Sudan University of Science & Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages

Effect of Using Authentic Teaching Material to Enhance Vocabulary Learning at Undergraduate Level

أثر استخدام المواد التدريسية الاصلية لتعزيز تعلم المفردات اللفظية اللغوية في المستوى الجامعي

"A case Study of First Year Students, College of Languages, Sudan University of Science & Technology"

A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Ph.D in English Language (Applied Linguistics)

Submitted by:

Sabreen Mohammed Osman Elhaj Awaad

Supervised by : Prof. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed Omer

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Quranic Verse

قال تعالى:

" يَرْفَعِ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا مِنْكُمْ وَالَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْعِلْمَ دَرَجَاتٍ وَاللَّهُ بِمَا تَعْمَلُونَ خَبِيرٌ "

المجادلة(11)

Allah The Almighty says:

"Allah will exalt in degree those of you who believe, and those who have been granted knowledge. And Allah is Well-Acquainted with what you do".

(Holy Quran, Al-Mujadilah, verse 11)

Dedication

To the souls of my parents,

The two who gave me access to knowledge.

To the soul of my daughter Sweeter.

To my children Sayda, Saba and Sulafudeen

.

Acknowledgment

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Abstract

This study aimed to discus the effect of authentic teaching materials for vocabulary learning in undergraduate, first level. It sets to raise the students awareness of vocabulary learning techniques and how to use them effectively to improve their vocabulary learning. The target group of this study is, level one undergraduate, Sudan University of Science & Technology. To achieve the aims of this study, the researcher uses the descriptive, analytical and experimental method to analyze data collected from respondents. After analysis of data, the study has come up with a number of findings. Some of the most important findings are: The students in the first year rarely use effective vocabulary learning techniques. Using of real language in learning vocabulary has a great enhance in vocabulary building. The study revealed first year English teachers' low awareness of using authentic materials in vocabulary learning. One of the basic objectives to be established in this study is to introduce some basic terms and concepts in the analysis of vocabulary. The emphasis is on an exploration of what constitutes a word. There is an extensive literature on this topic stretching back over at least twenty years. The area of linguistics which covers the topic is generally known as lexical semantics. Finally, the researcher suggest that; EFL learners have to learn vocabulary building by using native speakers real materials, e.g newspapers, timetables, advertisement, TVs' and even the modern technical instruments; e.g mobile and modern telecommunication systems.

Abstract

(Arabic Version)

مستخلص الرسالة

هدفت هذه الدراسة لدراسة اثر إستخدام المواد التدريسية الاصلية في دراسة المفردات اللفظية لدى الدارسين في السنة الاولى في المرحلة الجامعية. وسعت الدراسة لإيجاد طرق من شأنها أن تساعد الطلاب على رفع ادراكهم لاستعمال المواد التدريسية الحقيقة في تعلم وبناء المفردات ، حيث ان الالمام والادراك الكافي لاستخدام هذه المواد يمكن الدارسين والدارسات على تطوير بناء وتعلم المفردات. يتمثل مجتمع الدراسة من طلاب وطالبات الصف الاول كلية اللغات، جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا. ولتحقيق اهداف الدراسة والاجابة على اسئلتها، استخدم الباحث المنهج الوصفي التجريبي التحليلي. وبعد جمع المعلومات ومعالجتها احصائيا وتحليلها توصلت الدراسة الى مجموعة من النتائج اهمها:- استخدام طلاب وطالبات المستوى الاول لمواد التدريس الحقيقية بصورة نادرة، مع قلة المامهم بهذه المواد. حث طلاب وطالبات المستوى الاول لاستخدام المواد التدريسية الحقيقية في دراسة المفردات اللفظية، لدورها العظيم في تعلم المفردات والمصطلحات. أظهرت الدراسة عدم الادراك الكافي لمدرسي اللغة الانجليزية بالمستوى الاول، اللذين شملتهم الدراسة للمواد الحقيقية في دراسة الذخيرة اللغوية ودورها في مهارة تعلم وبناء المفردات. من الاهداف الرئيسة التي يجدر ذكرها في هذه الدراسة عرض بعض المصطلحات الاساسية والمفاهيم في تحليل الذخيرة اللغوية والتركيز على اكتشاف تشكيل وتكوين الكلمة. وهناك دراسات عديدة تناولت هذا الموضوع خلال العقدين الماضيين. اما المجال اللغوي التي استخدمها الباحث في هذه الدراسة فيعتمد على دراسة معني المفردات المعجمي. اخيرا يقترح الباحث أن يستخدم دارسو اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية المواد الحقيقية لدراسة المفردات والمصطلحات مثل، الصحف الانجليزية، الجداول والاعلانات (من المكتوب) والتلفزيون (من المسموع) وحتى التقنيات الحديثة من الجوالات والهواتف الذكية ووسائل الاتصالات الحديثة.

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Definition of Terms

1- Orthographic : The spelling of a word.

2- Affixes   : word parts that added at the end and beginning of
                    And known as a word's part of speech can
                    Contribute to your understanding of its
                    definition

3- Ohmmeter   : an instrument for power measurement

4- Mnemonic   : connected with memory (memorial)

5- Cognitive   : to be understood

6- Hyponymy   : The meaning of one form included in the meaning of
                    Another.

7- stem   : root of a word

Chapter one

Introduction

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

This introductory chapter will provide a description of the theoretical framework of the study with special focus on the statement of the problem, study questions, hypotheses, objectives and the methodology of the study.

1.0 Overview

The researcher tried to assess the effect of using authentic materials to enhance vocabulary learning, due to lack of awareness and inappropriate use constitute the core of the problem. The students enter the university with very poor language so, to enhance their learning, the researcher tried to use different strategies of learning to encourage the students to improve their language.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Problems of vocabulary learning at undergraduate levels abound in a phenomenal way that calls for quick intervention. Lack of awareness and inappropriate use constitute the core of the problem. To help improve this situation, a new approach to teaching and learning vocabulary has to be devised. In the current study a morphological approach will be used to alleviate the situation.

Most researchers attribute the weakness in the area of vocabulary learning to adopting traditional approaches to learning focusing mainly on the teaching of essays and compositions. Another element which will be incorporated in this connection to further augment the approach is the use of authentic materials.

To achieve this goal, the study will attempt to analyze and evaluate the effect of using authentic materials in gaining and learning vocabulary. To enhance good vocabulary building on one hand, and on the other hand, to suggest remedy for the ineffective ones. The choice of undergraduates students level, as a target of the present research is done on purpose to provide the study with a challenging dimension.

Nunan (1989), states that authentic material can be defined as any material which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching (as cited in Macdonald, Badger and White, 2000), vocabulary is the body of words used in a particular language. The development of vocabulary acquisition is important as it can facilitate the students' in enhancing all the language skills.

Definition of authentic materials according to the Oxford Dictionaries (2014), the word authentic derives from the Greek word 'authentic' can be defined as genuine and not a copy of something. According to Rogers(1988), authentic materials are appropriate and good in terms of goals, objectives, learners needs and interest as well as natural in terms of real life and meaningful communication (as cited in Kilickay, 2004).

1.2 Context of the Study

1. One of the basic objectives to be established in this part of the study is to introduce some basic terms and concepts in the analysis of vocabulary. The emphasis is on an exploration of what constitutes a word. There is an extensive literature on this topic stretching back over at least twenty years. The area of linguistics which covers the topic is generally known as lexical semantics.

Everyone knows what a **word** is. And it may therefore appear unnecessary to devote several pages of discussion to its definition, even in a book on vocabulary. Indeed, closer examination reveals the usefulness of everyday common-sense notions of a word; it also reveals, however, some limitations which have a bearing on the ways in which words are used and understood in some specialized applied linguistic contexts.

An **orthographic** definition of a word is a practical common-sense definition. It says, quite simply, that a word is 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. It can be seen that this definition is at the basis of such activities as counting the number of words needed for an essay, a competition, or tele-gram, to play 'Scrabble' and to write a shopping list. There are, of course, irregularities. For example, we write *will not* as two words but *cannot* as one word; *instead of* is two words, but *in place of* is three; *postbox* can also appear as *post box* or *post-box*.1 but, generally, the notion of an orthographic word has considerable practical validity.

Orthography refers, of course, to a medium of written language. And although this issue is not explicitly dealt with at this stage, we should note that spoken discourse does not generally allow of such a clear perception of a word. The issue of word stress is significant and is explored in this section, but where stress, 'spaces' or pauses occur in speech, it may be for reasons other than to differentiate one single word unit from another. It can be for purposes of emphasis, seeking the right expression, checking on an interlocutor understands, or even as a result of forgetting or rephrasing what you were going to say. In such circumstances, the divisibility of a word is less clear-cut; in fact, spaces here can occur in the middle of the orthographically defined word unit. And we should, in any

case, remember that not all languages mark word boundaries, the most prominent of these being Chinese.

Knowledge of word parts can play a role in increasing our vocabularies. Word parts include prefixes, suffixes, and root words.(George Yule'2006)

Prefixes are word parts added at the beginning of words, and they dramatically alter a word's meaning, including changing a word to its opposite meaning: correct— *in*correct; regard—*dis*regard.

Suffixes are word parts added at the end of words. A suffix can change a word's part of speech: jump (verb)—jump*er* (noun); poison (noun)—poison*ous* (adjective), and knowing a word's part of speech can contribute to your understanding of its definition:

An *ohmmeter* is needed to reassure electric resistance. (The suffix –*er* indicates *ohmmeter* is a noun, and this knowledge, coupled with the sentence's context, makes clear that *ohmmeter* is an instrument to measure electric resistance.)

Roots or Stems are the base part of words. They convey the bulk of a word's meaning. A prefix and a suffix can be attached to a root to form variants of the root: *in-* (a prefix meaning "not") + *cred* (a root meaning "believe") + *-ible* (a suffix meaning "capable of") = *incredible* (not capable of being believed).

Although word parts are usually consistent in their meaning, this isn't always the case. For example, *pre* means "before" in *pre*view and *pre*caution, but not in *pre*cise or *pre*cious; nevertheless, prefixes, suffixes, and roots are sufficiently consistent in their meanings to make it definitely worthwhile to learn their usual meanings. This knowledge will enable you to unlock unfamiliar words that you encounter in a reading assignment, such as "monolithic." When you know the prefix *mono-* means "one" and the root *lath* means "block of stone," and the suffix *-ic* means "having the characteristic of," you will understand that "monolithic" refers to an object made from a single block of stone, or, if used in a general sense, to something that is massive, rigid, and uniform throughout.

Mastering the definitions of the challenging words in each chapter will contribute to your ability to comprehend college-level material because these words frequently appear in textbooks, newspapers, periodicals, and standardized tests, including the *Scholastic Aptitude Test (S.A.T.)*. You will have an opportunity to learn these words by applying your knowledge of the word parts previously studied and by using context clues, that is, by studying the relationship between a challenging word

and the words surrounding it. Becoming familiar with these types of context clues will prove particularly helpful to you now and in the future.

Direct Definition

It's rare these days to see anyone wear a *monocle,* an eyeglass for just one eye. *Intrinsic motivation* is a desire for action coming from within an individual. (Both sentences provide straightforward definitions of the italicized words.)

Indirect Definition

Although the pain is not intense, it is *chronic,* having bothered me for the past two months.

Her desire for financial security, she realized, was not a sufficient *rationale* for accepting his marriage proposal. (In the first sentence, "for the past two months" indicates that *chronic* describes a condition lasting a long time; in the second sentence, "not a sufficient *rationale*"
suggests that *rationale* is a reason or a motive.)

Examples

Arthropods, such as crabs and lobsters, live in water. Unrestricted television viewing can have *deleterious* effects on children, including sluggishness and insensitivity.

We live in a society where we measure things all the time: our height, our weight, our shoe size, our car speed. We do it automatically and rarely think about the units we use for measurement until, that is, the units change for some reason. For example, exactly how fast is the maximum speed limit of 120 km.ph on roads in continental Europe when your car (my car, at least, it's an old one) only gives miles per hour (mph) on the speedometer? In order to measure anything, therefore, we need to understand the units of measurement and use them appropriately. Measuring language and vocabulary knowledge in particular, is no exception. Misunderstand the units, or use the wrong units, and we are likely to learn very little about the language we are trying to understand. The purpose of this opening chapter is to explain what these units of measurement are in describing vocabulary acquisition and how we set about measuring vocabulary knowledge.

One thing the reader will find in accessing the literature on vocabulary knowledge, is that we tend to use the word 'word', presumably for ease and convenience, when we are really referring to some very specialist definitions of the term, such as types, tokens, lemmas, word families and even the attractively named hapax legomena. This can be very confusing, even depressing. My undergraduate students, for example, having read that native speakers of English know something like 200,000 words (Seashore & Eckerson, 1940), are mortified to find that their vocabularies appear less than one tenth of this size when they try out Goulden et al.'s

(1990) or Diack's (1975) vocabulary size tests. The reason is that early estimates of the vocabulary knowledge of native speakers, such as Seashore and Eckerson's, used a dictionary count where every different form of a word included in the dictionary, was counted as a different word. Words such as know, knows and knowing were all treated as different words and counted separately. Later attempts to systematize such counts and use frequency information for greater accuracy, such as that of Goulden et al., include a treatment of all the common inflections and derived forms of words as a single word family.

1.3 Objectives

One of the basic objectives of this study is to draw on the issue of vocabulary learning from a moderately morphological level, coupled with the use of authentic materials. Learning from an authentic material can help rapidly enhance the students' vocabulary and strengthens their cultural awareness of the target language.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The dichotomous elements represented by the use of the authentic material and reinforced by a morphological approach give the present study its significance. The study will attempt to cover this issue thoroughly trying to find different types of vocabulary learning, to do this, the study will make use of the relevant literature in the field and various data collection techniques that will be used in this study. Based in the expected results, the study will eventually suggest ways to enhance and promote effective vocabulary process and suggest remedy for the ineffective ones.

Most people in the English-speaking world used to think that the student's and scholar's mind is an empty bucket to be filled by books, lectures and tutorials. Nowadays neuroscientists and psychologists tell us that the brain doesn't work in this passive, accepting manner. On the contrary, to learn and to write is, first, to make sense for ourselves of our new experience in terms of our old. So you need to be aware at the outset that, even to subjects you have never studied before, you can bring certain preconceptions, even prejudices, a certain amount of disjointed knowledge, and a certain facility with language – all of which can get you started. The most baffling of essay topics can soon yield some meaning if you take the initiative and begin to ask questions – of yourself, of the essay topic, of your books and lectures, of the school or department for whom you are writing the essay. To think of yourself as an active enquirer, rather than as a mere receptacle of ideas and knowledge or as a passive medium by which they are transmitted from your books to your

essays, is essential to good essay-writing. Good academic writing actually *creates* new knowledge and new meaning.

In the present study, an authentic material will be drawn upon to help improve the learners' modes of writing, too. Such example includes print materials like, newspapers and timetables, or spoken materials like public announcements. He also supports that, "the use of authentic sources leads to greater interest and variety in the materials that learners deal with in the classroom. This authentic material helps bring the contact to life, and ultimately makes learning and using language more meaningful and easier for students".

1.5 Questions

1. To what extent can authentic materials be used at undergraduate levels to help learn vocabulary along with making an overall language improvement?

2. How will a morph-phonemic approach taking into account the basic word constituents help reinforce the learning of new lexical items?

3. Can authentic material with plentiful words easily be memorized and used in active classroom interaction?

1.6 Hypotheses

1. Authentic materials used at undergraduate levels can help learn vocabulary along with making an overall language improvement.

2. A morph-phonemic approach taking into account the basic word constituents help reinforce the learning of new lexical items.

3. Authentic material with plentiful words can easily be memorized and used in active classroom interaction.

1.7 Methodology

In this study, experimental methods will be adopted. The proposed experiment will be conducted at Sudan University of Science and Technology where undergraduate learners at first year will be given a test focusing mainly on the grammatical rules and vocabulary to measure their linguistic competence. Then, later after inducing the remedies and the desired changes the same test will be used again. The experiment is expected to take two months. A questionnaire will be administered to both teachers and students. Furthermore, some

language classes will be observed. The researcher will also confirm the validity and the reliability of the research tools before their application.

1.8 Limits of the Study

One of the major limits of the present research is the fact that it is greatly limited to one university where the phenomenon is rampant across our universities. It is difficult to measure students' communicative competence as regards the length of time accorded to the experiment.

1.9 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter a detailed description of the theoretical framework has been provided with some focus on the definition of the research problem and the research methodology. In the next chapter some relevant literature will be critically reviewed.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue of using authentic teaching material and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of reading comprehension. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

Part One: Theoretical Framework

Part Two: Previous Related Works

2.1 Second Language Acquisition

Second Language Acquisition,1 as a field of scientific research and a foundation of contemporary language instruction, is still a relatively young discipline. Historically, second language instruction was either not grounded on any scientific theory (e.g. the Grammar-Translation Method), or was grounded on conclusions partly derived from valid linguistic theories and partly from general theories of learning (e.g. the influence of structural linguistics and behaviorism on the development of the audio-lingual method). The Grammar-Translation Method was based on the fundamental assumption that learners will learn the target language simply by following the teaching method, whereas according to the audio-lingual method the learner is conceived of as a passive recipient of the programme whose intervention would seriously interfere with the desirable automatic reaction. These theories received severe criticism from the new opposing theories, such as the interlanguage theory that views the learner as a creator of rules and errors as evidence of positive

efforts by the learners to learn (Selinker, 1972). The new theories incited two general directions in SLA research: Rubin (1975) begins her work on raising awareness of learners' strategies of learning responsible for the language learning success, and Krashen (cf. 1981) proposes his influential theory which states that, for language acquisition to occur, learners need natural authentic communication, and not direct instruction. Due to this idea Krashen has often been recognized as the originator of the communicative approach to second language teaching. In addition to the above-mentioned approaches and methods, there is a host of other methods, often referred to as alternative, that have, in their own ways, influenced second language instruction. In general, language instruction today clearly reflects recognition and appreciation of the values and contributions of various methods and approaches.

In such an eclectic context, the cognitive theory of learning (i.e.a number of theories based on similar ideas and characterized by comparable conclusions) significantly influences the theory of second language learning and acquisition. Many theorists and researchers in the field of second language acquisition find that it is absolutely necessary to understand the interaction between language and cognition in order to explain the process of second language acquisition (e.g. Ellis, 2000; O'Malley & Chamot, 1996; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 2000).

The ardent 'advocates' of the extreme cognitive approach entirely discard the behaviourist tenets; whereas the less radical cognitivists agree that the behaviourist theory is able to explain some aspects of learning. Gagne´ (1977, cited in Stern, 1986), for example, distinguishes several varieties of learning: learning intellectual skills, concepts and rules; learning problem solving or cognitive strategies; verbal information learning; motor skill learning; and the learning of attitudes. His conceptualisation

of learning includes both behaviorist and cognitive principles and is reflected in his postulation that any concrete learning task, such as language learning, involves several or even all kinds of Learning.

Zarevski (1994) finds it rather unrealistic to expect that one coherent theory can explain the whole complexity of learning. This is why the explanations within one theory range from the point of conflict to the point of interaction. The great strength of the cognitive theory lies in its capacity to explain the development of the competence to use the second language knowledge. This may serve as a basis for further developments of a more comprehensive theory that would be able to fully account for second language acquisition.

Due to the influence exerted by the cognitive theory of learning, the concept of language learning strategy or learner strategy referring to what learners do in order to make their learning manageable and efficient has become widely recognized in the field of second language acquisition. An adequate explanation of how learning strategies contribute to the acquisition and attainment of the language has to account for a number of variables, from social and cultural learning context, covering varieties of factors influencing the use of strategies, to the language task.

This study focuses primarily upon vocabulary learning through the use of authentic material. It aims at exploring what lies behind this phenomenon and examines both its linguistic and psychological aspect. Although the approach taken is rooted in the cognitive theory of learning   we

also look at the inherent linguistic features of lexical items and the complexity of lexical forms and relationships (Chapter 1). By doing so, we acknowledge the potential impact that these of methods and instruments for assessing vocabulary learning strategies and of their advantages and drawbacks. Chapter 4 reports on three original studies on vocabulary learning strategies. The first one focuses on the problem of

research methodology, i.e. designing an adequate instrument for measuring the use of vocabulary learning strategies. The second study explores the latent affect of instruction on the development of vocabulary learning strategies by investigating the relationship between vocabulary teaching strategies employed by teachers and vocabulary learning strategies selected by their learners. The third study examines the differences in the use of vocabulary learning strategies that may be attributed to the target language being learnt. This cross linguistic study questions the universality and transferability of learning strategies and recognizes the role that the social learning context may play in strategy use. Finally, implications for practice and further research are discussed.

2.1.1 Linguistic Features of Lexical Items

Linguistic Features of Lexical Items

When it comes to linguistic features of lexical items, several issues need to be taken into consideration. To begin with, there is the problem of defining a 'word'. Intuitively, vocabulary could be defined as a 'dictionary' or a set of words. This general view is reflected in the lexicographical approach to the traditional way of listing words in a dictionary. However, it is obvious that for linguistics and L2 acquisition theory this interpretation is far too simplistic and limited. Linguists' attempts to specify what speakers of a language traditionally regard as a 'word' have resulted in so many formally different definitions of this term that their number alone suggests the complexity of the problem.

Firstly, according to the orthographic definition, a 'word' is '. . . 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' (Carter, 1992: 4). Its flaw is not only its limitation to the written language, but the fact that it is formalistic, inconsistent and incomplete

because it neglects differences in meaning and the issues of polysemy, homonymy, grammar functions, etc.

Secondly, based on semantics, a word can be defined as the smallest meaningful unit of language (Carter, 1992). As there is still no satisfactory definition of what 'meaning' is, i.e. what is the relationship between the linguistic sign and what it denotes outside the language, this definition is not reliable enough. Namely, some units of meaning consist of several words (e.g. bus conductor), for some the meaning cannot be determined without looking into their function in structuring and organizing information (e.g. if, but), and certain 'integral' parts of words cannot stand on their own even if we know their meaning (e.g. the prefix 're-' in retell).

Thirdly, by the same token, the definition that restricts a word to a single stressed syllable allows for many exceptions: words like if and but do not have a stress, and bus conductor would be regarded as a single word in this view.

Next, Bloomfield's definition, according to which a word is a minimal free form, i.e. the smallest form that has a meaning when standing on its own (Sˇkiljan, 1994), encompasses most of the categories and, without excluding further reduction of forms, provides a word with a degree of stability. Again, the problem of marginal cases arises and undermines every attempt to define a word in a formalistic way: firstly, items like a and the appear only in contextual relations to other words and secondly, idiomatic expressions, which consist of several orthographic words and cannot be reduced without radically changing their meaning (Carter,1992).

Furthermore, McCarthy (1994) claims that a word, as a free meaningful unit of language, must contain at least one potentially freestanding morpheme. From this view a conditional definition of a word may be

derived: a word is a combination of morphemes that comprise a firm unit suitable for the formation of higher level units (Sˇkiljan, 1994). In addition, in Carter's view (1992), one of the greatest problems of defining a word, along with the above-mentioned constraints, is the fact that words have different forms that would not intuitively be regarded as different words. Moreover, words can have the same form with completely different and unconnected meanings.

Finally, by way of attempting to solve this problem, a neutral term lexeme or lexical unit has been introduced. It is an abstract unit that includes various orthographic, phonological, grammatical and semantic features of a 'word'. Thus, this term covers inflections, polysemy, as well as multi-word items with different degrees of fixedness, such as compounds, phrasal verbs, and idioms. The difference between holistic multi-word items and other kinds of strings (i.e. multi-word inflectional forms, such as verb phrases are going or has been chosen) may be determined by applying the following criteria: institutionalization or lexicalization (the degree to which a multi-word item is considered as being a unit by the language community), fixedness (the degree to which a multi-word item is frozen as a sequence of words) and no compositionality (the degree to which a multi-word item cannot be interpreted on a word-by-word basis, but has a specialized unitary meaning) (cf. Moon, 1997: 44).

The second issue that needs to be discussed arises from the lack of an unambiguous and universally accepted definition of a word: vocabulary of any language consists of a wide range of lexical forms. Thus, many linguists and theorists of L2 acquisition agree that vocabulary is made up of a variety of forms, such as morphemes, both free and bound (e.g.laugh, or the prefix un-), their combinations, i.e. derivatives (e.g. laughter,

unbelievable), compounds (e.g. bus conductor), idioms, i.e. units that cannot be reduced or changed, and whose meaning cannot be retrieved from individual meanings of their components (e.g. to bite the dust), and other fixed expressions, such as binomials and trinomials (e.g. sick and tired; ready, willing and able), catchphrases (e.g. they don't make them like that any more), prefabricated routines or prefabs (e.g. if I were you), greetings (e.g. How do you do?) and proverbs (e.g. It never rains but it pours). This list of formal categories indicates a tremendous heterogeneity and a wide range of lexical items, but is by no means complete and absolute, nor are the categories strictly demarcated: their overlap is inevitable. It is this aspect that places vocabulary on the boundaries between morphology, syntax

and semantics.

2.1.2 Factors Affecting Vocabulary Learning

Despite the abundance of research on vocabulary acquisition that has been conducted by linguists, psychologists and theorists of L2 acquisition, there is still no generally accepted theory of vocabulary acquisition (for further discussion, see Meara, 1997). This fact may be partially attributed to the lack of cooperation or agreement among experts. On the one hand, psycholinguists have a particular interest in vocabulary development and exploration of the formal models of vocabulary acquisition, and ignore the L2 vocabulary literature because it is model free. Applied linguists, on the other hand, are mainly concerned with the descriptive aspects of vocabulary and do not draw on existing psycholinguistic models of bilingual lexicon even when this implies an immediate pedagogical significance. Differences in the research focus have caused the two fields to develop at different rates, which have led to an even larger gap between them. It is, therefore, extremely difficult to list all the significant factors and the ways in which they influence vocabulary acquisition.

2.1.2 Linguistic Features of Lexical Items

When it comes to linguistic features of lexical items, several issues need to be taken into consideration. To begin with, there is the problem of defining a 'word'. Intuitively, vocabulary could be defined as a 'dictionary' or a set of words. This general view is reflected in the lexicographical approach to the traditional way of listing words in a dictionary. However, it is obvious that for linguistics and L2 acquisition theory this interpretation is far too simplistic and limited. Linguists' attempts to specify what speakers of a language traditionally regard as a 'word' have resulted in so many formally different definitions of this term that their number alone suggests the complexity of the problem.

2.1.3 Importance of Vocabulary

The importance of vocabulary became clear during the past decade, when researchers have shown interest in searching vocabulary and its effect in language acquisition for second language (L2) learners (Allen, 1983). Thornbury (2002) argued that "for a long time, teaching approaches such as the direct method and audiolingualism gave greater priority to teaching of grammatical structure" (P. 14).

The focus on the grammatical structure was basically to enhance communication among students who learn English as a second or foreign language until the advert of communicative approach in 1970s which made a noticeable change to that view, then the focus shifted to vocabulary learning and scholars began to re-think the role of vocabulary in language communication instead (Thornbury 2002). Carter (1998) confirmed this point of view by stating that "since the late 1970s, however, there has been a revival of interest in vocabulary teaching" (P. 185).

2.1.4 Types of Vocabulary

The study of Vocabulary comprises different kinds of items, for instance, high frequency words, low frequency words, academic words and specialized vocabulary or technical words which represent the contents of specific domain that so called English for specific purpose (ESP).

Academic vocabulary is essential for students and scholars alike as it was stated by (Paguot, 2010: 26) "Because it causes major difficulties to students and scholars alike, academic discourse has become a major object of study in applied linguistics". Of course academic discourse is important, that is because most of the English textbooks are written in academic vocabulary. In order to understand those textbooks students need to acquire the most frequent words so as to gain the gist of reading academic textbooks.

2.1.5 High Frequency words

High frequency words are words that occur quite frequently in the language. They occur so regularly in daily conversation, that if students understand these words, they will be able to write and speak in comprehensible English (Nation, 2005). One of the important lists in the domain of vocabulary learning and teaching is Michael West's General Service List (GSL) of 1953 based on a corpus of 5 millions words most of them from the 1930s. "The list is considered outdated because it does not include some words of the 1980s word such as pilot, helicopter, television, or astronaut seem to have no entries in the list" (Carter, 2012: 198). Despite this fact GSL played an essential role in the development of academic textbooks designed especially for learners of EFL.

The high frequency words also include many content words, for example, government, forests, production, adoption, represent, boundary, etc. "The

classic list of high frequency words is Michael West's (1953) GSL of English Words which contains around 2,000 word families" (Nation, 2001: 16)

2.1.6 Low Frequency Words

Low frequency words are words that deal with academic studies, words that appear throughout all academic texts and courses, but not very often in day to day speech (Nation, 2005). He further argued that "people vocabulary grows partly as a result of their jobs, interests and specializations. Some low frequency words are simply, they are almost every language user rarely uses for example: eponymous, gibbons, bifurcate, plummet, poly" (P. 48)

Low frequency words may represent a rarely expressed idea, or similar in meaning to a much more frequent words or phrase, or they may be marked as being old fashioned, very formal, belonging to a particular dialect, or vulgar, or they may be foreign words. Low frequency words include all the words that are not high frequency words, not academic words and not technical words for a particular subject. They consist of technical words for other subject areas, proper nouns, words that almost got into the high frequency list, and words that are rarely used in language (Nation, 2001: 16).

2.1.7 Academic Vocabulary

The term Academic vocabulary often refers to a set of lexical items that are not core words but which are relatively frequent in academic texts (Paquot 2010). Academic vocabulary is important for learners of English for academic purpose for several reasons:

- Academic vocabulary is common to a wide range of academic text.

- Academic vocabulary is generally not as well known as technical vocabulary.
- Academic vocabulary is the kind of specialized vocabulary that an English teacher can usefully help learners with (Nation, 2001: 236)

Coxhead (2000) published Academic Word List (AWL) which was regarded as the most widely used today in language different domains, for instance, teaching, testing and the development of pedagogical material. "It is now included in vocabulary textbooks and computer-assisted language learning materials, and dictionaries" (p. 121)

Table 2.1 Composition of the Academic Corpus (Coxhead 2000: 220)

	Running words	**Texts**	**Subject areas**
Arts	883,214	122	education; history; psychology; politics; sociology
Commerce	879,547	107	accounting; economics; finance; industrial relations; management; marketing; public policy
Law	874,723	72	constitutional law; criminal law; family law and medico-legal; international law; pure commercial law; quasi-commercial law; rights and remedy
Science	875,846	113	biology; chemistry; computer science; geography; geology; mathematics; physics
Total	3,513,330	414	

2.1.8 Strategies of Vocabulary Learning

2.1.8.1 Sense Relation

Basically, vocabularies of a language are not isolated entities. They are naturally related to each other in different systems. (Morgan and Rinvolucri, 1986 and 2003) believe that vocabulary learning is a matter of realizing this relationship. A large number of words in any language share significantly different types of semantic relationships, and the mental lexicon are believed to function not in the form of word lists but as networks of these relationships. Due to this, vocabulary teaching in terms of these meaning relations is maintained to promote the storage, memory and retrieval of words for actual use. The typical relationships of words discussed below are: synonymy and antonym.

2.1.8.2 Synonymy

According to Gairns and Redman (1986), McCarthy (1990), and Carter and McCarthy, (1988).Synonymy is sameness of meaning between two or more words of the same grammatical category. Particularly as to Gairns and Redman, synonymy is a fast and effective technique of explaining the meaning of new words. Carter and McCarthy also argue that teachers and students employ synonymy as a convenient means of communicating the meaning of words because the words are highly interchangeable.

Synonymy as a teaching technique may enhance effective communication and prevents communication breakdown for the fact that it provides rich source of vocabulary to talk about specific issues. In the real situation, when a student fails to remember the required word during communication, either communication ceases to proceed or he/she strives for continuing the speech by paraphrasing, which Wallace (1982:9) refers to it as 'repair strategy', in a relatively understandable manner. But unable to retrieve the right word will put the learner in a state of stress and

confusion. As it was noted in chapter one, Wallace (1982) expressed this inability to remember words one needs to communicate his/her feelings as the most threatening experience to the learner.

Therefore, the argument is that the teaching of vocabulary has to be oriented in the way it enables the learner to have a rich and automatic access of words during actual communication (the road to fluency).

One of the ways, perhaps the most common one, to help this immediate memory of words, Schmitt (2000:132), is grouping words together based on meaning similarity. The underlining principle is that the previously learned vocabulary item which is already part of the learner's mental lexicon will serve as a hook to the fresh word so that it will not be forgotten. Newly learned words lacking this connection, however, are prone to forgetting.

In spite of the prime importance of organizing lexical items based on sameness of meaning (synonymy) has some limitations and a caution has to be made against. It is certain that pairs or group of words such as: begin/start, below /beneath/ underneath, toilet/ lavatory, to mention some, are good examples for synonymy. However, linguists like Carter and McCarthy (1988) believe that absolute interchangeability of two synonymous words is rare. For example, when it is right to say: 'The baby began /started crying', it is unacceptable to say: 'I couldn't begin my car; battery is low'. The implication is that two words with the same meaning cannot be interchangeably used in every context. Hence, students too should be aware of this limitation.

2.1.8.3 Antonym

Antonym, defined as oppositeness of words, is another way of organizing vocabulary items. The meaning of words in addition to sameness of meaning can be determined by other words with opposite sense, in this

regard, Nation (2001), argues that words can be organized in to a specific lexical category by the semantic relation of antonym.

 It has to be stressed that the objective of treating words under any organizing principle is to promote the learners' understanding of meaning and memory of words better and easier. The study of isolated lists of words puts the learner into a more mechanical and artificial situation where memory is hardly easy. However, when pairs of words such as: hot/cold, tall/short, sweet/sour,/sad/happy, thin/fat, etc. are presented, the learner would be benefited in that an attempt to recall one side will result in the memorization of the other.

In dealing with pairs of words with opposite meaning, there must be a good deal of attention to the point of degrees of oppositeness. In this connection, linguists studied four classes of antonym: gradable, upgradable, conversances and directionality (see Carter and McCarty 1988:4-23).

Gradable antonyms (e.g. hot/cold and big /small) are characterized by having intermediate terms in between and in fact outside the given pairs such as cool/warm and tiny/huge respectively. Therefore, oppositeness can be relative and context dependent from this point of view. However, unreadable antonyms, also called complementariness, truly represent oppositeness in that no middle ground is exhibited. For example, antonyms like dead /alive, male/ female, man/woman reflect that if one is true the other is absolutely false; they are mutually exclusive. Conversances', on the other hand, refers to the two way relationship between words as in parent/child, husband/wife, buy /sell, etc. There is a reciprocal or reversible relationship in such antonyms. The last type of oppositeness, directionality, exists between in pairs such as: up/down, arrive/depart, come/go, take/ bring in which case a sort of direction is embedded.

In short, the ability to realize and determine the degree of oppositeness between words would help the learner to be more concerned in investigating sense relation.

2.1.8.4 Hyponymy

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: animal/ dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/okra flowers/rose, tree/banyan. The concept of 'inclusion' involved in this relationship is the idea that if an object is a rose, then it is necessarily a flower, so the meaning of flower is included in the meaning of rose. Or, rose is the hyponym of flower.

2.1.9 Incidental Vocabulary Learning

Schmitt (2010: 29) defined incidental learning as "learning which accrues as a by-product of language usage, without the intended purpose of learning a particular linguistic feature". He further reported that "any vocabulary learned while reading a novel simply for pleasure, with no stated goal of learning new lexical items is considered as an example of incidental vocabulary learning". With regard to incidental learning, it has been defined as the learning without intent to learn, or as the learning of one thing, e.g. vocabulary, when the learner's primary objective is to do something else. Before 1940s, the primary emphasis of strategy research had been on intentional rather than incidental learning. It was usually assumed that intentional learning was importance in learning. From 1980s onward researchers began to realize the importance of incidental learning since most human learning can reasonably be regarded as incidental, the source of especially important and realistic data concerning the normal functioning of memory processes (Coady, 2001).

2.1.9.1 Receptive and Productive Vocabulary

Productive vocabulary is the set of words that an individual can use when writing or speaking. They are words that are well-known, familiar, and

used frequently. On the other hand, receptive, or recognition vocabulary is the set of words for which an individual can assign meanings when listening or reading (Hiebert and Kamil, 2005: 3)

According to Gairn & Redman (1986) "receptive vocabulary means language items which can be recognized and perceived within the context of reading and listening material, whereas productive vocabulary is language items which the learner can recall and use appropriately in speech and writing. The two terms are often referred to as passive and active vocabulary respectively" (P. 73).

Receptive vocabulary knowledge can be conceptualized as the comprehension ability in reading and listening, and productive vocabulary knowledge can be conceptualized as the ability to apply the word appropriately to fit into a context in writing and speaking (Zhong, 2012). Nation (2001) argued that "receptive carries the idea that we receive language input from others through listening or reading and try to comprehend it. While productive carries the idea that we produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others". (P. 37). The transition of receptive items to productive items is a gradual process, and that repetition, hearing or reading the item over a period of time is usually the most common way in which transition takes place (Gairn & Redman 1986).

There is much argument about the dichotomy of the two terms receptive and productive vocabulary concerning the gap between receptive and productive and which one precedes the other. One group of researchers estimates the receptive vocabulary to be double the size of productive vocabulary, another say that the distance between reception and

production diminishes with the development of knowledge, and a third group does not find the gap that significant at all (Pavicic, 2008).

Nation made the following table to show what is involved in a word in terms of receptive and productive vocabulary:

Table 2.2 what is involved in knowing a word (Nation's 2001:27)

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

Keys: R = Receptive, P = Product

2.1.10 Vocabulary Knowledge

The concept of 'depth' in vocabulary research is defined in general terms as 'the quality of the learner's vocabulary knowledge' Read (1993, as cited in Hua Zhong, 2012). Zhong further explain that "acknowledging the limited information about learners' vocabulary knowledge that measures of vocabulary size could reveal, researchers began investigating further the depth of vocabulary knowledge in terms of receptive and productive use". He further added that "the concept of 'depth' in vocabulary research is defined in general terms as 'the quality of the learner's vocabulary knowledge'. There are two approaches to under-multidimensional vocabulary knowledge standing the quality of vocabulary knowledge, one of which is the strength and breadth of the lexicon network and the other being the multi-aspect knowledge of a word".

Understanding the quality of vocabulary knowledge depends on two dimensions. The first, is the strength and breadth of vocabulary and the second, is the multi-aspect knowledge of a word (Hirsh, 2012: 29).

2.1.10.1 Lexical Space

Lexical space is metaphorically used to denote the way words are learned and stored. Lexical space is actually three dimensional spaces where each dimension represents an aspect of knowing a word (Daller, Millton, Treffers-daller, 2007: 7). The three dimensions are; lexical breadth, lexical depth, and fluency as shown below.

Fluency

Breadth ←

↓
Depth
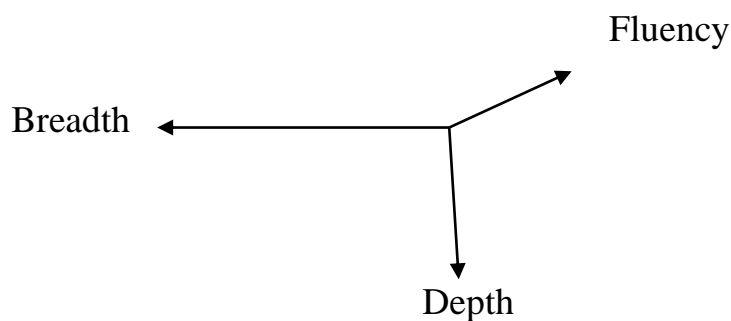
Figure (1): lexical space: dimensions of word knowledge and ability

(Adapted from Daller, Milton & Treffers-Daller, 2007: 8)

These three axes define the lexical space learner's vocabulary can be placed within this space. The above Figure (1) shows lexical space which involves:

2.1.10.2 Lexical Depth

The vertical axis represents the concept of lexical depth, which means how much the learner knows about the word knowledge. This would include the elements of concepts and referents, associations, grammatical functions, collocation and constraints on use shown in Nation's table.

Depth is generally used to refer to a wide variety of word characteristics, including the shades of meaning a word may carry, its connotations and collocations, the phrases and patterns of use it is likely to be found in, and the associations the word creates in the mind of the user (Milton, 2009: 149). All of these imply that a word will be linked to other words and ideas in the lexicon and, provided these links are correct and appropriate, enable learners to use their chosen words appropriately and well. At the heart of this characterization of vocabulary depth is an assumption that the foreign language lexicon will not have so many links, nor links that are correct and appropriate, and that it will be fundamentally different from the first language (L1) lexicon.

2.1.10.3 Lexical Breadth

The horizontal axis on the other hand, represents the concept of lexical breadth which is intended to define the number of words a learner knows regardless of how well s/he knows them. This would include the 'form' and the 'form and meaning' element of Nation's table. Milton, (2009: 71) reported that "Some of the best-researched tests of vocabulary are checklist tests of passive vocabulary recognition, designed to give an estimate of vocabulary breadth or size".

Some learners may have large vocabularies but are very limited in speech. Such learners should be placed within breath axis but less far along the fluency or depth. Other learners posses few vocabulary resources but considerable fluency in calling these to mind and using them in communication, such learners would be placed far along the breadth axis but further along the fluency axis (Milton, et al, 2007: 9).

2.1.10.4 Lexical Fluency

The fluency axis intended to define how readily and automatically a learner is able to use the words they know and the information they have on the use of these words. Some studies proved that learners increased their speed of lexical access and these increases can be correlated with aspects of productive oral performance (Milton, 2009: 145). For example, lexical access speed correlated with the proportion of filler-free speech, learners become less reliant on fillers and require fewer hesitations. It has been argued (Hilton, 2008 cited in Milton, 2009) that these hesitations, as learners search their memories for the words they need to express meaning, are the major stumbling block to communication in a foreign language. And it is vocabulary shortcomings, rather than lack of grammatical control, that create these hesitations Milton (ibid)

2.1.11 Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

The term strategy comes from the ancient Greek term *strategia* meaning generalship or the art of war (Oxford, 1990: 7). In Educational context, the strategy concept has been applied to clearly non-adversarial situation where it has come to mean a plan, step, or conscious action toward achievement of an objective.

Oxford, (1992: 18) came up with another definition of language learning strategies as "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills". She further divided learning strategies into six main categories of L2 Learning Strategies, these six strategies fall under two major classifications, direct and indirect. Memory, the cognitive, and compensation under the direct, meta-conitive, affective and social under the indirect class**.**

```
                                                    i. Memory strategies
                              Direct Strategies <─── ii. Cognitive strategies
                             /                       iii Compensation strategies
Learning strategies <
                             \                       i. Meta-cognitive strategies
                              Indirect strategies <── ii. Affective strategies
                                                     iii Social Strategies
```
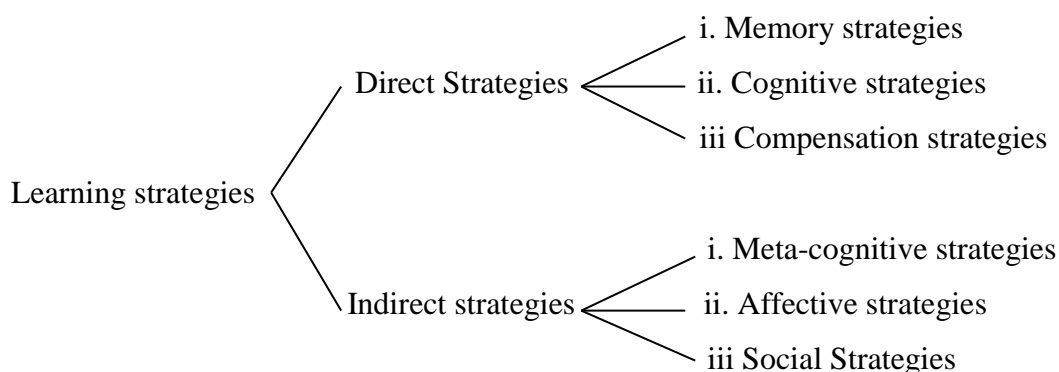
Figure: 2.1. Diagram of the strategy system. (Source: Oxford, 1992: 16)

2.1.11.1 Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language. Such strategies are varied a lot, ranging from repeating to analyzing expressions to summarizing. Despite their variation, cognitive strategies are unified by a common function: manipulation or transformation of the

target language by the learner. Cognitive strategies are found to be the most popular language strategies with language learners. Cognitive strategies Enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, etc. (Oxford, 1990: 43)

2.1.11.2 Metacognitive strategies

Meta-cognitive "beyond the cognitive" strategies help learner to regulate their own cognition and to focus, play, evaluate their progress as they move toward communicative competence (Oxford, 1992: 8). She further explained that metacognitive "employed for managing the learning process overall (e.g., identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy"

2.1.11.3 Memory-related strategies

Enable learners to learn and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard)

2.1.11.4 Compensatory strategies

Compensation strategies enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension strategies or production despite limitation in knowledge. Compensation strategies are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and especially of vocabulary (Oxford, 1990: 45). Another role of compensation is that it Enable learner make up

for missing knowledge (e.g., guessing from the context in listening and reading; using synonyms and "talking around" the missing word to aid speaking and writing; and strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words)

2.1.11.5 Affective strategies

Affective strategies develop the self-confidence and perseverance needed for learners to involve themselves actively in language learning, a requirement for attaining communicative competence (Oxford, 1992). Affective strategies such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk. Over time there might be less need for affective strategies as learners' progress to higher proficiency (ibid).

2.1.11.6 Social strategies

Social strategies enable learners work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. (e.g., asking questions to get verification, asking for clarification of a confusing point, asking for help in doing a language task, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms). Social strategies provide increase interaction and more emphatic understanding, two qualities to reach communicative competence (Oxford, 1992: 8).

2.1.12 Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

With regard to language learning strategies, Oxford (1990:16) established two general categories namely, direct and indirect strategies each consisting of three subclasses. Direct strategies are composed of memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies in turn comprised of met-a cognitive, affective and social strategy. This is a

comprehensive classification suitable for language learning in general for which strategies to sustain communication

(Compensation strategies) are extremely useful.

However, Schmitt (1997 and 2000), set up five classes of vocabulary learning strategies under two principles: strategies used to initially discover meanings of words (determination and social strategies) and strategies used for remembering words once meaning is recognized (memory, cognitive and met-a cognitive strategies).

A: Determination Strategies (Learning New Vocabulary)

No doubt that learner is adopting different and varied strategies and procedures towards learning new vocabulary items.

As to Nation (2001), although productive skills (writing and speaking) require the knowledge of several aspects of a word, meaning is the principal a spec that learners are most concerned with. Hence, to learn the meaning of a word for the first time, learners use various strategies. Some especially advanced learners analyze affixes and roots (word formation clue), some others go for contextual clues to work out meaning (guessing from context) and still others lookup a word in a dictionary for the correct meaning. Of course, there are more ambitious and determined learners who are able to make use of the combination of all instead of recourse to another person's help.

Guessing from context (incidental learning) and dictionary use (intentional learning) strategies are particularly relevant to this study and are discussed in some techniques which are adopted by learners in learning new words, details as follow

a. Guessing Words in a context

It has been suggested that learning new vocabulary through context should be employed as the main approach to enhancing new vocabulary knowledge.

In (1994) since context is what determine the meaning of word; context guessing may be the most effective strategy for students to learn vocabulary.

Teachers need to encourage learners to complementarily do a substantial amount of reading and develop this skill in guessing form context. According to (Nation & Coady, 1988; Mikulecky 1990 and Brown 1994) learners success in guessing can be affected by several factors such as the number of times they encounter a word and the variety of contexts where it is embedded. It is important to mention here that "inferring" is another way of getting the meaning from a context and it implies drawing of a word the surrounding spoken or written lexis...

b. Word Roots and Affixes

It is very important that learners should have knowledge of affixes and roots of word in order to predict the meaning of the unknown vocabulary.

Through analyzing words into recognizable roots and affixes, classroom teachers can demonstrate that each isolated element of words can provide informational clues (Brown, 1994, Aebersold & Field 1997).

The most important affixes are claimed to the combining forms, prefixes, or suffixes that carry single invariant meaning.

For example learners can be given word such as "production" and they have to break it into parts. They can either rewrite the word in ports 'production' or underline the words show the parts pro/duct/ion.

Nation and Coady, (1988), strongly insist that the use of word form should be delayed until the available context clues have been fully employed.

According to Al-Mutawa & Kailani, (1993:51) knowledge of affixes will help them to**:**

  a. Drive new words.

  b. Increase their ability to utilize vocabulary system.

  c. Grapple with derived words when they are presented for the first time.

  d. Understand meaning of other related words if their roots are familiar to them.

  e. Be of the correlation between various, affixes and their functions and meaning.

  f. Improve their spelling skill especially in affixes.

c. Word Lists

Using word lists is one of the most common strategies of teaching new vocabulary. Here learners were presented a list of words in isolation with short definition or synonyms and directed to demonstrate their knowledge of the word on various, assessments. However, too much concentration of on using word lists may impede the studies form contextualizing and guessing meaning.

Suaffar (1988) stated that using a word list could prohibit students from doing contextual guessing while context training enhances student's success in interpreting of vocabulary encountered in texts.

d. Using a Dictionary

Using a dictionary is one of the most important ways of learning the meaning of a new word. Inferring the meaning of unknown words from a context is not is always easy and especially when unknown vocabulary becoming an impediment to reading comprehension, students should be allows consulting a dictionary.

Summers, (1988) claims that dictionary use plays an important role in EFL learning and that foreign language teacher should encourage

students to make use of the considerable information in their dictionaries. However, presently there is a prevailing view that EFL teachers discourage students from consulting dictionaries extensively because that can lead to word for word reading. It is also interfere with the flow of concentration and is de contextualized (Fwaffar 1988, Nist and Olejnik 1995).

It is notable that dictionary value is reported to vary depending on student's age, level and etc.

e. Mnemonic

Mnemonic is also called "the key word technique" It is used when learners meet an unknown word and discover its meaning; they may wish to make an extra effort to remember the word. In this technique the learners create an unusual association between the word form and its meaning.

For example, let us imagine that an Indonesian learner of English wants to remember the meaning of the English word parrot. Nation (1999:167) although the key word technique.

Seems rather bizarre at first sight, its effectiveness lies in its association of both formal and meaning elements of the new rod by the use of aural and imagery clues. This strategy is also called the "clue word" strategy because the learner uses a clue to remember the meaning of a word.

B: Social Strategies

Social strategies refer to the interaction of the language learner with his/her classmates and teachers to obtain word meaning. Language being a social behavior requires two or more people to communicate and communication is a function of the active participation of the communicators. Language learners very often use social strategies namely, asking questions, cooperating with peers, interacting with more

proficient users of the language and native speakers when the opportunity is obtained (Oxford 1990 and Schmitt 2000).

Informants usually explain meanings in terms of synonymy, paraphrase or L1 translation. Social strategies, for example, discussing word meaning in a group, are important not only to determine initial meaning but also to consolidate word knowledge (Schmitt 2000).

C: Memory Strategies

As the name explains, memory strategies are used to support recalling and retrieving words once they are learned. One of the major problems FL learners encounter, Gu (2003), is how to make words accessible to memory after they are learned. Likewise, Oxford (1990:39) painfully explains:

"Though some teachers think vocabulary learning is easy, language learners have a serious problem remembering the large amounts of vocabulary necessary to achieve fluency." Memory strategies, therefore, assist learners to ease this problem.

a. Semantic Mapping

Semantic mapping strategies range from classifying words in terms of parts

Of speech (nouns, verbs, and adjectives), sense relationship (synonymy, a antonym, and hyponymy), and connecting new vocabulary to concepts in memory through visual images to building complex vocabulary network.

These are strategies of meaningful manipulation of words and reflect how words can relate to each other in various ways (see Oxford 1990:39-40 for details).

D. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are particularly fundamental for language learners because practice and manipulation of the target language, typical

language learning principles, are the major components of these strategies (Oxford 1990, Schmitt & McCarthy 1997)

a. Repetition

Repetition, a form of practice, is saying or writing new words and their meanings again and again until they are easily remembered. Studies identified, (Nation, 2001:76), that most of the forgetting occurs immediately new information is learned and the rate of forgetting decreases as time passes on. Hence, it is recommended that repetition should occur as soon as words are first learned then after it can be spaced further. Moreover, research with varying degree also shows that on average 5-7 repetitions are needed to consolidate words into long term memory (Crother & Suppes1967 in Gu 2003 and Nation 2001, Kachroo 1962 and Tinkham 1993 in Nation 2001).

The notion of repetition entails the importance of recycling vocabulary items in textbooks and classroom instructions. Recycling previously met words helps to consolidate them in long term memory. However, Hunt and Beglar (2005) explain that because of time limitation to cover a large portion of materials, words learned at the beginning are not systematically recycled.

b. Note Taking

Note taking is an act of processing or manipulation of vocabulary items to facilitate conceptualization and organization into a mental lexicon. When learners meet a new word; they take notes about it in their vocabulary notebook or simply write along the margins or between the lines. McCarthy, (1990) writes that learners differ in what they do in note-taking, when the take notes and how they take notes. Among other things, these differences may distinguish the good from the poor learner. Similarly, Sanaoui, (1995) and Hunt and Beglar (2005), identified

learners as structured and unstructured based on the way they approach vocabulary learning.

Unstructured learners were found to be dependent on class materials, took less initiative and did less regular review. Structured learners, on the other hand, were better organized and systematically carried out independent study, self-initiated activities, regularly recorded new words in notebooks and reviewed them and seek for opportunities to use previously learned words. As a result, it can be recommended that learners have to use efficiently the different learning strategies in general and cognitive strategies in particular to improve their word knowledge and language proficiency as well.

E. Meta cognitive Strategy

Met-a cognitive strategy, Oxford (1990:81), "help learners to regulate their own cognition and to focus, plan, and evaluate their progress." To use met-a cognitive strategies demands learners to be more conscious and ambitious of their learning. Schmitt (2000:136) also writes these strategies "involve a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring or evaluating the best ways to study."

Effective learners are experts of implementing met-a cognitive strategies; they know how to access to rich vocabulary input, decide which methods are the most efficient to follow, test their progress and determine which words are worth studying and which are not. Besides they record words which they have chosen to study. In this connection, Chamot and O'Malley, (1994) also maintain that more proficient learners use a great variety of strategies and often switch from one strategy to another when necessary. Moreover, learners who intelligently decide when to make guessing from context, refer to a dictionary or negotiate with other people

or combine all of these are far more successful in enriching their word power and improve their language proficiency than their counter parts.

 To sum up, in this chapter an exploration has been made on the common techniques of vocabulary teaching as prescribed by different linguists, researchers and language experts. In addition, the complex nature of vocabulary learning as well as the different aspects of word knowledge which contribute to that complexity is summarized. More importantly because much of the responsibility of learning lies on the shoulder of learners, basic vocabulary learning strategies commonly used by learners across the world are reviewed. The extent to which these techniques of teaching and strategies of learning are reflected in the subject schools of this study will be presented in chapter four. The following chapter focuses on the description of the population of the study, instruments and methods employed to gather the required data.

2.1.12.1 Memory in Vocabulary Learning Process

As Spielberger suggests memory is very complex. It consists of three main processes: encoding, storage and retrieval, which you can see in the following picture (Foster, 2008:25).

> *"Memory is complex; we can remember toys that we wanted as children, yet we sometimes cannot remember what we did the weekend before last . . . Yet it has been estimated that over the course of a lifetime, the average human stores approximately 500 times the amount of information that is in a full set of encyclopedias."*
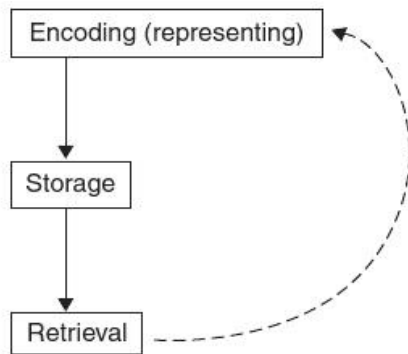
Figure: (3) Three main memory processes Stages

Encoding is the input, which can be acquired in many ways. Storage is the ability to retain the information and concerning long-term memory, to store it for a significant period of time. The last step is the retrieval, which guarantees the access to the stored information. (Foster, 2008:25)

These steps are parts of short as well as long term memory. Short-term memory has a limited capacity and it holds information for immediate use, while long-term memory can store information for very long periods of time.

In the 1960s the division of memory was based on processing of information. A multi-store mode l6 of memory processing was completed and described by Atkinson and Shiffrin in 1968.
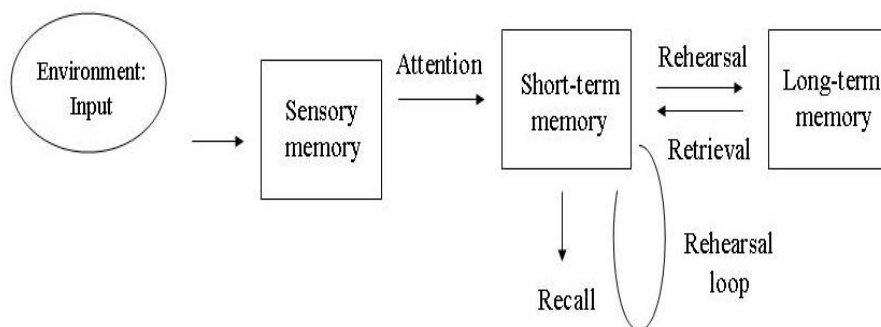
Figure: (12) A multi-store model of memory processing

The input for the sensory memory are senses and it does not last long, usually less than a second. When the information is given a bit more attention than just registering something through senses, then it reaches the short-term memory. The encoding is usually auditory and lasts few seconds. The short-term memory can hold 7 +/- 2 items. Then when the piece of information is given even more attention and is being rehearsed through the rehearsal loop, it can get into long-term memory. The long-term memory is unlimited and the information can last in it for years.

As it was already mentioned, encoding can be acoustic, visual or semantic. Acoustic and visual encoding is mainly related to short-term memory, while long-term memory is encoded semantically. (Spielberger, 2004: 57).

Short-term memory or working memory as some scholars call it, is the ability to remember one or more particular pieces of information and then to use them in a short period of time.

A. Short-term Memory and Working Memory

"To understand this sentence, you need to remember the beginning until you get to the end,"(Baddeley, 1999:15). The capability of managing to remember the beginning of the sentence till the very end is what is guaranteed by short-term memory or also working memory. This competence is not only applicable to utterances concerning aural memory; however, it may also be employed while reading. This kind of memory enables the reader to get the whole message – it stores the beginning of the sentence till the end in order to understand the whole sentence. Only then the particular parts can be forgotten.

This is how the language comprehension and also arithmetic work. Baddeley uses a multiplication as an example. In order to multiply 23 by 7, it is necessary to remember the numbers, the sub counts and then

adding the sub counts together. When the final result is reached, the sub counts can be forgotten. "Short-term memory or working memory is the name given to this system, or, perhaps more appropriately, set of systems. Information that is essential for a brief period of time is very temporarily stored, and then becomes quite irrelevant." (Baddeley, 1999: 15-16)

There are various theories that describe the relationship between short-term memory and working memory in a different way. Some scholars, such as Baddeley, do not distinguish these two concepts; however, there are also scholars who claim that these are two concepts with certain differences. According to Engle (2003) short-term memory has the ability to remember number sequences, do the basic calculations or to remember certain words or letters for the immediate use. These pieces of information are not stored according to any particular rule; they are remembered, retrieved when necessary and then forgotten. On the other hand, working memory is the executive memory function which enables the learner to store certain information in a particular way, being able to omit the useless pieces of information and then to keep the piece of information in an active state in order to use it immediately. Some scholars even describe the process in which information is being transferred from short-term memory to working memory. On the other hand, both these types of memory have a similar life span, which lasts only a few seconds. The recall paradigm says that the last items presented are better recalled than those that appeared at the beginning when the recollection takes place immediately. "However, even a few seconds of interpolated material is enough to wipe out decency." (Baddeley, 1999:42),

Short-term memory or working memory does not have such an influence on vocabulary learning. Some items are remembered more easily than others, for instance some words can become immediately memorable

because of their uniqueness in the written form or in pronunciation. Also the last words on a list or words that were heard last are usually remembered easily. However, this affects only a small number of words that should be remembered. Then for the word items that are not immediately remembered, the key lies in the rehearsal of the studied items and their storage in long-term memory in order to be able to use them in few minutes, days or years.

Remembering of the whole sentences was not the aim of the second part of the research. The students were asked to remember the target words and phrases in which the words were used; however, the provided text served only as a necessary context. Furthermore, the input was only in the written form. In the research the main focus was on memory and how much it is affected by time. However, the differences observed between two groups, one practicing the vocabulary regularly and the other one with no rehearsal, were in terms of days and weeks, not seconds.

B. Long-term Memory

"By contrast with the acoustic representation of information in the short-term store, information in long-term memory is thought to be stored primarily in terms of meaning of the information". (Foster, 2008:30), Long-term memory is therefore mainly based on the semantic encoding. For instance, when asked to remember an article, consisting of few sentences, people are not usually able to repeat all sentences word by word, however, they can tell the main message the article carried. As for the rehearsal, by repetition the transfer from short-term memory to long-term memory is achieved. Also important pieces of information are stored in long-term memory, such as PIN for a credit card or a new telephone number.

The multi-store memory model by Atkinson and Shiffrin, (1968) suggests that a piece of information is transferred into long-term memory by

passing through short-term memory and frequent rehearsal. However, this assumption was disconfirmed by several facts. First, there were some key clinical cases, brain-injured patients, who had severely damaged short-term memory. However, the impairment of short-term memory did not affect long-term memory, which stayed undamaged. Second, the presumption that a frequent encounter of a certain piece of information will ensure a transfer into long-term memory also does not always work. Foster (2008) uses the example of people handling coins on a daily basis and still they are not able to recall details on the faces of the coins. However, in this case the question is if there really was any rehearsal at all, because the fact that people handle coins every day does not necessarily mean they look at them and focus on what is drawn on them. In vocabulary learning the focus is one of the key elements, because a mere encounter of new words is not enough to transfer them into long-term memory. Also the number of encounters is important. Apart from a few words that learners remember more easily due to, for instance, their uniqueness or a personal connection to their everyday life, students need to pay attention to the word's meaning, form and function in a sentence.

2.1.12.2 Memorization

Memorization is special kink of remembering .It's what is usually called "committing to memory" or remembering merely by heart". Without practice memorization becomes merely an accumulation of works. Unfortunately, much of what passes for learning in schools is of this kind. There are certain principles which, if followed make memorization easier.

A. Principles of memorization

   a. Learning whole

If the learner sees what he or she is trying to memorize as a meaningful whole, the task of learning is male easier, (Karland, Wallace, 1976).

b. Pattern Learning

Pattern is essentially any arrangement that is orderly.

If material that is to be memorized is arranged in some orderly way that gives it form or makes it more understood; it is easy to remember. This can be seen in the pattern made by setting our learning / teaching material under headings and sub-headings or in the patterns associations where by teachers link the thing to be remembered with some easily remembered object.

But the most important thing to remember is that teachers must use memorization for the right purpose. It is appropriate for learning factors, but when it is used as an alternative for understanding how thing are caused or why they happen it worthy inappropriate.

c. Mnemonic

They are artificial devices for helping people to remember details in a quick orderly way. They are also useful for examinations where the reduce the memory work load of students and give confident to those who may be afraid of omitting essential information under the stress conditions that examination create. It is true that there are artificially structured. They discourage remembering as a result of meaning full understanding, but the need to assemble and organize material to be remembered can generate profound and useful though and it can also arouse interest and pleasure.

B. The role of Memory in Vocabulary Learning

The role of memory is crucial in any kind of learning and vocabulary learning is no exception. According to above- described continuum,

learning of lexical items is not linear. Learners, without fail, forget some components of knowledge in both long term and short term memory forgetting tasks placed in a similar way when obtaining new information most of it is forgotten immediately, after which the process of forgetting slows down. On the basis of available research results, Thornbury, (2002) has completed a list of principles that facilitate the transfer of the learning materials into the long term memory. This include e multiple encounters with a lexical items, preferable at spaced intervals, retrieval and use of lexical items, cognitive depth (Cf. Schneiader et al, 2002), affective depth, personalization, imaging, use of mnemonics for unconscious attention that is necessary to remember a lexical item.

C. Bloom's Taxonomy and Thinking

Bloom's taxonomy is a classification of thinking according to six cognitive levels. The original concept of Bloom's taxonomy was published in 1956. The original hierarchy of thinking levels was the following (from the lowest level): knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. This version was, however, changed under the leadership of Bloom's former student Lorin. W. Anderson.

Figure: (13) Bloom's taxonomy (published in 2001)

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This new version continues to deepen the understanding of various levels of thinking. It consists of six hierarchical categories where every level assumes an achievement of skills and abilities from a prior level before proceeding to another one. However, the particular levels do not have to be acquired only in the suggested order. This taxonomy is commonly used in lesson planning; however, in this case it was used to create a short-term test which would show how well the students learnt the required vocabulary during the learning part of the research. For this purpose the revised Bloom's taxonomy was used.

In the learning part, the main focus was on the three low thinking levels of the taxonomy which consists of remembering, understanding and applying, therefore the short-term test consisted mostly of exercises that tested these skills.

> *Remembering knowledge is essential for meaningful learning and problem solving as that knowledge is used in more complex tasks. For example, knowledge of the correct spelling of common English words . . . is necessary if the student is to master writing an essay (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001:66).*

The remembering level therefore cannot be omitted or taken for granted, since other levels are dependent on it. The second level, understanding, is the largest category if transfer-based educational objectives are emphasized in schools. The students are expected to understand, however, that the process of understanding is again based on their prior knowledge. The basic understanding is based on conceptual knowledge. (Anderson and Krathwohl. 2001: 70). The remembering and understanding levels can be covered mainly by exercises focusing on translating from L1 to L2 and vice versa, matching words with either

pictures or definitions and naming things in the pictures. Applying involves using procedures to perform exercises or solve problems.

When the students are familiar with the task and are able to manage the exercise without many problems, sometimes even mechanically. However, when the task is new, the students need to integrate the procedural knowledge and through the prior knowledge they have to devise a new strategy to deal with such an exercise. In the short-term test, most of the exercises were of a typical kind and therefore, not much thought had to be given to the exercise structure. Concerning the knowledge being applied in this stage   the students' task is to complete a short text with missing words (first letters given).

The high thinking levels are analyzing, evaluating and creating. "Analyze involves breaking material into its constituent parts and determining how the parts are related to one another and to an overall structure" (Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001: 79).

The evaluating, making judgments' based on criteria and standards, in this stage   the students' task is to decide if a statement is true or false. At this point the students needed to apply the low thinking skills, such as remembering the words' meanings and also to judge and evaluate if the whole sentence makes sense. The last level, creating, is put at the very top of the hierarchy. According to Anderson and Krathwohl, (2001)

> *Create involves putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole. Objectives classified as Create have students make a new product by mentally reorganizing some elements or parts into a pattern or structure not clearly present before. (p. 84)*

This stage is the most difficult to achieve, the students will be asked to write sentences using given words. They are about to combine the knowledge of the words as well as their function in the sentence

D. How are words stored?

> *Most of us use [words] all the time without thinking. Yet words are supremely important. Everyone needs them, and a normal person probably comes into contact with thousands in the course of a normal day. We would be quite lost without them . . . (Aitchison, 2003:3)*

As Aitchison mentions, everyone is surrounded by thousands of words and no one can imagine living without t+-hem. An educated adult English native speaker understands and potentially uses at least 50,000 words. Also native speakers can recognize a word in their mother tongue in 200 milliseconds or less from the beginning of the words that is being uttered. So where is this huge number of words stored? How is it stored when it is possible to recognize a word so quickly? It is obvious that the "mental lexicon", sometimes called a "mental dictionary," is not organized alphabetically. If this was true, speakers, who cannot express themselves and cannot come up with the best fitting word, would replace it with a word close according to the alphabet. However, this is not what happens when someone cannot find the right word during a speech. As Aitchison, (2003) concludes, "the large number of words known by humans and the speed with which they can be located point to the existence of a highly organized mental lexicon" (p. 9). However, there is a discussion about what information mental lexicon carries.

Some linguists claim that syntax, a combination and a choice of words, is more important than words themselves. Therefore, according to them mental lexicon is "unquestionably finite that is to say, the lexical items of

a language can indeed be presented as a mere list" (Kempson, 1977: 102). This concept is also supported by Bloomfield, who claimed that "the lexicon is really an appendix of the grammar, a list of basic irregularities" (Bloomfield, 1933:274). However, nowadays scholars try to eliminate this strict division of vocabulary and grammar.

It is not that easy to draw a line between a mere list of words and the ability to combine them. If the speaker lacks a certain expression or a particular form of a word, syntax is useless. Therefore, mental lexicon does not only consist of a list of lexical items organized in a specific order which helps the reader to retrieve a word as quickly as possible. The lexical items in the mind carry much more than a lexical item in a dictionary. They include connotations and carry certain links to other words used often with these items. This attitude could be supported by the fact that in particular situations the speaker uses a word in a new way, which cannot be described as a fixed expression, phrase or a collocation; and the hearer understands the meaning without a further explanation. There is a nice example of how it works by H. H. Clark (1996). When a caller asks an American telephone operator about long-distance charges and is told: "You'll have to ask a zero," there is no doubt about what the caller should do. In this case the reply "ask a zero" should be interpreted as "dial zero and ask the person operating there" (Clark &Gerrig, 1983). Surely, the phrase "ask a zero" is not commonly used and the caller could have heard it for the first time, however, the ability to reapply certain words in a new way is a remarkable ability of mental lexicon.

The concept of mental lexicon is closely connected to memory. There were and still are many opinions and ideas how human mind works and how the memories are organized. It has been described by many metaphors. First ideas suggested that memory is similar to a birdcage, a treasure house or an attic. This opinion changed mainly because it

became apparent that the memories are stored in some particular order, not just "flying around" in a birdcage. At this moment a library metaphor came to existence. It suggests that there is some kind of order.

Concerning the mental lexicon there are similar metaphors that try to describe the way the words are stored. Similarly, there is some kind of order which guarantees that speakers find the right words to express themselves and hearers recognize words and their meaning when they hear them. As we live in an era full of technology, one of the most recent ideas about mental lexicon is its resemblance to a computer. Its complexity and ability to work on many levels and deal with several things at the same time really seem like the mental lexicon when processing. However, scholars cannot look inside learner's mind and see how particular words are being stored; they can only observe and draw tentative conclusions.

According to Henning, (1973) the ways how to store vocabulary depend on the level of a learner's proficiency (as cited in Nation, 1990:33). Henning found that learners at a low level of proficiency stored vocabulary according to the sounds of the words. For instance learner at this level connects a word horse with a words house simply because of their sound similarity. On the other hand, the learners at higher levels of proficiency tend to store words according to their similar meaning. In this case, the learner would probably connect the word horse with a word cow.

> *Experiments with the native speakers of English agree with this finding. As the learners become better at a language, whether they are native speakers or second language learners, the way that they organize and store vocabulary in their memory changes. Storage according*

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to form is replaced by storage according to meaning.
(Nation, 1990: 35)

This knowledge should be then applied into teaching and learning vocabulary, because it can prevent the learners from making unnecessary mistakes. It means that the words with similar spelling or pronunciation should not be introduced at the same time because they would be stored together and easily interfere with each other.

In order to deal with the vocabulary acquisition, it is necessary to bear in mind that a word carries more than one meaning or a form. Also the fact that the learners know a particular word does not mean they can use it actively, according to Bloom's taxonomy – creatively. Still the majority of vocabulary we know is subjected to receptive skills rather than productive ones. The process of vocabulary acquisition is long and demanding; and as the results of the research show, the students first reach the low levels of Bloom's taxonomy and only then they are able to continue up in the hierarchy.

It is important to remember that "a word" carries many meanings, lexical as well as functional. Therefore, the learning process cannot only focus on the mere translation of the particular word. According to Bloom's taxonomy there are six levels of thinking. When applied to vocabulary learning they represent the learner's ability to understand or use the word depending on the level the learner has already acquired. Furthermore, it is also important to know how the vocabulary is stored. As Henning found, learners at low levels of English tend to store vocabulary according to the sound similarities, while learners at high levels of English proficiency store words according to their similar meaning. Therefore, when the learners and teachers are acquainted with this concept, they can proceed more efficiently in the learning process. Finally, when the awareness of the way words are stored and the categories of thinking applied to

vocabulary learning is put into practice, the vocabulary learning could become more effective and much easier for the learner than before.

2.1.13 Previous Studies

The purpose of this section is to show related studies which were previously conducted in field of semantic mapping on the development of vocabulary through semantic mapping strategies.

Study (1) by: Salah Sid Ahmed Abdalla, Entitled: "The comprehensive and productive use of lexical items through semantic mapping and word-list techniques for secondary level students." It is

Submitted to University of Khartoum- Faculty of Education- English department, (Unpublished M.A. degree in English language was written in, 2000)

The study, conducted at the secondary schools compared the relative effects of two vocabulary learning strategies (semantic mapping and word- list) on the acquisition and retention of ten vocabulary words. The study seeks to answer the following main questions:

a.   Which of the two strategies; semantic mapping or word-list enhance better the student abilities to comprehend and produce the newly taught items in their suitable context?

b.   How does semantic mapping-based compared to word-list based learning succeed in developing the students' abilities to acquire and retain the newly taught items?

c.   How for would teachers responses to the questions concerning both semantic mapping and word-list strategies relate to the result of the empirical study?

The study aimed at achieving the following points:

a.   To shed light on the student's problems in comprehending and producing lexical items through reading and relative writing tasks, respectively.

b.   To investigate two teaching techniques for learning vocabulary, namely word-list and semantic mapping in order to see the effects of each techniques.

c.   To investigate the attitudes of the secondary school teachers on vocabulary learning techniques including the two target techniques and their appreciation of each one.

The study suggested some researches for further research. As an example, semantic feature analysis could be used as complementary technique in addition to the semantic mapping in order to reinforce, refine, compare, and contract, in other words practice some of the different meaning and uses which are unclear to the student's, so such a study is suggested to be conducted in others to investigate the effectiveness of semantic mapping as a strategy for improving the student's reading comprehension.

Study (2) by: Mahadi Mohammed Ismail, Entitled: "Semantic mapping for improving ELT Student's Reading Comprehension from teachers Perspective". It is submitted to Sudan University of Sciences and Technology- Faculty of Education- English department, (Unpublished, M.A. degree in English language was written in, 2013)

The study carried out to investigate the effectiveness of implementing semantic mapping as strategy for improving student's reading comprehension also to find out whether the level of reading comprehension ability can be measured through semantic mapping and then to investigated whether semantic mapping strategy helps learners

derive meaning of the new words from the context. The study main findings were:

a.   Comprehension passages were understandable if the text was organized according to semantic mapping.

b.   Semantic mapping comprehension passage facilitates understanding new lexical items.

c.   There is strong relationship between the text the reader if the text organized semantically.

d.   The material semantically designed enhances the student's reading skills.

The study main recommendations were:

a.   Texts of reading comprehension should be organized according to

b.   Material should be well organized semantically to encourage the student's reading comprehension skill.

c.   Teacher should encourage their student's to read through semantic mapping to facilitate reading process.

d.   Semantic mapping should be included during instructional design.

Study (3) by: Fransiscus Xaverius Mukarto, Entitled: "The patterns of Semantic Mapping development of English verbs acquired by Indonesian EFL Learners". It is submitted to University of Sains Malaysia- Faculty of Education- English department (Unpublished PhD, degree in English language was written in, 2005)

The study investigated the patterns of semantic development of English verbs acquired by Indonesian EFL learners of three different proficiency levels. Specifically, the study aimed that (1) To found out whether there were significant differences in the semantic mapping accuracy of English verbs between the three groups; and (2) To discover

the patterns of semantic mapping development of the English verbs acquired by the three proficiency groups.

The study adopted the cross- sectional design. It involved 120 subjects divided evenly many three different proficiency levels: low intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced. The data on semantic mapping were elicited using a forward translation recognition matrix designed particularly for this purpose. The subject's responses were based on two variables: The accuracy of the semantic mapping and the level of mapping confidence.

A number of theories were adopted as the basis for research design and for explaining the results of the study. They include the psycholinguistic theory of lexical representation, development and processing, componential analysis, contrastive analysis and prototype theory.

The results of the data analysis reveal that: (1) There were significant differences between the three different proficiency levels in the semantic mapping accuracy of English verbs and the number of significant differences varied from word to word and from category to category; (2) as proficiency level increased, L2 learners knew significantly more semantic features.

The findings study suggested that: (1) L2 vocabulary acquisition involves a continuous process of semantic restructuring; (2) The intensity of the restructuring process varies from word to word and from one semantic mapping category to another; (3) The restructuring process tends to result in more refined semantic contents tends to be slow; (4) despite the semantic restructuring process, L2 word meanings are both

under-represented and over-represented even at the advanced level; and (5) The under-representation and over- representation of word meanings result from a number difference sources, based on the results of the study a model of representation of L2 word meaning and the paths of possible semantic restructuring is proposed.

The further research is suggested to reach a more comprehensive understanding of the patterns of semantic mapping development and a guideline for developing learning-teaching activities which help learners acquire more words and minimize under-representation as well as over-representation of word meaning is suggested.

Study (4) by: Omer Naeem Mohammed Entitled: "The effect of teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping on EFL learners Awareness of vocabulary knowledge". It is submitted to Alimam Mohammed Ibin Saud Islamic University-Faculty of Journal Education, (International interdisciplinary journal was written in, 2013)

The study to investigated the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction via using semantic mapping against the established traditional vocabulary teaching techniques in Saudi Arabia, the purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of semantic mapping as instructional strategy for teaching vocabulary items to EFL learners at Alimam Mohammed Ibin Saud of the strategy on EFL students achievement of lexical items the sample of the study consisted of 50 male students enrolled in two sections, which were randomly selected from four sections and randomly assigned to both experimental and control group. Therefore aqua-experimental mode of inquiry was chosen internationally but its assignment on the groups was carried out randomly. The experimental group studied the lexical items via semantic mapping strategy, and the

control group studied them in the traditional method. Vocabulary pre- test was given to both groups at the equivalent and homogenous. At the end of the experiment the same test was given to the experimental and control groups to investigate the effect of semantic mapping strategy on EFL student's achievement of lexical items. The researcher reached some recommended as follow**:**

a.   Teachers are advised to be committed to teaching new lexical items by preparing additional challenging and motivating vocabulary activities based on semantic mapping strategy.

b.   Teachers are advised to be eclectic in teaching new vocabulary by choosing the most appropriate strategy they should vary their strategies according to the difficulty of the word and the level of the class they can sometimes combine more than one strategy according to the nature of the new word.

c.   Teachers are encouraged to focus on international as well as accidental vocabulary learning.

d.   It is recommended that teachers avoid translation as much as possible in teaching new lexical items.

e.   It is worthwhile to replicate the study in another area in Saudi Arabia and to test the effectiveness of semantic mapping strategy on other EFL learner's levels as well as the student's attitudes towards such a strategy.

f.   Carried out further research concerning the effect of semantic mapping on other language skills such as writing and reading skills.

Study (5) by: Siti NurVadila, Entitled: "Enriching student's vocabulary through semantic mapping technique" Syarif Hidayatullah Islamic University- faculty of Tarbiyah and teachers training- English department, (unpublished, B.A degree in English language was written in,

2011).The study was categorized as a collaborative classroom action research. The writer worked collaboratively with the English teacher in the class. The CAR was done based on kemmis and Motaggorts design, the writer did two cycles in which each cycle consists of planning, acting observing and reflecting .The data were gathered through qualitative and quantities data the quantitative data were gained by analyzing the interview and observation result, then, quantitative data were obtained from the student's vocabulary score of present and post-test and questionnaire. The result of questionnaire, it showed that there was improvement of positive responses in the teaching learning process during the implementation of semantic mapping strategy related to the results of the gained data, it can be concluded that the student's vocabulary enriched and also the students were motivated in learning English vocabulary. The objectives of the study were**:**

a.   Find whether teaching vocabulary using semantic mapping can enrich the student's vocabulary or not.
b.   Described the teaching learning process in the classroom especially the implementation of teaching English vocabulary through semantic mapping in enriching student's vocabulary.

Study (6) by: Mohammad Hassein Keshavarz, Entitled: "The effect of semantic mapping strategy instruction on vocabulary learning of intermediate EFL student's"**.** It is submitted to (Iran University- Journal of faculty of letters and Humanities, No 49 was written in, 1998)

    The study to investigate the effect of semantic mapping strategy instruction on vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate student's, a further concern of the study was to explore the probable interaction between the effect of teaching semantic mapping strategy and gender.

Initially, 134 available male and female EFL students' participated in the study. The instruments utilized in the study were a nelson test and teacher male vocabulary test, which were employed at pre-test and posttest phases. Having established the homogeneity of the subject's in terms of general language proficiency the 120 selected students were divided in to four groups: two experimental (male- female) and two control groups (male- female). Then, in order to ascertain the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of vocabulary knowledge prior to the treatment, the vocabulary test was administered to the entire group. During the eight instructional sessions, the experimental groups received semantic mapping strategy instruction after reading each passage and then did the exercises, in the control group student's were not taught how to use semantic mapping strategy and they read the passages, did the exercises and activities and new words were introduced through contexts and exercises. At the end of experiment, the post-test was administered the results of which indicated that there was a significant difference among the means of the experimental and control groups. It was also revealed that there was no interaction between the effects of semantic mapping strategy instruction has a significant impact on vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate ELF student's regardless of their gender. The main findings of the study showed that: some implications for learners and teachers and syllabus designers, learning vocabulary through semantic mapping strategy would be more enjoyable and meaningful for the learners.

-The findings may encourage teachers who still believe in teacher

- Centeredness in language teaching to change their view points in favor of more learner-centered approaches. Syllabus designers to semantic maps in to the materials they develop the way they can introduce a lot of

new words in a map and improve both memory and comprehension of the words.

Study (7) by: Mahnaz Saeidi, Entitled: "Teaching Vocabulary through Semantic Mapping as a pre-reading Activity across Genders"**.** It is submitted to University of Islam Abad- Faculty of Education (Journal of English studies was written in, 2010)

The study has examined the effect of semantic mapping on teaching vocabulary across genders. The researchers selected 120 intermediate students after the administration of a standard proficiency test. A vocabulary test was also used to measure the student's vocabulary knowledge the experimental group received semantic mapping in the pre-reading stage, but the control group did not receive this treatment.

The results of the study, based on statistical analysis of the data, indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in vocabulary learning. As for the gender differences, the results indicated no significant difference between males and females. It can be suggested that semantic mapping can be used as an efficient methodology for teaching vocabulary, a technique which is equally effective for male and female EFL, Learners. The researcher formulated the following research questions were:

a.   Is there any difference between the performance of students who use semantic mapping as a pre-reading activity for vocabulary learning and the performance of those who do not use this technique?
b.   Is there any difference between the performance of male and female students who receive semantic mapping as a pre-reading activity for vocabulary learning?

Study (8) by: Inda Margani**,** Entitled: Increasing the Reading Comprehension achievement of the Second year Students of SMP Negeri 2 Sekayu by using semantic mapping technique"**.** It is submitted to (University of Sriwijaya- Nigeria- Faculty of a graduate of English Education study program B.A, degree in English language was written in 2006), Her objectives was to find out whether the students reading comprehension could be increased by using semantic mapping .

The results was the students got much progress the similarity of the study is the strategy, semantic mapping. The differences are the population, sample, location and the subject.

The researcher took sixth grade students of elementary school No. 27 Palembang and the subject was vocabulary mastery, while she took the second year students of SMP Negeri 2 Sekayu and the subject was reading comprehension.

Study (9) by: Andriani Gita, Entitled: "Increasing Vocabulary Mastery through Semantic Mapping to the Sixth grade Students of Elementary School No 27 Palembang"**.** It is submmited to University of Sriwijaya- Nigeria - Faculty of English Education- English department (Unpublished B.A degree in English language was written in 2012)

The research aimed to find out; whether or not there was any significant difference between the vocabulary mastery of students who were taught by using semantic mapping and that of those who were not, also the research significance the result of the study will hopefully be beneficial for teacher's, student's or learners of English and the writer herself for the teacher's, it can give reference of strategy to apply in the

classroom. For the student's, it is hoped that they can use this strategy to increase their vocabulary mastery.

The research hypothesized that there was no significant difference between the vocabulary mastery of the students who were taught by using semantic mapping strategy and that of those who were not, there was a significant difference between the vocabulary mastery of the students who were taught by using semantic mapping strategy and that of these who were not.

The researcher concluded that the study presented three conclusions were: first study; semantic mapping strategy could increase student's vocabulary mastery. The data in paired sample T-test indicated that there was an improvement on the vocabulary mastery of the students who were taught through semantic mapping strategy. Second, there was no significant difference between the vocabulary mastery of those who were taught by using semantic mapping strategy and that of those who were not.

The writer found that the student's vocabulary mastery in the experimental group was higher than those in the control group although the difference was not significant in other words; the students who were taught by using semantic mapping strategy had the same achievement as those who were not taught by using semantic mapping strategy. It means that null hypothesis was accepted.

Third the condition above May due to factors that influence student's achievement such as internal factor (attention) and external factor (natural condition).

Study (10) by: Judith Kerstin, Entitled: "Frame Semantics as vocabulary Teaching and Learning Tool."**.** It is submitted to University of Texas at Austin- Faculty of Education- English department (Unpublished PhD degree in applied linguistic was written in, 2011)

The purpose of this study, which is grounded in applied linguistics, was to investigate two ways of presenting vocabulary in a German language class in order of determining whether frame semantics is a feasible tool with regards to student's vocabulary acquisition and culturally appropriate usage of vocabulary.

In addition, this study examined learner's attitude towards the new method of vocabulary teaching and learning. A total of 34 University students enrolled in four second-semester German classes participated in this study. In the control Group rote memorization techniques were used. While the treatment group frame semantics was utilized for the teaching and learning of vocabulary the data was analyzed through quantitative methods.

The quantitative data was derived from an online demographic survey, a vocabulary pre-test, two vocabulary post-test (an immediate post-test and delayed post-test), a cultural appropriateness post-tests (an immediate post-test and delayed post-test) as well as pre-test and post-test attitude scale provided as an online questionnaire.

Analysis of the data indicates that there was no statically significant difference between the two groups with regards to their cultural appropriate usage of the vocabulary items and no statistically significant differences were observed with regards to vocabulary recall and retention.

In addition, only the factor of enjoyment yielded significant differences with regards to learner's attitude, while the factors of motivation, interest and confidence did not show statistically significant differences between the groups. Thus, the results indicate that both methods. Frame semantics and the more traditional methods. Are suitable for vocabulary learning and teaching as both methods resulted in an increase of learner's vocabulary knowledge, including long-term retention?

The results of this study add to the body of literature related to semantic mapping in the foreign language classroom. And the finding of this study is as follows:

a.   Frame semantic is beneficial as more traditional learning methods.

b.   It may increase learner's cultural awareness, so that they are able to use a word more culturally and appropriately.

c.   Teachers should give language learners the opportunity to learn the word in cultural context.

d.   Vocabulary should be presented in cultural authentic-fields and networks of relationships.

Chapter Three

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter will discuss the following: methods of the study, population of the study, sample of the study, description of the sample and the instruments, reliability, validity and data analysis procedure.

3.1 The Study Methodology

The current research adopted a mixed-method approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This allows the research tools to match each other. Hence, an experiment, questionnaires, and class observations were used to address the research questions and objectives. The (SPSS) program was used for data analysis.

3.2 Study population and sampling

The study population was students and the teaching staffs of English, male and female at Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Languages. This experiment was conducted at the College of Languages, first year students majoring in English.   As it is known, all the students in Sudan enter university, after spending three years studying English at the secondary school and they had already studied English language for four years at the basic level of general education.   All the students are aged 17-23 years old. They all speak Arabic as their first language, and all of them have studied English for 3 years at secondary schools. All the students who took part in the study experiment were males and females.

3.2.1 The Test

Two types of tests are to be conducted. An immediate-test and a delayed - test were given to the participants .The test used was a vocabulary test which included three parts: Part one was reading comprehension with

heavy emphasis on authentic language to find out to what extent students can deal with unfamiliar words using different vocabulary strategies.

The second part of the test was formed in a way as to focus on sentence construction. Students were given words in context and were then asked to use the words to form sentences of their own.

The third part was simply a translation test. A short passage was given to the students in English and was asked to render it into Arabic

3.2.2 Questionnaire sample

The samples of this study included English language teachers at different Sudanese universities. There are as many as 60 copies have distributed and only 50 were secured.

Table (3-1) shows teachers' numbers and their distribution according to sex.

SEX	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
MALE	20	20%
FEMALE	30	30%
TOTAL	50 (100)	100.0%

73

Table (3-2) shows teachers' years of experience

Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1.5 years	17	17%
6.10 years	23	23%
More than 10	60	60%
TOTAL	100	100%

Tables (3-1&3-2) indicate that male respondents were more than 30% compared to 20% female. More than 30% of the teachers had teaching experience more than 10 years , 39% had teaching experience ranged between 6-10 years while only 18% had teaching experience between 1-5 years.

Table (3-3) Distribution of undergraduate students according to sex.

SEX	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
MALE	60	60.0%
FEMALE	40	40.0%
TOTAL	100	100%

3.3 Research instruments

The data for the present study were obtained by using 2 instruments. Firstly, experiments. Secondly, one questionnaire is used for the tutors, which is basically intended to discuss certain issues around vocabulary teaching and learning as well as to testify to the hypotheses.

3.3.1 Research experiment

There were actually two classes in this study. The first one was the experimental group while the other one was the control group. They all studied English as a major subject of specialization. One group, experimental was exposed to intensive teaching program in vocabulary strategies and use. This is experimental group. They were then given the very same test to find out the effect of the intensive program on their attainment.

3.3.2 Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers questionnaire (TsQ.) , consist of 15 multiple variables.   It was divided into five parts (see appendix 2): Part 1: included 6 statements, surveying teacher use of the L1 (Arabic language) in English classroom, to explain unfamiliar items of vocabulary, with Likert 4- point scale: (strongly agree , agree ,neutral, disagree , strongly disagree)

(i) Part 11: included 5 statements, surveying teachers‟ attitudes towards using authentic materials from literature and daily papers to enhance students' vocabulary.

Part 111: included 5 statements, surveying how the type of syllabus used at university and how it affects vocabulary learning.

3.3.3 Validity and Reliability of the test

As long as they are aimed at assessing the students' achievement in reading comprehension, tests are always held to be content valid. The tasks required in the tests were comparable to those covered in the syllabus adopted at the university for general English and practiced in class. In addition, the test instructions were written clearly in English, and the examinee's task required was defined. Furthermore, the tests were validated by a group of experts who suggested some valuable remarks including adding some challenging questions while deleting others that looked rather repetitive or a bit difficult to measure. The researcher took these suggestions into account when redesigning the tests.   For the test reliability the study used the test-retest method: The test-retest method of estimating a test's reliability involves administering the test to the same group of people at least twice. Then the first set of scores is correlated

with the second set of scores. Correlation ranges between 0 (low reliability) and 1 (high reliability) (highly unlikely they will be negative!).The coefficient correlation formula was used to calculate the correlation:

$$r = \frac{n(\Sigma xy) - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[\, n\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2 \,][\, n\Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2 \,]}}$$

3.3.4 Validity of the questionnaire

The questionnaire of this study, was validated by a jury consisting of five assistant professors specialized in English language. They based their comments on the following criteria:

(i) The clarity of the items and instruction.

(ii) The simplicity of items, and how far they related to the subject.

(iii) The language used.

The jury made some remarks concerning some items and suggested modification for these items. Three items from TsQ. were omitted, and one variable was added. The researcher responded to their suggestions, and made the required modifications.

Chapter Four

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This study tried to answer three main question: first, To what extent can authentic materials be used at undergraduate levels to help to learn vocabulary along with making an overall language improvement? Second, How will a morph-phonemic approach taking into account the basic word constituents help reinforce the learning of new lexical items? Third, Can authentic material with plentiful words easily be memorized and used in active classroom interaction?

In this chapter, the researcher presents the analyzing results of these three questions and the discussion of these results.

4.2 Tables Analyses Results

Table(4-1)

The table (4-1) shows the ratios and repetitions of the highest degree earned in which we find that the Bachelor's Degree reached (5) individuals by (16.7%), there are (22) individuals by (73.3%) Master's Degree, (3) individuals by (10%) PhD, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of Master's Degree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Chart (1) showing the distribution of sample members of highest degree

	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	5	16.7%
Master's Degree	22	73.3%
PhD	3	10.0%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

4.3 Charts Analyses Results

Chart (4-1) highest degree earned
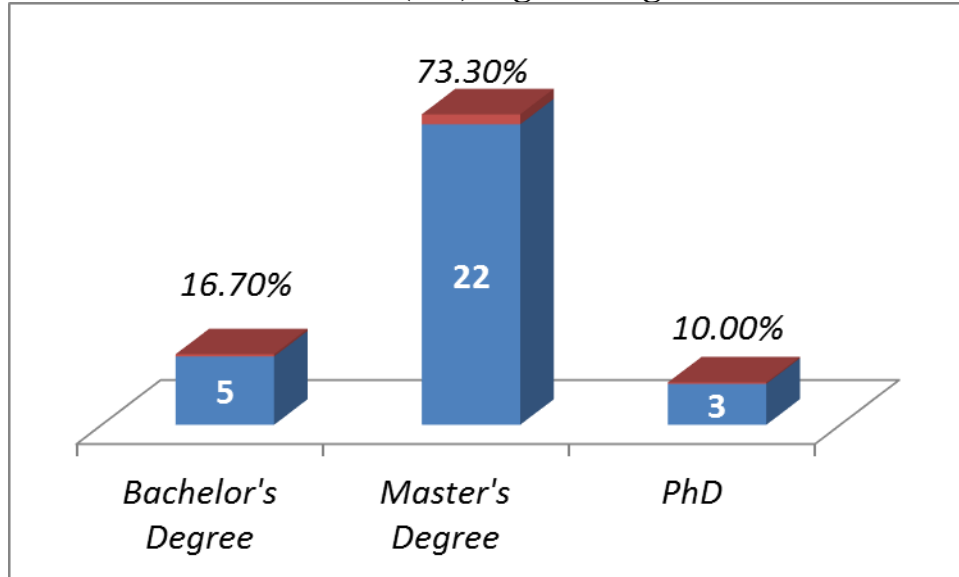
Table(4-2)

The table (4-2) shows the ratios and repetitions of the Expertise years in which we find that the one year reached one individuals by (3.3%), there are (4) individuals by (13.3%) 2--5 years, (12) individuals by (40%) 6--10 years,(13) individuals by (43.3%) more than 10 years, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of more than 10 years is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Expertise years	Frequency	Percent
one year	1	3.3%
2--5 years	4	13.3%
6--10 years	12	40.0%
more than 10 years	13	43.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-2) showing the distribution of sample members of Expertise years
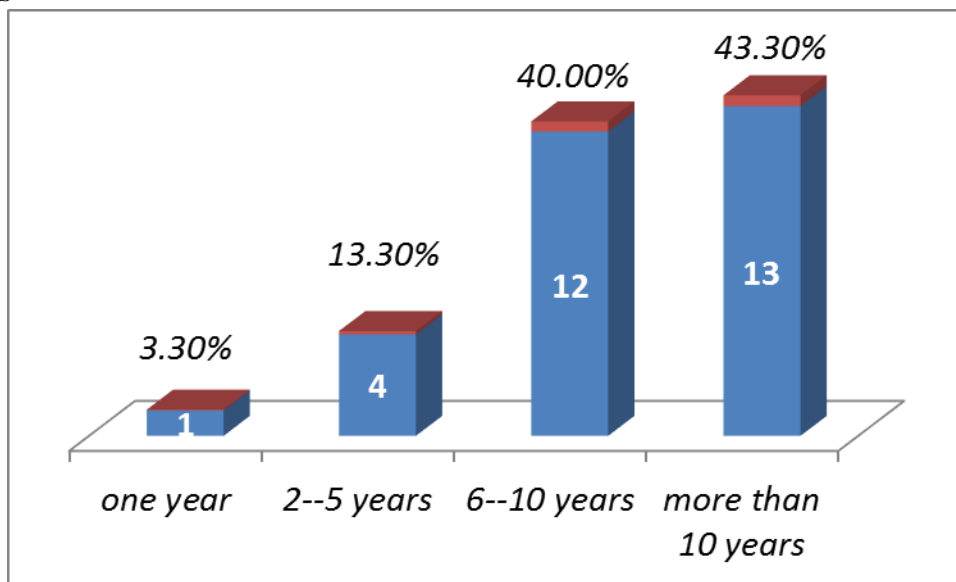
Table (4-3)

The table (4-3) shows the ratios and repetitions of the first phrase (**students use bilingual dictionaries for translation**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (16) individuals by (53.3%), there are (7) individuals by (23.3%) agree to the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) neutral, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree with the phrase, two and (6.7%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strongly agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	16	53.3%
Agree	7	23.3%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	4	13.3%
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-3) showing the distribution of sample members of the first phrase
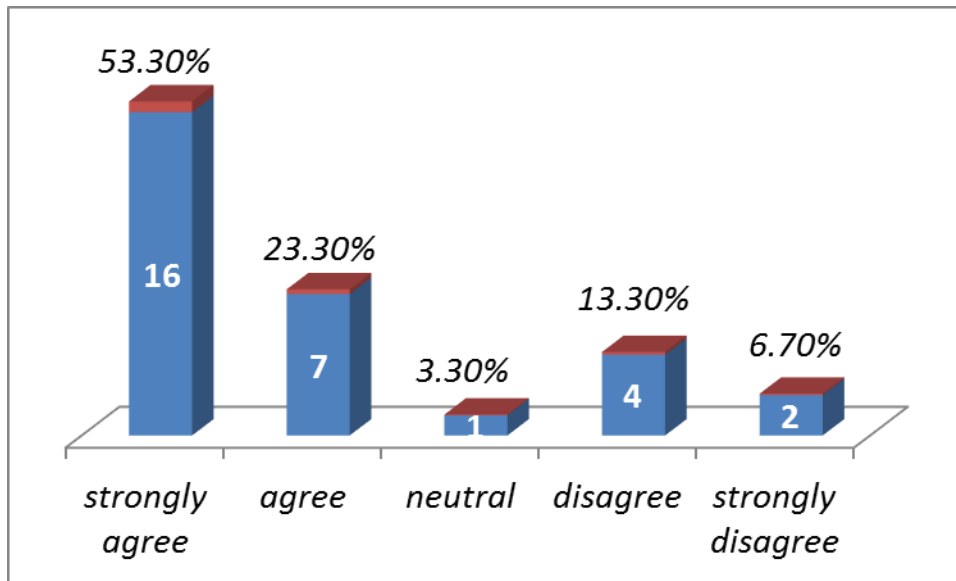
Table (4-4)

Table (4-4) shows the ratios and repetitions of the second phrase (**students encourage to use picture to find meaning**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (13) individuals by (43.3%), there are (12) individuals by (40%) agree to the phrase, two and (6.7%) neutral, two and (6.7%) do not agree with the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agrees is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Agree	12	40.0%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	2	6.7%
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-4)

showing the distribution of sample members of the second phrase
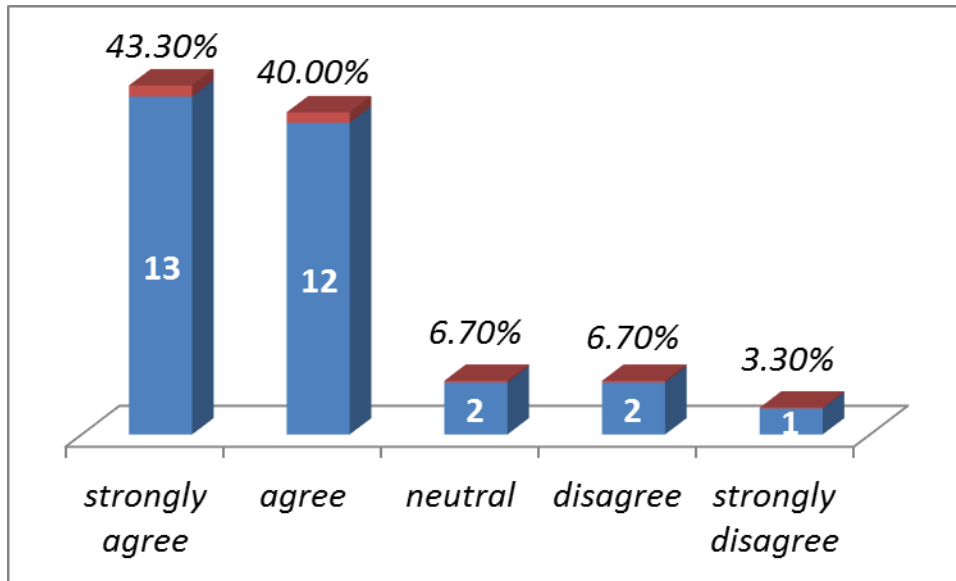
Table(4-5)

The table (4-5) shows the ratios and repetitions of the third phrase (**meaning learnt by parts of speech**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (10) individuals by (33.3%), there are (13) individuals by (43.3%) agree to the phrase, (3) individuals by (10%) neutral, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree with the phrase, no one found not strongly agree to the phrase by (0.0%), The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	10	33.3%
Agree	13	43.3%
Neutral	3	10.0%
Disagree	4	13.3%
strongly disagree	0	0.00%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-5) showing the distribution of sample members of the third phrase
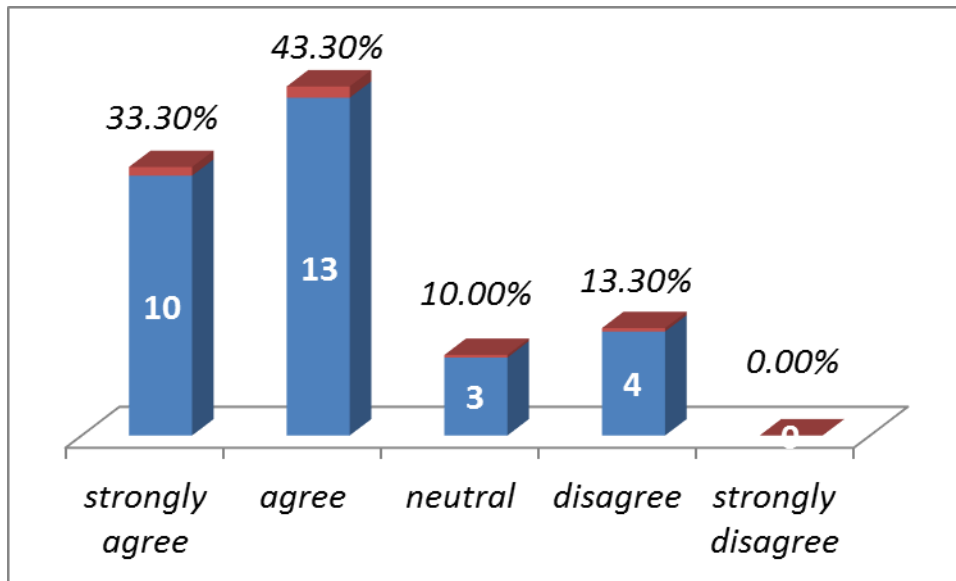
Table(4-6)

The table (4-6) shows the ratios and repetitions of the 4th phrase (**the students are not trained to handle the available materials**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (9) individuals by (30%), there are (15) individuals by (50%) agree to the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) neutral, (3) individuals by (10%) do not agree with the phrase, two and (6.7%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	9	30.0%
Agree	15	50.0%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	3	10.0%
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-6) showing the distribution of sample members of the 4th phrase
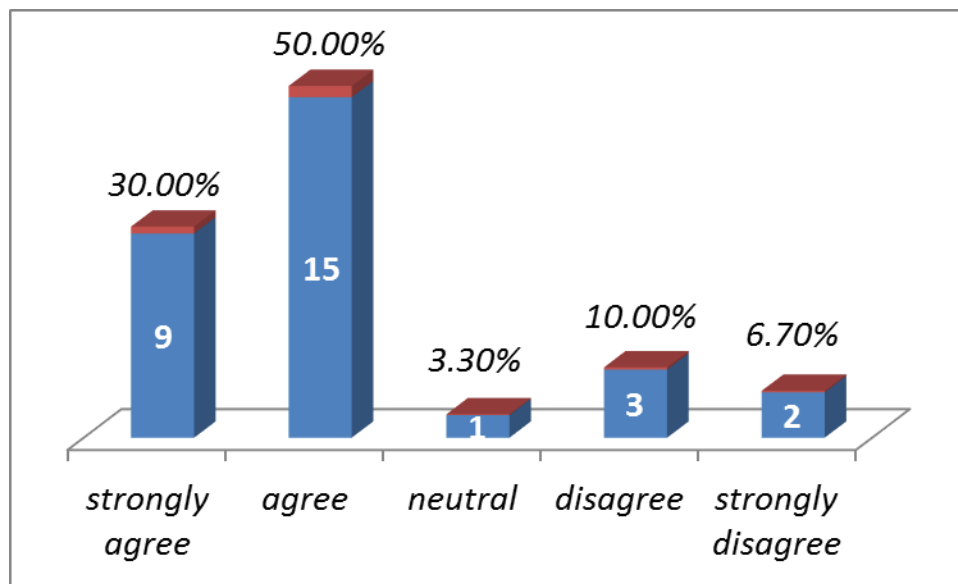
Table(4-7)

The table (4-7)shows the ratios and repetitions of the 5th phrase (**varied reading activities provided by teachers to students**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (13) individuals by (43.3%), there are (10) individuals by (33.3%) agree to the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) neutral, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree with the phrase, two and (6.7%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Agree	10	33.3%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	4	13.3%
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-7) showing the distribution of sample members of the 5th phrase
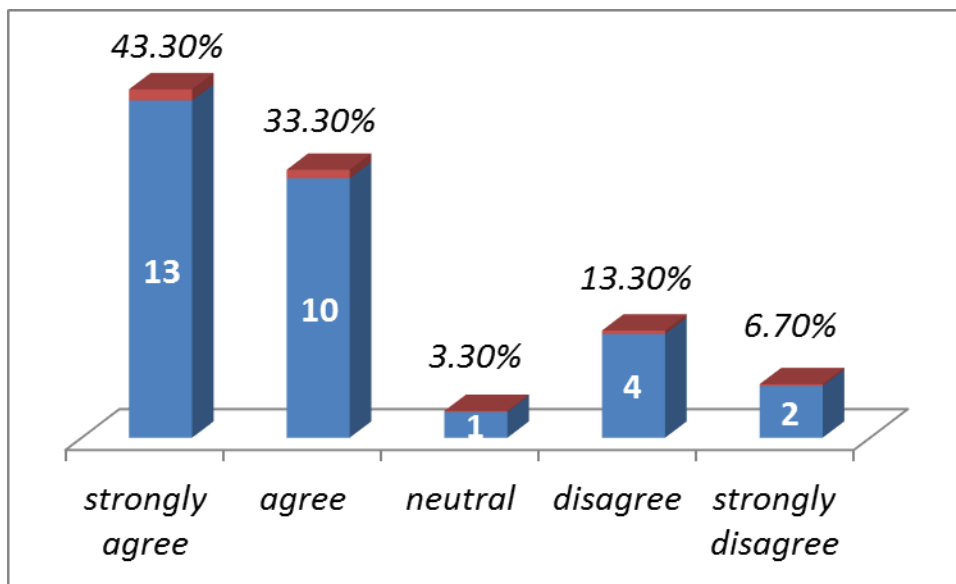
Table(4-8)

The table (4-8) shows the ratios and repetitions of the 6th phrase (**the environment at the level is not advantageous for learning**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (6) individuals by (20%), there are (11) individuals by (36.7%) agree to the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) neutral, (9) individuals by (30%) do not agree with the phrase, (3) individuals by (10%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	6	20.0%
Agree	11	36.7%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	9	30.0%
strongly disagree	3	10.0%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-8) showing the distribution of sample members of the 6th phrase
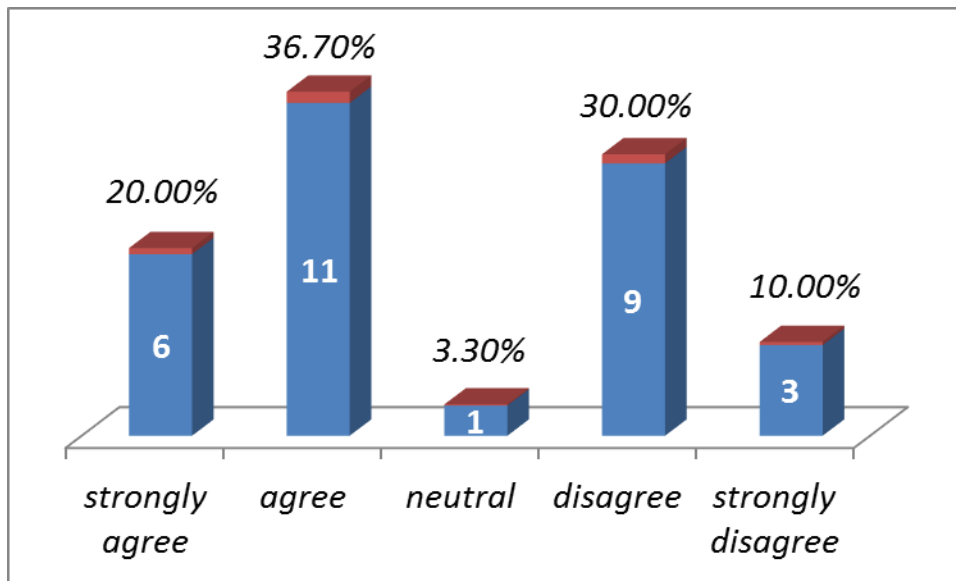
Table (4-9)

The table **(4-9)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 7th phrase **(the students enter universities with poor vocabulary**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (13) individuals by (43.3%), there are (6) individuals by (20%) agree to the phrase, (3) individuals by (10%) neutral, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree with the phrase, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Agree	6	20.0%
Neutral	3	10.0%
Disagree	4	13.3%
strongly disagree	4	13.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart **(4-9)**showing the distribution of sample members of the 7th phrase
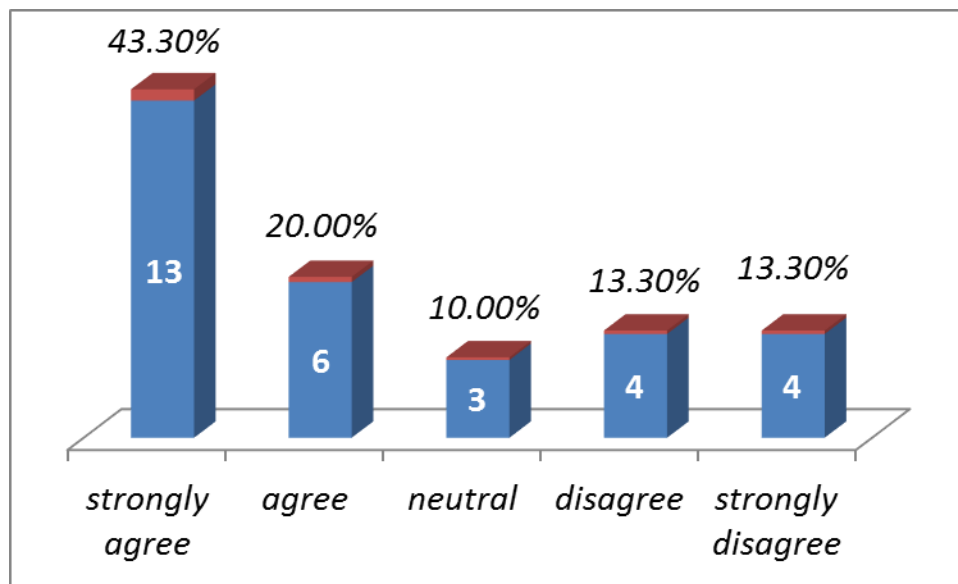
Table (4-10)

The table **(4-10)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 8th phrase (**the syllabus adopted is not effective to develop vocabulary**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (21) individuals by (70%), there are (7) individuals by (23.3%) agree to the phrase, no one found not neutral to the phrase by (0.0%), one individual by (3.3%) do not agree with the phrase, one individual by (3.3%)do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	21	70.0%
Agree	7	23.3%
Neutral	0	0.00%
Disagree	1	3.3%
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-10) showing the distribution of sample members of the 8th phrase
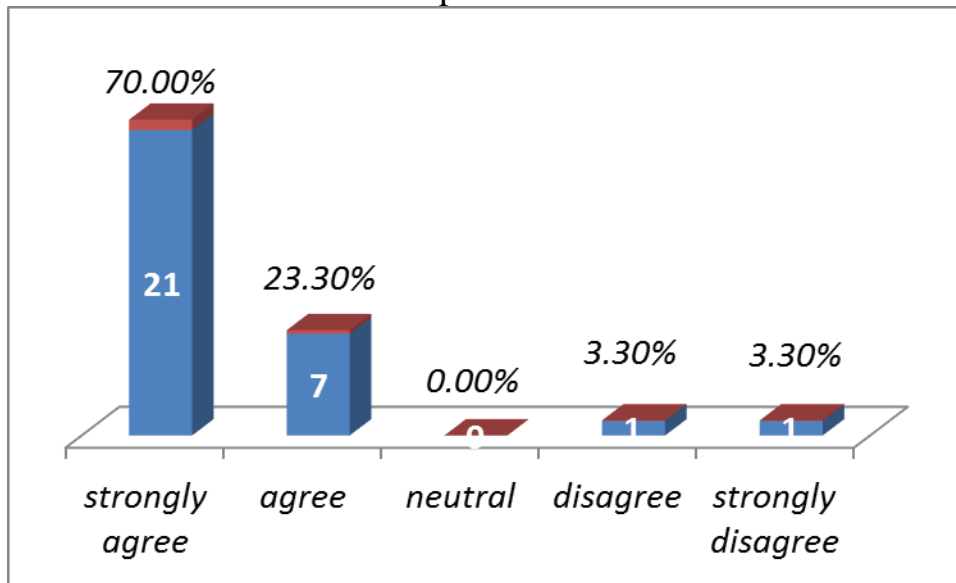
Table**(4-11)**

The table **(4-11)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 9th phrase (**English syllabus is not given enough weight**) in which we find that the strong agree reached (16) individuals by (53.3%), there are (9) individuals by (30%) agree to the phrase, two and (6.7%) neutrals, (3) individuals by (10%) do not agree with the phrase, no one found not strongly agree to the phrase by (0.0%), The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	16	53.3%
Agree	9	30.0%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	3	10.0%
strongly disagree	0	0.00%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-11) showing the distribution of sample members of the 9th phrase
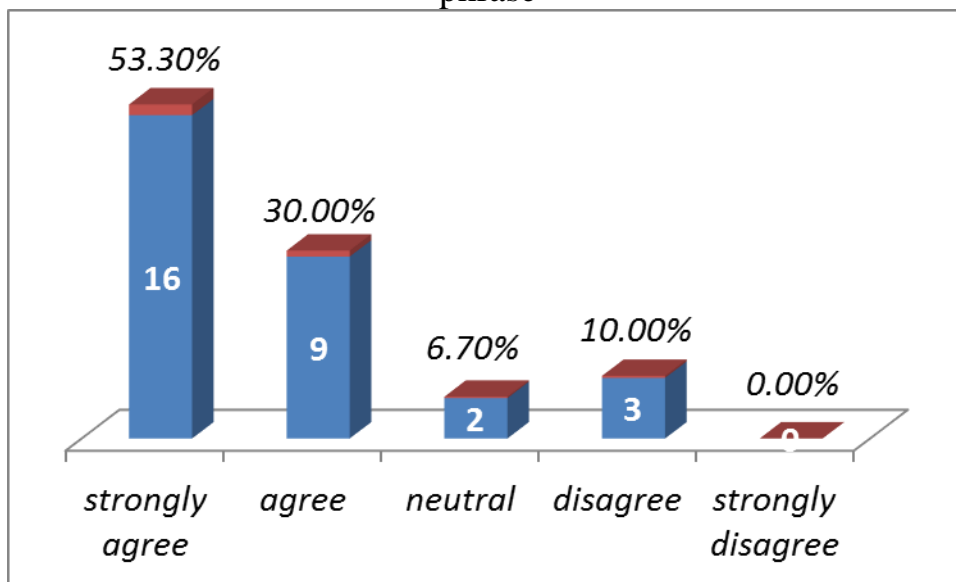
Table (4-12)

The table **(4-12)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 10th phrase **(students must not ignore the meaning of words)** in which we find that the strong agree reached (9) individuals by (30%), there are (13) individuals by (43.3%) agree to the phrase, (4) individuals by (13.3%) neutral, (3) individuals by (10%) do not agree with the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	9	30.0%
Agree	13	43.3%
Neutral	4	13.3%
Disagree	3	10.0%
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-12) showing the distribution of sample members of the 10th phrase
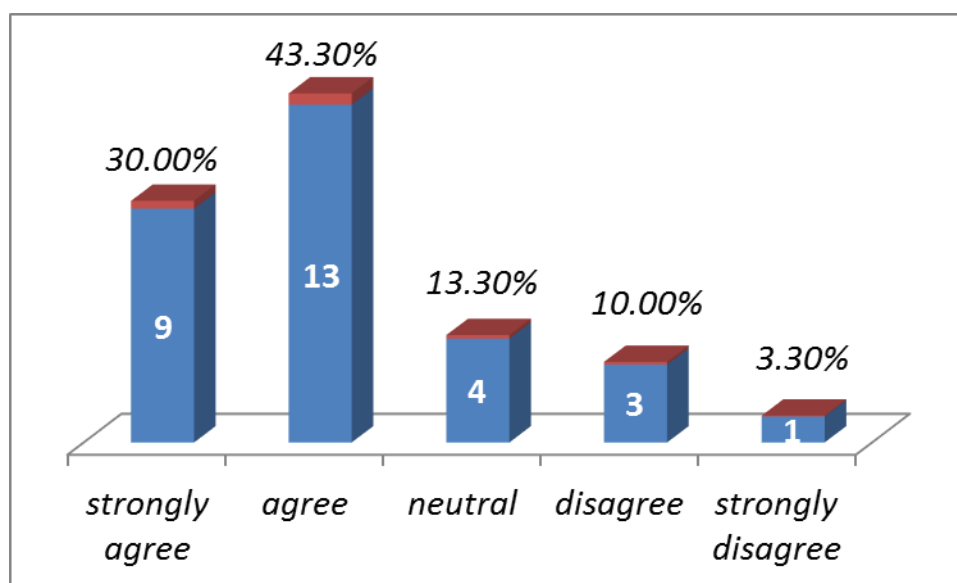
Table (4-13)

The table (4-13) shows the ratios and repetitions of the 11th phrase **(teachers are not well trained to teach vocabulary)** in which we find that the strong agree reached (11) individuals by (36.7%), there are (14) individuals by (46.7%) agree to the phrase, two and (6.7%) neutral, one individual by (3.3%) do not agree with the phrase, two and (6.7%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	11	36.7%
Agree	14	46.7%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	1	3.3%
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-13) showing the distribution of sample members of the 11th phrase
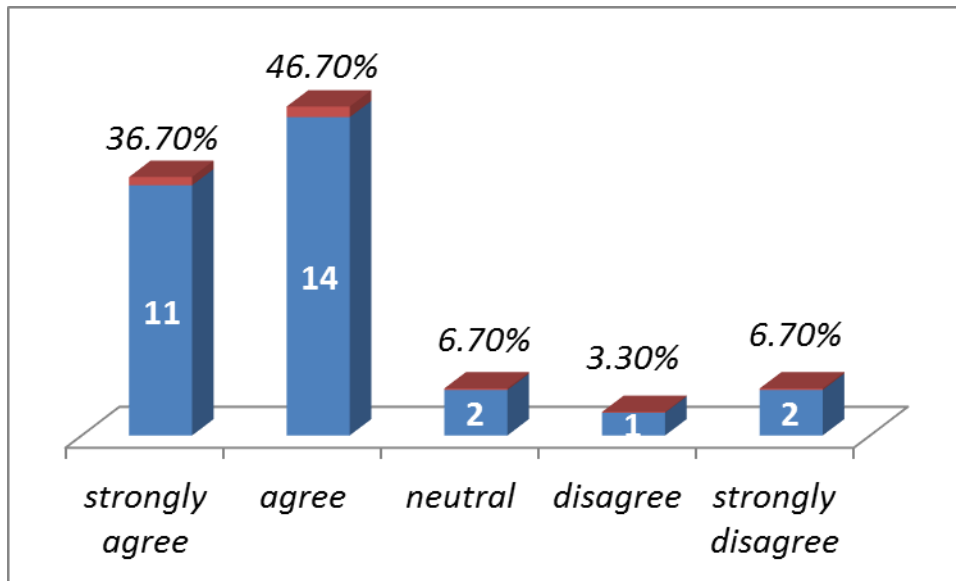
Table(4-14)

The table **(4-14)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 12th **phrase (all syllabus are designed by local Sudanese expertise)** in which we find that the strong agree reached (13) individuals by (43.3%), there are (10) individuals by (33.3%) agree to the phrase, two and (6.7%) neutral, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree with the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	13	43.3%
Agree	10	33.3%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	4	13.3%
strongly disagree	1	3.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-14) showing the distribution of sample members of the 12th phrase
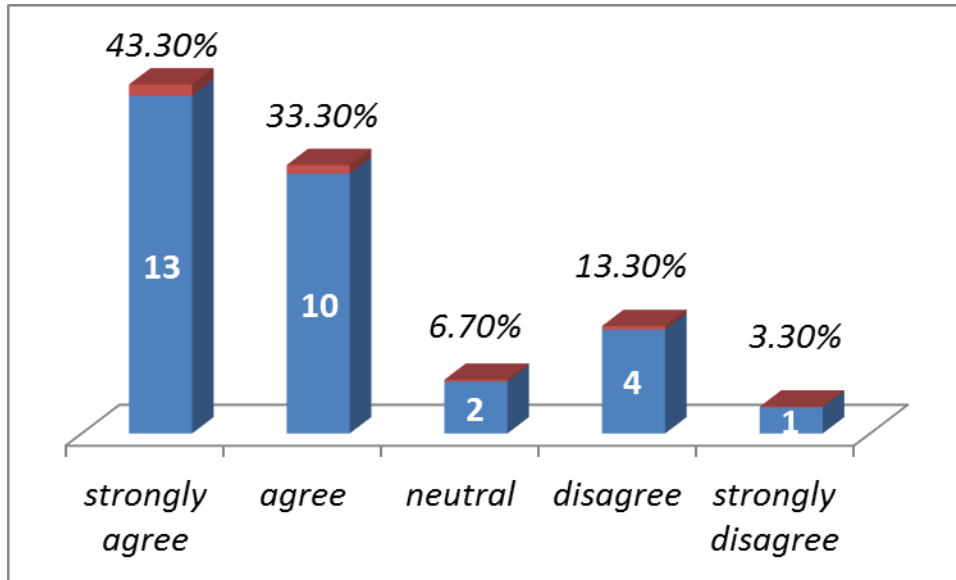
Table (4-15)

The table **(4-15)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 13th **phrase (very little time given for learning vocabulary)** in which we find that the strong agree reached (8) individuals by (26.7%), there are (11) individuals by (36.7%) agree to the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) neutral, (6) individuals by (20%) do not agree with the phrase, (4) individuals by (13.3%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	8	26.7%
Agree	11	36.7%
Neutral	1	3.3%
Disagree	6	20.0%
strongly disagree	4	13.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-15) showing the distribution of sample members of the 13th phrase
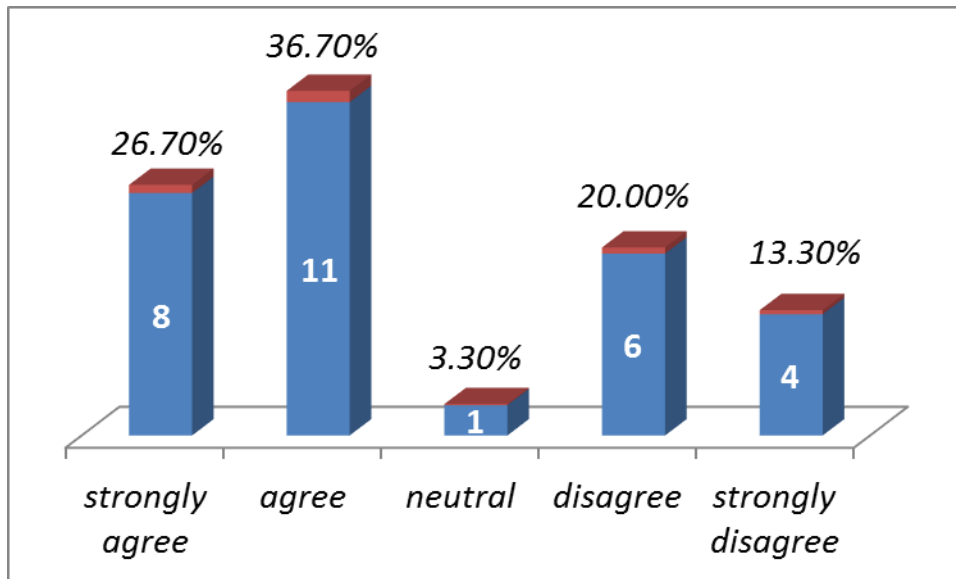
Table (4-16)

The table **(4-16)**shows the ratios and repetitions of the 14th phrase **(learning target language culture helps in vocabulary learning)** in which we find that the strong agree reached (14) individuals by (46.7%), there are (5) individuals by (16.7%) agree to the phrase, two and (6.7%) neutral, (7) individuals by (23.3%) do not agree with the phrase, two and (6.7%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	14	46.7%
Agree	5	16.7%
Neutral	2	6.7%
Disagree	7	23.3%
strongly disagree	2	6.7%
Total	30	100%

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-16) showing the distribution of sample members of the 14th phrase
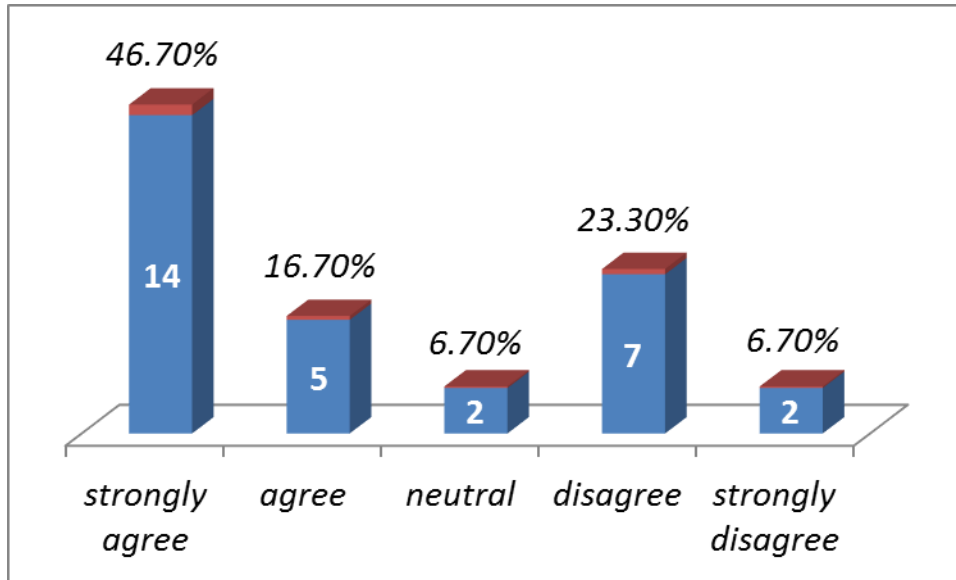
Table (4-17)

The table (4-17) shows the ratios and repetitions of the 15th phrase **(locally designed defect in conveying culture)** in which we find that the strong agree reached (13) individuals by (43.3%), there are (10) individuals by (33.3%) agree to the phrase, one individual by (3.3%) neutral, one individual by (3.3%) do not agree with the phrase, (5) individuals by (16.7%) do not agree strongly phrase, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of strong agree is the highest and the following chart shows this.

Options	Frequency	Percent
strongly agree	13	%43.3
Agree	10	%33.3
Neutral	1	%3.3
Disagree	1	%3.3
strongly disagree	5	%16.7
Total	30	%100

Source: Data of field Study

Chart (4-17) showing the distribution of sample members of the 15th phrase

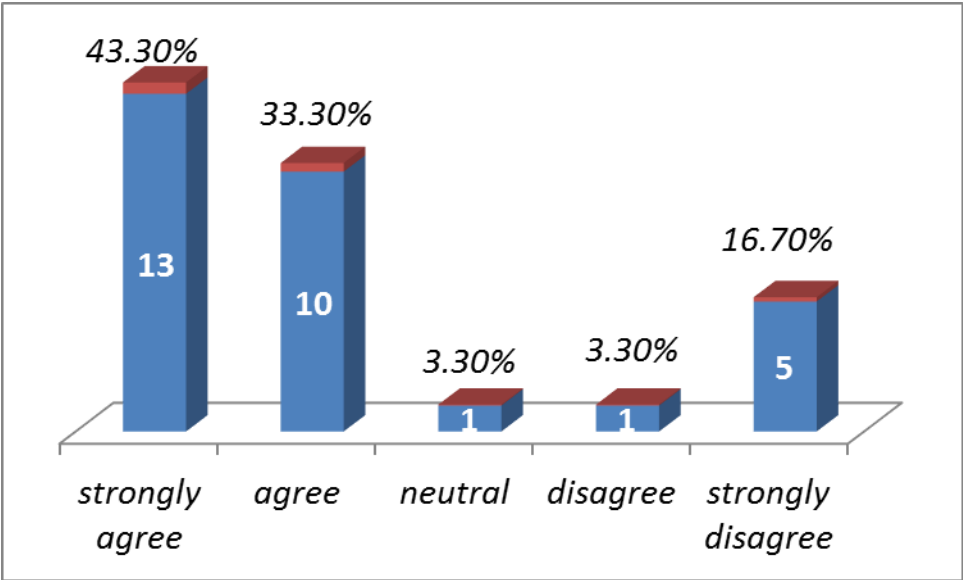Table (18) shows the Descriptive Statistics(mean, mode & Std. Deviation). The values of the mean and mode are arranged between(4 -5)and the Std .Deviation for the whole items are highly Homogenous. So , according to Liker Scale for weights, which we mentioned above (4 and5) means agree/strongly agree, this confirm the frequencies table and percentage .

Items	Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Results
Students are advised to use bilingual dictionaries to help them translate English words into Arabic language?	4.03	5	1.326	Agree
Tutors have to encourage their students to use pictures illustrated in the textbook to find the word meanings.	4.13	5	1.042	Agree
Meaning of words is best learnt by identifying their parts of speech.	3.97	4	.999	Agree
Classroom practitioners at university level are not adequately trained to handle the available material proficiently enough to challenge students into increasing their word power.	3.87	4	1.167	Agree
Teachers, there at university,do not provide students with variedreading activities which reinforce vocabulary learning strategies.	3.93	5	1.28	Agree
The overall environment at undergraduate level is not advantageous to learning vocabulary.	3.27	4	1.363	Agree
Upon entering university, first-year students come with a terribly poor level of vocabulary knowledge.	3.67	5	1.493	Agree
What worsens the situation more is that the English language syllabus adopted at undergraduate levels across Sudanese Universities is not effective enough to develop vocabulary learning.	4.53	5	.937	strongly agree
The English syllabus is not given enough weight along the lines of other syllabuses	4.27	5	.980	strongly agree
Students should be encouraged to ask their peers of the words they ignore their meaning.	3.87	4	1.074	Agree
The teaching of English at lower undergraduate levels is entrusted to barely trained tutors Hence, vocabulary, le(arning is affected.	4.03	4	1.098	Agree
Almost all syllabuses are designed by local Sudanese expertise but mostly assigned to staff members with relatively inadequate knowledge in syllabus design.	4.00	5	1.174	Agree
Not all the parts of the syllabus, i.e. The skills are given the same time in handling, and so vocabulary learning is given very little time.	3.43	4	1.431	Agree
Learning about the culture of the native speakers can help students remarkably learn vocabulary.	3.73	5	1.437	Agree
Syllabuses designed locally often fail to cater for external culture which is desirable to enhance the learners background and word power.	3.83	5	1.464	Agree

Chi-Square table(4-19)

Table (4-19)to test the research hypotheses of using authentic material in learning vocabulary, the researcher used chi square test to test the items. The calculate chi square values is between (9.2-35.6) and degrees of freedom (3or 4)for all items and level of significant less than (0.05) for all items, so that proves there are significant.

	Chi-Square	Df	p.value.	Decision
Students are advised to use bilingual dictionaries to help them translate English words into Arabic language?	24.333	4	.000	Significant
Tutors have to encourage their students to use pictures illustrated in the textbook to find the word meanings.	23.667	4	.000	Significant
Meaning of words is best learnt by identifying their parts of speech.	9.200	3	.027	Significant
Classroom practitioners at university level are not adequately trained to handle the available material proficiently enough to challenge students into increasing their word power.	23.333	4	.000	Significant
Teachers, there at university,do not provide students with variedreading activities which reinforce vocabulary learning strategies.	18.333	4	.001	Significant
The overall environment at undergraduate level is not advantageous to learning vocabulary.	11.333	4	.023	Significant
Upon entering university, first-year students come with a terribly poor level of vocabulary knowledge.	11.000	4	.027	Significant
What worsens the situation more is that the English language syllabus adopted at undergraduate levels across Sudanese Universities is not effective enough to develop vocabulary learning.	35.600	3	.000	Significant
The English syllabus is not given enough weight along the lines of other syllabuses	16.667	3	.001	Significant
Students should be encouraged to ask their peers of the words they ignore their meaning.	16.000	4	.003	Significant
The teaching of English at lower undergraduate levels is entrusted to barely trained tutors Hence, vocabulary, learning is affected.	24.333	4	.000	Significant
Almost all syllabuses are designed by local Sudanese expertise but mostly assigned to staff members with relatively inadequate knowledge in syllabus design	18.333	4	.001	Significant
Not all the parts of the syllabus, i.e. The skills are given the same time in handling, and so vocabulary learning is given very little time	9.667	4	.046	Significant
Learning about the culture of the native speakers can help students remarkably learn vocabulary	16.333	4	.003	Significant
Syllabuses designed locally often fail to cater for external culture which is desirable to enhance the learners background and word power.	19.333	4	.001	Significant

Table (4-20)

The table (4-20)shows the ratios and repetitions of the result of the students' test shows that (10) individuals by (22.3%), are Failed, (7) individuals by (15.6%) are passed, (12) individual by (26.6%) are very good and (16) individual by (35.6%) are Excellent, and the following chart shows this.

Degrees	Frequency	Percent
Fail	10	22.2%
Pass	7	15.6%
Very Good	12	26.7%
Excellent	16	35.6%
Total	45	100.0%

Chart(4-20) Degrees of the students'
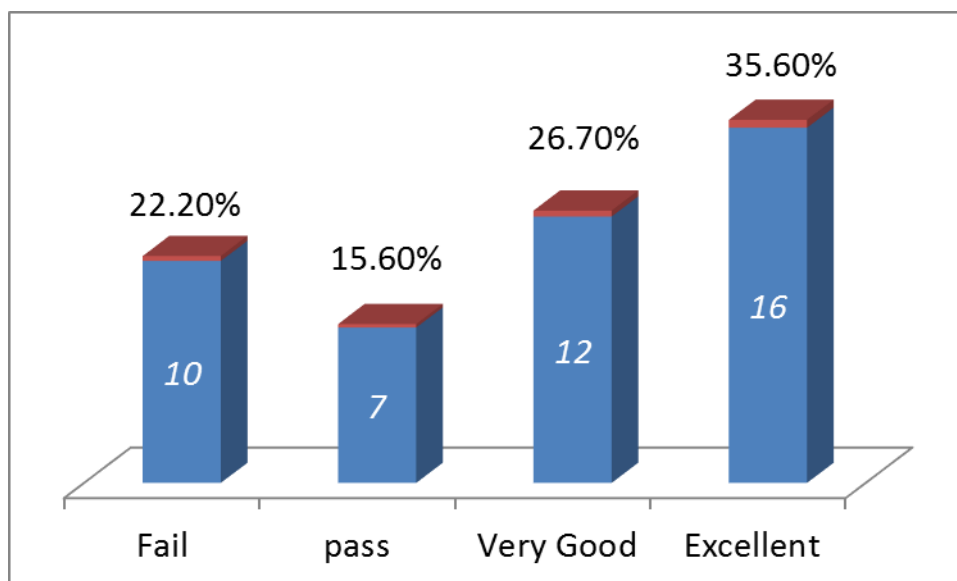
Chapter Five

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS ,RESULT, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER

5.1. Introduction

The researcher noticed from the test and the questionnaire, that students performance in vocabulary learning is very weak. The researcher discovered from the analysis of the tools that:

5.2. Summary of the main findings

After analyzing the data collected through the instruments, the study has come to a number of findings. The most important conclusions were that:

1- The undergraduate first level rarely use effective vocabulary learning techniques with very little awareness of the strategies.

2- The study revealed no significant relationship between awareness of the learning vocabulary techniques and reading outcomes.

3- The study revealed no significant gender differences in terms of awareness of authentic using processes. However, the study revealed significant gender difference in terms of vocabulary learning, and that female students performed better than male students.

4- The study revealed English teachers' low awareness of using authentic materials and their role in the vocabulary learning processes.

5.3. RESULTS

By using the authentic materials, and using an observation and questionnaires, the results show that most of the students' attitudes towards the use of authentic English language materials are positive and they enjoy learning. Also it shows that authentic material could influence both learning and teaching. when listening to English songs.
According to the researcher's observation and questionnaire the researcher found out most of the students prefer using authentic materials for vocabulary acquisition. By all of researches done and some materials like questionnaire and observation, the researcher could find and figure out that by authentic materials students could learn more about their words using culture and also how they could memorize and saving words for too long though. When students use authentic materials, they sense

real world and we can say they are using real language and they learn skills, so it can help them in coping with real situation outside of the class, in another word, students are prepared for actual use of vocabulary, which learnt by using authentic materials. Also, authentic materials sources are contextually rich, so learners could deal with the useful words. Because the students could get acquainted to a new culture and learn about it, it causes motivation on learning them and it could be memorable for long though. Finally, it has been shown that authentic materials can effect on words and how to learn it.

5.4. Conclusion

Research indicates that students with vocabulary learning problems have poor inference skills. To infer what's happening in a passage is a vital cognitive skill. It enables the reader to go beyond surface meaning of a text and to go deep and discover the author's concealed meaning.
Of course, in student's fiction not everything on the page concrete and literal. An important part of reading and comprehending fiction is to infer from what the author doesn't say, but hints at. Students with poor comprehension skills don't 'read between the lines' well. Poor inference skills could result from poor background knowledge, weak vocabulary and semantic word knowledge, and incomplete knowledge of story grammar and prediction.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Studies

As the scope of the present study was confined to comprehend learning techniques in first level , and for extreme benefit, the researcher suggests the following:

1-Further research and studies are to be conducted on the issue of learning processes at the early first level to improve students' learning skill.

2- Further research and studies on vocabulary learning can be conducted on undergraduate level on particular stages of the vocabulary learning such as pre-reading and semantics.

Finally, the researcher hopes that this piece of research will help students of the undergraduate, particularly first level students to improve their listening skill and be familiar with different learning strategies that

they can use before, during and after the reading process. The researcher also hopes that English teachers in the Sudanese universities will find that this piece of experience is stimulating and helpful in training their students to practice different learning techniques which are necessary for improving their study achievement.

5.6. Recommendations

In the light of the results of this study within its limits, the researcher would like to recommend the following:

1- Undergraduate First level are to be made aware of basic stage of the vocabulary learning process.

2- Undergraduate, first level are to be made aware of the comprehension reading techniques and glance words meaning before, during and after the reading process.

3- Undergraduate students first level in Sudanese University for science & Technology are recommended to practice more authentic materials which are considered by most authorities as the most important stage of the vocabulary learning process.

4- Teachers of English of the undergraduate level are recommended to work directly and closely with students and support them to get their ideas together.

5- Teachers of English of the first level are recommended to get their students involved in learning vocabulary by using the process approach.

6- Organizing in-service training courses and workshops for teachers of English in general, and particularly first level teachers to improve their professional development to cope with the most current teaching vocabulary strategies.

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Appendixes

SUDAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COLLEGE OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

COLLEGE OF EUCATION-ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR UNIVERSITY TUTORS AT SUDANESE
UNIVERSITIES

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire will gather data about the learning strategies students use when setting about learning vocabulary intentionally. The analyzed data will help form a better insight about the nature, causes and how the problem can be addressed.

Part 1: Personal data:
1. Name: (optional_____

2. Highest degree earned:

Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	PhD
☐	☐	☐

3 How many years have you been teaching English

1.year	2-5 years	2. 6-10 years	more than 10 year
☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 2: General statements:

Instructions:
• Please choose only one answer for every question or statement.

Use the following scales:

Strongly agree: (If you strongly agree with the idea stated in the item).

Agree: (If you agree with the idea stated in the item).

Disagree: (If you disagree with the idea stated in the item).

Strongly disagree: (If you strongly disagree with the idea stated in the item).

No.	STATEMENT	RESPONSE				
		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	Neutral	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1.	Students are advised to use bilingual dictionaries to help them translate English words into Arabic language?					
2	Tutors have to encourage their students to use pictures illustrated in the textbook to find the word meanings.					
3	Meaning of words is best learnt by identifying their parts of speech.					
4.	Classroom practitioners at university level are not adequately trained to handle the available material proficiently enough to challenge students into increasing their word power.					
5	Teachers, there at university, do not provide students with varied reading activities which reinforce vocabulary learning strategies.					
6.	The overall environment at undergraduate level is not advantageous to learning vocabulary.					

7	Upon entering university, first-year students come with a terribly poor level of vocabulary knowledge.					
8.	What worsens the situation more is that the English language syllabus adopted at undergraduate levels across Sudanese Universities is not effective enough to develop vocabulary learning.					
9.	The English syllabus is not given enough weight along the lines of other syllabuses					
10	Students should be encouraged to ask their peers of the words they ignore their meaning..					
11	The teaching of English at lower undergraduate levels is entrusted to barely trained tutors. Hence, vocabulary, learning is affected.					
12	Almost all syllabuses are designed by local Sudanese expertise but mostly assigned to staff members with relatively inadequate knowledge in syllabus design.					
13	Not all the parts of the syllabus, i.e. The skills are given the same time in handling, and so vocabulary learning is given very little time.					
14	Learning about the culture of the native speakers can help					

	students remarkably learn vocabulary.					
15	Syllabuses designed locally often fail to cater for external culture which is desirable to enhance the learners background and word power.					

Data collecting Comprehension Test

Sudan University of Science and Technology

Undergraduate Level

First Class

A Day's Wait

A Story By Ernest Hemingway

He came into the room to shut the window while we were still in bed, and I saw he looked ill. He was shivering, his face was white, and he walked slowly as though it ached to move.

"What's the matter, Schatz?"

"I've got a headache."

"You'd better go back to bed."

"No I'm all right."

"You go to bed . I'll see you when I'm dressed."

But when I came downstairs, he was dressed, sitting by the fire, looking a very sick and miserable boy of nine years. When I put my hand on his forehead. I knew he had a fever.

"You go to bed," I said. "You're sick."

"I'm all right," he said.

When the doctor came, he took the boy's temperature.

"What is it?" I asked him.

"One hundred and two."

Downstairs the doctor left three different medicines in different coloured capsules, with instructions for giving them. He seemed to know all about influenza and said there was nothing to worry about if the fever did not go above one hundred and four degrees. This was a light epidemic of flu and there was no danger if you avoided pneumonia.

Back in the room I wrote the boy's temperature down and made a note of times to give the various capsules.

"Do you want me to read to you?"

"All right. If you want to," said the boy. His face was very white and there were dark areas under his eyes. He lay still in the bed and seemed very detached from what was going on. I read aloud from a book about pirates but I could see he was not following what I was reading.

"How do you feel, Schatz?" I asked him.

"Just the same, so far," he said.

I sat at the foot of the bed and read to myself while I waited for it to be time to give another capsule. It would have been natural for him to go to sleep, but when I looked up he was looking at the foot of the bed, looking very strangely.

"Why don't you try to go to sleep? I'll wake you up for the medicine."

"I'd rather stay awake."

After a while he said to me : "You don't have to stay in here with me, if it bothers you."

"It doesn't bother me."

"No, I mean you don't have to stay if it's going to bother you."

I thought perhaps he was a little lightheaded, and after giving him the prescribed capsules at eleven o'clock I went out for a walk.

Q1- Now read the passage carefully and answer the following questions:

1- Where was the man when the boy came in to shut the window?

2- How did the man know that he had fever?

3- was the boy shivering because he was cold?

4- How old was he?

5- How did the man know that he was not well ?

6- How high was his temperature?

7- What did the boy suffer from? Was it dangerous?

8- How did the boy look?

9- Was he listening to what was being read?

10- Did he feel better?

Q 2- Re-write these sentences using one word from the passage instead of the words or phrases in italics :

1-I have got **a *pain in my head.***

2- I knew I had a very high temperature when I ***touched the front of my head****.*

3- The boy was ***shaking strongly*** and his face was white.

4- The doctor ***have order for*** giving the capsules to the patient.

5- He ***seemed far away*** from what was going on.

Q3- The verb take has different meanings when it is used with different words. Revise their meaning and use each in a space in one of the following sentences.

Take …by   take care of   take (time)   take off (clothes)   take up

Take off (plane)   take shelter from   take action   take place   take it easy

1-A man …………………. His hat when he meets a lady.

2- Many women have ………………………..professions such as medicine and law.

3- He………………………….the rain in an old hut in the forest.

4- "Don't think about your illness," said the doctor. "Just lie in bed and…………………..''

5- At London Airport a plane …………………………. Or land almost every minute.

6- It will………………………….to repair this motor-car, perhaps two hours.

7- The battle of Yarmuk…………………………..in Jordon.

8- A mother should ………………………………..her children.

9- I………………..him…………..the hand and showed him round the building.

10- One must sometimes………………………..against a neighbor if he is too troublesome.

Q 4- They **came crowding** into the room.

     A box **came floating** down the river.

Complete these sentences with the form ……ing

1- Let us go …………….. on the lake !   sail

2- We went ……………… yesterday.   shop

3- Salama came …………… through the door.   run

4- We are going …………….. in the forest.   shoot

5- He has gone …………….. in the desert.   hunt

6- They came ……………….. up the road.   race

7- The lion came ……………through the village street.   roar

8- The dogs came ……………across the garden.   rush

9- We have planned to go……………on Thursday.   swim

10- The cat has gone………………..mice.   chase

Q 5- Translate these two sentences into Arabic :

    We expect to be late.   The train

    We expect **the train to be** late.

…………………………………………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………..

Now change the following sentences and translate each pair in the same way:

1-I'd prefer to do some homework.   the children

………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………….

2- Our teacher would like to go home now   us

………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………

3- I'd hate to have to wait in the rain.   your friend

………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………..

4- We'd love to discuss the problem.   the others.

………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………

5- The old man asked to sit down.   his neighbours

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

Best wishes,,,,,,,,, Sabreen