as the main tool for data collection with upper group learners. Students could get the main idea right from the first reading. While reading, few students were reading silently and individually, others were working in pairs, discussing some new items, whereas others picked up their dictionaries and consulted them from time to time. One student used a soft ware program to get the new vocabulary.

After they finished reading the text, students identified 18 new items for which they used the following strategies:

Guessing from context; the majority of the students said they relied on contextual guessing to get the meaning of the new vocabulary. Examples of some words students could guess include: *chilling* (frightening), *eerie* (abnormal)

Using the dictionary; according to the students, the dictionary was mainly used as a resort after they failed to get the meaning through contexts. That was the case for some vocabulary like *graveyard*: cemetery, *wreckage*: remains of something.

Studying word parts: in addition to the dictionary and contextual guessing, students also relied on examining the new word itself by breaking it into different components. For example: *seafarers* (sailors), *telltale* (inform about something)

Skipping the new word: many students explained that they concentrated on the wider context rather than individual vocabulary.

Making associations: this involved making associations with another language like French in the case of the word *extraterrestrial* meaning from outside the earth, and Japanese in the case of the word *spouts* which they learnt from the Japanese cartoon 'Narutu' according to one of the students.

Discussing the meaning with a group mate: while reading the text and at several occasions, students worked together in pairs, sometimes in groups of three, to discuss the meaning of some words like *streaks* meaning flash of lightening and *foam* meaning bubbles, as they reported.

It is clear that students used both 'Determination' strategies, involving the first five strategies, as well as 'Social' strategies, involving the discussion of the new word with friends. This result confirms previous findings about upper group students' use of identification strategies. Therefore, it might be said that there is a positive correlation between students' theoretical answers, in the first stage of the study, and their actual use of the different strategies as illustrated by the reading session.

Moreover, students succeeded to a large extent in getting the meaning of the words in question. Their answers were most of the time correct reflecting an efficient use of the different VLS.

After the discussion of all new words, the researcher's attention was focused on the way students attempted to consolidate their meanings. It was clear that most students relied on abstract, deeper processing of the new words involving association and word imagery. Some students, however, wrote the meaning next to each word on the handout. In other words, students used both 'memory' and 'cognitive' strategies. Whereas the former involved making abstract internalization procedures, the latter required noting the new word down on the sheet of paper.

Lower Group Students' Strategies

A text entitled 'Your actions speak louder' was used for the reading session with lower group students. While reading, all students were silent concentrating on the text. None of them picked the dictionary or tried to speak with the student next to them. The researcher then explained that it was not a test, but they had to behave naturally. Only then, did some students bring out their dictionaries and start consulting them.

In the post reading phase students reported their use of two main strategies to explain the new vocabulary:

Guessing from context; all students confirmed their use of the guessing strategy to get the new words' meanings. Some of the words they could guess from context were: *blunder* (mistake), *bang* (knock), *beckoning* (call someone with the finger)

Using the dictionary; almost all students said they relied on the dictionary. For some words they used the dictionary from the first time, but for other words they used the dictionary to check their guesses. Some of the vocabulary which the students have learnt using the dictionary include: *laden* (fully charged) and *hosts* (entertainers)

Therefore, students used only two 'Determination strategies' which are guessing from context and using the dictionary. This may indicate a mismatch between students' theoretical answer (in the tenth (10th) question), which also included 'study of word parts' and 'making associations' with Arabic and French, and their actual use of the different strategies. This in turn may indicate that these students 'know' about some strategies but they are unable to use them when necessary. On the other hand, there is a positive

correlation in the point that students didn't make use of any social strategies as affirmed by their answers in the first stage.

Moreover, students not only used few strategies, but also used them ineffectively. When asked about the meaning of the new words they could identify; students often gave wrong, inappropriate answers. For example, the word *hosts* was sometimes guessed as 'trouble' and sometimes as 'gestures' instead of entertainers, *prolonged* was guessed as 'half open' and 'insisting' instead of lengthened, *bang* as sit down instead of knock, *laden* as bad behavior instead of charged. Even after using the dictionary, some students couldn't get the appropriate meaning as confirmed by one student who couldn't find the appropriate definition for the word 'prolonged'.

These results confirm the idea that less successful learners are rather poor in terms of the quantity and *quality* of the strategies they use to identify new words' meanings. This was clearly noticed through their answers in the first stage, and confirmed by their performance in the reading session.

As for consolidation strategies, most students wrote the meaning of the new words on the handout. Again, this may indicate that learners may be relying on abstract cognitive strategies in addition to memory strategies (noting the new word down).

Stage Three: Vocabulary Tests

One month after the reading sessions, a vocabulary test was held in each group for the purpose of testing the efficiency of students' consolidation strategies and the extent to which they were able to remember the newly acquired vocabulary. The tests involved all new words which learners in both groups have learnt in the reading sessions. Students had to use the words to fill in the blanks in completely new context (new sentences). Each

correct answer is worth one point. In the upper group, the test included 18 sentences, corresponding to the number of words which they learned from the text 'Graveyard of the Atlantic' (see appendix 5). Students' scores were as follows:

Students	Scores/18	Percentage
A	15	83.33%
B	14	77.77%
C	12	66.66%
D	10	55.55%
E	16	88.88%
F	11	61.11%
G	9	50%
H	18	100%
I	14	77.77%
J	14	77.77%
Total	**13.3**	**73.88%**

Table 18: Upper Group Students' Scores in the Vocabulary Test

Scores in the above table show that all students (except for one) got above average marks. The marks ranged from 9 out of 18 (50%) to 18/18 (100%). The average score of the group as a whole is 13.3/18 (73.88%) which can be described as a good mark. Therefore, it can be said that successful language learners are equally good in consolidation as in identification strategies. Their high average score indicates that most students were able to remember the new vocabulary regardless of the context in which it appeared.

In the lower group, the test included 16 filling the blank sentence (each correct answer is worth one point), corresponding to the total number of the new vocabulary which they learned from the text 'Your actions speak louder' (see appendix 6). students' results in the vocabulary test were as follows:

Students	Scores/16	Percentage
1	9	56.25%
2	16	100%
3	9	56.26%
4	10	62.50%
5	13	81.25%
6	11	68.75%
7	8	50%
8	13	81.25%
9	16	100%
10	4	25%
Total	**10.9**	**68.12%**

Table 19: Lower Group Students' Scores in the Vocabulary Test

Almost all students (except for one) got above average marks. The scores ranged between 4 out of 16 (25%) to 16/16 (100%) with an average score of 10.9 (68.12%). Students' general percentage can be described as above average; giving the impression that lower group students are more successful in the consolidation than they were in the identification strategies. A possible interpretation is that students tend to remember better when vocabulary is *explicitly* taught. The reading sessions exposed learners with new vocabulary and a detailed discussion of their meanings. This approach seemed to have a positive impact on learners' vocabulary learning as indicated by their scores in the test.

Conclusion

So far, this chapter attempted to investigate Algerian learners' use of vocabulary learning strategies and the extent to which such use is affected by learners' proficiency level (successful Vs less successful learners). An analysis of the qualitative data collected

through focus groups discussion shows that two strategies, in particular, are most common among Algerian learners regardless of their proficiency level. This is mainly the case of 'using the dictionary' and 'guessing from context'. Students show to be heavily relying on these two strategies as reported by the participants themselves during the discussion of their most frequent strategies and confirmed by their performance in the reading sessions. However, as far as the dictionary use is concerned, students from either group tend not to use it for the same purposes. Whereas successful learners use the dictionary for both receptive and productive purposes; less successful students' use of the dictionary tend to be restricted to receptive use; i.e; to get the meaning of new words.

Moreover, students tend to differ in the overall number of strategies in use. Successful language learners proved to be using *more* strategies and a *wider range* of strategy types than low achievers. This means that high achievers have at their disposal more alternatives to deal with the different learning situations they may encounter. This gives them an advantage both linguistically and psychologically. They are better users of the language and at the same time more motivated and self confident. On the other hand, low achievers seem to have fewer solutions illustrated by a limited number of strategies and strategy types.

Not only do high achievers use more strategies, but they also use them more effectively. Participants in the upper group proved to be more successful in carrying out different strategies which make their performance better and more convincing. Moreover, successful students tend to be equally good at identification as well as at consolidation strategies as illustrated by their performance in the reading session and the vocabulary test respectively. Low achievers, on the other hand, proved to be better at consolidation than identification strategies. Whereas they were less successful in getting the meaning of new vocabulary, they did better in the vocabulary test requiring them to remember the newly

acquired items. This means that students reacted positively to the *explicit* instruction about new vocabulary. In other words, these students need some assistance from the part of the teacher to explain the difficult words; Once these words are understood, students find fewer problems in using them in the future.

This result is, indeed, very encouraging. It points to the possibly positive effect some training in vocabulary strategies might bring to these learners. In other words, if less successful learners are devoted some time for explicit training in some vocabulary learning strategies, they might show an improvement in the learning of new vocabulary. This, in turn, might positively affect their learning process in general, especially if the acquired strategies are successfully transferred to learning different aspects of the English language.

Chapter five

Investigating the impact of strategy training on less successful learners' use of

vocabulary learning strategies

Introduction

Students use different strategies to deal with different learning situations. Vocabulary is one major area provoking learners to employ various strategies to increase their command of the language. The previous chapter investigated EFL learners' application of some strategies in an Algerian context. Such use is affected by learners' proficiency level in terms of both the quantity and quality of the strategies being used. The chapter concluded by emphasizing the importance of training in strategy use for less successful learners to improve their learning of vocabulary.

According to Cohen (1998, p. 65) learning will be facilitated if students become more aware of the range of possible strategies they can consciously select during language learning and language use. Therefore, training students in strategy use will enable them to acquire new strategies or at least improve their use of already known strategies which used to be applied ineffectively.

This chapter investigates the possible effect of strategy instruction on learners' use of six vocabulary learning strategies: guessing words from context, study of word parts and dictionary use, in addition to semantic mapping, using vocabulary notebooks and the key word method. It presents a detailed description of the training program as well as the pre- and post tests administered respectively at the beginning and at the end of the training. The chapter also presents learners' scores in both tests with an analysis and an interpretation of

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the results geared towards investigating the nature of the impact of the training on learners' use of the strategies under study.

V.1. Aim of the Training

The main purpose of the training course was to help less successful students or low achievers acquire some vocabulary strategies which might be of some help in their learning process. As such, the training attempted to make these students able to put into practice necessary strategies for the identification and consolidation of new vocabulary, providing them with useful hints to deal with possible learning difficulties in relation to vocabulary acquisition. The training did not only seek to provide solutions for students' present difficulties but also sought to enable them to apply the newly acquired strategies in new situations, making it therefore a habit rather than an independent learning experience. The aim was also to show that strategy training is an effective tool to help less successful learners acquire new ways to overcome some of their learning difficulties.

V.2. Population of the Training Program

The sample population included the same ten students in the 'Lower' group who had taken part in the first phase of the study. The main criterion for selecting these students was their low annual average scores compared with the rest of the students. The selected population represented 12.5% of the total third year population at the English department at l' ENSC. It included seven (07) female and three (03) male students from the different third year groups.

Students were informed, in advance, that their participation in the study will take several sessions and were let free to decide whether to accept or refuse to take part. This issue was not really problematic since all students expressed their agreement without hesitation.

V.3. Procedure

The training program concentrated on six vocabulary strategies dealing with the identification and retention of new words. In order to check the efficiency of the training, a pre-test and a post-test were respectively designed and administered at the beginning and at the end of the training.

V.3.1. Vocabulary Strategies Training Program

a. Course Presentation

- ➢ **Level:** 3rd year university level
- ➢ **Course hours:** 23h. 30 min
- ➢ **Pre-requisites:** knowledge of some reading strategies such as predicting, guessing from context, dictionary use; which students already studied in their first and second years.
- ➢ **Co-requisites:** writing and reading skills
- ➢ **Course objectives:** On successful completion of this course, students will be able to:

    1. Demonstrate knowledge of six vocabulary strategies that would be of some help for them to learn new vocabulary items.

    2. Put into practice three different strategies to get the meaning of new words by demonstrating ability to:

    - ➢ Guess new words from context
    - ➢ Study word forms by breaking the words into stems and affixes.
    - ➢ Use the dictionary to find out definitions, correct pronunciation, and get information about the new words.

3. Put into practice three strategies to consolidate new words' meanings and be therefore able to recall them for later use by demonstrating ability to:

➢ Draw semantic maps

➢ Make associations, both visual and phonological, to store the new words in their memory.

➢ Use word study notebooks in a way that enables them to keep track of the newly acquired vocabulary.

b. Course Content

The training course focused on six strategies dealing with the identification and consolidation of new vocabulary items. The choice of the strategies was mainly based on their importance in the acquisition of new vocabulary as described by most researchers in the field (Nation, 2000; Schmitt, 2000; Gu, 2005). Strategies like guessing from context, studying word parts, and using the dictionary take the lion share in any discussion about vocabulary learning strategies, be it in a first or second/foreign language.

Moreover, Nation (2000) insisted on the importance of training in strategy use and recommended that this should be part of a planned vocabulary development program. He further explained that this plan should involve:

1. "Deciding which strategies to give attention to.

2. Deciding how much time to spend on training the learners in strategy use.

3. Working out a syllabus for each strategy that covers the required knowledge and provides plenty of opportunity for increasingly independent practice.

4. Monitoring and providing feedback on learners' control of the strategies" (p. 222).

Based on Nation's above suggestions, a mini-syllabus for teaching the vocabulary strategies under study was designed.

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Vocabulary Strategies Mini-Syllabus

UNIT ONE: Strategies for the Identification of New Words' Meanings

Lesson One: Guessing from context

➢ **Input:** - What is context?
   - A strategy for guessing new words from context.

➢ **Output:** Practice

Lesson Two: Word study (Stems & Affixes)

➢ **Input:** -Definitions
   -A list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes

➢ **Output:** Practice

Lesson Three: Dictionary use

➢ **Input:** - Introduction
   - Different uses of the dictionary

➢ **Output:** Practice

Consolidation Activities

UNIT TWO: Strategies for the Consolidation of New Words

Lesson Four: Word study Notebook

➢ **Input:** - - Introduction
   - Organising a word study notebook

➢ **Output:** Practice

Lesson Five: The Key-word Method

➢ **Input:** -Definition
   - Memorizing English vocabulary
   - A strategy for using the key word method to learn foreign vocabulary

➢ **Output:** Practice

Lesson six: Semantic Maps

➢ **Input:** -Definition
   - Examples of semantic maps

➢ **output:** Practice

Consolidation Activities

C. Description

The syllabus consisted of two units; each including three lessons. Each lesson included two main parts: a theoretical part (input), aiming at introducing the targeted strategy by providing basic information about it; and a practical part (output) giving the students practice of the strategy through a variety of activities.

The first unit dealt with strategies for the identification of new words' meanings and included three lessons: guessing from context, word study, and dictionary use. The second unit dealt with strategies for consolidating new words, and also included three lessons: word-study notebook, the key-word method and semantic maps. Each unit ended with a revision section entitled 'consolidation activities'. It contained different activities aiming at consolidating what had been learned throughout the whole unit (for a detailed presentation of the lessons see appendix 9).

d. Assessment

Assessment is a necessary part in any teaching/learning situation. In this training program, three types of tests were used:

> ➢ Diagnostic tests, throughout the whole course.
> ➢ A proficiency test at the beginning of the program.
> ➢ An achievement test at the end of the training.

Diagnostic Tests

According to Harmer (2007), diagnostic tests are those tests which "can be used to expose learner difficulties, gaps in their knowledge and skill deficiencies during a course" (p. 380). In other words, this type of tests closely examines learners' performance in a course, making it possible for the teacher to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses and

to come up with useful solutions for learners' difficulties before going further in the course.

In the context of this study, diagnostic tests took the form of written activities in each lesson aiming at checking learners' understanding of the lesson and the extent to which they were able to put into practice the presented strategy. More focus was placed on learners' difficulties or deficiencies since they indicated the existence of some problems and the need for a remedy in due time. As such, each lesson included at least one diagnostic test, presented in the 'output' part, which the learners had to perform individually or in pairs under the researcher's direct supervision.

A Proficiency Test

Harmer (2007) explains that proficiency tests **"**give a general picture of a student's knowledge and ability" (p. 380). On the light of Harmer's definition, the pre-test, administered at the onset of this investigation can be considered a proficiency test aiming at measuring students' knowledge of vocabulary as well as the size of this knowledge. This test tends to be more formal in nature since it is performed individually by the students without the interference of the teacher and for a set period of time.

An Achievement Test

Achievement tests are "designed to measure learners' language and skill progress in relation to the syllabus they have been following" (Harmer, 2007, p. 380). On this basis, the post-test which was carried out at the outset of the experiment can fit in this category. It measured the trainees' skill progress in learning vocabulary and in practicing the already taught strategies.

Schedule

The training stretched for a period of two months and 11 days, from March 05th to May 16th, date of the post test. During that period, one session took place regularly every week on Wednesday from 12.30 to 14.00.

Activities	Number of sessions	Allocated time
Pre-test	1	1H. 30
Contextual guessing	3	4H.30
Word study (stems and affixes)	3	4H.30
Dictionary use	2	3H
Consolidation activities	1	1H.30
Word study notebook	1+1/2	2H
Key-word method	1+1/2	2H
Semantic maps	1	1H.30
Consolidation activities	1	1H.30
Post-test	1	1H.30
Total	**16**	**23H.30**

Table 20: Training Schedule

The table presents the different activities the program included as well as the allocated time in terms of sessions and number of hours. The training tackled ten different activities, six of which were devoted to the six strategies under study, two for the pre-test and post-test and two for consolidation at the end of each unit. The course included 16 different sessions, each session lasting 1 hour and 30 minutes, making a total of 23 hours and 30 minutes.

The table further indicates that most lessons took one session. The lesson on dictionary use took two sessions, whereas those on 'word-study notebooks' and 'the key word method' took three sessions together, with the second session devoted to finish the first lesson and to start the second one respectively. Two lessons, 'Guessing from context' and 'word-study' took three sessions each; that was mainly due to the importance as well

as the richness of the content of both lessons. Nation (2001), stressing the importance of some strategies and the need for devoting enough time for these strategies, argued: "for each of the strategies like guessing from context, using word parts, dictionary use and direct learning, learners need to spend a total of at least four to five hours per strategy spread over several weeks" (p. 223).

V.3.2. Pre-test and Post-test

a. Pre-test

An important aim for this training program is to check the efficiency of strategy training on students with learning difficulties. To keep track of students' possible improvement in the use of the six target strategies, a pre-test aiming at measuring students' entering vocabulary size level was used at the beginning of the program. The pre-test also served as a reference point to be compared with the post-test, administered at the end of the training.

The pre-test consisted of three vocabulary exercises compiled from different sources (see appendix 7). The first two exercises were adapted from Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000) and vocabulary productive levels test, version C (exercise 1), and Test B (exercise 2). The third exercise was adapted from Baudoin et al. (1996). The three exercises have three different formats: multiple choice (exercise 1), fill in the blank (exercise 2), and free response exercise requiring students to provide definitions or explanations (exercise 3). Moreover, the different parts of the test were organised in a way that leads the students gradually from receptive multiple choice questions to more productive questions.

Exercise One: Word Association

In the first exercise, students were asked to associate the given items with their appropriate synonyms. Seven sets of words were suggested with each set containing six words on the left side and three words on the right. The question was to write the number of the appropriate word from the left next to its equivalent word on the right. The exercise was adapted from Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000). The selected word sets were chosen from two different word levels; Academic vocabulary (the first three sets) and the 5000 word level (fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh sets). Overall, students were exposed to 20 different vocabulary items for which they had to demonstrate knowledge by linking them with their appropriate synonyms.

This first exercise took a multiple choice format; i.e. students had to choose the answer from the given suggestions rather than produce it themselves. Therefore, it attempted to test learners' *receptive* vocabulary knowledge as shown by their ability to *recognise* the given vocabulary items.

Exercise Two: Contextual Guessing

In this part, students were required to fill in the blanks with missing words so as to complete the given sentences. Ten sentences were randomly selected from Laufer and Nation (2000) productive Levels Test, Version C, the 3000 word level. Each sentence included a gap which the students had to fill in with the appropriate word. To give some hint at the missing word, two or three letters for each word were suggested, and the students had to guess the correct word.

This exercise was chosen for the main reason that it tested learners' guessing ability which is one of the strategies that the training focused on. Similar to the first exercise, the second exercise has a 'closed' format. In other words, there is only *one* correct answer

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each time. This makes the test not only more objective in scoring, but also more reliable, because the answer is either correct or wrong. In other words, if two or more scorers are to correct the exercise, the mark is going to be almost the same.

Moreover, this type of questions tends to focus more on students' *recognition* skills, i.e., they either know or do not know the answer. This is quite suitable for the main purpose of the test which measures students' vocabulary knowledge in addition to the use of some vocabulary strategies.

Exercise Three: Inference

The third part tests students' inference skill as illustrated by their ability to provide a definition or a description of the italicized words in each of the given sentences. Ten sentences were selected from Baudoin et al (1994) with each sentence containing an italicized word, the meaning of which should be inferred by examining the word itself (study of word parts; stem and affixes), or by looking at the context in which it occurs.

This part of the test is different from the previous parts in two ways: first it tends to be more productive in nature since the students were asked to give their answers without any suggestions or hints at the correct answer. Second, it tends to be more 'open' in that there was no exact correct or wrong answer. This provided more freedom for the learners to express their answers.

Procedure

The test was administered at 8.30 in the morning with the presence of all the participants. The latter were informed that they should answer the test individually and were assured that the test results would be kept confidential and be used for pure research purposes. After all the students gave back their papers, a collective correction of the test was carried out. That was mainly done as a response to the students' desire since they were

eager to know how well they did in the test. The test correction was followed by a discussion of the course in general as well as the different requirements of the program. They were asked once again to feel free to express their opinions and to make any suggestions before the training would start. They said nothing except that they were ready and happy to go through this experience for the first time in their lives.

b. Post-test

In order to avoid biasing results in the post-test, the latter took exactly the same form of the pre-test but with a different content. Similar to the pre-test, the post-test also included three exercises with exactly the same format, number of items, and allocated marks. Moreover, the three exercises were adapted from the same sources as those in the pre-test.

The content, however, was different. The first exercise (about word association) was adapted from Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000) vocabulary levels test, test B; the 5000 word level and Academic vocabulary. The second exercise (contextual guessing) was adapted from Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, version C, the 3000 word level. The third part (about inference) consisted of sentences which students have already dealt with in their training program. That was mainly done for the purpose of making some link between the test and the syllabus that have been taught, in that the test is supposed to evaluate students' progress or achievement in relation to a particular course of study.

The post test took place on the 16th of May from 12.30 to 14.00 with the presence of all the participants. The post test was indeed the last step in an investigation which took more than two months.

V.4. Results and Analyses

V.4.1. Pre-test Results

The following table presents students' scores in the three parts separately and in the pre-test as a whole.

Students	Exercise 1 /10	Exercise 2 /10	Exercise 3 /10	Score /30
1	08	04.5	08.5	**21**
2	06.5	07	05.5	**19**
3	08.5	05	05.5	**19**
4	07.5	04	04.5	**16**
5	08.5	04	03	**15.5**
6	07.5	03	04.5	**15**
7	06.5	02	06	**14.5**
8	07	00	06.5	**13.5**
9	04	00	06	**10**
10	01.5	03	02	**06.5**
Average mark	**6.55**	**3.25**	**5.20**	**15**

Table 21: Students' Scores in the Pre-test

Students' scores as illustrated in the above table indicate that the average score in the pre-test is 15 out of 30. Six students i.e., 60% of the participants got average or above average marks, ranging from 15 to 21 out of 30. Four students (40%), on the other hand obtained below average marks, two of them scored very low; 10 and 6.5 out of 30.

These statistics may indicate that students in the sample population tend to have average vocabulary knowledge. In other words, they have a modest vocabulary store which did not enable them to do well in the different parts of the test.

Results across the different parts of the test indicate that students' average score in the first exercise about word association is 6.55 out of 10; in the second exercise about

contextual guessing it is 3.25 out of 10. In the third exercise (inference) their average score is 5.20 out of 10.

A first reading of these results indicates that of the three tested strategies, students are more successful in the word association strategy, compared with guessing and inference skills. Contextual guessing seems to be the most difficult for students as reflected in their low average score (3.25/10). In a mid position, students in the sample population tend to have an average level in the inference skill as illustrated by their average score (5.20/10).

A deeper analysis of the students' scores going through a vertical interpretation of the results can lead to some interesting findings.

Exercise 1: Word Association

Students	Exercise 1 (word association) /10
1	08
2	06.5
3	08.5
4	07.5
5	08.5
6	07.5
7	06.5
8	07
9	04
10	01.5
Average mark	**6.55**

Table 22: Students' Sub Scores in Word Association Exercise of the Pre-test

Students' average score in this exercise is 6.55 out of 10. In general, the score can be described as being above average, but compared with the two other exercises; it tends to be much better. Students' scores range from 1.5 to 8.5 with the majority of students achieving above average scores. The table illustrates that eight students i.e., 80% of the group got between 6.5 and 8.5 which means that the majority of students found the first exercise relatively easier than the two other exercises. This result may have several interpretations:

1. Students are familiar with the vocabulary items presented in this exercise. In other words, the items in question do, in fact, exist in the students' vocabulary store and this helped them to do well in this part particularly.

2. The activity itself might be easier in that the students were not required to produce any answer. Rather, they had to choose the appropriate answer from the suggested options. In other words, the exercise tends to be a receptive rather than a productive activity.

3. The format of the exercise, i.e., Multiple Choice may leave room for students to answer randomly. Though this may not be the case for all the answers, still it is a probable interpretation.

4. Another interpretation based on more empirical evidence is that students' *receptive* vocabulary is larger than students' *productive* one (Hiebert & Kamil 2005). In other words, students can recognize many of the vocabulary which they read (or hear), but when they come to produce; they use only a small percentage of the vocabulary they know.

The table also indicates that two students, i.e., 20% of the population of the study achieved below average scores (01.5 & 04). These students were not successful in associating the given words with their appropriate synonyms, possibly because most vocabulary items in this exercise were not familiar to them.

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All in all, results of this exercise show that students are more or less successful in this type of activities emphasizing recognition of new vocabulary through word association. Part of this result may be due to the fact that students were choosing the answer rather than producing it. The question which can be raised then is: would the students have achieved similar results if they had been asked to give the synonym themselves rather than having had to choose it from the suggested options?

Exercise Two: Guessing from Context

As far as the second exercise is concerned, the third table shows that students achieved a low average score which is 3.25 out of 10. Marks range from 00 to 07 with the majority of students scoring below 05. Only one student scored 07 and another student scored 05 in this exercise. These students indeed scored well in the test as a whole (2nd best score) as indicated in table 1. This may suggest that these two students tend to have a larger vocabulary store compared with the rest of the group.

Students	Exercise 2 (contextual guessing) /10
1	**04.5**
2	**07**
3	**05**
4	**04**
5	**04**
6	**03**
7	**02**
8	**00**
9	**00**
10	**03**
Average mark	**3.25**

Table 3: Students' Sub Scores in the Contextual Guessing Part of the Pre-test

On the other hand, eight students, i.e., 80% of the population of study achieved below average scores. Among them two students were near average scoring 04.5 and 04 out of 10. Five students, however, scored below or equal three (≤ 3) which means that half students in the group got very weak marks in this exercise which in turn contributed to the overall low average score in this exercise. Strikingly, two students scored 00 which means that they failed to give at least one correct answer, despite the fact that they were given some hints about the missing word.

The above results show that students have serious problems in *producing* the right vocabulary in the right context. Part of this difficulty lies in the fact that the question requires only *one* correct answer that should be expressed in one word. Students might have an idea about the meaning of the missing word but couldn't produce it. During the correction of the pre-test, it was clear that some students knew the word but were unable to produce it when asked to do so. Some other students succeeded to write the appropriate word but in a wrong form. For example, they wrote 'nervous' instead of 'nerves' in the fifth sentence:

"The children's games were amusing at first, but finally got on the parents' *nervous*".

Compared with the first exercise, it is clear that students are less successful in contextual guessing especially when it is a matter of *production* rather than *recognition* of new vocabulary. This confirms the idea that a person's receptive vocabulary is far larger than their productive vocabulary.

Exercise Three (Inference)

The group's average score in the third part of the test tends to be quite average (5.20) as indicated in the table below. Indeed; six students, i.e., 60% got above average scores

ranging from 5.5 and 8.5 out of 10. These students can be described as being somehow successful in such kind of vocabulary exercises. In other words, they tend to be successful in making inference about words' meanings by providing appropriate definitions and/or explanations to the items in question.

Students	Exercise 3 (Inference) /10
1	08.5
2	05.5
3	05.5
4	04.5
5	03
6	04.5
7	06
8	06.5
9	06
10	02
Average mark	**5.20**

Table 24: Students' Sub Scores in the Inference Part of the Pre-test

On the other hand, four students (40%) scored below average marks. Two of them were near average (4.5) but two students scored very weak marks (3 and 2). These students can be said to have serious problems with the inference strategy. Despite the open format of the exercise, they couldn't provide appropriate answers.

Students' results in the third part of the test tend to be average as a whole. It is clear that students did better in this exercise than in the second one. A possible interpretation is that the format of the exercise is open, not close. In other words, there is no exact correct answer, rather, students attempted to infer the meaning of the italicized words by giving either a description or explanation. Moreover, students were not required to produce a

word but to explain the given words by examining the word itself (its different parts) or the context in which they appeared. This reinforces the previous argument that students' receptive vocabulary knowledge is larger than their productive one.

To sum up, students' scores in the pre-test revealed an average level as far as their vocabulary knowledge is concerned. Concerning the strategies being tested, the results indicate that students are more successful in word association than in contextual guessing and inference strategies. Students did better in choosing the appropriate vocabulary from the suggested options. They were also successful (though with a lesser degree) in inferring word meanings based on the study of word parts or the context in which these words appear. Of the three tested strategies, contextual guessing seems to be the most difficult for participants illustrated by their inability to produce the exact vocabulary in the appropriate context.

V.4.2. Post-test Results and Analysis

Students' scores in the post test as illustrated in table 25 show that all students, without exception, got above average marks ranging from 17.5 as the lowest mark to 24.5 as the highest mark. The average score for the group is 22.3 out of 30, i.e. 74.33% which can be described as being a good score. This high percentage indicates that students could recognise most vocabulary in the post test. It also indicates that students were successful in carrying out the three strategies required in the different parts of the test.

Students	Exercise 1 (Word Association) /10	Exercise 2 (Contextual Guessing) /10	Exercise 3 (Inference) /10	Score /30
1	08.5	08	08	24.5
6	09	07	08	24
3	09.5	07	07.5	24
2	08	07	08.5	23.5
7	08	06	09	23
9	10	06	07	23
4	08.5	07	07	22.5
5	07.5	07	06.5	21
10	06	06.5	07.5	20
8	05.5	05.5	06.5	17.5
Average mark	8.05	6.70	7.55	22.30

Table 25: Students' Scores in the Post-test

Exercise one: Word Association

Students' scores in the first exercise of the post-test are reported in the following table

Students	exercise 1 (Word Association) /10
1	08.5
6	09
3	09.5
2	08
7	08
9	10
4	08.5
5	07.5
10	06
8	05.5
Average mark	8.05

Table 26: Students' Sub Scores in the Word Association Part of the Post-test

In the first exercise of the post-test about word association, students' scores ranged from 5.5 out of 10 as the lowest mark to 10 out 10 as the highest mark. Students' average score is 8.05 which can be described as a good score. This means that students were successful in making associations relating each word with its appropriate synonym.

Exercise Two: Contextual Guessing

Students' scores in the second part of the post test were as follows:

Students	Exercise 2 (contextual guessing) /10
1	08
6	07
3	07
2	07
7	06
9	06
4	07
5	07
10	06.5
8	05.5
Average mark	**6.70**

Table 27: Students' Sub Scores in the Contextual Guessing Part of the Post test

All students got above average scores, ranging from 5.5 out of 10 as the lowest mark to 8 out of 10 as the highest mark. The average score is 6.70 out of 10 which can be described as being above average. Compared with their scores in the first part, students seem to have more difficulties with guessing the missing words from context than with word associations. The main reason may be, once again, due to the fact that in the first part

students are required to choose the right synonym, but in the second they are supposed to produce the right vocabulary.

Exercise Three: Inference

Students' sub scores in the third part of the post-test were as follows:

Students	Exercise 3 (inference) /10
1	08
6	08
3	07.5
2	08.5
7	09
9	07
4	07
5	06.5
10	07.5
8	06.5
Average mark	7.55

Table 28: Students' Sub Scores in the Inference Part of the Post test

Students' scores in the third part of the post-test show that all participants achieved above average scores, ranging from 6.5 out of 10 as the lowest score to 9 out of 10 as the highest score. Compared with their marks in the second part, students seem to be better in the inference strategy by examining the word itself or the context in which it appears than in guessing the missing vocabulary. Once again, students showed to be more successful in guessing the *meaning* of the new words than in guessing the *word* itself, i.e. they have fewer problems with understanding the words than with producing them.

Compared with the first exercise of the post-test, however, students are less successful in the inference than in the word association strategy. This reinforces the previous argument that students are much better in recognising than in producing meaning of the new vocabulary, and that their receptive vocabulary is larger than their productive one.

To sum up, students' performance in the post-test shows that the training had a positive impact on their performance in the three tested strategies. The post-test results also indicate that students are more successful in the word association than in the inference and guessing strategies respectively. This tends to be a bit surprising since the word association strategy was not part of the training program unlike the guessing and inference strategies. However, word association tends to test students' knowledge of vocabulary and as a strategy it can be referred to as being rather 'mechanical' requiring matching words together semantically. In addition, very little can be said about it and this is the main reason for not including it in the training.

On the other hand, inference and guessing strategies are both 'deeper' strategies requiring more complex processing of information. This is why they tend to be more challenging for the students. Among the two strategies, students are better in providing an explanation about the word (making inference about its meaning) than in guessing the word itself, though both strategies might require the use of context clues. The main reason is that students can recognise many words but produce only a smaller number of the words they know.

V.5. Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test

V.5.1. Differences Among the Three Tested Strategies

A major aim of this study is to investigate the effect of training in some vocabulary strategies on learners' use of these strategies. At this stage of the investigation, a comparison of students' performance before and after the training, illustrated by their results in the pre- and post- tests, can bring some interesting findings. The diagram below gives a good illustration:
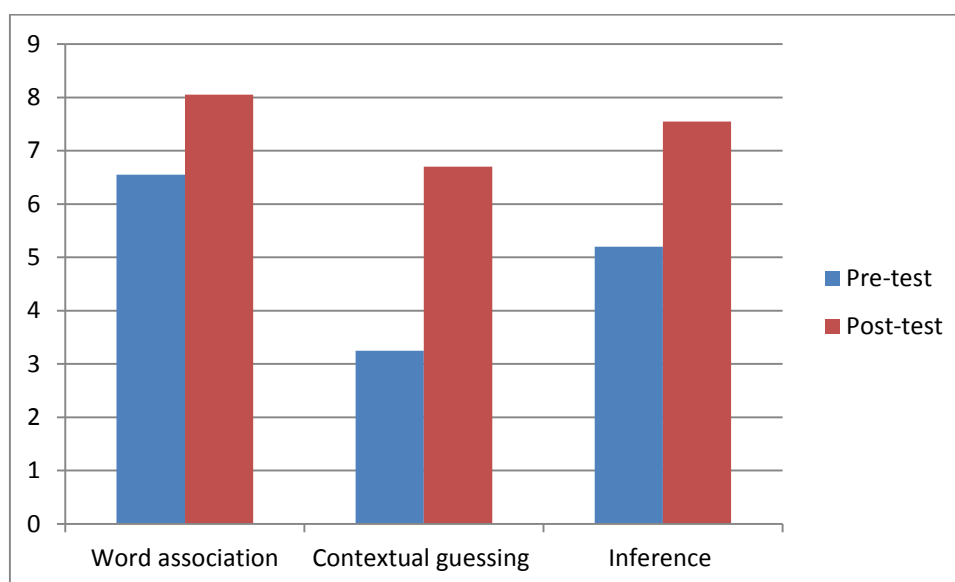
Figure 5: Pre- and Post-test Results Across the Three Tested Strategies

The diagram shows that students' performance in the post-test is better than their performance in the pre-test. On this basis, it may be argued that the training had a positive effect on learners' use of the different strategies under study.

All three tested strategies were positively influenced by the training as illustrated in the above diagram but at different degrees. Among the three strategies, contextual guessing tends to be the strategy in which students made the biggest improvement rate (34.5%). This is a very encouraging result especially that this strategy had been devoted more time than

the other strategies, as indicated in the training schedule (p. 168). This implies that the time spent in teaching this strategy was fruitful.

In a second position, the inference strategy shows the second best improvement rate (23.5%). This implies that students benefited from the training they received about the study of word part strategy which is one of the key elements, in addition to contextual guessing, in the inference strategy. The study of word parts was also devoted the same amount of time as contextual guessing, which further illustrates that the effort spent on it was not a waste of time.

Last, word association strategy achieved the least improvement rate (15%). Indeed, this strategy was not part of the training program. Its inclusion in the pre- and post-tests was mainly to test learners' knowledge of vocabulary. The result is rather logical. Absent from the training, this strategy was the least influenced by it.

V.5.2. Differences Among the Participants

It is very important in the discussion of the positive effect of the training on learners' use of different strategies to account for learners' improvement before and after the training. To this aim, the investigation adapted the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, also known as the Wilcoxon T test.

The Wilcoxon signed rank test, is defined by Wikipedia (the free online encyclopaedia) as "a non-parametric statistical hypothesis test used when comparing two related samples, matched samples, or repeated measurements on a single sample to assess whether their population mean ranks differ". In the context of this study, the test presents a useful comparison between the pre- and post-test results among participants as well as the change in their ranks before and after the training.

In the table below, $x_{2,i}$ refers to students' scores in the post test. $x_{1,i}$ represents their scores in the pre-test. sgn is the sign function. abs is the absolute value, and R_i is the rank (from the lowest to the highest sgn value)

			$x_{2,i} - x_{1,i}$			
i	$x_{2,i}$	$x_{1,i}$	sgn	abs	R_i	Sgn. R_i
1	23	10	1	13	9	+9
2	24.5	21	1	3.5	1	+1
3	23.5	19	1	4.5	3	+3
4	23	14.5	1	8.5	7	+7
5	24	19	1	5	4	+4
6	22.5	16	1	6.5	6	+6
7	20	6.5	1	13.5	10	+10
8	24	15	1	9	8	+8
9	17.5	13.5	1	4	2	+2
10	21	15.5	1	5.5	5	+5

Table 29: Comparison of Students Scores in the Pre- and Post-tests

The test statistics are as follows

Nr= 10   W= +9+1+3+7+4+6+10+8+2+5 = 55

Z = 2.78

The table above indicates that all learners without exception achieved higher scores in the post test. The median difference between their scores in the post- and pre-tests ranges between 3.5 (abs value achieved by student N° 2) to 13.5 (abs value achieved by student N° 7). The absolute value of the sum of signed ranks W is 55, which means that the test statistics converge to a normal distribution.

These results reinforce those proposed in table 25 and indicate that the training had a positive impact on all learners in the sample population. They in turn confirm the hypothesis that lower achievement in vocabulary is not an innate disability, but is rather due to the inefficiency in applying appropriate strategies. When less successful learners received training in the use of some strategies, they performance significantly improved as shown by the tests' results.

Conclusion

Strategy training is based on the belief that the difference between successful and less successful learners is not innate but is mainly the result of efficiency or inefficiency of their learning strategies. Participants in the second phase of the present study were all less successful learners. They undertook an intensive training in the use of six different strategies necessary for the identification and consolidation of new words' meanings. The training focused on their learning processes as well as their products or outcomes. In other words, the training provided learners with both theory and practice about the six strategies under study. Except for the key word method and semantic mapping, all the remaining strategies; contextual guessing, dictionary use, study of word parts and vocabulary notebooks were already familiar to the students. However, students' entry level, illustrated by their low scores in the pre test, showed that these students had problems with applying the target strategies adequately.

The investigation also showed that students had more problems with the guessing and inference strategies than with word association strategies. Results of both pre- and post- tests showed that learners did better in receptive exercises, requiring them to match pairs of given words, than in productive exercises, requiring them to produce appropriate words in the given context or to explain the target vocabulary in their own words.

The situation considerably improved by the end of the training. Students' higher scores in the post test clearly indicated that all students in the population of the study benefited from the training program. The main conclusion that can be drawn from this experiment is that explicit training had a positive impact on lower achievers' use of the vocabulary learning strategies that the training focused on.

<center>**Chapter Six**</center>

<center>**Pedagogical Implications**</center>

Introduction

The present study focused on the teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies in an Algerian EFL context. As such, the study has a pedagogical dimension focusing on different issues in relation to vocabulary teaching and learning, learning strategies, and vocabulary learning strategies. At several points in the review of the literature and in the discussion of the results of the investigation, there was much focus on the teacher, learner and classroom environment. The aim of this final chapter is to bring together the major findings from the analyses of both theoretical and practical chapters.

VI.1. About Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

The incremental nature of vocabulary makes its teaching and learning a never ending process. Learning vocabulary is seen as a means and an end in itself. The more words students learn, the easier it is for them to learn more words. While a considerable part of vocabulary can be learnt intentionally or consciously following explicit instruction, the majority of vocabulary is left to incidental learning through the exposure to meaningful input.

VI.1.1. Integration of Explicit and Implicit Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction

Though explicit and implicit methods represent completely different views about vocabulary instruction, it is widely accepted that effective instruction results from the integration of both approaches. Nation (2001) argued that explicit and implicit approaches should not be regarded as opposite to each other, but as complementary activities which

reinforce each other. In general, explicit instruction focuses on most frequent vocabulary, i.e., words that are likely to occur in reading or listening comprehension tasks. They are often presented as pre-reading or pre-listening activities aiming at familiarising the students with the specific material to be studied. Indeed, some researchers concluded that rich instruction led not only to word meaning, but also to improved comprehension of stories containing these words (McKeown & Beck, 2004, p. 18).

Along with direct teaching and learning of vocabulary, the latter may occur as a by product of other communicative activities. In this case, vocabulary is not taught per se but acquired through extensive practice of the language in its oral and written aspects. Wide reading is recognised as one of the major channels through which learners increase their vocabulary store. Students should not confine themselves to those materials prescribed by their teachers but need to develop the habit of reading extensively for leisure purposes.

In the context of this study, students' answers in the discussion phase clearly support the previously advanced argument about the importance of integrating both explicit and implicit approaches in vocabulary learning. Most students, especially in the upper group, asserted that they learn vocabulary through reading or listening to authentic English materials. Moreover, an analysis of students' most common strategies (during the focus groups and reading phases) revealed that contextual guessing (being a form of indirect vocabulary learning) and dictionary use (explicit learning of vocabulary) are the most common strategies among Algerian students regardless to their proficiency level.

VI.1.2. Expanding Learners' Vocabulary through Comprehensible Input

As it is argued earlier, the acquisition of vocabulary is open-ended. There are no limits as to the number of words to be learnt. Therefore, the expansion of vocabulary may extend across a life time (Hiebert & Kamil, 2009). Among the various ways to increase

learners' vocabulary is through the exposure to comprehensible input. This implies extensive listening and reading which allow for increased contact with the language in more informal situations. Milton (2009) investigated the effects of reading comic books, listening to Greek songs and watching DVDs with subtitles on his subjects' vocabulary knowledge. The conclusions he drew from his different studies were encouraging: all of the described methods have had a positive impact on his subjects' acquisition of new vocabulary.

In the context of this study, Algerian students who took part in the investigation expressed some of the ways they manage to use to increase their vocabulary store. In addition to listening to English songs, watching English (mainly American) movies with subtitles in Arabic and reading various materials (e.g., short stories, e-books), students also mentioned chatting on the net (using English), playing games (mainly crosswords) and practicing free writing as a means to widen their knowledge of vocabulary. Therefore, vocabulary expansion comes true with wider exposure and practice of the English language, be it oral or written, formal or informal. Learners are then encouraged to seize every opportunity to get in touch with the English language. Nowadays, the spread of TV satellite channels offers great opportunities for learners to listen to a variety of authentic materials: songs, movies, series, talk show programs, news and so forth. Besides, with the advance in technology and the creation of social networks through the internet, students do not need to travel to English speaking countries; still they can communicate with native speakers of English at home just facing their computers.

VI.2. About Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are important tools for learning in general and for language learning in particular because they are "tools for active, self-directed involvement which is

essential for developing the communicative competence" (Oxford, 1990, p. 1). In other words, learning strategies are responsible for active involvement in the learning process. They make learners well equipped to face the different learning tasks. Moreover, the use of learning strategies makes the process of L2 acquisition different from that of L1 acquisition (Tackac 2008, p. 29).

VI.2.1. Learning Strategies as a Distinctive Feature between Successful and Less Successful Learners

Learning strategies are often associated with autonomous language learning, self-regulation, self-management, independent/individual language learning (Cohen, 2007, p. 41-42). This has been confirmed, in the present study, by successful students' performance in the first phase of the investigation where upper group participants outnumbered their lower group counterparts both in the quantity and quality of the strategies they used. Not only were they successful in applying a variety of strategies for the task at hand, they were also active and self-confident in reporting the different strategies they know and make use of.

On the other hand, less successful learners found many problems in using and reporting their strategies. Though they showed awareness about the existence of some identification strategies, they were unable to apply them successfully for the given task.

VI.2.2. Teaching Strategies not Knowledge

"Give me a fish, you feed me one day; teach me how to fish, you feed me every day". The Chinese proverb is quite appropriate in the context of learning strategies. It supports the argument that the teaching/learning process (in all domains) is more fruitful when learners are actively involved in meaningful activities. The Competency Based Approach is the best example that can be referred to in this context. Through this approach,

learning does not only result from the acquisition of new knowledge which is passively transmitted from the teacher to learners but also through the development of competencies; integrating knowledge, capacity and skill all together. Therefore, the teacher's task is not only to impart knowledge; but more importantly, to help learners' develop meaningful ways of getting knowledge.

VI.2.3. The Effect of Strategy Training on Learners' Use of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The first phase of the investigation of successful and less successful learners' use of different VLS concluded that low achievers did better in the test than in the reading session. Put differently, students in the lower group were more successful in the consolidation than in the identification strategies. The conclusion was that students did better with teacher's assistance. Once they got the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary, they had fewer problems in remembering the newly acquired items.

Furthermore, training less successful learners in the population of the study has proved to have a positive impact on their acquisition of the strategies under study as shown by their results in the post test. In a period of about two and a half months, students received intensive training in the use of six strategies necessary for the identification and consolidation of new words' meanings. Most of these strategies were already familiar to the students as indicated by their answers during the focus groups' discussion. However, students' performance in the reading sessions showed the ineffective use of these strategies. The training concentrated both on the theory and practice about the six strategies, and the results were very encouraging. Students not only added several words to their vocabulary repertoire but also improved their performance in the strategies under study.

VI.2.4. Steps of Effective Strategy Training

Based on the results of the experiment in the present study, it is believed that successful training about strategy choice and use has to follow a planned and organised instruction where the teacher sets clear objectives, selects relevant content, provides enough practice, and finishes with assessment of learners' progress and of the training course as a whole.

a. Stating Clear Objectives

Setting the objectives of a given course ensures to a large extent the success of instruction. It forms the basis on which the selection of syllabus, activities and assessment is made. Objectives also determine the length and duration of the course. Moreover, a clear statement of the objectives enables the teacher to track the progress of his learners and gives him a clear idea about the extent to which they have been successful in grasping the knowledge which is presented to them. As such the objectives not only give hints about learners' outcomes but also about the success of the teacher's performance.

Objectives are statements of learners' expected performance at the end of successful instruction. As such, teachers or course designers may start with an identification of the objectives of the whole course, which in turn may be broken into short term objectives for each lesson separately. The stated objectives should take into consideration learners' needs from instruction, so as to raise their awareness about the importance of their learning outcomes. It should also correspond to their level of proficiency so that learners may be able to achieve them.

b. Selection of the Strategies

In this step, the teacher decides about the strategies that will constitute the content of the training course. In so doing, the teacher or strategy trainer takes into consideration those strategies which bear a direct relevance to the objectives in hand. In other words, the selection is not done randomly; rather it has to be based on the most significant strategies for the purpose in hand. The teacher also has to decide about the length of the content or the number of the strategies to be taught. Chamot et al. (1999) argued that teachers "should be selective in deciding which strategies to teach, because teaching too many strategies will overwhelm learners whereas choosing very few strategies will lead to boredom (p. 33).

c. Selection of the Activities

Basically, the concept of training has got a practical dimension. Therefore, efficient training should allow enough practice for the learners in order to improve their performance in the different strategies. Moreover, multiple practice opportunities pave the way to autonomous use of the target strategies.

While designing the activities, the teacher may also decide about the materials or sources for his activities as well as the media through which he will present them to the students. He may also decide about learners' performance in terms of individual, pair or group work.

d. Evaluation of the Training Process

This is the final step which allows the strategy trainer to check the success of the training program. The assessment in this case is twofold: assessment of the students' achievement of the objectives which in turn indicate the success of the whole training. In

general, the evaluation takes the form of tests of learners' performance as integrated part of the training or as final examination of their learning outcomes. In either case, the trainer concentrates on 'decontextualisation' of the presented strategies; i.e., assessing learners' ability to apply the newly acquired strategies in new contexts.

VI.2.5. Factors Facilitating Effective Strategy Training

Strategy training, as shown by the results of this study, has a positive impact on students' use of different strategies which in turn may positively influence their learning process in general. However, strategy training may not necessarily be carried out independently, i.e., as a separate practice from the main instruction about English. On the contrary, it should be an integrated part of language teaching and learning. Oxford (1990) argued that strategy training constitutes an important part in language learning. Moreover, Nyikos and Fan (2007) explained that "integration of VLS into instruction appears to be more effective than non integration; and that significantly better vocabulary performance is possible with VLS instruction" (p. 273). This means that classroom instruction should not solely focus on presenting information from a knowledgeable to an unknowledgeable part; rather it should aim at acquainting learners with useful strategies that can be applied to various learning contexts.

a. The Teacher as a Strategy Trainer

Teachers have a key role in any instructional situation. Their beliefs, background knowledge, and willingness to guide their learners throughout the training process all contribute to the success of the training. Teachers must believe that their learners can have a more active role, not just acting as empty recipients that should be filled with knowledge. They also need to accept that the autonomy of their learners does not minimize their

importance in the classroom; on the contrary this will increase their responsibility to act as a guide, facilitator and prompter.

To be able to assume the latter roles, teachers may need some training which would enable them to go through the different steps of the strategy training of their learners successfully. In other words, teachers may need to be acquainted with some techniques concerning the design and selection of the various materials and the decision about when, how and why the strategies can be used.

b. The Learner as an Active Partner

On their part, learners should be convinced about the benefits that the training would bring to their learning of the language as a whole. They also have to be self-confident about their ability to manage and self-direct their own learning.

Learners perform the different tasks individually or in cooperation with other learners in the group. They share information with each other, negotiate meaning and learn to accept and respect the others' views. This can be a good way for introvert learners to get more involved in the training process. Besides, it may provide them with another chance to understand ambiguous points through the 'friendly explanations' from their group mates.

Learners can also provide a useful feedback for the teacher about some of the difficulties they are encountering. They can report areas of success and failure in the acquisition of the different strategies which will form the basis for the teacher's remedial work.

c. The Classroom Context

According to Oxford (1990), "learners need to learn how to learn and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process" (p. 201). This means that each side has to assume

certain roles. Some of these roles have already been discussed above. Moreover, the interaction between students and teacher is also very important. Learners not only respond to the teacher's stimulus by giving answers to his questions; they can also ask questions, provide information and express their opinion without hesitation. McCarthy (1990) emphasising the autonomous engagement of learners in the classroom argued that "active learners seem to make similar contributions to those of teachers in classroom interaction" (p. 121).

The teacher, for his part, has to establish a healthy environment which encourages learners to act and react positively. The teacher should also encourage learner/learner interaction. In the Competency Based Approach for language learning, much focus is put on pair and group work, peer assessment and the realisation of the project which all emphasise the social interaction within the classroom.

VI.2.6. Explicit rather than Implicit Strategy Training

Unlike vocabulary teaching where successful instruction relies on the integration of both explicit and implicit approaches, efficient strategy training should be direct and explicit. An important feature of learning strategies is that they are consciously used by learners. Therefore, the training should raise learners' awareness about the existence of some strategies and the way(s) these strategies can be applied to different contexts. The training program, conducted as a main tool of data collection in the present study, clearly strengthens this idea. Subjects; lower achievers in English, were positively influenced by the explicit training presented to them. Their high scores in the post test compared to their low scores in the pre-test confirm the main hypothesis of the study, namely that explicit VLS instruction has a positive impact on learners' use of different vocabulary strategies.

Conclusion

Learning strategies represent a major characteristic of active and autonomous learning which, in turn, makes language learning more efficient and meaningful in the wider social context. The appropriate use of these strategies determines to a large extent the quality of students' achievement in their learning process. The main belief in this study is that success and failure in langue learning is not an innate ability but is mainly a matter of selecting and applying appropriate strategies in the appropriate context. Results of the present study clearly emphasize this argument. Successful students in the population of the study proved to be using more strategies and strategy types and further, use them more effectively than less successful learners. However, the study suggests that students' performance (especially that of low achievers) can be improved as a result of explicit strategy training. The latter should be integrated in all stages of language teaching and learning from elementary to advanced levels of instruction. It should also be based on clear objectives, appropriate selection of activities and continuous assessment of learning outcomes.

General Conclusion

The present study tackled the issue of teaching and learning vocabulary strategies in an Algerian EFL context. It aimed at investigating the most common strategies among Algerian learners and the extent to which students' strategies match Schmitt's (2000) classification about vocabulary learning strategies. In addition, the study sought to investigate the effect of learners' proficiency level (successful Vs less successful learners) on the quantity and quality of the strategies they make use of. Furthermore, the study investigated the impact of explicit strategy training on Algerian students at l'ENSC with a lower proficiency in English.

The main hypotheses that were formulated at the onset of the study were that ENSC learners make use of varied VLS matching to a large extent Schmitt's (2000) classification. Moreover, it was hypothesised that ENSC learners exhibit different VLS on the basis of their proficiency level in English and that explicit training in strategy choice and use has an impact (mainly a positive one) on ENSC students with a lower proficiency level.

The theoretical chapters concentrated on collecting first and second hand literature related to the study of vocabulary (chapter one) and vocabulary learning strategies within the wider context of general language learning strategies (chapter two). Moreover, the third chapter presented a detailed description of the six vocabulary strategies under study: contextual guessing, dictionary use, study of word parts as identification strategies and semantic mapping, vocabulary notebooks and the key word method as consolidation strategies.

The investigation went through two main steps. The first step collected qualitative data about students' most common strategies as well as the difference between successful and less

successful learners' actual use of the different strategies. Five different tools were used: focus group discussions, direct observation of learners' behaviours while performing the tasks in hand, verbal reporting from the participants themselves about the strategies they used in addition to two vocabulary tests. The second step collected both quantitative and qualitative data about the effect of strategy training on learners' use of vocabulary strategies. At this level, the study established a strategy training mini-syllabus about the six target strategies. Moreover, a pre- and a post-test were administered before and after the training to measure the effect of the training on the students' performance.

The analysis of the different results across the different stages of the investigation confirmed the hypotheses stated at the onset of the study. Results from focus groups discussions indicated that Algerian students of English at l'ENSC use various strategies to learn English vocabulary. Two strategies in particular are very common among students: using the dictionary and guessing from context, though successful students showed to be using the dictionary for different purposes than less successful learners.

Moreover, the study concluded that successful learners not only used more strategies, in terms of the number of strategies and category types, but used them more effectively than less successful learners. Results from focus group discussions showed that students in the upper group (representing successful learners) used 20 different strategies (09 identification strategies and 11 consolidation strategies) whereas less successful learners used only 09 strategies (05 identification strategies and 04 consolidation strategies). Besides they were more successful in applying these strategies for the reading task than less successful participants.

Furthermore, the investigation about the effect of strategy training on learners' use of the six target strategies confirmed the hypothesis that students are positively influenced by

such training. Results of both pre- and post tests showed that learners' use of the strategies under study significantly improved as a result of the training. Two strategies, in particular, were mostly affected by the training; contextual guessing and inference strategies (being included both in the training and in the pre-, post-tests). The analysis of the results showed that students made a significant progress in both strategies. Given the fact that these two strategies were devoted the biggest amount of time during the training, this can be taken as a further argument about the importance of explicit training in improving students' use of the different vocabulary strategies.

On the light of these results, the study recommends that strategy training should be an integrated part in instruction. The latter should focus on developing ways of getting knowledge rather than on imparting knowledge per se. More attention should be laid to equipping learners with useful strategies which they can use, in their own way to get knowledge by themselves and to extend the use of these strategies to new and wide range of situations. This is an important characteristic of the 21st century learner who not only works to achieve good results in the classroom but more importantly who is capable of acting positively and effectively in the wider social context.

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APPENDIX 1

Video recording of focus groups' discussions

APPENDIX 2

Focus Groups' Discussion Guide

I/ About English vocabulary learning

1. How important is vocabulary learning in learning a Foreign Language? From what experiences have you generalised this idea?
2. Do you find English vocabulary easy or difficult to learn? Justify your answer in either case.
3. What are some of the problems you have with learning vocabulary?
4. How do you attempt to solve problems in learning vocabulary? In other words, are there any specific strategies that you employ to make the learning of vocabulary easier and faster.
5. What does it mean to you to have learned a word? When you say you've learned a word, what do you mean exactly?

II/ About self in vocabulary learning

6. Do you see yourself as good at learning vocabulary? In what ways are you good at it? (e.g., having a good memory? Found successful memories? Or some other strategies?)
7. What is your approach to vocabulary learning: intentionally (you intend to learn new words) or accidentally (while performing other tasks and activities).
8. How do you attempt to widen your vocabulary?

III/ About vocabulary learning strategies

9. Do you think there are strategies that can make vocabulary learning fast and easy? Why do you think so?
10. What, in your opinion, are the vocabulary learning strategies that work best for you? And those that don't work for you?
11. What are, if any, the vocabulary learning strategies that you employ to discover a new word's meaning?
12. After you get the meaning of a new word, what are the strategies that help you store this word in your memory and be able to remember it for later use?

(Adapted from Gu (2005).

APPENDIX 3

Graveyard of the Atlantic

At 2 P.M on Dec. 5, 1945, five Navy bombers took off in perfect flying weather from the Naval Air Station at Fort Lauderdale, Fla., on a routine training mission over the Atlantic Ocean. Less than two hours later, the flight commander radioed that he was "completely lost." Then there was silence. A rescue plane was sent to search for the missing aircraft and it, too, disappeared. In all, six planes and 27 men vanished that day without a trace. Despite one of history's most extensive search efforts, involving more than 300 planes and dozens of ships, the navy was unable to discover even floating wreckage or a telltale oil slick.

This is just of the many chilling stories told of "the Bermuda Triangle", a mysterious area of the Atlantic Ocean roughly stretching south from Bermuda to the Florida coast and Puerto Rico. During the past 30 years, the triangle has claimed the lives of some 1000 seamen and pilots. Among sailors, it is known variously as "The Triangle of Death", "The Hoodoo Sea" and "The Graveyard of the Atlantic" because of the mysterious calms, waterspouts, and sudden storms that have bothered seafarers in its water. When he entered this stretch of the Atlantic, Christopher Columbus noted curious glowing streaks of "white water". The mysterious patches of light and foam are still visible today and so bright that they have been seen by U.S. astronauts from outer space.

The triangle has aroused considerable public interest through three hot-selling books, a television documentary (narrated by horror master Vincent Price) and a special exposition at the Library of Congress. None of these investigations has produced convincing answers to the mystery of the triangle, but there is no shortage of interesting theories. Some scientists and popular authors go so far as to suggest that the triangle is the hunting ground of extraterrestrial beings in search of human specimens for their "cosmic zoos".

Whatever the truth may be, planes and ships disappear in the triangle with eerie regularity. On July 3, 1947, a U.S. Army C-54 Super fort disappeared 100 miles off Bermuda without broadcasting any word of difficulty. An immediate search over 100,000 square miles of sea failed to turn up a single piece of wreckage. On Jan. 30, 1948, a Tudor TV British airliner, the Star Tiger, vanished over the triangle with 31 passengers and crew aboard. A year later, the Star Tiger's sister plane, the Star Ariel, disappeared en route to Jamaica. Seventy-two search planes, plus dozens of ships, failed to turn up any sign of the missing aircraft.

(adapted from Baudoin et al, 1996, p. 84)

APPENDIX 4

Your Actions Speak Louder …

Melvin Schnapper

A Peace Corps staff member is hurriedly called to a town in Ethiopia to deal with reports that one of the volunteers is treating Ethiopians like dogs. What could the volunteer be doing to communicate that?

A volunteer in Nigeria has great trouble getting any discipline in his class, and it is known that the students have no respect for him because he has shown no self-respect. How has he shown that?

Neither volunteer offended his hosts with words. But both of them were unaware of what they had communicated through their nonverbal behaviour.

In the first case, the volunteer working at a health center would go into the waiting room and call for the next patient. She did this as she would in America − by pointing with her finger to the next patient and beckoning him to come. Acceptable in the States, but in Ethiopia her pointing gesture is for children and her beckoning signal is for dogs. In Ethiopia one points to a person by extending the arm and hand and beckons by holding the hand out, palm down, and closing it repeatedly.

In the second case, the volunteer insisted that students look him in the eye to show attentiveness, in a country where prolonged eye contact is considered disrespectful.

While the most innocent American-English gesture may have insulting, embarrassing, or at least confusing connotations in another culture, the converse is also true. If foreign visitors were to bang on the table and hiss at the waiter for service in New York restaurant, they would be fortunate if they were only thrown out. Americans might find foreign students overly polite if they bow.

It seems easier to accept the arbitrariness of language − that dog is *chien* in French or *aja* in Yoruba − than the differences in the emotionally laden behaviour of non verbal communication, which in many ways is just as arbitrary as language.

We assume that our way of talking and gesturing is "natural" and that those who do things differently are somehow playing with nature. The assumption leads to a blindness about intercultural behaviour. And individuals are likely to remain blind and unaware of what they are communicating nonverbally, because the hosts will seldom tell them that they have committed a social blunder. It is rude to tell people they are rude; thus the hosts grant visitors a "foreigner's license," allowing them to make mistakes of social etiquette, and they never know until too late which ones prove disastrous.

(adapted from Baudoin et al, 1996, p. 36)

APPENDIX 5

Vocabulary test (Upper Group)

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words from the list:

extraterrestrial	**roughly**	**telltale**	**patches**
Hoodoo	**streaks**	**graveyard**	**chilling**
specimens	**wreckage**	**seafarers**	**foam**
extensive	**cosmic**	**eerie**	
waterspout	**oil slick**	**aroused**	

1. She is a very competent teacher; her knowledge of the subject is ....

2. The .... smell of cigarette smoke makes her sure that her son was smoking.

3. There was a thick .... floating on the sea. This has caused the death of many sea animal.

4. He likes frightening other people, he always tells .... ghost stories.

5. Liza was not in a good mood last night, this is why she behaved .... in the party.

6. The Bermuda triangle is also known as the triangle of death or the .... sea.

7. This .... looks like a garden. Many beautiful flowers are planted in.

8. The storm was preceded by a huge .... when a terrible whirlwind draws up a whirling mass of water.

9. The .... struggled against the strong waves and drove their ship safely to the sea shore.

10. When Christopher Columbus entered this stretch of the Atlantic, he noted curious glowing

      .... of white water.

11. Today, the sky is cloudy. However, there are small .... of blue in it.

12. The breaking waves left the beach covered with ....

13. Her strange behaviour .... our suspicion.

14. Science fiction movies account for the lives of .... creatures and life on other planets.

15. There were some fine .... of rocks in the museum.

16. The museum also specifies a large area for .... collections representing the whole universe.

17. There was an .... silence in the house causing a terrible feeling of fear and mystery.

18. A rescue plane was sent to search for any .... of the destroyed aircraft.

THANK YOU

(The test was designed with reference to Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of current

English (fourth ed.). (1989).

APPENDIX 6

Vocabulary Test (Lower group)

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words from the list

palm	**blunders**	**connotations**	**beckoning**
hissed	**bang**	**rude**	**bowed**
seldom	**corps**	**host**	**intercultural**
prolonged	**attentiveness**	**innocent**	**laden**

1. His good marks in the final exam gave him the chance to join the army .... and satisfy the dream of his father.

2. Emigrants usually find it difficult to adapt to the new environment. The .... country may have completely different customs and traditions.

3. Her .... gesture to the waiter offended many people in the restaurant.

4. This old woman pretends to tell somebody's future by looking at the lines of his ....

5. The film's importance called for the audience' .... in order not to miss any detail.

6. After .... questioning, he finally confessed.

7. He was declared .... of the crime. The murderer was arrested by the police last night.

8. Languages are very complex. The same word may have different .... depending on the context of the conversation.

9. In order to keep order in the classroom, the teacher tends to .... on the desk and shout at the trouble makers.

10. She .... at me angrily.

11. The cast (actors) .... as the audience applauded.

12. In winter, orange trees tend to be .... with oranges.

13. The role of the embassy is to strengthen the .... exchange between the two countries.

14. He's not a sociable person. He .... takes part in parties.

15. I was not able to concentrate in the exam. I made stupid ....

16. The student' s .... behaviour in the classroom made the teacher very angry.

<div align="right">

THANK YOU

</div>

APPENDIX 7

Vocabulary Size Test (Pre-test)

Exercise 1.

Write the number of the appropriate word in the space provided.

1 debate
2 exposure   _____ plan
3 integration   _____ choice
4 option   _____ joining something into a whole
5 scheme
6 stability

1 accumulation
2 edition   _____ collecting things over time
3 guarantee   _____ promise to repair a broken product
4 media   _____ feeling a strong reason or need to do something
5 motivation
6 phenomenon

1 alter
2 coincide   _____ change
3 deny   _____ say something is not true
4 devote   _____ describe clearly and exactly
5 release
6 specify

(from Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000)

1 demonstrate
2 embarrass   _____ have a rest
3 heave   _____ break suddenly into small pieces
4 obscure   _____ make someone feel shy or nervous
5 relax
6 shatter

1 correspond
2 embroider   _____ exchange letters
3 lurk   _____ hide and wait for someone
4 penetrate   _____ feel angry about something

5 prescribe
6 resent

1 decent
2 frail   _____ weak
3 harsh   _____ concerning a city
4 incredible   _____ difficult to believe
5 municipal
6 specific

1 adequate
2 internal   _____ enough
3 mature   _____ fully grown
4 profound
5 solitary
6 tragic

(from Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, version C as cited in Nation 2001)

Exercise 2.

Fill in the blanks so as to complete the sentences

1. He has a successful car........ as a lawyer.
2. The thieves threw ac......... in his face and made him blind.
3. To improve the country's economy, the government decided on economic ref........
4. The government tried to protect the country's industry by reducing the imp.......... of cheap goods.
5. The children's games were amusing at first, but finally got on the parents' ner........... .
6. The lawyer gave some wise coun.......... to his client.
7. Many people in England mow the la........ of their houses on Sunday morning.
8. Sudden noises at night sca........ me a lot.
9. France was proc........ a republic in the 18th century.
10. He perc.......... a light at the end of the tunnel.

(from Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, Test B as cited in Nation 2001)

Exercise 3.

Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised word in the space provided.

1. We watched as the cat came quietly through the grass toward the bird. When it was just a few feet from the victim, it gathered its legs under itself, and *pounced*. ……………..

2. Some people have no difficulty making the necessary changes in their way of life when they move to a foreign country; others are not able to *adapt* as easily to a new environment. ………………

3. In spite of the fact that the beautiful *egret* is in danger of dying out completely, many clothing manufacturers still offer handsome prices for their long, elegant tail feathers, which are used as decorations on ladies' hats. ……………

4. the snake *slithered* through the grass. ………………..

5. the man thought that the children were defenceless, so he walked boldly up to the oldest and demanded money. Imagine his surprise when they began to *pelt* him with rocks. …………..

6. When he learnt that the club was planning to admit women, the colonel began to *inveigh* against all forms of liberalism; his shouting attack began with universal voting and ended with a protest against divorce. ……………….

7. Experts in *Kinesics*, in their study of body motion as related to speech, hope to discover new methods of communication. …………………………..

8. Unlike the *gregarious* sister, Jane is a shy, unsociable person who does not like to go to parties or to make new friends. ……………….

9. After a day of hunting, Harold is *ravenous*. Yesterday, for example, he ate two bowls of soup, salad, a large chicken, and a piece of chocolate cake before he was finally satisfied. …………………………

10. After the accident, the ship went down so fast that we weren't able to *salvage* any of our personal belongings. ……………….

(from Baudoin et al, 1996)

APPENDIX 8

Vocabulary Size Test (post test)

Exercise 1: *write the number of the appropriate word in the space provided.*

1 construction
2 feature   _____ safety
3 impact   _____ noticeable part of something
4 institute   _____ organization which has a special purpose
5 region
6 security

1 accumulation
2 edition   _____ collecting things over time
3 guarantee   _____ promise to repair a broken product
4 media   _____ feeling a strong reason or need to do something
5 motivation
6 phenomenon

1 adult
2 exploitation   _____ end
3 infrastructure   _____ machine used to move people or goods
4 schedule   _____ list of things to do at certain times
5 termination
6 vehicle

1 chart
2 forge   _____ map
3 mansion   _____ large beautiful house
4 outfit   _____ place where metals are made and shaped
5 sample
6 volunteer

1 circus
2 jungle   _____ musical instrument
3 nomination   _____ seat without a back or arms
4 sermon   _____ speech given by a priest in a church
5 stool
6 trumpet

1 concrete
2 era   _____ circular shape
3 fibre   _____ top of a mountain

4 loop   _____ a long period of time
5 plank
6 summit

1 access
2 gender   _____ male or female
3 implementation
4 license   _____ entrance or way in
5 orientation
6 psychology

(From Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000) vocabulary levels test, test B;

       the 5000 word level and Academic vocabulary)

Exercise 2: *fill in the blanks so as to complete the sentences*

1. I live in a small apa......... on the second floor.

2. Before writing the final version, the student wrote several dra......... .

3. Anthropologists study the struc......... of ancient societies.

4. After two years in the Army, he received the rank of lieu...... .

5. The statue is made of mar....... .

6. The secretary assi....... the boss in organizing the course.

7. His beard was too long. He decided to tr....... it.

8. People were whir........ around on the dance floor.

9. The Emperor of China was the supr......... ruler of his country.

10. You must be awa....... that very few jobs are available.

(From Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, version C, the 3000 word level)

Exercise 3: *Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised word in the space provided.*

1. Because of her all-night study sessions, Sandy is ***run-down.*** ....

2. The workers' lives were ***wretched***; they worked from morning to night in all kinds of weather, earning only enough money to buy their simple food and cheap clothes…………………………….

3. The apple *appeased* my hunger temporarily, but I could still eat a big dinner ....

4. The singer walked onto the *runway* in order to get closer to the audience......................................

5. The major points of your plan are clear to me, but the details are still *hazy* ………………
……..

6. The doctor asked Martin to *inhale* deeply and hold his breath for 10 seconds……………………

7. I'm sending a sample of my handwriting to a *graphologist* who says he can use it to analyse my personality………………………

8. Phonograph recordings of early jazz musicians are very valuable now**……………**

9. The Portuguese sailor Magellan was the first person to *circumnavigate* the world ....

10. There were 24 *runes* in the Germanic alphabet..

(from Baudoin et al, 1996)

APPENDIX 9.1

Vocabulary learning strategies
Guessing from context

I/.What is context?

Context can be considered as **within the text itself**; i.e., the morphological, syntactic, and discourse information which can be classified and described in terms of general features. But the reader also has the **general context** of the text; i.e. the background knowledge of the subject matter. Good learners take advantage of such background knowledge in their learning activities. Moreover, learners who are given information about the topic of a passage before they read it achieved significantly higher scores on guessing the meanings of nonsense words in the texts.

II/ A strategy for guessing new words from context.

Coady and Nation (1988, p. 104) describe a strategy which learners can use through a good exploitation of the available context clues. The strategy presupposes two things:

1. That learners have sufficient command of vocabulary, grammar and reading skills in order to achieve basic comprehension of the text, and
2. That learners bring some relevant background knowledge to the text.

The described strategy consists of five steps:

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

The first two steps of this strategy focus on the word itself and its immediate context; i.e., the pattern it fits into with words close to it. In this case, a knowledge of basic affixes can be of some help. For example, knowledge of most frequent suffixes such as –ness (noun), -ly (usually adverb or adjective), -ion (noun), -ify (verb), and prefixes like pre-, ex-, de-, sub-, in

addition to a knowledge of the fact that prefixes generally change the meaning of a word while suffixes change its part of speech e.g., honest (adj.), dishonest (adj. but a new meaning), dishonestly (adv. but the same meaning as dishonest).

Step three in the strategy focuses on the wider context. It requires the student to look at the relationship between the clause in which the unknown word occurs and preceding and following clauses and sentences. These relationships include cause and effect, contrast, generalization- detail, exclusion (on the contrary, instead), explanation (in other words, that is), time (before, subsequently, finally), and arrangement (in the first place, secondly). Though these relationships may be stated explicitly, they are left most of the time to the reader to infer.

Step four consists of the actual guess the learner makes on the basis of clues obtained in steps 1 to 3.

The final step consists of checking the guess made in step four. So, after the student has used the available context clues to guess the meaning of an unknown word, he then can use additional information to check that his guess is correct. There exist several ways of checking the guess.

1. Check that the part of speech of the guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word.

2. Break the unknown word into parts and see if the meaning of the parts relates to the guess.

3. Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Does it make sense in context.

4. Look in a dictionary.

Exercise 1

Each of the sentences in this exercise contains a blank in order to encourage you to look only at the context provided as you attempt to determine the possible meanings of the missing word. Read each sentence quickly and supply a word for each blank. There is no single correct answer. You are to use context clues to help you provide a word that is appropriate in terms of grammar and meaning.

1. I removed the …………. from the shelf and began to read.

2. Harvey is a thief; he would …………..The gold from his grandmother's teeth and not feel guilty.

3. Our uncle was a ………….., an incurable wanderer who never could stay in one place.

4. Unlike his brother, who is truly a handsome person, Hogartty is quite ……… .

5. The Asian ………., like other apes, is specially adapted for life in trees.

6. but surely everyone knows that if you step on an egg, it will ……… .

7. Tom got a new …………. for his birthday. It is a sports model, red, with white interior and bucket seats.

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 3-4)

Exercise 2

In the following exercise, do NOT try to learn the italicised words. Concentrate on developing your ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised word in the space provided.

1. We watched as the came quietly through the grass toward the bird. When it was just a few feet from the victim, it gathered its legs under itself, and ***pounced***. ……………..

2. Some people have no difficulty making the necessary changes in their way of life when they move to a foreign country; others are not able to ***adapt*** as easily to a new environment. ……………….

3. In spite of the fact that the beautiful ***egret*** is in danger of dying out completely, many clothing manufacturers still offer handsome prices for their long, elegant tail feathers, which are used as decorations on ladies' hats. ……………

4. the snake ***slithered*** through the grass. ………………..

5. the man thought that the children were defenceless, so he walked boldly up to the oldest and demanded money. Imagine his surprise when they began to ***pelt*** him with rocks. …………..

6. When he learnt that the club was planning to admit women, the colonel began to ***inveigh*** against all forms of liberalism; his shouting attack began with universal voting and ended with a protest against divorce. ……………….

7. Experts in ***Kinesics***, in their study of body motion as related to speech, hope to discover new methods of communication. …………………………..

8. Unlike the ***gregarious*** sister, Jane is a shy, unsociable person who does not like to go to parties or to make new friends. ……………….

9. After a day of hunting, Harold is ***ravenous***. Yesterday, for example, he ate two bowls of soup, salad, a large chicken, and a piece of chocolate cake before he was finally satisfied. …………………………

10. After the accident, the ship went down so fast that we weren't able to ***salvage*** any of our personal belongings. ……………….

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 5)

Exercise 3

In the following exercise, do not try to learn the italicized words. Concentrate on developing your ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicized word on the space provided.

1. The major points of your plan are clear to me, but the details are still
   hazy………………………………………………………………………..
2. By ***anticipating*** the thief's next move, the police were able to arrive at the bank before the robbery occurred. …………………………………………..
3. all of the palace's laundry, when gathered for washing, formed a ***massive*** bundle that required the combined efforts of all the servants to carry.
   …………………………………………………………………………..
4. "Give me specific suggestions when you criticize my work," said the employee. "***Vague*** comments do not help me improve."
   ………………………………………………………………………………
5. The apple ***appeased*** my hunger temporarily, but I could still eat a big
   dinner……………………………………………………………………………..
6. After the attacks on civilians by army troops, a committee met to try to discover what could have ***provoked*** such action. ………………………
7. the king ***manifested*** his pleasure with a hearty laugh. ……………………
8. The nation's highway death ***toll*** has increased every year since the invention of the automobile. …………………………………………………..
9. The workers' lives were ***wretched***; they worked from morning to night in all kinds of weather, earning only enough money to buy their simple food and cheap clothes.
   …………………………………………………………………
10. In a series of bold moves, government attorneys attacked the ***mammoth*** auto industry, saying that the size of the business endangered the financial freedom of the individual buyer.   …………………………………………………

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 92)

Exercise 4

This exercise is designed to give you practice using context clues from a passage. Use your general knowledge along with information from the entire text below to write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicized word on the line provided. Read through the entire passage before making a decision. Note that some of the words appear more than once; by the end of the passage you should have a good idea of their meaning. Do not worry if your definition is not exact; a general idea of the meaning will often allow you to understand the meaning of a written text.

People in Americas before Last Ice Age

A *site* in northeastern Brazil has yielded evidence of the earliest known human *occupation* in the Americas, approximately 32,000 years ago, according to a report by two French scientists.

Although the discovery, reported in June 19 *NATURE*, does not *resolve* long-standing archaeological *disputes* over when and how people first arrived in the New World, the *site* is much older than others where human *occupation* has been *firmly* established. Several such finds in the southwestern United States date to 11,500 years ago, and a rock shelter near Pittsburgh is thought to contain evidence of use by humans 19,000 years ago; previously, the earliest known *site* occupied by humans in South America was 14,200 years old.

Site: ……………………………………………………………….

Occupation: …………………………………………………………..

NATURE: ……………………………………………………………….

Resolve : …………………………………………………………..

Disputes: ……………………………………………………………….

Firmly : ……………………………………………………………

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 93)

Exercise 5

In the following exercise do NOT try to learn the italicized words. Concentrate on developing your ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym or description of the italicized word.

1. It is difficult to list all of my father's *attributes* because he has so many different talents and abilities. ……………………………..

2. Mary, the president of the family council, *conferred* upon Robert the title of vice-president, because she thought he would do a good job. ……………………………………………………………

3. Mother was tall, fat, and middle-aged. The principle of the school was an older woman, almost as *plump* as Mother, and much shorter……………………………………………………………

4. When Mark was in one of his *pedantic* moods, he assumed the manner of a distinguished professor and lectured for hours, on minute, boring topics. ………………………………………………

5. Many members of the old wealthy families in society held themselves *aloof* from Gatsby, refusing even to acknowledge his existence. …………………………………………………………

6. I became angrier and angrier as Don talked, but I *refrained* from saying anything. …………………………………………………

7. Mr. Doodle is always busy in an *ineffectual* way; he spends hours running around accomplishing nothing. ………………………….

8. Ian was proud of the neat rows of *marigolds* in his flower beds, which he tended with great care. …………………………………

9. Most dentists' offices are *drab* places, but Emilio's new office is a bright, cheerful place. …………………………………………..

10. The inner and outer events of a plant are interdependent; but this isn't saying that the *skin, cortex, membrane*, or whatever you want to call the boundary of the individual, is meaningless. …………………………………………..

(Baudoinn et al. 1996, p. 142)

Exercise 6

This exercise is designed to give you practice using context clues from a passage. Use your general knowledge along with information from the entire text below to write a definition; synonym, or description of the italicized word on the line provided. Read through the entire passage before making a decision.

Babies Sound Off: The Power of Babble

There is more to the babbling of a baby than meets the ear. A handful of scientists are picking apart infants' utterances and finding that not only is there an ordered sequence of vocal stages between birth and the first words, but in *hearing-impaired* babies a type of *babbling* thought to signal an emerging capacity for speech is delayed and distorted.

"the traditional wisdom (among developmental researchers) is that deaf babies babble like hearing babies," says linguist D. Kimbrough Oller of the university of Miami (Fla.). "this idea is a myth." Oller reported his latest findings ob hearing and deaf infants last week at a National Institutes of Health seminar in Bethesda, Md. He and his colleagues demonstrated 8 years ago that hearing babies from a variety of language communities start out by cooing and gurgling; at about 7 months of age, they start to produce *sequences* of the same syllables (for instance, "da-da-da" or "dut-dut-dut") that are classified as *babbling* and can be recorded and acoustically measured in the laboratory, with words or word like sounds appearing soon after 1 year of age. Babbling – the emitting of identifiable consonant and vowel sounds- usually disappears by around 18 to 20 months of age.

In a just completed study, Oller and his co-workers found that repeated *sequences* of syllables first appeared among 21 hearing infants between the ages of 06 and 10 months; in contrast, these vocalizations emerged among 9 severely to profoundly deaf babies between the ages of 11 and 25 months. In addition, deaf babies babbled less frequently than hearing babies, produced fewer syllables and were more likely to use single syllables than repeated *sequences*.

Babbling: --

Sequence: --

Hearing-impaired: ---

Myth: --

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 143)

Exercise 7:

Use the context provided to determine the meaning of the italicised words. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym or description of the italicized word.

1. illnesses specific to workers in a particular occupation are known as occupational diseases. Culture shock is an ***occupational diseases*** for people who travel. It is ***precipitated*** by the anxiety of living in a strange culture.

2. Suddenly finding your self in a strange country can be rather frightening. You lose all of the ***props*** that generally support you, all of the familiar ***cues*** that provide information about what to do. Without familiar props and cues to orient you in unfamiliar situations, it becomes difficult ***to cope*** with life in a new setting. Every thing can seem different. You don't even know how much ***to tip*** a cab driver or a waiter in a restaurant. In this situation, you can lose a sense of logic, developing ***irrational*** fear of the local people.

3. people react differently to visiting different cultures. People who are very important, like the leaders of a country, will be treated very carefully. Because they are ***pampered*** and ***petted***, they may not become uncomfortable. Others may feel very uncomfortable and spend their time ***grousing*** to whomever will listen about how unfriendly the natives are.

4. one symptom of culture shock is the inability to see the host ***nationals*** as real people. Instead one tends to creat ***caricatures***, exaggerating the characteristics of the culture. Perhaps you will decide that your hosts are lazy, and grouse about the ***indolence*** of the local people. In any event, you may decide to spend a good deal of time with people from your country, and their conversation will become the ***fountainhead*** of your stereotyping.

APPENDIX 9.2

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Dictionary Use

The dictionary is a source of many kinds of information about words. Look at the sample entry carefully; notice how information the dictionary presents under the word prefix.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 6)

Exercise 1

Use the sample entry above (page 1), the dictionary page (next page) and your own dictionary to discuss this exercise.

1. When a dictionary gives more than one spelling or pronunciation of a word, is the first one always preferred?

2. Look at the sample entry. How many syllables are in *prefix*? What symbol does this dictionary use to separate the syllables? Which syllable is accented in the preferred pronunciation of the verb *prefix*?

3. Why would you need to know where a word is divided into syllables?

4. Where is the pronunciation guide on page 2? Where is it in your dictionary? What is the key word in the pronunciation guide on page 2 that shows you how to pronounce the 'e' in the preferred pronunciation of *prefix*?

5. What are *derived* words?

6. What is the meaning of the Latin root from which *'pre'* has developed?

7. Dictionary entries sometimes include usage labels such as archaic, obsolete, slang, colloquial, poetic, regional, and informal. Why are these labels useful?

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 6)

Exercise 2

In this exercise you need to scan a page of a dictionary (on page 2) to find answers to specific questions. Read each question, find the answer as quickly as possible, then write it on the space provided. These questions will introduce you to several kinds of information to be found in a dictionary.

1. Would you find the word *glory* on this page?

2. How many syllables are there in *glossolalia*?

3. Which syllable is stressed in the word *glutamic*?

4. What are the key words that tell you how to pronounce the 'o' in the preferred pronunciation of *glycerol*?

5. What is the preferred spelling of the plural of *glottis*?

6. What is the past tense of *to glue*?

7. What is the adverb derived from *glower*?

8. What word must you look up to find *glossographer*?

9. For whom was *gloxinia* named?

10. From what two languages has *glucose* developed?

11. Is the intransitive verb *gloze* commonly used today?

12. How many synonyms are listed for the word *glum*? Why are these words defined here?

13. When was Christoph Williblad Gluck born?

14. What is the population of Gloucester, Massachusetts?

15. List the different kinds of information you can find in a dictionary.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 8)

Exercise 3

In this exercise you will again scan for information from a dictionary page, but here you will concentrate only on the definition of words. Read the questions, then scan the dictionary page (next page) to find the answers.

1. In the following sentences, first determine the part of speech of the italicized word, then use the dictionary page to find a synonym for the word.

    a. Because of her all-night study sessions, Sandy is **run-down.**

        1. noun, verb, adjective, adverb

        2. synonym: ....

    b. John's telephone call to Peter caused a rupture in their four-year friendship.

        1. noun, verb, adjective, adverb

        2. synonym: ....

2. Find a synonym for *running* as it is used in the following sentence.

       We have won the contest for years *running*. ....

3. Check all the following words that are synonyms of *rural*.

    a. rustic   b. rubric   c. pastoral

4. Under which word would you find synonyms of run-of-the-mill?

a. mill   b. average   c. run

5. Which word must you look up to find a description of a ***running knot***?

     a. slipknot   b. running   c. knot

6. According to this dictionary, a running mate can be either ....

     a. a horse or a person.

     b. a horse and a machine.

     c. a person or a machine.

7. Which word must you look up to find the definition of ***rung*** as used in the following sentence:

     I would have *rung* you earlier but I didn't have time.

         a. ring
         b. rang
         c. rung

8. From the dictionary definitions give the number of the appropriate definition for each of the italicised words in the following sentences.

     a. We put a ***runner*** in the hall from the front door to the kitchen.

     b. The singer walked onto the ***runway*** in order to get closer to the audience.

     c. There were 24 ***runes*** in the Germanic alphabet.

9. Which of the following runes is a modern 'm'?

     a.

     b.

     c.

10. What is the meaning of the italicized word in the following sentence?

     John complained that ***Ruse*** was dangerous.

         a. a misleading action.
         b. a city.
         c. an artifice.

11. Complete the following sentence with the appropriate form of the word ***rural***.

     Because of his anti-urban feelings Kenworthy Piker is known as the leading .... of his time.

12. Choose the word that correctly completes the following sentences:

    a. Let me give you a brief .... of what we talked about before you arrived.

        1. run-off

        2. run-down.

    b. We must have a ....in order to decide which person will be the new president.

        1. run-off.

        2. run off.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 57)

APPENDIX 9.3.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word study; stems and affixes (I)

Definitions

Stem: is the basic part on which groups of related words are built. For example, -dict-, -phon-

Affixes: word parts that are attached to stems. There are two types of affixes:

1. **prefixes:** are affixes which are attached to the *beginning* of stems like: re-, in-, pre-
2. **suffixes:** are affixes which are attached to the *end* of stems like: -ist, -er, -ation.

Generally, prefixes change the meaning of a word and suffixes changed its part of speech. Here is an example:

Stem	pay (verb)	honest (adjective)
Prefix	repay (verb)	dishonest (adjective)
Suffix	repayment (noun)	dishonestly (adverb)

Below is a list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes. Study their meanings then do the exercises that follow.

prefixes

com-, con-, col-, cor-, co-	together, with	cooperate, connect
in-, im-, il-, ir-	in, into, on	invade, insert.
in-, im-, il-, ir-	not	impolite, illegal.
micro-	small	microscope, microcomputer
pre-	before	prepare, prehistoric.

| re-, retro- | back, again | return, retrorocket |

stems

-audi-, -audit-	hear	auditorium, auditor.
-chron-	time	chronology, chronological.
-dic-, -dict-	say, speak	dictator, dictation
-graph-, -gram-	write, writing	telegraph, telegram.
-log, -ology-,	speech, word, study	biology
-phon-	sound	telephone
-scrib-, -script-	write	describe, script
-spect-	look at	inspect, spectator.
-vid-, -vis-	see	video, vision.

Suffixes

-er, -or	one who	worker, spectator
-ist	one who	typist, biologist
-tion, -ation	condition, the act of	action, celebration.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 9-10)

Exercise1

1. in each item, select the best definition of the italicised word.

a. he lost his *spectacles*: 1. glasses   2. pants

3. gloves   4. shoes

.

b. he *inspected* their work: 1. spoke highly of   2.did not examine.

3. examines closely   4. did not like.

2. Circle the words where **in-** means **not**. Watch out; there are false negatives in this list.

inject   inside   insane   inspect   invaluable   inflammable   inactive   invisible

3. In current usage, the prefix **co-** is frequently used to form new words (for example, co- + editors becomes coeditors). Give another example of a word that uses *co* in this way.

4. The prefix **re-** (meaning again) often combines with simple verbs to create new verbs (for example, re- +do becomes redo). List three words familiar to you that use re- in this way.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 10)

Exercise 2

Word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicised.

1. the doctor asked Martin to **inhale** deeply and hold his breath for 10 seconds. **………………**

2. Many countries *import* most of the oil they use. **…………………………………….**

3. three newspaper reporters **collaborated** in writing this series of articles. **……………………**

4. calling my professor by her first name seems too **informal** to me. **…………………………..**

5. it is Joe's **prediction** that by the year 2010there will be a female president of the United States. **…………………………………………….**

6. Historians use the **inscriptions** on the walls of ancient temples to guide them in their studies. **…………………………………………….**

7. you cannot sign up for a class the first day it meets in September; you must **preregister** in August. **…………………………………………….**

8. After his long illness, he didn't recognize his own **reflection** in the mirror. **………………...**

9. I **dictated** the letter to my secretary over the phone**. ……………………**

10. I'm sending a sample of my handwriting to a **graphologist** who says he can use it to analyse my personality. **…………………………………….**

11. That university has a very good **microbiolog**y department. **……………………….**

12. *Phonograph* recordings of early jazz musicians are very valuable now**. …………..**

13. At the drug store, the pharmacist refused to give me my medicine because she could not read the doctor's *prescription*. **………………………………………**

14. he should see a doctor about his *chronic* cough. **………………………**

15. Maureen was not admitted to graduate school this year, but she *reapplied* and was admitted for next year. **……………………..**

16. I recognize his face, but I can't *recall* his name. **……………………………….**

17. ten years ago, I decided not to complete high school; in *retrospect*, I believe that was a bad decision. **………………………………………**

18. she uses *audiovisual* aids to make her speeches more interesting. **………………………**

19. Some people believe it is *immoral* to fight in any war. **…………………………………..**

20. Babies are born healthier when their mothers have good *prenatal* care. **…………………**

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 11-12)

Exercise 3

Following is a list of words containing sole of the stems and affixes introduced earlier. Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. microbe	a. an instrument used to make soft sounds louder.
2. phonology	b. not able to be seen
3. audience	c. a group of listeners
4. chronicler	d. the study of speech sounds
5. chronology	e. not normal
6. irregular	f. a historian; one who records events in the order in which they occur.
7. microphone	g. an organism too small to be seen with the naked eye.
8. invisible	h. a listing of events arranged in order of their occurence

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 12

Vocabulary learning Strategies

Word Study; Stems & Affixes (II)

Below is a second list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes. Study their meanings, then do the exercises that follow. When studying the list try to give your own examples of other words you know that are derived from these stems and affixes.

Prefixes

ante-	before	anterior, ante meridiem (A.M)
circum-	around	circumference
contra-, anti-	against	anti-war, contrast
inter-	between	international, intervene
intro-, intra-	within	introduce, intravenous
post-	after	post-game, post-graduate
sub-, suc-, suf-, sug-, sup-, sug-,	under	subway, support
super-	above, greater, better	superior, supermarket
trans-	across	trans-Atlantic, transportation

Stems

-ced-	go, move, yield	precede
-duc-	lead	introduce
-flect-	bend	reflect, flexible
-mit-, -miss-	send	remit, missionary
-pon-, -pos-	put, place	postpone, position
-port-	carry	portable

-sequ-, -secut-	follow	consequence, consecutive
-spir-	breathe	inspiration, conspiracy
-tele-	far	telegraph, telephone
-ven-, -vene-	come	convene, convention
-voc-, -vok-	call	vocal, revoke

Suffixes

-able-, -ible-, -ble	capable of, fit for	trainable, defensible
-ous-, -ious, -ose	full of, having the qualities of	poisonous, anxious, verbose

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 53)

Exercise 1

In each item, select the best definition of the italicised word or phrase or answer the question.

1. The first thing Jim did when he got off the train was look for a *porter*.

    a. person who sells tickets   c. person who carries luggage

    b. taxi cab   d. door to the luggage room

2. No matter what Fred said, Noam *contradicted* him.

    a. said the opposite.   c. laughed at him.

    b. yelled at him.   d. didn't listen to him.

3. The doctor is a specialist in the human *respiratory* system. She is an expert on …

    a. bones.   c. nerves.

    b. lungs.   d. the stomach.

4. He *circumvented* the problem.

    a. described   c. went around, avoided

b. solved   d. wrote down, copied

5. Use what you know about stems and affixes to explain how the following words were derived:

  a. Telephone: ……………………………………………………………………

  b. Telegram : …………………………………………………………………..

  c. Television: …………………………………………………………………

6. When would a photographer use a telephoto lens for his camera?

  …………………………………………………………………………………

  …………………………………………………………………………………

7. Use word analysis to explain what *support* means.

  ………………………………………………………………………………….

  ………………………………………………………………………………….

8. What is the difference between *interstate* commerce and *intrastate* commerce?

  …………………………………………………………………………………………

  ………………………………………………………………………………….

9. At one time, many European towns depended on the system of *aqueducts* built by the Romans for their water supply. What is an aqueduct?

  …………………………………………………………………………………..

  …………………………………………………………………………………..

10.   If   a   person   has   a   receding   hairline,   what   does   he   look   like?

  …………………………………………………………………………………………

  ………………………………………………………………………………

11. The abbreviation A.M. (as in 10:30 A.M.) stands for *ante meridiem.* What do you think P.M. (as in 10:30 P.M.) stands for?

  …………………………………………………………………………………………

  ………………………………………………………………………………

12. Consider these sentences:

 a. He *subscribes* to Time magazine.

 b. He *subscribes* to the theory that the moon is made of green cheese.

 Explain how these meanings of *subscribe* developed from the meanings of *sub* and *scribe*.

 …………………………………………………………………………………………

 …………………………………………………………………………………………

 ………………………………………………………………………………………

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 53-55)

Exercise 2

word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicised words.

 1. Despite evidence *to the **contrary***, Mark really believes that he can pass an exam without studying. …………………………………………………..

 2. I haven't finished the report you asked for yet; let's ***postpone*** our meeting until next Tuesday. …………………………………………………….

 3. Ask your ***supervisor*** if you can take your vacation next month. ……………………….

 4. Please ***remit*** your payment in the enclosed envelope. ………………………………….

 5. ***Antibiotics***, such as penicillin, help the body fight bacterial but not viral infections. …………………………………………………………………

 6. Nowadays, very little mail is ***transported*** by train. ……………………………

 7. Don't invite Frank again; his behaviour tonight was ***inexcusable***. ……………………..

 8. Scientists study the ***interaction*** between parents and their babies to better understand how infants learn. …………………………………………..

 9. After the plane crash, the pilot had to fix his radio before he could ***transmit*** his location. …………………………………………………

10. The committee decided to stop working at noon and to ***reconvene*** at 1:30. …………………………………………………………

11. The state of Texas ***revoked*** his driver's licence because he had had too many accidents……………………………………………….

12. This material is very useful because it is strong yet ***flexible***. …………………………………...

13. Barbara wanted to buy a ***portable*** typewriter. …………………………………

14. The Portuguese sailor Magellan was the first person to ***circumnavigate*** the world. ………………………………………………………………….

15. The king ***imposed*** a heavy tax on his people to pay for his foreign wars. …………………………………………………..

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 55-56)

Exercise 3
Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes introduced in this lesson

and a previous one (lesson 5, page 17). Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the

letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. anteroom …………   a. characterised by a noisy outcry or shouting

2. antecedent …………   b. a room forming an entrance to another one.

3. vociferous …………   c. the career one believes oneself called to; one's occupation or profession.

4. vocation …………..   d. something that happened or existed before another thing

5. subsequent ………..   e. following in time, order, or place.

_____

6. subscript …………..   a. the observation or examination of one's own thought processes

7. superscript …………   b. a letter or symbol written immediately below and

to the right of another symbol

8.   intervene ……………   c. a logical result or conclusion; the relation of effect
                                    to cause

9.   introspection ………..   d. a letter or symbol written immediately above and
                                    to the right of another symbol

10. convene ……………..   e. to come between people or points in time

11. consequence …………   f. to come together as a group

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 56)

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word Study; Stems & Affixes (III)

Below is another list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes. Study their meanings; then do the exercises that follow. You may give examples of other words you know that are derived from these stems and affixes.

Prefixes

a-, an-	without, lacking, not	atypical, apolitical
bene-	good	benefit, benefactor
bi-	two	bicycle, binary
mis-	wrong	misspell, mistake
mono-	one, alone	monarch, monopoly
poly-	many	polynomial, polytechnic
syn-, sym-, syl-	with, together	symphony, sympathy

Stems

-anthro-, -anthropo-	human	anthropology
-arch-	first, chief, leader	patriarch, monarch, archbishop
-fact-, -fect-	make, do	affect, benefactor, factory
-gam-	marriage	monogamy, polygamous
-hetero-	different, other	heterosexual, heterogeneous
-homo-	same	homogenized milk
-man-, -manu-	hand	manually, manage
-morph-	form, structure	polymorphous
-onym-, -nomen-	name	synonym, nomenclature
-pathy-	feeling, disease	sympathy, telepathy, pathological
-theo-, -the-	god	theology, polytheism

Suffixes

-ic, -al	relating to, having the nature of	comic, musical
-ism	action or practice, theory or doctrine	Buddhism, communism
-old	like, resembling	humanoid

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 94)

Exercise 1
In each item, select the best definition of the italicized word or phrase, or answer the question.

1. the small country was ruled by a ***monarch*** for 500 years.
   a. king or queen   c. group of the oldest citizens

   b. single family   d. group of the richest citizens

2. He was interested in ***anthropology***.
   a. the study of apes   c. the study of royalty

   b. the study of insects   d. the study of human

3. Some citizens say the election of William Blazer will lead to ***anarchy.***
   a. a strong central government   c. the absence of a controlling government

   b. a government controlled by   d. an old-fashioned, out-dated

      one person   government

4. if a man is a ***bigamist,*** he
   a. is married to two women   c. has two children

   b. is divorced   d. will never marry

5. Which of the following pairs of words are *homonyms*?
   a. good bad   c. lie die

   b. Paul Peter   d. two too

6. Which of the following pairs of words are *antonyms*?
   a. sea see   c. read read

   b. wet dry   d. Jim Susan

7. The reviewer criticized the poet's *amorphous* style.
   a. unimaginative   c. stiff, too ordered

   b. unusual   d. lacking in organization and form

8. Dan says he is an *atheist.*
   a. one who believes in one god   c. one who believes in many gods

   b. one who believes there is no god   d. one who is not sure if there is a god

9. There was a great *antipathy* between the brothers.
   a. love   c. dislike

   b. difference   d. resemblance

10. Consider the following sentences:
    Many automobiles are *manufactured* in Detroit.

    The authors must give the publisher a *manuscript* of their new book.

    How are the meanings of manufacture and manuscript different from the meanings of the stems from which they are derived? …………………………

    ……………………………………………………………………………………..

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 94-96)

Exercise 2

Word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicized words.

1. Doctors say that getting regular exercise is ***beneficial*** to your health. …………………
2. he's always ***mislaying*** his car keys, so he keeps an extra set in the garage. ……………
3. because some of our patients speak Spanish and some speak English, we need a nurse who is ***bilingual. …………………..***
4. My parents always told me not to ***misbehave*** at my grandparents' house. …………….
5. Some people prefer to remain ***anonymous*** when they call the police to report a crime. ………………………..

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 96)

Exercise 3

Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes in this lesson and a previous one. Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. archenemy   a. care of the hands and fingernails

2. archetype   b. the saying of a blessing

3. anthropoid   c. resembling humans

4. benediction   d. one who performs good deeds

5. benefactor   e. a chief opponent

6. manicure   f. the original model or form after which a thing is made

_____

7. monotheism   a. made up of similar parts

8. polytheism   b. belief in one god

9. polygamy   c. the practice of having one marriage partner

10 monogamy   d. the practice of having several marriage partners

11. heterogeneous   e. consisting of different types; made up of different types

12. homogeneous   f. belief in more than one god.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 96-97)

APPENDIX 9.4.

<center>

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Consolidation Activities

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Exercise 1

Use your knowledge of word parts to choose the word that best completes each sentence.

1. The city of Blaine is celebrating its .... or one hundred and fiftieth anniversary.

    A. centennial
    B. bicentennial
    C. sesquicentennial
    D. semicentennial

2. Myrna is usually outgoing, but lately she has been ....
    A. extroverted
    B. introspective
    C. reverted
    D. diverted

3. Are you left-handed, right-handed, or ....?
    A. monodextrous
    B. ambidextrous
    C. semidextrous
    D. antidextrous

4. .... are rare; seven babies is a lot to have at once.
    A. quadruplets
    B. quintuplets
    C. sextuplets
    D. septuplets

5. Fang is a .... for the dog, who simply wags his tail and licks anyone who enters the house.
    A. renomer
    B. misnomer
    C. multinomer
    D. prenomer

6. The tied up a few loose ends and explained what happened to all the characters in the future.
- A. prelude
- B. introduction
- C. postlude
- D. interlude

Exercise 2

Use context clues to determine the best synonym for the underlined word. Circle the letter of the correct answer.

1. The different factions slowly **coalesced** into a cohesive group.
- A. fought
- B. united
- C. struggled
- D. worked

2. Thomas followed the instructions carefully, while Ivan took a **desultory** approach.
- A. detailed
- B. unsatisfactory
- C. haphazard
- D. systematic

3. No matter what life throws at Sheila, she remains **sanguine** and unperturbed.
- A. bloody
- B. clever
- C. worried
- D. optimistic

4. The mouse helped **extricate** the lion from the net.
- A. trap
- B. save
- C. free
- D. entangle

5. After Leon left, we puzzled over his **enigmatic** comments.
- A. inexplicable
- B. witty
- C. delightful
- D. outrageous

6. Flights of fancy never enter Ugeth's **pragmatic** mind.
- A. ingenious

B. dreamy
C. intellectual
D. practical

7. Ever **timorous**, Yves barely raised his voice above a whisper when he had to speak in public.
    A. loud
    B. hardy
    C. polite
    D. timid

8. The **voluble** speaker had no trouble engaging the audience and filling in gaps in the program with witty anecdotes.
    A. loud
    B. annoying
    C. expressive
    D. glib

9. Climbing Mt. Everest is an **arduous** and impressive feat.
    A. worthless
    B. enjoyable
    C. difficult
    D. amazing

10. Jorge had a reputation for **parsimony**; nobody knew he gave thousands of dollars to charity each year.
    A. generosity
    B. heartlessness
    C. stinginess
    D. kindness

Exercise 3

Use a dictionary to identify the prefixes, roots, and suffixes in each of the following words. Note that all words do not have both a prefix and a suffix, and some words have more than one prefix or suffix.

1. Contemplation

2. Covetousness

3. Excommunication

4. Immortalize

5. Reprove

6. Transgress

7. Tribulation

8. Undiscerning

Exercise 4

Word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicized words.

1. I enjoy reading *biographies* of kings and queens.
2. The Morrises hired a full-time nurse to help them care for their neèw-born *triplets*.
3. The new art museum will be named for the *multimillionaire* who donated the money to build it.
4. About 4 million people live in the Detroit *metropolitan* area.
5. All the hospital's private rooms were occupied, so Michelle had to stay in *semiprivate* one.
6. Winston Churchill wrote a *multivolume* history of World War II.
7. race car drivers need to have good *peripheral* vision so they can see another car driving alongside them without turning their heads.
8. The jeweler doesn't cut diamonds; he works mainly with *semiprecious* stones such as opals.
9. He was shot during the robbery, but it is not a *mortal* wound.
10. My teeth are falling out; my dentist wants me to make an appointment with a *periodontist*.
11. The president's *popularity* with the voters has never been greater than it is today.

Exercise 5

Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes introduced in this lesson. Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. psychologist   a. Worldly-wise; knowing; finely experienced

2. philanthropist   b. A substance capable of killing microorganisms

3. sophisticated   c. the science of life or living matter

4. biochemist   d. one who studies the chemistry of living things

5. biology   e. one who shows love for humanity by doing

                  good works for society

6. antibiotic   f. one who studies mental processes and

                  Behavior

APPENDIX 9.5.

<center>

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Semantic Maps

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Semantic Maps are graphic organizers that display the knowledge associated with a concept. They may be used to teach students new words or to review words already introduced.

Through semantic mapping, students can use the "bubbles" and lines to show the mental connections between the terms and concepts. Whether the teacher is using semantic maps in his/her instruction or the student is developing his/her own semantic maps, the cognitive processes which the learner employs through semantic maps helps him/her put the pieces together in a meaningful, learnable whole. (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp, 2009, p. 126)

Example

Dan recently joined the golf team at his high school. In a very short time, he encountered a new set of vocabulary words, including *birdie, bogey, double bogey, par, course, hole, fairway, green, tee, rough, sand trap, lateral, woods, irons, wedges, driver, putter, match, drive, putt,* and *chip.* The coach explained what the terms meant as they were used, and he and the experienced members of the team used the words repeatedly in context. Soon, Dan was very comfortable with the words. However, his mother often had difficulty understanding what he was talking about when he came home from practice. Finally, she asked him to help her understand the words by developing a semantic map. She needed to visualize how the terms were related to one another. Figure 1 shows what he drew. Later, he added lines that connected the different types of clubs with the areas of the course on which

they are used. For example, he drew a line from *putters* to *green* and from *wedges* to *sand trap* and *rough*. (ibid)

figure 1. Semantic Map for *golf* (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp, 2009, p. 127)

An important aspect of semantic mapping is the talk that accompanies it (Blachowicz et al. 2006). Students should be prompted to verbalize the relationships that are displayed on the map and talk about the information.

Exercise:

1. Draw the semantic map of the following concepts:

Transportation, weather, pollution, food chain

2. Choose your own concepts (two new vocabulary items that you learnt recently) and draw the semantic map for each of them.

APPENDIX 9.6.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word study Notebook

With more than a million words—and more added every day—English has the largest vocabulary of any language in the world. Most of us know only a small percentage of those words and use even fewer of them in our daily life, so, no matter how literate you are, you are bound to run into unfamiliar words from time to time. Keeping track of these words and their definitions can help you enrich your vocabulary and therefore become a better reader, speaker, and writer.

A good way to collect new words is to keep a word study notebook.

In it, you can record each new word with its definition, pronunciation, and origins, along with an example sentence or drawing to help you remember it.

Here is a sample page from a word study notebook.

Word: penurious
Pronunciation:
Origins: from penury, meaning poverty or extreme frugality; derived from Latin penuria or paenuria, meaning "want"
Definition: 1) marked by or suffering from penury, or severe poverty 2) given to extreme frugality: stingy
Drawing:

Exercise:
  1. Fill in this sample page of a word study notebook.

	Word: vacuous
	Pronunciation:
	Origins:
	Definition:
	Sentence using the word:
	Drawing:

(From Mirros & Windows, 2009, p. 1)

  2. Choose three or four words from your vocabulary notebook (for the course) and do the same as the above mentioned example.

APPENDIX 9.7.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The key-word Method

The key word method is recognized as an effective strategy for learning vocabulary. It is often identified as a *memory*, or *mnemonic* strategy which serves to *consolidate* new words' meanings.

The Keyword Method is a very effective memory system for **memorizing English vocabulary** definitions or learning **foreign languages.**

I/ Memorizing English vocabulary

The way you use the Keyword Method is by combining the use of substitute words with visualization (a two-step process). First you convert the *sound* of the word into smaller, simpler concepts. Then you associate those concepts with an image representing the actual meaning of the word.

Examples

Below are examples that show how to memorize vocabulary words using substitute words and association.

Example 1 - Exorbitant. This word means "exceeding the bounds of reason; excessive". For example, paying $10 for a gallon of gas would seem to most people an exorbitant price.

To remember the definition for this word, first break it down into smaller substitute words using the *sound* of the word. Then associate these words with the meaning of exorbitant.

One way is breaking the word down into "ex" + "orbit" + "ant". Now, "ex" is a commonly used prefix that simply means "out" (for example, an ex-president is a president who is out!); "orbit" could refer to a spaceship in orbit around the Earth; and an "ant" is simply that little insect out in the yard that bites you if you mess with him.

So form this mental picture: a big astronaut ant is in orbit around the Earth in his spaceship, but he's out cold (asleep). Since he's asleep and not driving, his spaceship drifts away from Earth and excessively far away, into the Sun (ouch!).

Try to picture this image vividly. Now, when you hear the word "exorbitant" (ex-orbit-ant), you'll think of your image of the ant floating from Earth orbit to *excessively far* (too far)

away.

Example 2 - Lobbyist. This word describes someone who tries to persuade legislators to vote for bills the lobbyist favors.

Let's try breaking the sound of this word down: "lob" + "bee" + "ist". You could remember the definition of lobbyist by imagining a man or woman in a suit *lobbing* (throwing) a big, angry *bee* East (*ist*) through the air and into a ballot box held in the arms of the President. The bee has a duck *bill* instead of a nose. Try to visualize this as clearly and in as much detail as you can.

As before, the sound of the word reminds you of a mental picture you created in advance that gives away the definition of the word.

Example 3 - Fission. This word has a couple of definitions, but for example purposes we'll consider just one. The word fission means a nuclear reaction where a big atom is broken down into smaller parts with a release of energy.

Fission sounds a lot like "fishing". So imagine a man named Adam (Atom) quietly fishing in a lake, but a "new cold ear" (nuclear) falls out of the sky and smashes his boat into a million pieces, causes a big mushroom cloud (release of energy).

Imagine that one, if you will!

When someone says "fission" (or you read the word), you'll think of Adam (*atom*) fishing and his boat being hit by a New Cold Ear (*nuclear*) reaction and causing a release of energy.

II/ Learning foreign languages

A strategy for using the key word method to learn foreign vocabulary

The key word method consists of two main stages:

1. Link the foreign word with an English word that sounds like some part of the foreign word (e.g., the Spanish word *carta* sounds like the English word *cart*. Therefore, 'cart' is the key word.
2. Link the key word with the English meaning of the foreign word by forming an interactive image (e.g., *carta* means *letter,* so one could visualize a letter inside a cart).

Example 1

Archipelago means a group of islands.

Think of a key word for the target word

I am going to think of another word, called a "key word". The key word is a word that sounds like *archipelago* and also is a word that can be easily pictured. My key word for *archipelago* is *pelican. Pelican* sounds like *archipelago* and is the name of a water bird with a very large bill.

Link the key word with the meaning of the target word

the next step is to create an image of the key word *pelican* and the meaning of the target word *archipelago* interacting in some way. It is important that the key word and the meaning actually interact and are not simply presented in the same picture. We have a picture of a pelican flying over a group of small islands.

From:

Diamond, L. & Gutlohn, L. (2006).

McPherson, F. (2000).

McPherson, F. (2003).

APPENDIX 1 : Video recording of focus groups' discussions

APPENDIX 2:

Focus Groups' Discussion Guide

I/ About English vocabulary learning

1. How important is vocabulary learning in learning a Foreign Language? From what experiences have you generalised this idea?
2. Do you find English vocabulary easy or difficult to learn? Justify your answer in either case.
3. What are some of the problems you have with learning vocabulary?
4. How do you attempt to solve problems in learning vocabulary? In other words, are there any specific strategies that you employ to make the learning of vocabulary easier and faster.
5. What does it mean to you to have learned a word? When you say you've learned a word, what do you mean exactly?

II/ About self in vocabulary learning

6. Do you see yourself as good at learning vocabulary? In what ways are you good at it? (e.g., having a good memory? Found successful memories? Or some other strategies?)
7. What is your approach to vocabulary learning: intentionally (you intend to learn new words) or accidentally (while performing other tasks and activities).
8. How do you attempt to widen your vocabulary?

III/ About vocabulary learning strategies

9. Do you think there are strategies that can make vocabulary learning fast and easy? Why do you think so?
10. What, in your opinion, are the vocabulary learning strategies that work best for you? And those that don't work for you?
11. What are, if any, the vocabulary learning strategies that you employ to discover a new word's meaning?
12. After you get the meaning of a new word, what are the strategies that help you store this word in your memory and be able to remember it for later use?

(Adapted from Gu (2005).

APPENDIX: 3

Graveyard of the Atlantic

At 2 P.M on Dec. 5, 1945, five Navy bombers took off in perfect flying weather from the Naval Air Station at Fort Lauderdale, Fla., on a routine training mission over the Atlantic Ocean. Less than two hours later, the flight commander radioed that he was "completely lost." Then there was silence. A rescue plane was sent to search for the missing aircraft and it, too, disappeared. In all, six planes and 27 men vanished that day without a trace. Despite one of history's most extensive search efforts, involving more than 300 planes and dozens of ships, the navy was unable to discover even floating wreckage or a telltale oil slick.

This is just of the many chilling stories told of "the Bermuda Triangle", a mysterious area of the Atlantic Ocean roughly stretching south from Bermuda to the Florida coast and Puerto Rico. During the past 30 years, the triangle has claimed the lives of some 1000 seamen and pilots. Among sailors, it is known variously as "The Triangle of Death", "The Hoodoo Sea" and "The Graveyard of the Atlantic" because of the mysterious calms, waterspouts, and sudden storms that have bothered seafarers in its water. When he entered this stretch of the Atlantic, Christopher Columbus noted curious glowing streaks of "white water". The mysterious patches of light and foam are still visible today and so bright that they have been seen by U.S. astronauts from outer space.

The triangle has aroused considerable public interest through three hot-selling books, a television documentary (narrated by horror master Vincent Price) and a special exposition at the Library of Congress. None of these investigations has produced convincing answers to the mystery of the triangle, but there is no shortage of interesting theories. Some scientists and popular authors go so far as to suggest that the triangle is the hunting ground of extraterrestrial beings in search of human specimens for their "cosmic zoos".

Whatever the truth may be, planes and ships disappear in the triangle with eerie regularity. On July 3, 1947, a U.S. Army C-54 Super fort disappeared 100 miles off Bermuda without broadcasting any word of difficulty. An immediate search over 100,000 square miles of sea failed to turn up a single piece of wreckage. On Jan. 30, 1948, a Tudor TV British airliner, the Star Tiger, vanished over the triangle with 31 passengers and crew aboard. A year later, the Star Tiger's sister plane, the Star Ariel, disappeared en route to Jamaica. Seventy-two search planes, plus dozens of ships, failed to turn up any sign of the missing aircraft.

(adapted from Baudoin et al, 1996, p. 84)

Appendix 4:

Your Actions Speak Louder …

Melvin Schnapper

A Peace Corps staff member is hurriedly called to a town in Ethiopia to deal with reports that one of the volunteers is treating Ethiopians like dogs. What could the volunteer be doing to communicate that?

A volunteer in Nigeria has great trouble getting any discipline in his class, and it is known that the students have no respect for him because he has shown no self-respect. How has he shown that?

Neither volunteer offended his hosts with words. But both of them were unaware of what they had communicated through their nonverbal behaviour.

In the first case, the volunteer working at a health center would go into the waiting room and call for the next patient. She did this as she would in America – by pointing with her finger to the next patient and beckoning him to come. Acceptable in the States, but in Ethiopia her pointing gesture is for children and her beckoning signal is for dogs. In Ethiopia one points to a person by extending the arm and hand and beckons by holding the hand out, palm down, and closing it repeatedly.

In the second case, the volunteer insisted that students look him in the eye to show attentiveness, in a country where prolonged eye contact is considered disrespectful.

While the most innocent American-English gesture may have insulting, embarrassing, or at least confusing connotations in another culture, the converse is also true. If foreign visitors were to bang on the table and hiss at the waiter for service in New York restaurant, they would be fortunate if they were only thrown out. Americans might find foreign students overly polite if they bow.

It seems easier to accept the arbitrariness of language – that dog is *chien* in French or *aja* in Yoruba – than the differences in the emotionally laden behaviour of non verbal communication, which in many ways is just as arbitrary as language.

We assume that our way of talking and gesturing is "natural" and that those who do things differently are somehow playing with nature. The assumption leads to a blindness about intercultural behaviour. And individuals are likely to remain blind and unaware of what they are communicating nonverbally, because the hosts will seldom tell them that they have committed a social blunder. It is rude to tell people they are rude; thus the hosts grant visitors a "foreigner's license," allowing them to make mistakes of social etiquette, and they never know until too late which ones prove disastrous.

(adapted from Baudoin et al, 1996, p. 36)

Appendix 5:

Vocabulary test (Upper Group)

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words from the list:

extraterrestrial	**roughly**	**telltale**	**patches**
Hoodoo	**streaks**	**graveyard**	**chilling**
specimens	**wreckage**	**seafarers**	**foam**
extensive	**cosmic**	**eerie**	
waterspout	**oil slick**	**aroused**	

1. She is a very competent teacher; her knowledge of the subject is ....

2. The .... smell of cigarette smoke makes her sure that her son was smoking.

3. There was a thick .... floating on the sea. This has caused the death of many sea animal.

4. He likes frightening other people, he always tells .... ghost stories.

5. Liza was not in a good mood last night, this is why she behaved .... in the party.

6. The Bermuda triangle is also known as the triangle of death or the .... sea.

7. This .... looks like a garden. Many beautiful flowers are planted in.

8. The storm was preceded by a huge .... when a terrible whirlwind draws up a whirling mass of water.

9. The .... struggled against the strong waves and drove their ship safely to the sea shore.

10. When Christopher Columbus entered this stretch of the Atlantic, he noted curious glowing

     .... of white water.

11. Today, the sky is cloudy. However, there are small .... of blue in it.

12. The breaking waves left the beach covered with ....

13. Her strange behaviour .... our suspicion.

14. Science fiction movies account for the lives of .... creatures and life on other planets.

15. There were some fine .... of rocks in the museum.

16. The museum also specifies a large area for .... collections representing the whole universe.

17. There was an .... silence in the house causing a terrible feeling of fear and mystery.

18. A rescue plane was sent to search for any .... of the destroyed aircraft.

THANK YOU

(The test was designed with reference to Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of current

English (fourth ed.). (1989).

Appendix 6:

Vocabulary Test (Lower group)

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words from the list

palm	blunders	connotations	beckoning
hissed	bang	rude	bowed
seldom	corps	host	intercultural
prolonged	attentiveness	innocent	laden

1. His good marks in the final exam gave him the chance to join the army .... and satisfy the dream of his father.

2. Emigrants usually find it difficult to adapt to the new environment. The .... country may have completely different customs and traditions.

3. Her .... gesture to the waiter offended many people in the restaurant.

4. This old woman pretends to tell somebody's future by looking at the lines of his ....

5. The film's importance called for the audience' .... in order not to miss any detail.

6. After .... questioning, he finally confessed.

7. He was declared .... of the crime. The murderer was arrested by the police last night.

8. Languages are very complex. The same word may have different .... depending on the context of the conversation.

9. In order to keep order in the classroom, the teacher tends to .... on the desk and shout at the trouble makers.

10. She .... at me angrily.

11. The cast (actors) .... as the audience applauded.

12. In winter, orange trees tend to be .... with oranges.

13. The role of the embassy is to strengthen the .... exchange between the two countries.

14. He's not a sociable person. He .... takes part in parties.

15. I was not able to concentrate in the exam. I made stupid ....

16. The student' s .... behaviour in the classroom made the teacher very angry.

THANK YOU

(The test was designed with reference to Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of current English (fourth ed.). (1989). Oxford University Press).

APPENDIX: 7

Vocabulary Size Test (Pre-test)

Exercise 1.

Write the number of the appropriate word in the space provided.

1 debate
2 exposure   _____ plan
3 integration   _____ choice
4 option   _____ joining something into a whole
5 scheme
6 stability

1 accumulation
2 edition   _____ collecting things over time
3 guarantee   _____ promise to repair a broken product
4 media   _____ feeling a strong reason or need to do something
5 motivation
6 phenomenon

1 alter
2 coincide   _____ change
3 deny   _____ say something is not true
4 devote   _____ describe clearly and exactly
5 release
6 specify

(from Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000)

1 demonstrate
2 embarrass   _____ have a rest
3 heave   _____ break suddenly into small pieces
4 obscure   _____ make someone feel shy or nervous
5 relax
6 shatter

1 correspond
2 embroider   _____ exchange letters
3 lurk   _____ hide and wait for someone
4 penetrate   _____ feel angry about something
5 prescribe
6 resent

1 decent
2 frail   _____ weak
3 harsh   _____ concerning a city
4 incredible   _____ difficult to believe
5 municipal
6 specific

1 adequate
2 internal   _____ enough
3 mature   _____ fully grown
4 profound
5 solitary
6 tragic

(from Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, version C as cited in Nation 2001)

Exercise 2.

Fill in the blanks so as to complete the sentences

1. He has a successful car........ as a lawyer.
2. The thieves threw ac......... in his face and made him blind.
3. To improve the country's economy, the government decided on economic ref........
4. The government tried to protect the country's industry by reducing the imp.......... of cheap goods.
5. The children's games were amusing at first, but finally got on the parents' ner........... .
6. The lawyer gave some wise coun.......... to his client.
7. Many people in England mow the la........ of their houses on Sunday morning.
8. Sudden noises at night sca........ me a lot.
9. France was proc........ a republic in the 18th century.
10. He perc.......... a light at the end of the tunnel.

(from Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, Test B as cited in Nation 2001)

Exercise 3.

Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised word in the space provided.

1. We watched as the cat came quietly through the grass toward the bird. When it was just a few feet from the victim, it gathered its legs under itself, and *pounced*. ……………..

2. Some people have no difficulty making the necessary changes in their way of life when they move to a foreign country; others are not able to *adapt* as easily to a new environment. ……………….

3. In spite of the fact that the beautiful *egret* is in danger of dying out completely, many clothing manufacturers still offer handsome prices for their long, elegant tail feathers, which are used as decorations on ladies' hats. ……………

4. the snake *slithered* through the grass. ………………..

5. the man thought that the children were defenceless, so he walked boldly up to the oldest and demanded money. Imagine his surprise when they began to *pelt* him with rocks. …………..

6. When he learnt that the club was planning to admit women, the colonel began to *inveigh* against all forms of liberalism; his shouting attack began with universal voting and ended with a protest against divorce. ……………….

7. Experts in *Kinesics*, in their study of body motion as related to speech, hope to discover new methods of communication. …………………………..

8. Unlike the *gregarious* sister, Jane is a shy, unsociable person who does not like to go to parties or to make new friends. ……………….

9. After a day of hunting, Harold is *ravenous*. Yesterday, for example, he ate two bowls of soup, salad, a large chicken, and a piece of chocolate cake before he was finally satisfied. …………………………

10. After the accident, the ship went down so fast that we weren't able to *salvage* any of our personal belongings. ……………….

(from Baudoin et al, 1996)

APPENDIX 8:

Vocabulary Size Test (post test)

Exercise 1: *write the number of the appropriate word in the space provided.*

1 construction
2 feature   _____ safety
3 impact   _____ noticeable part of something
4 institute   _____ organization which has a special purpose
5 region
6 security

1 accumulation
2 edition   _____ collecting things over time
3 guarantee   _____ promise to repair a broken product
4 media   _____ feeling a strong reason or need to do something
5 motivation
6 phenomenon

1 adult
2 exploitation   _____ end
3 infrastructure   _____ machine used to move people or goods
4 schedule   _____ list of things to do at certain times
5 termination
6 vehicle

1 chart
2 forge   _____ map
3 mansion   _____ large beautiful house
4 outfit   _____ place where metals are made and shaped
5 sample
6 volunteer

1 circus
2 jungle   _____ musical instrument
3 nomination   _____ seat without a back or arms
4 sermon   _____ speech given by a priest in a church
5 stool
6 trumpet

1 concrete
2 era   _____ circular shape
3 fibre   _____ top of a mountain

4 loop   _____ a long period of time
5 plank
6 summit

1 access
2 gender   _____ male or female
3 implementation
4 license   _____ entrance or way in
5 orientation
6 psychology

(From Schmitt, Schmitt, and Clapham (as cited in Nation, 2000) vocabulary levels test, test B;

the 5000 word level and Academic vocabulary)

Exercise 2: *fill in the blanks so as to complete the sentences*

1. I live in a small apa......... on the second floor.

2. Before writing the final version, the student wrote several dra......... .

3. Anthropologists study the struc......... of ancient societies.

4. After two years in the Army, he received the rank of lieu...... .

5. The statue is made of mar....... .

6. The secretary assi....... the boss in organizing the course.

7. His beard was too long. He decided to tr....... it.

8. People were whir........ around on the dance floor.

9. The Emperor of China was the supr......... ruler of his country.

10. You must be awa....... that very few jobs are available.

(From Laufer & Nation, productive Levels test, version C, the 3000 word level)

Exercise 3: *Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised word in the space provided.*

1. Because of her all-night study sessions, Sandy is ***run-down.*** ....

2. The workers' lives were ***wretched***; they worked from morning to night in all kinds of weather, earning only enough money to buy their simple food and cheap clothes……………………………….

3. The apple *appeased* my hunger temporarily, but I could still eat a big dinner ....

4. The singer walked onto the *runway* in order to get closer to the audience......................................

5. The major points of your plan are clear to me, but the details are still *hazy* ……………… ……...

6. The doctor asked Martin to *inhale* deeply and hold his breath for 10 seconds……………………

7. I'm sending a sample of my handwriting to a *graphologist* who says he can use it to analyse my personality………………………

8. Phonograph recordings of early jazz musicians are very valuable now**……………**

9. The Portuguese sailor Magellan was the first person to *circumnavigate* the world ....

10. There were 24 *runes* in the Germanic alphabet...

(from Baudoin et al, 1996)

APPENDIX 9.1

Vocabulary learning strategies
Guessing from context

I/.What is context?

Context can be considered as **within the text itself**; i.e., the morphological, syntactic, and discourse information which can be classified and described in terms of general features. But the reader also has the **general context** of the text; i.e. the background knowledge of the subject matter. Good learners take advantage of such background knowledge in their learning activities. Moreover, learners who are given information about the topic of a passage before they read it achieved significantly higher scores on guessing the meanings of nonsense words in the texts.

II/ A strategy for guessing new words from context.

Coady and Nation (1988, p. 104) describe a strategy which learners can use through a good exploitation of the available context clues. The strategy presupposes two things:

1. That learners have sufficient command of vocabulary, grammar and reading skills in order to achieve basic comprehension of the text, and
2. That learners bring some relevant background knowledge to the text.

The described strategy consists of five steps:

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

The first two steps of this strategy focus on the word itself and its immediate context; i.e., the pattern it fits into with words close to it. In this case, a knowledge of basic affixes can be of some help. For example, knowledge of most frequent suffixes such as –ness (noun), -ly (usually adverb or adjective), -ion (noun), -ify (verb), and prefixes like pre-, ex-, de-, sub-, in

addition to a knowledge of the fact that prefixes generally change the meaning of a word while suffixes change its part of speech e.g., honest (adj.), dishonest (adj. but a new meaning), dishonestly (adv. but the same meaning as dishonest).

Step three in the strategy focuses on the wider context. It requires the student to look at the relationship between the clause in which the unknown word occurs and preceding and following clauses and sentences. These relationships include cause and effect, contrast, generalization- detail, exclusion (on the contrary, instead), explanation (in other words, that is), time (before, subsequently, finally), and arrangement (in the first place, secondly). Though these relationships may be stated explicitly, they are left most of the time to the reader to infer.

Step four consists of the actual guess the learner makes on the basis of clues obtained in steps 1 to 3.

The final step consists of checking the guess made in step four. So, after the student has used the available context clues to guess the meaning of an unknown word, he then can use additional information to check that his guess is correct. There exist several ways of checking the guess.

1. Check that the part of speech of the guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word.

2. Break the unknown word into parts and see if the meaning of the parts relates to the guess.

3. Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Does it make sense in context.

4. Look in a dictionary.

Exercise 1

Each of the sentences in this exercise contains a blank in order to encourage you to look only at the context provided as you attempt to determine the possible meanings of the missing word. Read each sentence quickly and supply a word for each blank. There is no single correct answer. You are to use context clues to help you provide a word that is appropriate in terms of grammar and meaning.

1. I removed the …………. from the shelf and began to read.
2. Harvey is a thief; he would …………..The gold from his grandmother's teeth and not feel guilty.
3. Our uncle was a ………….., an incurable wanderer who never could stay in one place.
4. Unlike his brother, who is truly a handsome person, Hogartty is quite ……… .
5. The Asian ………., like other apes, is specially adapted for life in trees.
6. but surely everyone knows that if you step on an egg, it will ……… .

7. Tom got a new …………. for his birthday. It is a sports model, red, with white interior and bucket seats.

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 3-4)

Exercise 2

In the following exercise, do NOT try to learn the italicised words. Concentrate on developing your ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicised word in the space provided.

1. We watched as the came quietly through the grass toward the bird. When it was just a few feet from the victim, it gathered its legs under itself, and ***pounced***. ……………..

2. Some people have no difficulty making the necessary changes in their way of life when they move to a foreign country; others are not able to ***adapt*** as easily to a new environment. ……………….

3. In spite of the fact that the beautiful ***egret*** is in danger of dying out completely, many clothing manufacturers still offer handsome prices for their long, elegant tail feathers, which are used as decorations on ladies' hats. ……………

4. the snake ***slithered*** through the grass. ………………..

5. the man thought that the children were defenceless, so he walked boldly up to the oldest and demanded money. Imagine his surprise when they began to ***pelt*** him with rocks. …………..

6. When he learnt that the club was planning to admit women, the colonel began to ***inveigh*** against all forms of liberalism; his shouting attack began with universal voting and ended with a protest against divorce. ……………….

7. Experts in ***Kinesics***, in their study of body motion as related to speech, hope to discover new methods of communication. …………………………..

8. Unlike the ***gregarious*** sister, Jane is a shy, unsociable person who does not like to go to parties or to make new friends. ……………….

9. After a day of hunting, Harold is ***ravenous***. Yesterday, for example, he ate two bowls of soup, salad, a large chicken, and a piece of chocolate cake before he was finally satisfied. …………………………

10. After the accident, the ship went down so fast that we weren't able to ***salvage*** any of our personal belongings. ……………….

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 5)

Exercise 3

In the following exercise, do not try to learn the italicized words. Concentrate on developing your ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicized word on the space provided.

1. The major points of your plan are clear to me, but the details are still ***hazy***..
2. By ***anticipating*** the thief's next move, the police were able to arrive at the bank before the robbery occurred. ....
3. all of the palace's laundry, when gathered for washing, formed a ***massive*** bundle that required the combined efforts of all the servants to carry.

   ....
4. "Give me specific suggestions when you criticize my work," said the employee. "***Vague*** comments do not help me improve."

   ....
5. The apple ***appeased*** my hunger temporarily, but I could still eat a big dinner..
6. After the attacks on civilians by army troops, a committee met to try to discover what could have ***provoked*** such action. ....
7. the king ***manifested*** his pleasure with a hearty laugh. ....
8. The nation's highway death ***toll*** has increased every year since the invention of the automobile. ....
9. The workers' lives were ***wretched***; they worked from morning to night in all kinds of weather, earning only enough money to buy their simple food and cheap clothes.

   ....
10. In a series of bold moves, government attorneys attacked the ***mammoth*** auto industry, saying that the size of the business endangered the financial freedom of the individual buyer. ....

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 92)

Exercise 4

This exercise is designed to give you practice using context clues from a passage. Use your general knowledge along with information from the entire text below to write a definition, synonym, or description of the italicized word on the line provided. Read through the entire passage before making a decision. Note that some of the words appear more than once; by the end of the passage you should have a good idea of their meaning. Do not worry if your definition is not exact; a general idea of the meaning will often allow you to understand the meaning of a written text.

People in Americas before Last Ice Age

A *site* in northeastern Brazil has yielded evidence of the earliest known human *occupation* in the Americas, approximately 32,000 years ago, according to a report by two French scientists.

Although the discovery, reported in June 19 *NATURE*, does not *resolve* long-standing archaeological *disputes* over when and how people first arrived in the New World, the *site* is much older than others where human *occupation* has been *firmly* established. Several such finds in the southwestern United States date to 11,500 years ago, and a rock shelter near Pittsburgh is thought to contain evidence of use by humans 19,000 years ago; previously, the earliest known *site* occupied by humans in South America was 14,200 years old.

Site: …………………………………………………………………….

Occupation: …………………………………………………………..

NATURE: ………………………………………………………………

Resolve : …………………………………………………………..

Disputes: ……………………………………………………………….

Firmly : …………………………………………………………

(From Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 93)

Exercise 5

In the following exercise do NOT try to learn the italicized words. Concentrate on developing your ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using context clues. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym or description of the italicized word.

1. It is difficult to list all of my father's *attributes* because he has so many different talents and abilities. ……………………………..

2. Mary, the president of the family council, *conferred* upon Robert the title of vice-president, because she thought he would do a good job. ……………………………………………………………

3. Mother was tall, fat, and middle-aged. The principle of the school was an older woman, almost as *plump* as Mother, and much shorter………………………………………………………………

4. When Mark was in one of his *pedantic* moods, he assumed the manner of a distinguished professor and lectured for hours, on minute, boring topics. …………………………………………………

5. Many members of the old wealthy families in society held themselves *aloof* from Gatsby, refusing even to acknowledge his existence. …………………………………………………………

6. I became angrier and angrier as Don talked, but I *refrained* from saying anything. …………………………………………………………

7. Mr. Doodle is always busy in an *ineffectual* way; he spends hours running around accomplishing nothing. ………………………….

8. Ian was proud of the neat rows of *marigolds* in his flower beds, which he tended with great care. …………………………………

9. Most dentists' offices are *drab* places, but Emilio's new office is a bright, cheerful place. …………………………………………..

10. The inner and outer events of a plant are interdependent; but this isn't saying that the *skin, cortex, membrane*, or whatever you want to call the boundary of the individual, is meaningless. …………………………………………..

(Baudoinn et al. 1996, p. 142)

Exercise 6

This exercise is designed to give you practice using context clues from a passage. Use your general knowledge along with information from the entire text below to write a definition; synonym, or description of the italicized word on the line provided. Read through the entire passage before making a decision.

Babies Sound Off: The Power of Babble

There is more to the babbling of a baby than meets the ear. A handful of scientists are picking apart infants' utterances and finding that not only is there an ordered sequence of vocal stages between birth and the first words, but in *hearing-impaired* babies a type of *babbling* thought to signal an emerging capacity for speech is delayed and distorted.

"the traditional wisdom (among developmental researchers) is that deaf babies babble like hearing babies," says linguist D. Kimbrough Oller of the university of Miami (Fla.). "this idea is a myth." Oller reported his latest findings ob hearing and deaf infants last week at a National Institutes of Health seminar in Bethesda, Md. He and his colleagues demonstrated 8 years ago that hearing babies from a variety of language communities start out by cooing and gurgling; at about 7 months of age, they start to produce *sequences* of the same syllables (for instance, "da-da-da" or "dut-dut-dut") that are classified as *babbling* and can be recorded and acoustically measured in the laboratory, with words or word like sounds appearing soon after 1 year of age. Babbling – the emitting of identifiable consonant and vowel sounds- usually disappears by around 18 to 20 months of age.

In a just completed study, Oller and his co-workers found that repeated *sequences* of syllables first appeared among 21 hearing infants between the ages of 06 and 10 months; in contrast, these vocalizations emerged among 9 severely to profoundly deaf babies between the ages of 11 and 25 months. In addition, deaf babies babbled less frequently than hearing babies, produced fewer syllables and were more likely to use single syllables than repeated *sequences*.

Babbling: --

Sequence: --

Hearing-impaired: ---

Myth: --

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 143)

Exercise 7:

Use the context provided to determine the meaning of the italicised words. Read each sentence carefully, and write a definition, synonym or description of the italicized word.

1. illnesses specific to workers in a particular occupation are known as occupational diseases. Culture shock is an ***occupational diseases*** for people who travel. It is ***precipitated*** by the anxiety of living in a strange culture.

2. Suddenly finding your self in a strange country can be rather frightening. You lose all of the ***props*** that generally support you, all of the familiar ***cues*** that provide information about what to do. Without familiar props and cues to orient you in unfamiliar situations, it becomes difficult ***to cope*** with life in a new setting. Every thing can seem different. You don't even know how much ***to tip*** a cab driver or a waiter in a restaurant. In this situation, you can lose a sense of logic, developing ***irrational*** fear of the local people.

3. people react differently to visiting different cultures. People who are very important, like the leaders of a country, will be treated very carefully. Because they are ***pampered*** and ***petted***, they may not become uncomfortable. Others may feel very uncomfortable and spend their time ***grousing*** to whomever will listen about how unfriendly the natives are.

4. one symptom of culture shock is the inability to see the host ***nationals*** as real people. Instead one tends to creat ***caricatures***, exaggerating the characteristics of the culture. Perhaps you will decide that your hosts are lazy, and grouse about the ***indolence*** of the local people. In any event, you may decide to spend a good deal of time with people from your country, and their conversation will become the ***fountainhead*** of your stereotyping.

APPENDIX 9.2

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Dictionary Use

The dictionary is a source of many kinds of information about words. Look at the sample entry carefully; notice how information the dictionary presents under the word prefix.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 6)

Exercise 1

Use the sample entry above (page 1), the dictionary page (next page) and your own dictionary to discuss this exercise.

1. When a dictionary gives more than one spelling or pronunciation of a word, is the first one always preferred?

2. Look at the sample entry. How many syllables are in *prefix*? What symbol does this dictionary use to separate the syllables? Which syllable is accented in the preferred pronunciation of the verb *prefix*?

3. Why would you need to know where a word is divided into syllables?

4. Where is the pronunciation guide on page 2? Where is it in your dictionary? What is the key word in the pronunciation guide on page 2 that shows you how to pronounce the 'e' in the preferred pronunciation of *prefix*?

5. What are *derived* words?

6. What is the meaning of the Latin root from which *'pre'* has developed?

7. Dictionary entries sometimes include usage labels such as archaic, obsolete, slang, colloquial, poetic, regional, and informal. Why are these labels useful?

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 6)

Exercise 2

In this exercise you need to scan a page of a dictionary (on page 2) to find answers to specific questions. Read each question, find the answer as quickly as possible, then write it on the space provided. These questions will introduce you to several kinds of information to be found in a dictionary.

1. Would you find the word *glory* on this page?

2. How many syllables are there in *glossolalia*?

3. Which syllable is stressed in the word *glutamic*?

4. What are the key words that tell you how to pronounce the 'o' in the preferred pronunciation of *glycerol*?

5. What is the preferred spelling of the plural of *glottis*?

6. What is the past tense of *to glue*?

7. What is the adverb derived from *glower*?

8. What word must you look up to find *glossographer*?

9. For whom was *gloxinia* named?

10. From what two languages has *glucose* developed?

11. Is the intransitive verb *gloze* commonly used today?

12. How many synonyms are listed for the word *glum*? Why are these words defined here?

13. When was Christoph Williblad Gluck born?

14. What is the population of Gloucester, Massachusetts?

15. List the different kinds of information you can find in a dictionary.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 8)

Exercise 3

In this exercise you will again scan for information from a dictionary page, but here you will concentrate only on the definition of words. Read the questions, then scan the dictionary page (next page) to find the answers.

1. In the following sentences, first determine the part of speech of the italicized word, then use the dictionary page to find a synonym for the word.

    a. Because of her all-night study sessions, Sandy is *run-down*.

        1. noun, verb, adjective, adverb

        2. synonym: ....

    b. John's telephone call to Peter caused a rupture in their four-year friendship.

        1. noun, verb, adjective, adverb

        2. synonym: ....

2. Find a synonym for *running* as it is used in the following sentence.

      We have won the contest for years *running*. ....

3. Check all the following words that are synonyms of *rural*.

a. rustic   b. rubric   c. pastoral

4. Under which word would you find synonyms of run-of-the-mill?

a. mill   b. average   c. run

5. Which word must you look up to find a description of a ***running knot***?

a. slipknot   b. running   c. knot

6. According to this dictionary, a running mate can be either ....

a. a horse or a person.

b. a horse and a machine.

c. a person or a machine.

7. Which word must you look up to find the definition of ***rung*** as used in the following sentence:

I would have *rung* you earlier but I didn't have time.

a. ring
b. rang
c. rung

8. From the dictionary definitions give the number of the appropriate definition for each of the italicised words in the following sentences.

a. We put a ***runner*** in the hall from the front door to the kitchen.

b. The singer walked onto the ***runway*** in order to get closer to the audience.

c. There were 24 ***runes*** in the Germanic alphabet.

9. Which of the following runes is a modern 'm'?

a.

b.

c.

10. What is the meaning of the italicized word in the following sentence?

John complained that ***Ruse*** was dangerous.

a. a misleading action.
b. a city.

        c.   an artifice.

11. Complete the following sentence with the appropriate form of the word *rural*.

     Because of his anti-urban feelings Kenworthy Piker is known as the leading .... of his time.

12. Choose the word that correctly completes the following sentences:

    a. Let me give you a brief .... of what we talked about before you arrived.

        1. run-off

        2. run-down.

    b. We must have a ....in order to decide which person will be the new president.

        1. run-off.

        2. run off.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 57)

APPENDIX 9.3.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word study; stems and affixes (I)

Definitions

Stem: is the basic part on which groups of related words are built. For example, -dict-, -phon-

Affixes: word parts that are attached to stems. There are two types of affixes:

1. **prefixes:** are affixes which are attached to the *beginning* of stems like: re-, in-, pre-
2. **suffixes:** are affixes which are attached to the *end* of stems like: -ist, -er, -ation.

Generally, prefixes change the meaning of a word and suffixes changed its part of speech. Here is an example:

Stem	pay (verb)	honest (adjective)
Prefix	repay (verb)	dishonest (adjective)
Suffix	repayment (noun)	dishonestly (adverb)

Below is a list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes. Study their meanings then do the exercises that follow.

prefixes

com-, con-, col-, cor-, co-	together, with	cooperate, connect
in-, im-, il-, ir-	in, into, on	invade, insert.

in-, im-, il-, ir-	not	impolite, illegal.
micro-	small	microscope, microcomputer
pre-	before	prepare, prehistoric.
re-, retro-	back, again	return, retrorocket

stems

-audi-, -audit-	hear	auditorium, auditor.
-chron-	time	chronology, chronological.
-dic-, -dict-	say, speak	dictator, dictation
-graph-, -gram-	write, writing	telegraph, telegram.
-log, -ology-,	speech, word, study	biology
-phon-	sound	telephone
-scrib-, -script-	write	describe, script
-spect-	look at	inspect, spectator.
-vid-, -vis-	see	video, vision.

Suffixes

-er, -or	one who	worker, spectator
-ist	one who	typist, biologist
-tion, -ation	condition, the act of	action, celebration.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 9-10)

Exercise1

1. in each item, select the best definition of the italicised word.

    a. he lost his *spectacles*: 1. glasses   2. pants

                                      3. gloves   4. shoes

.

b. he *inspected* their work: 1. spoke highly of   2.did not examine.

                                        3. examines closely   4. did not like.

2. Circle the words where **in-** means ***not***. Watch out; there are false negatives in this list.

   inject   inside   insane   inspect   invaluable   inflammable   inactive   invisible

3. In current usage, the prefix **co-** is frequently used to form new words (for example, co- + editors becomes coeditors). Give another example of a word that uses *co* in this way.

4. The prefix **re-** (meaning again) often combines with simple verbs to create new verbs (for example, re- +do becomes redo). List three words familiar to you that use re- in this way.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 10)

Exercise 2

Word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicised.

1. the doctor asked Martin to **inhale** deeply and hold his breath for 10 seconds. **………………**

2. Many countries *import* most of the oil they use. **…………………………………….**

3. three newspaper reporters ***collaborated*** in writing this series of articles. **……………………**

4. calling my professor by her first name seems too ***informal*** to me. **…………………………..**

5. it is Joe's ***prediction*** that by the year 2010there will be a female president of the United States. **…………………………………………….**

6. Historians use the ***inscriptions*** on the walls of ancient temples to guide them in their studies. **…………………………………………….**

7. you cannot sign up for a class the first day it meets in September; you must ***preregister*** in August. **…………………………………………….**

8. After his long illness, he didn't recognize his own ***reflection*** in the mirror. **………………...**

9. I *dictated* the letter to my secretary over the phone. ……………………

10. I'm sending a sample of my handwriting to a *graphologist* who says he can use it to analyse my personality. …………………………………………….

11. That university has a very good *microbiology* department. ……………………….

12. *Phonograph* recordings of early jazz musicians are very valuable now. …………..

13. At the drug store, the pharmacist refused to give me my medicine because she could not read the doctor's *prescription*. …………………………………………

14. he should see a doctor about his *chronic* cough. …………………………

15. Maureen was not admitted to graduate school this year, but she *reapplied* and was admitted for next year. ……………………….

16. I recognize his face, but I can't *recall* his name. ……………………………….

17. ten years ago, I decided not to complete high school; in *retrospect*, I believe that was a bad decision. …………………………………………

18. she uses *audiovisual* aids to make her speeches more interesting. …………………………

19. Some people believe it is *immoral* to fight in any war. …………………………………..

20. Babies are born healthier when their mothers have good *prenatal* care. …………………

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 11-12)

Exercise 3

Following is a list of words containing sole of the stems and affixes introduced earlier. Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. microbe   a. an instrument used to make soft sounds louder.

2. phonology   b. not able to be seen

3. audience   c. a group of listeners

4. chronicler   d. the study of speech sounds

5. chronology   e. not normal

6. irregular   f. a historian; one who records events in

                              the order in which they occur.

7. microphone   g. an organism too small to be seen with the

                              naked eye.

8. invisible   h. a listing of events arranged in order of their

                              occurence

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 12

Vocabulary learning Strategies

Word Study; Stems & Affixes (II)

Below is a second list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes. Study their meanings, then do the exercises that follow. When studying the list try to give your own examples of other words you know that are derived from these stems and affixes.

Prefixes

ante-	before	anterior, ante meridiem (A.M)
circum-	around	circumference
contra-, anti-	against	anti-war, contrast
inter-	between	international, intervene
intro-, intra-	within	introduce, intravenous
post-	after	post-game, post-graduate
sub-, suc-, suf-,	under	subway, support
sug-, sup-, sug-,		
super-	above, greater, better	superior, supermarket
trans-	across	trans-Atlantic, transportation

Stems

-ced-	go, move, yield	precede
-duc-	lead	introduce
-flect-	bend	reflect, flexible

-mit-, -miss-	send	remit, missionary
-pon-, -pos-	put, place	postpone, position
-port-	carry	portable
-sequ-, -secut-	follow	consequence, consecutive
-spir-	breathe	inspiration, conspiracy
-tele-	far	telegraph, telephone
-ven-, -vene-	come	convene, convention
-voc-, -vok-	call	vocal, revoke

Suffixes

| -able-, -ible-, -ble | capable of, fit for | trainable, defensible |
| -ous-, -ious, -ose | full of, having the qualities of | poisonous, anxious, verbose |

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 53)

Exercise 1

In each item, select the best definition of the italicised word or phrase or answer the question.

1. The first thing Jim did when he got off the train was look for a *porter*.

    a. person who sells tickets   c. person who carries luggage

    b. taxi cab   d. door to the luggage room

2. No matter what Fred said, Noam *contradicted* him.

    a. said the opposite.   c. laughed at him.

    b. yelled at him.   d. didn't listen to him.

3. The doctor is a specialist in the human *respiratory* system. She is an expert on …

    a. bones.   c. nerves.

b. lungs.   d. the stomach.

4. He *circumvented* the problem.

    a. described   c. went around, avoided

    b. solved   d. wrote down, copied

5. Use what you know about stems and affixes to explain how the following words were derived:

    a. Telephone: …………………………………………………………………………

    b. Telegram : …………………………………………………………………………..

    c. Television: ………………………………………………………………………

6. When would a photographer use a telephoto lens for his camera?

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Use word analysis to explain what *support* means.

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………

8. What is the difference between *interstate* commerce and *intrastate* commerce?

    ……………………………………………………………………………………………………

    ……………………………………………………………………………………………

9. At one time, many European towns depended on the system of *aqueducts* built by the Romans for their water supply. What is an aqueduct?

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………..

    …………………………………………………………………………………………………..

10. If   a   person   has   a   receding   hairline,   what   does   he   look   like?

    ……………………………………………………………………………………………………

    ………………………………………………………………………………………

11. The abbreviation A.M. (as in 10:30 A.M.) stands for *ante meridiem.* What do you think P.M. (as in 10:30 P.M.) stands for?

……

……………………………………………………………………………………………

12. Consider these sentences:

a. He *subscribes* to Time magazine.
b. He *subscribes* to the theory that the moon is made of green cheese.

Explain how these meanings of *subscribe* developed from the meanings of *sub* and *scribe*.

……

……

…………………………………………………………………………………………………

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 53-55)

Exercise 2

word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicised words.

1. Despite evidence *to the **contrary***, Mark really believes that he can pass an exam without studying. ………………………………………………..
2. I haven't finished the report you asked for yet; let's ***postpone*** our meeting until next Tuesday. …………………………………………………….
3. Ask your ***supervisor*** if you can take your vacation next month. ……………………….
4. Please ***remit*** your payment in the enclosed envelope. ………………………………….
5. ***Antibiotics***, such as penicillin, help the body fight bacterial but not viral infections. …………………………………………………………………
6. Nowadays, very little mail is ***transported*** by train. …………………………
7. Don't invite Frank again; his behaviour tonight was ***inexcusable***. …….………………………..

8. Scientists study the ***interaction*** between parents and their babies to better understand how infants learn. …………………………………………..

9. After the plane crash, the pilot had to fix his radio before he could ***transmit*** his location. ………………………………………………………….

10. The committee decided to stop working at noon and to ***reconvene*** at 1:30. ……………………………………………………

11. The state of Texas ***revoked*** his driver's licence because he had had too many accidents………………………………………….

12. This material is very useful because it is strong yet ***flexible***. …………………………...

13. Barbara wanted to buy a ***portable*** typewriter. …………………………………

14. The Portuguese sailor Magellan was the first person to ***circumnavigate*** the world. ………………………………………………………….

15. The king ***imposed*** a heavy tax on his people to pay for his foreign wars. …………………………………………..

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 55-56)

Exercise 3
Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes introduced in this lesson

and a previous one (lesson 5, page 17). Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the

letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. anteroom …………   a. characterised by a noisy outcry or shouting

2. antecedent …………   b. a room forming an entrance to another one.

3. vociferous …………   c. the career one believes oneself called to; one's occupation or profession.

4. vocation …………..   d. something that happened or existed before another thing

5. subsequent ………..   e. following in time, order, or place.

6. subscript …………..   a. the observation or examination of one's own
                              thought processes

7. superscript …………   b. a letter or symbol written immediately below and
                              to the right of another symbol

8. intervene ……………   c. a logical result or conclusion; the relation of effect
                              to cause

9. introspection ………..   d. a letter or symbol written immediately above and
                              to the right of another symbol

10. convene ……………..   e. to come between people or points in time
11. consequence …………   f. to come together as a group

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 56)

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word Study; Stems & Affixes (III)

Below is another list of some commonly occurring stems and affixes. Study their meanings; then do the exercises that follow. You may give examples of other words you know that are derived from these stems and affixes.

Prefixes

a-, an-	without, lacking, not	atypical, apolitical
bene-	good	benefit, benefactor
bi-	two	bicycle, binary
mis-	wrong	misspell, mistake
mono-	one, alone	monarch, monopoly
poly-	many	polynomial, polytechnic
syn-, sym-, syl-	with, together	symphony, sympathy

Stems

-anthro-, -anthropo-	human	anthropology
-arch-	first, chief, leader	patriarch, monarch, archbishop
-fact-, -fect-	make, do	affect, benefactor, factory
-gam-	marriage	monogamy, polygamous
-hetero-	different, other	heterosexual, heterogeneous
-homo-	same	homogenized milk
-man-, -manu-	hand	manually, manage
-morph-	form, structure	polymorphous
-onym-, -nomen-	name	synonym, nomenclature
-pathy-	feeling, disease	sympathy, telepathy, pathological
-theo-, -the-	god	theology, polytheism

Suffixes

-ic, -al	relating to, having the nature of	comic, musical
-ism	action or practice, theory or doctrine	Buddhism, communism
-old	like, resembling	humanoid

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 94)

Exercise 1
In each item, select the best definition of the italicized word or phrase, or answer the question.

1. the small country was ruled by a ***monarch*** for 500 years.
   a. king or queen   c. group of the oldest citizens

   b. single family   d. group of the richest citizens

2. He was interested in ***anthropology***.
   a. the study of apes   c. the study of royalty

   b. the study of insects   d. the study of human

3. Some citizens say the election of William Blazer will lead to ***anarchy.***
   a. a strong central government   c. the absence of a controlling government

   b. a government controlled by   d. an old-fashioned, out-dated

     one person   government

4. if a man is a ***bigamist,*** he
   a. is married to two women   c. has two children

   b. is divorced   d. will never marry

5. Which of the following pairs of words are *homonyms*?
    a. good bad   c. lie die

    b. Paul Peter   d. two too

6. Which of the following pairs of words are *antonyms*?
    a. sea see   c. read read

    b. wet dry   d. Jim Susan

7. The reviewer criticized the poet's *amorphous* style.
    a. unimaginative   c. stiff, too ordered

    b. unusual   d. lacking in organization and form

8. Dan says he is an *atheist.*
    a. one who believes in one god   c. one who believes in many gods

    b. one who believes there is no god   d. one who is not sure if there is a god

9. There was a great *antipathy* between the brothers.
    a. love   c. dislike

    b. difference   d. resemblance

10. Consider the following sentences:
    Many automobiles are *manufactured* in Detroit.

    The authors must give the publisher a *manuscript* of their new book.

    How are the meanings of manufacture and manuscript different from the meanings of
    the stems from which they are derived? ………………………….

    …………………………………………………………………………..

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 94-96)

Exercise 2

Word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicized words.

1. Doctors say that getting regular exercise is ***beneficial*** to your health. …………………
2. he's always ***mislaying*** his car keys, so he keeps an extra set in the garage. ……………
3. because some of our patients speak Spanish and some speak English, we need a nurse who is ***bilingual. …………………..***
4. My parents always told me not to ***misbehave*** at my grandparents' house. …………….
5. Some people prefer to remain ***anonymous*** when they call the police to report a crime. ………………………..

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 96)

Exercise 3

Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes in this lesson and a previous one. Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. archenemy	a. care of the hands and fingernails
2. archetype	b. the saying of a blessing
3. anthropoid	c. resembling humans
4. benediction	d. one who performs good deeds
5. benefactor	e. a chief opponent
6. manicure	f. the original model or form after which a thing is made

_____

7. monotheism   a. made up of similar parts

8. polytheism   b. belief in one god

9. polygamy   c. the practice of having one marriage partner

10 monogamy   d. the practice of having several marriage partners

11. heterogeneous   e. consisting of different types; made up of different types

12. homogeneous   f. belief in more than one god.

(Baudoin et al., 1996, p. 96-97)

APPENDIX 9.4.

<p style="text-align:center">Vocabulary Learning Strategies</p>

<p style="text-align:center">Consolidation Activities</p>

Activity 1

Use your knowledge of word parts to choose the word that best completes each sentence.

1. The city of Blaine is celebrating its .... or one hundred and fiftieth anniversary.

   A. centennial
   B. bicentennial
   C. sesquicentennial
   D. semicentennial

2. Myrna is usually outgoing, but lately she has been ....
   A. extroverted
   B. introspective
   C. reverted
   D. diverted

3. Are you left-handed, right-handed, or ....?
   A. monodextrous
   B. ambidextrous
   C. semidextrous
   D. antidextrous

4. .... are rare; seven babies is a lot to have at once.
   A. quadruplets
   B. quintuplets
   C. sextuplets
   D. septuplets

5. Fang is a .... for the dog, who simply wags his tail and licks anyone who enters the house.
   A. renomer
   B. misnomer
   C. multinomer

D. prenomer

6. The tied up a few loose ends and explained what happened to all the characters in the future.
    A. prelude
    B. introduction
    C. postlude
    D. interlude

Activity 2

Use context clues to determine the best synonym for the underlined word. Circle the letter of the correct answer.

1. The different factions slowly **coalesced** into a cohesive group.
    A. fought
    B. united
    C. struggled
    D. worked

2. Thomas followed the instructions carefully, while Ivan took a **desultory** approach.
    A. detailed
    B. unsatisfactory
    C. haphazard
    D. systematic

3. No matter what life throws at Sheila, she remains **sanguine** and unperturbed.
    A. bloody
    B. clever
    C. worried
    D. optimistic

4. The mouse helped **extricate** the lion from the net.
    A. trap
    B. save
    C. free
    D. entangle

5. After Leon left, we puzzled over his **enigmatic** comments.
    A. inexplicable
    B. witty
    C. delightful
    D. outrageous

6. Flights of fancy never enter Ugeth's **pragmatic** mind.

A. ingenious
    B. dreamy
    C. intellectual
    D. practical

7. Ever **timorous**, Yves barely raised his voice above a whisper when he had to speak in public.
    A. loud
    B. hardy
    C. polite
    D. timid

8. The **voluble** speaker had no trouble engaging the audience and filling in gaps in the program with witty anecdotes.
    A. loud
    B. annoying
    C. expressive
    D. glib

9. Climbing Mt. Everest is an **arduous** and impressive feat.
    A. worthless
    B. enjoyable
    C. difficult
    D. amazing

10. Jorge had a reputation for **parsimony**; nobody knew he gave thousands of dollars to charity each year.
    A. generosity
    B. heartlessness
    C. stinginess
    D. kindness

Activity 3

Use a dictionary to identify the prefixes, roots, and suffixes in each of the following words. Note that all words do not have both a prefix and a suffix, and some words have more than one prefix or suffix.

1. Contemplation

2. Covetousness

3. Excommunication

4. Immortalize

5. Reprove

6. Transgress

7. Tribulation

8. Undiscerning

Activity 4

Word analysis can help you to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words. Using context clues and what you know about word parts, write a synonym, description, or definition of the italicized words.

1. I enjoy reading *biographies* of kings and queens.
2. The Morrises hired a full-time nurse to help them care for their neèw-born *triplets*.
3. The new art museum will be named for the *multimillionaire* who donated the money to build it.
4. About 4 million people live in the Detroit *metropolitan* area.
5. All the hospital's private rooms were occupied, so Michelle had to stay in *semiprivate* one.
6. Winston Churchill wrote a *multivolume* history of World War II.
7. race car drivers need to have good *peripheral* vision so they can see another car driving alongside them without turning their heads.
8. The jeweler doesn't cut diamonds; he works mainly with *semiprecious* stones such as opals.
9. He was shot during the robbery, but it is not a *mortal* wound.
10. My teeth are falling out; my dentist wants me to make an appointment with a *periodontist*.
11. The president's *popularity* with the voters has never been greater than it is today.

Exercise 5

Following is a list of words containing some of the stems and affixes introduced in this lesson. Definitions of these words appear on the right. Put the letter of the appropriate definition next to each word.

1. psychologist   a. Worldly-wise; knowing; finely experienced

2. philanthropist   b. A substance capable of killing microorganisms

3. sophisticated   c. the science of life or living matter

4. biochemist   d. one who studies the chemistry of living things

5. biology   e. one who shows love for humanity by doing

                              good works for society

6. antibiotic   f. one who studies mental processes and

                              Behavior

APPENDIX 9.5.
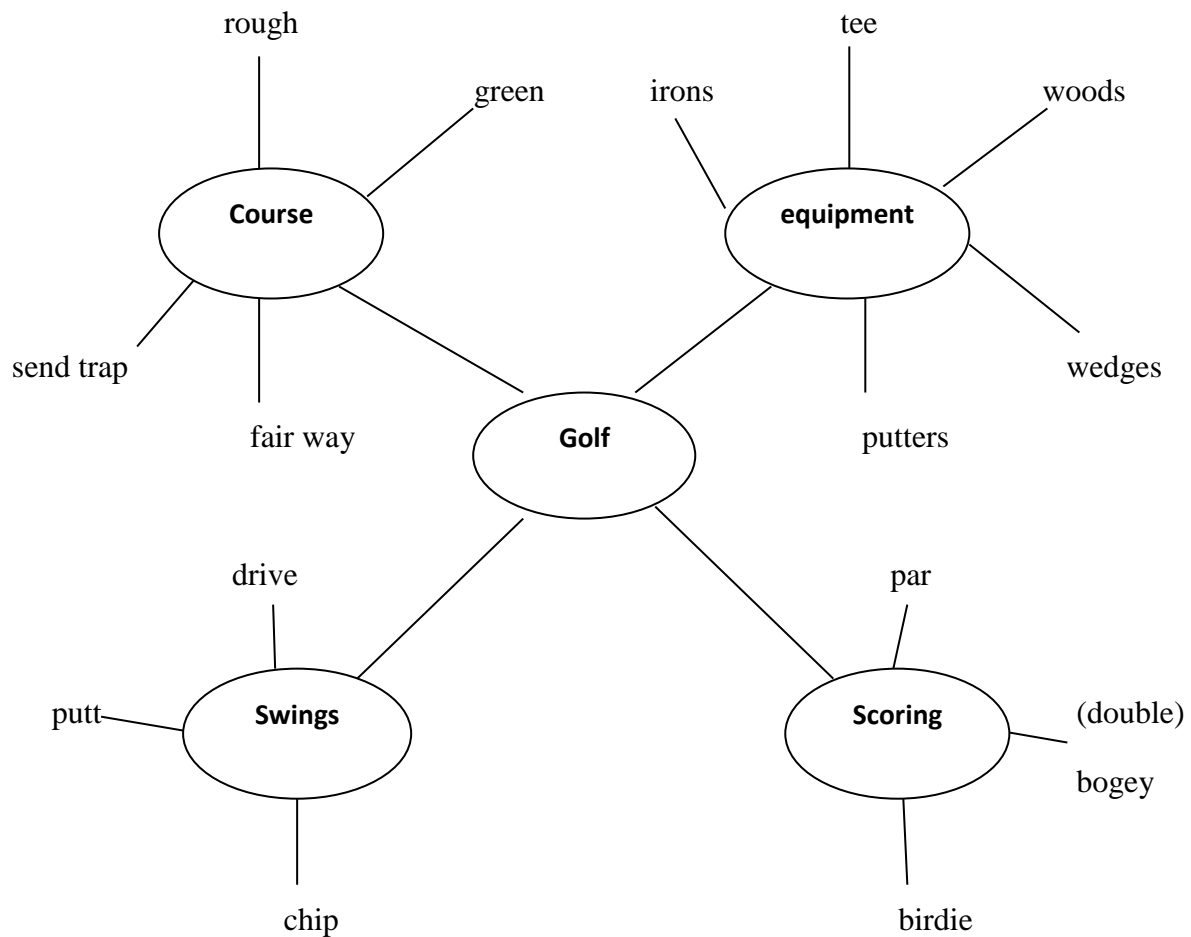
Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Semantic Maps

Semantic Maps are graphic organizers that display the knowledge associated with a concept. They may be used to teach students new words or to review words already introduced.

Through semantic mapping, students can use the "bubbles" and lines to show the mental connections between the terms and concepts. Whether the teacher is using semantic maps in his/her instruction or the student is developing his/her own semantic maps, the cognitive processes which the learner employs through semantic maps helps him/her put the pieces together in a meaningful, learnable whole. (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp, 2009, p. 126)

Example

Dan recently joined the golf team at his high school. In a very short time, he encountered a new set of vocabulary words, including *birdie, bogey, double bogey, par, course, hole, fairway, green, tee, rough, sand trap, lateral, woods, irons, wedges, driver, putter, match, drive, putt,* and *chip.* The coach explained what the terms meant as they were used, and he and the experienced members of the team used the words repeatedly in context. Soon, Dan was very comfortable with the words. However, his mother often had difficulty understanding what he was talking about when he came home from practice. Finally, she asked him to help her understand the words by developing a semantic map. She needed to visualize how the terms were related to one another. Figure 1 shows what he drew. Later, he added lines that connected the different types of clubs with the areas of the course on which

they are used. For example, he drew a line from *putters* to *green* and from *wedges* to *sand trap* and *rough*. (ibid)

figure 1. Semantic Map for *golf* (Bishop, Yopp & Yopp, 2009, p. 127)

An important aspect of semantic mapping is the talk that accompanies it (Blachowicz et al. 2006). Students should be prompted to verbalize the relationships that are displayed on the map and talk about the information.

Exercise:

1. Draw the semantic map of the following concepts:

Transportation, weather, pollution, food chain

2. Choose your own concepts (two new vocabulary items that you learnt recently) and draw the semantic map for each of them.

APPENDIX 9.6.

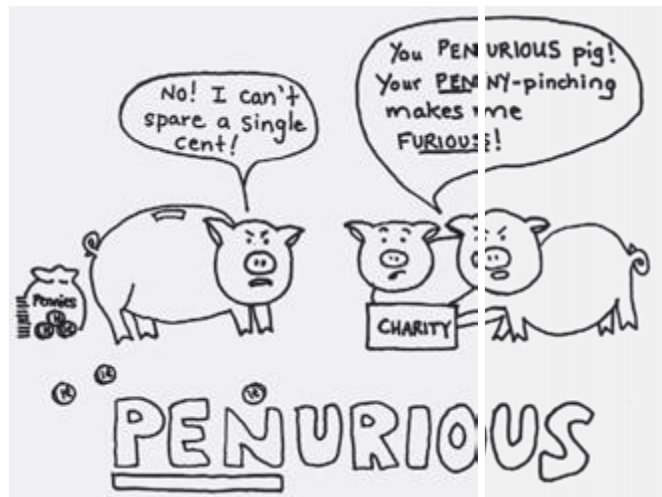## Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Word study Notebook

With more than a million words—and more added every day—English has the largest vocabulary of any language in the world. Most of us know only a small percentage of those words and use even fewer of them in our daily life, so, no matter how literate you are, you are bound to run into unfamiliar words from time to time. Keeping track of these words and their definitions can help you enrich your vocabulary and therefore become a better reader, speaker, and writer.

A good way to collect new words is to keep a word study notebook.

In it, you can record each new word with its definition, pronunciation, and origins, along with an example sentence or drawing to help you remember it.

Here is a sample page from a word study notebook.

Word: penurious
Pronunciation:
Origins: from penury, meaning poverty or extreme frugality; derived from Latin penuria or paenuria, meaning "want"
Definition: 1) marked by or suffering from penury, or severe poverty 2) given to extreme frugality: stingy
Drawing:

Exercise:
  1. Fill in this sample page of a word study notebook.

	Word: vacuous
	Pronunciation:
	Origins:
	Definition:
	Sentence using the word:
	Drawing:

(From Mirros & Windows, 2009, p. 1)

  2. Choose three or four words from your vocabulary notebook (for the course) and do the same as the above mentioned example.

APPENDIX 9.7.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The key-word Method

The key word method is recognized as an effective strategy for learning vocabulary. It is often identified as a *memory*, or *mnemonic* strategy which serves to *consolidate* new words' meanings.

The Keyword Method is a very effective memory system for **memorizing English vocabulary** definitions or learning **foreign languages.**

I/ Memorizing English vocabulary

The way you use the Keyword Method is by combining the use of substitute words with visualization (a two-step process). First you convert the *sound* of the word into smaller, simpler concepts. Then you associate those concepts with an image representing the actual meaning of the word.

Examples

Below are examples that show how to memorize vocabulary words using substitute words and association.

Example 1 - Exorbitant. This word means "exceeding the bounds of reason; excessive". For example, paying $10 for a gallon of gas would seem to most people an exorbitant price.

To remember the definition for this word, first break it down into smaller substitute words using the *sound* of the word. Then associate these words with the meaning of exorbitant.

One way is breaking the word down into "ex" + "orbit" + "ant". Now, "ex" is a commonly used prefix that simply means "out" (for example, an ex-president is a president who is out!); "orbit" could refer to a spaceship in orbit around the Earth; and an "ant" is simply that little insect out in the yard that bites you if you mess with him.

So form this mental picture: a big astronaut ant is in orbit around the Earth in his spaceship, but he's out cold (asleep). Since he's asleep and not driving, his spaceship drifts away from Earth and excessively far away, into the Sun (ouch!).

Try to picture this image vividly. Now, when you hear the word "exorbitant" (ex-orbit-ant), you'll think of your image of the ant floating from Earth orbit to *excessively far* (too far)

away.

Example 2 - Lobbyist. This word describes someone who tries to persuade legislators to vote for bills the lobbyist favors.

Let's try breaking the sound of this word down: "lob" + "bee" + "ist". You could remember the definition of lobbyist by imagining a man or woman in a suit *lobbing* (throwing) a big, angry *bee* East (*ist*) through the air and into a ballot box held in the arms of the President. The bee has a duck *bill* instead of a nose. Try to visualize this as clearly and in as much detail as you can.

As before, the sound of the word reminds you of a mental picture you created in advance that gives away the definition of the word.

Example 3 - Fission. This word has a couple of definitions, but for example purposes we'll consider just one. The word fission means a nuclear reaction where a big atom is broken down into smaller parts with a release of energy.

Fission sounds a lot like "fishing". So imagine a man named Adam (Atom) quietly fishing in a lake, but a "new cold ear" (nuclear) falls out of the sky and smashes his boat into a million pieces, causes a big mushroom cloud (release of energy).

Imagine that one, if you will!

When someone says "fission" (or you read the word), you'll think of Adam (*atom*) fishing and his boat being hit by a New Cold Ear (*nuclear*) reaction and causing a release of energy.

II/ Learning foreign languages

A strategy for using the key word method to learn foreign vocabulary

The key word method consists of two main stages:

1. Link the foreign word with an English word that sounds like some part of the foreign word (e.g., the Spanish word *carta* sounds like the English word *cart*. Therefore, 'cart' is the key word.
2. Link the key word with the English meaning of the foreign word by forming an interactive image (e.g., *carta* means *letter,* so one could visualize a letter inside a cart).

Example 1

Archipelago means a group of islands.

Think of a key word for the target word

I am going to think of another word, called a "key word". The key word is a word that sounds like *archipelago* and also is a word that can be easily pictured. My key word for *archipelago* is *pelican. Pelican* sounds like *archipelago* and is the name of a water bird with a very large bill.

Link the key word with the meaning of the target word

the next step is to create an image of the key word *pelican* and the meaning of the target word *archipelago* interacting in some way. It is important that the key word and the meaning actually interact and are not simply presented in the same picture. We have a picture of a pelican flying over a group of small islands.

From:

Diamond, L. & Gutlohn, L. (2006).

McPherson, F. (2000).

McPherson, F. (2003).

Resumé

La présente étude porte sur l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des stratégies d'apprentissage du vocabulaire de l'Anglais langue étrangère (VLS) dans un contexte Algérien; celui des étudiants de troisième année de l'ENSC (Ecole Normale Supérieure de Constantine). Trois questions majeures sur l'utilisation de différentes stratégies d'apprentissage du vocabulaire par les étudiants, l'impact de leur niveau de compétence sur une telle utilisation, ainsi que l'effet de la formation en VLS sur les apprenants avec un niveau de compétence inférieur sont soulevées au début de l'étude. Sur cette base, trois hypothèses principales ont été formulées. Premièrement, les étudiants de l'ENSC utilisent différents VLS, mais certaines stratégies, comme l'utilisation de dictionnaire sont plus fréquentes chez les étudiants que d'autres stratégies. Deuxièmement, le niveau de compétence des élèves peut avoir un impact sur la quantité et la qualité des stratégies utilisées. Troisièmement, la formation sur les stratégies de l'apprentissage du vocabulaire peut avoir un impact positif sur l'utilisation des stratégies en question. La population de l'étude comprenait vingt (20) étudiants de troisième année du département d'Anglais à l'ENSC. Les participants ont été divisés en deux groupes de dix élèves chacun selon leur niveau de compétence. Au cours de la deuxième phase de l'enquête, seuls dix étudiants (ceux avec un niveau de compétence inférieur) ont participé. Pour tester ses hypothèses, l'étude a utilisé deux principaux outils d'investigation : groupes de discussion représentant les étudiants de l'ENSC avec un niveau de compétence plus élevé et les étudiants de l'ENSC avec un niveau de compétence plus faible, et un programme de formation sur l'utilisation des VLS consacrées aux apprenants les moins bon, chacun d'eux a été réalisé à travers d'autres sous-outils ; l'observation directe des comportements des apprenants lors de la séance lecture, les rapport verbaux des participants sur les stratégies qu'ils ont utilisés en plus de deux tests de vocabulaire administrés dans chaque groupe séparément. Dans la deuxième phase, un pré et un post-test ont été administrés au début et à la fin de la formation, respectivement. Les résultats montrent que l'utilisation de différents VLS des étudiants de l'ENSC correspond à la classification suggérer par Schmitt (2000). Deux stratégies, en particulier 'l'utilisation du dictionnaire' et 'l'inférence contextuelle', sont les plus courantes chez les apprenants de la population de l'étude, bien que réalisées différemment chez les bons et les moins bons étudiants. Les résultats montrent également que les apprenants avec un niveau de compétence supérieur utilisent plus de stratégies et de plusieurs types comparés à leurs collègues à un niveau de compétence inférieur. Enfin, les résultats des pré- et post- tests administrés au début et à la fin de la formation, montrent que le programme de formation a un impact positif sur la performance des apprenants moins bons par 'rapport aux stratégies d'apprentissage du vocabulaire (VLS) traités dans cette étude.

ملخص

تبحث هذه الدراسة في استراتيجيات تعلم مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية وتلقينها في السياق الجزائري لطلبة السنة الثالثة بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة. ثلاث أطروحات رئيسية حول طرق تعلم الطلاب للمفردات وتأثير الكفاءة والقدرات الخاصة للطلبة على طريقة استعمال هذه الاستراتيجيات بالإضافة الى تأثير التدريب في بعض الاستراتيجيات على الطلبة الأقل كفاءة تم طرحها في بداية الدراسة. وعلى هذا الأساس تم وضع ثلاث فرضيات. أولا: يستعمل طلبة الإنجليزية بالمدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة عدة استراتيجيات لتعلم مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية ولكن استراتيجية' استعمال المعجم' تمثل الطريقة الأكثر تداولا بين الطلاب. ثانيا: مستوى الكفاءة والقدرة لدى الطالب له تأثير مباشر في طريقة استعماله لاستراتيجيات مختلفة ومتنوعة. ثالثا: التدريب على استراتيجيات تعلم المفردات يمكن أن يكون له أثر إيجابي على الطلبة الذين خصصهم هذا التدريب. العينة التي خضعت للدراسة تتكون من 20 طالبا في السنة الثالثة من قسم الإنجليزية للمدرسة العليا للأساتذة بقسنطينة وقد تم تقسيم الطلبة المشاركين إلى مجموعتين تتكون كل واحدة من عشر طلبة وهذا حسب مستواهم وكفاءاتهم الدراسية. خلال المرحلة الثانية من الدراسة خضع عشر طلبة (من ذوي الكفاءات الدنيا) للبرنامج التدريبي. ومن أجل اختبار هذه الفرضيات فقد اعتمدت الدراسة على وسيلتين رئيسيتين: الحوار والمناقشة في مجموعتين تمثل الأولى الطلبة ذووا مستوى وكفاءة عالية والثانية الطلبة ذووا كفاءة دون المستوى بالإضافة الى برنامج تدريب على طريقة استعمال بعض الاستراتيجيات الموجه خصيصا للفئة الثانية. وقد تمت ملاحظة سلوك المتكونين خلال جلسة قراءة والاعتماد على التقارير الشفهية للمشاركين حول الاستراتيجيات المستعملة وهذا بالإضافة إلى اختبارين للمفردات اللغوية داخل كل مجموعة. في المرحلة الثانية (مرحلة التدريب) تم إعطاء اختبارين في بداية ونهاية التدريب. بينت النتائج أن استعمال مختلف الاستراتيجيات من طرف طلبة يتفق مع التصنيف الذي أقره Schmitt (2000) وأن هناك استراتيجيتين بصفة خاصة منتشرتين بكثرة بين الطلاب وهما 'استعمال المعجم' و 'الأستدلال بالسياق' مع طريقة استعمال مختلفة بين الفئتين الأولى والثانية. كما بينت النتائج أيضا أن طلاب الفئة الأولى (ذووا الكفاءات العليا) يستعملون استراتيجيات أكثر وبأكثر كفاءة من زملائهم من الفئة الأولى. وفي الأخير تبين من خلال الإختبارين الذين تم اجراؤهما في بداية و في نهاية التدريب على مختلف الاستراتيجيات الأثر الإيجابي لهذا التدريب على أداء الطلبة الأقل كفاءة إيجابي على أداء المتكونين الأقل كفاءة من العينة المشاركة في الدراسة.