Effective Vocabulary Learning for Oral Communication For the first year Student,
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Abstract
This study aimed at investigating the effect of academic vocabulary learning on oral communication. The descriptive analytic method was adopted in conducting the study. To test and determine the effectiveness of presentation method and study skills approach on improving the students' vocabulary and oral skills in English as a foreign language (EFL) students. Questionnaire and test were chosen as main tools for data collection. The questionnaire was distributed to (30) experienced lectures at different universities. A test was given to(50) first year students at college of languages, Sudan University of Science and Technology. The SPSS program (statistical package for social sciences) was used for data analysis. The statistical analysis for the results of the questionnaire and test showed that the presentation method and study skills, improve the students’ vocabulary and oral skills in English as a foreign language. The researcher recommended that, EFL learners have to focus on learning academic vocabulary for oral communication in the classes, to encourage the learners to feel free and speak fluently. Presentation method has a great role in fulfilling that.

Key words: academic vocabulary, Oral Communication, approach, effectiveness

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary – as an integral part of a language, plays a crucial role in The language process. The primary thing in learning a language is the acquisition of Vocabulary and practice it and also, Vocabulary is the basic factor necessary for mastering a language. The purpose that we learn second language is for communication. So, when we learn a language we need to master four skills, which, are listening and speaking, reading and writing. Meanwhile, Vocabulary knowledge is a fundamental to them. So, one can not understand a sentence without knowing what most of the words mean, this means that the lack of Vocabulary knowledge affects all the four language skills.
Background of the Study
In order to communicate effectively, a considerable amount of vocabulary words is necessary for EFL / ESL learners. Certainly, the numbers of words learners need to be capable of using another language (L2) vary. (Coady, 1997; Huckin & Coady, 1999) suggest that learners need at least 3,000 word families, and 5,000 to 10,000 word families for university-level texts to achieve accurate contextual guessing, while Schmitt & (McCarthy, 1997) claim that a learner knows 80 per cent of the words in a text with a vocabulary size of 2,000 words. (Cristina, 2010 p. 171) argues that it takes many years of hard work for a second-language speaker to get to native-speaker level, and goes further stating that “Some linguists estimate that educated native speakers could have an active vocabulary of between 8,000 and 10,000 words. Good second-language speakers might have an active vocabulary of 3,500 words. That is quite a difference" (Nation, 2001: 20) goes further claiming that language users probably need a vocabulary of 15,000 to 20,000 words “to read with minimal disturbance from unknown vocabulary.”
Vocabulary knowledge is undoubtedly a central part of linguistic knowledge, and its study is as old as the study of language learning itself. The literature of second language learning/acquisition abounds in the study of vocabulary learning. (Schmidt, 1993), (Knight, 1994), (Nation, 1997, 2001), and (Yoshii, 2002) are among many researchers who consider learning vocabulary essential for ESL and EFL learners. Much of the recent research has been conducted to examine the importance of vocabulary in reading comprehension. The findings of many studies show a strong relationship between students’ vocabulary knowledge and general reading skills (Salem, 2007).
Psychologists, linguists, and language teachers have been interested in vocabulary learning strategies for a long time (Levenston, 1979). Actually, researchers began to effectively focus on vocabulary learning research in the mid 1980s and vocabulary learning is now a current focus in ESL pedagogy and research. Learning new vocabulary is, presumably, the most important element in second language learning, (Knight, 1994). (Candlin, 1988, p. 260) describes the study of vocabulary - in its social context- by being "the heart of the learning process". Other researchers such as (Harley, 1996) accept the importance of vocabulary learning in language proficiency and academic achievement. However, their ideas about how vocabulary is learned vary widely. They argue that one of the major concerns in FL/L2 vocabulary learning is the need to develop effective pedagogical methods for teaching FL/L2 vocabulary. Yet, here, it is important to mention what (Nation, 2001, p. 20) states about the difference between two categories of vocabulary concerning the teachers’ and learners’ aims, and the efforts they exert: high-frequency words, and low-frequency words. High-frequency words do not require as much effort as low-frequency words. For the latter, he claims that “the teachers’ aim is to train learners in the use of strategies to deal with such vocabulary. These strategies are guessing from context clues, deliberate studying words on word cards, using word parts, and dictionary use".
A number of questionnaires, interviews and case studies (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Jones, 1995; Lawson & Hogden, 1996; Porte, 1988; Sanaoui, 1995) – as reported in (Hulstijn, 2001) – handled the concern of learners of a second language with the burden of vocabulary learning. They investigated two major hypotheses: students should learn words intentionally, even by memorizing, and students should learn or acquire new vocabulary by 'picking up' words incidentally, as a by-product of being exposed to L2 input in reading and listening tasks.

According to the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (Krashen 1981), second language learners have two distinct ways of developing ability in second languages: learning and acquisition. Language acquisition is similar to the way children develop their first language. Learners can acquire L2 without meaning to. What they are aware of is using the language for some communicative purposes. What is more, they are often not aware of what they have acquired; they usually cannot describe or talk about the rules they have acquired but all they have is a "feel" for the language. Language learning is different. It involves knowing about language or formal knowledge of a language. Language learning is thought to profit from explicit presentation of rules and from error correction. Error correction, supposedly, helps the learner come to the correct conscious mental representation of a rule. “Error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning”.

1.2 Statement of the problem
Lack of L2 sufficient vocabulary has been a common complaint or a problem for university preparatory year students in Sudanese universities. There is always a big gap between their levels as secondary school graduates, and the courses they are supposed to study at the university’s prep year English program. A considerable percentage of university prep year students find difficulty in expressing themselves in English (L2) and consequently in coping with the activities in their daily classes. For students who just joined a new course, it is frustrating to open their English books and see a majority of unfamiliar words. Consequently, the university’s Curriculum Unit has to look for courses of lower levels than the assumed ones, to be able to fill this gap. In addition, individual differences among those students are huge due to the big differences in quality and quantity among the courses they have already studied as they are coming from different schools and areas. For all these reasons, using glossing can be beneficial in two ways: solving this problem, and helping students learn and retain new vocabulary without wasting too much time in teaching new vocabulary or choosing English courses of lower levels.

1.3 Objective of the Study
The purpose of the present study is to explore the effectiveness of learning and teaching the strategies to be used in developing undergraduate students at Sudanese universities. There are many strategies advocated by linguists in this respect foremost of which is the use of glosses such as L1 translation of target words and definition of the target words. Arabic can be used to make the different glosses as well as English. The followings are the research objectives
1-To find out to what extent the teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies can help improve learners’ oral communication.
2-To find out to what extent student’s aptitude can govern vocabulary learning.
3-To find out to what extents actions of learners can affect vocabulary learning.
1.4 Significance of the Study
What makes this study significant is the fact that almost all Sudanese undergraduate students are incapable of expressing themselves in good sensible English. So the study seeks to explore the type of vocabulary suitable for that desired end. Much of the relevant research, over the past three decades or so, has been done on the effects of vocabulary learning for communicative purposes. Most of these studies attempt to question the following issues: the kind of vocabulary needed to learn effectively the second or foreign language; The contradictory and inconsistent results of many studies regarding the effects of vocabulary learning strategies and oral communication. Research into the area of language strategies began in earnest in the 1970s as part of the movement away from a predominantly teaching-oriented perspective, to one which included interest in how the actions of learners might affect their acquisition of language. Concurrently, there was a growing awareness that aptitude was not the governing factor in language learning success, implying that language achievement depended quite heavily on the individual learner's endeavours. This naturally led to a greater interest in how individual learners approached and controlled their own learning and use of language. (For summaries of the development of language strategy research, see Rubin, 1987; Skehan, 1989; for book-length treatments of learner strategies, see Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; McDonough, 1995).  

1.5 Questions of the Study
1. To what extent can the teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies help improve learners’ oral communication?  
2. To what extent can aptitude govern vocabulary learning success?  
3. To what extent can the actions of learners affect their vocabulary acquisition?  

1.6 Methodology of the Study
In this study, experimental methods will be adopted. The proposed experiment will be conducted in Sudan university of Science and Technology. There will be a test for first class students. A questionnaire will be administered to teachers. Furthermore, some language classes will be observed. The researcher will also confirm the validity and the reliability of the research tools before their application.  

2.1 Historical Review
Much of the literature on second language acquisition as a general process (e.g. Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 1999) pays little attention to vocabulary learning. This is not just a recent phenomenon. O'Dell (1997: 258) comments that vocabulary and lexis are absent from major books on the syllabus and theory of language teaching throughout the 1970s and 1980s. Its omission may have an even longer history. Wilkins (1972: 109), writing at the beginning of the 1970s, suggests it dates from the development of structural linguistics. For much of the last half century or so, therefore, the consideration of vocabulary in the process of language learning, testing and teaching appears to have been sidelined and, as Meara (1980) describes it, turned into a Cinderella subject. Much of our understanding of which words are learned, how they are learned and how to test for word knowledge, is governed by our understanding of word frequency. This chapter will. Examine the frequency model of vocabulary learning; illustrate the lexical profiles that groups and individuals possess; Show how these profiles develop over time and as overall language
knowledge increases; Consider how word difficulty might also influence learning. Because word frequency and learning are so closely connected, it is generally thought necessary to target knowledge of the most frequent words in a language for assessment. This enables a good measure of vocabulary knowledge to be constructed that works accurately yet efficiently.

Children anywhere learn their first or early words parentally. Their language reflects parents’ vocabulary. It was observed that infants are capable of perceiving and discriminating adults speech sounds as early as one month of age (Eimas, Siqueland, Jusczyk, & Vigorito, 1971). As they reach four and six months, children can discriminate quite firmly some distinct phonemes of their mother’s tongue such as /ba/ vs. /da/. Their abilities to discriminate new sounds which are foreign to their language are affected by their perceptual and cognitive development. Infants experience total loss of their discriminatory abilities to sounds which are not found in their native tongue as they reach ten and twelve month of their age (Werker & Tees, 1999).

Moving from individual sounds to larger phonological units, 6- to 9-month-old infants begin to track the co-occurrence of sounds in syllables (e.g., ba and by) by using what appear to be rudimentary statistical cues (Newport & Aslin, 2000; Thiessen & Saffran, 2003). Similar statistical cues facilitate an infant’s ability to track the co-occurrence of syllables that form words (e.g., baby, daddy). Stress cues appear to be used to isolate individual words from a continuous speech stream; this system works because the initial syllable of many English words is stressed (Thiessen & Saffran, 2003). Before the end of the first year, infants can discriminate not only sounds and syllables, but familiar and unfamiliar words. Eight-month-old infants can discriminate between words read to them in a story context and unfamiliar words after a 2-week delay (Jusczyk & Hohne, 1997).

Turning to production, infants begin social vocalizing and babbling vowels at 3 months, followed by the babbling of vowel and consonant combinations at 6 months, but it is not until 11 months that an infant’s babbling begins to correspond with phonemes in his or her native language (Bates & Goodman, 1997; MacWhinney, 1998). Even though word-like vocalizations (e.g., da-da) may appear before an infant’s first birthday, these words generally lack a symbolic reference and are therefore not true words. An infant does not truly acquire meaningful words until he or she understands that words are references to objects, events, and actions in the world.

By the age of 3, most children have acquired an almost adult-like understanding of syntactical constructions (Bates & Goodman, 1997). By the time they have entered first grade they have acquired their native languages’ phonological system, and can produce almost all of the sounds of their native language (Graves, 1987). The mastery of vocabulary acquisition, though, is still vastly incomplete. In school, children develop additional word-learning strategies. Direct vocabulary instruction appears to contribute to vocabulary acquisition (Graves, 1987). Biemiller (2001) suggests that at least 80% of the words children acquire by the sixth grade are learned through direct instruction; children acquire root word meanings through direct explanations from parents, educators, and peers, and within texts. Although research on the best technique of direct vocabulary instruction is mixed, several conclusions concerning its overall efficacy can be made.
Direct instruction of words, then, needs to go beyond simply asking children to memorize a definition to providing children with repeated exposures to words, their definitions, and contextual information, and allowing the child to explore the meaning of the new words rather than simply memorizing them (Osborn & Armbruster, 2001). Three seemingly successful methods of direct vocabulary instruction include the keyword method (e.g., McDaniel & Pressley, 1984; Pressley, Levin, & Miller, 1982), semantic mapping (e.g., Johnson, Pittelman, & Heimlich, 1986), and semantic feature analysis (Anders & Bos, 1986). The keyword method encourages children to find a familiar word within the unfamiliar word (e.g., car from the novel word carlin, meaning old woman), and then connect the meaning of the novel word with an image associated with the familiar word (e.g., an old woman driving a car; Pressley et al., 1982). McDaniel and Pressley (1984) found significantly greater definition recall with the keyword method in comparison to a context method for acquiring word meaning. Semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis involve graphically relating novel words to a familiar thematic concept, thereby activating students’ familiar experiences and concepts (Anders & Bos, 1986; Johnson et al., 1986).

When children learn to read, their ability to derive word meanings from context extends from oral to written contexts. Jenkins, Stein, and Wysocki (1984) explored fifth graders’ ability to acquire word meanings incidentally, and found that students could acquire knowledge about previously unknown words in context-rich paragraphs even without explicit instruction. Nagy et al. (1985) found similar results for average and above-average eighth graders, for contextually derived word knowledge utilizing natural texts. Shore and (Kempe, 1999) explored student’s partial knowledge of contextual words, finding that meaning-restrictive contexts allow students to limit and then infer possible word meanings.

Fukkink and de (Glopper, 1998) performed a meta-analysis on studies that directly attempted to improve students’ ability to derive word meanings through context. They found that direct instruction in using contextual cues is effective, with a mean instructional effect of .43 standard deviation units. It appears therefore that students learn about words in both oral and written contexts, and that direct instruction in utilizing context more effectively positively influences their vocabulary acquisition.

2.2 Knowledge of a Word

Knowledge of a word has been conceptualized in alternative ways. These alternative conceptualizations include, but are not limited to, dimensional word knowledge, stage-like word knowledge, continuum-based word knowledge, contextualized and decontextualized word knowledge, and partial and comprehensive word knowledge. Although word knowledge has traditionally been assessed in a decontextualized, dichotomous fashion, theories on what it means to know a word suggest that true knowledge cannot be measured so simplistically (Beck et al., 2002).

Dale (1965) devised one of the earliest conceptualizations of word knowledge, which addresses the extent of a person’s understanding of a word:

1. Stage 1: never saw it before.
2. Stage 2: heard it, but doesn’t know what it means.
3. Stage 3: recognizes it in the context as having something to do with.
4. Stage 4: knows it well.
These four stages of word knowledge recognize that the meaning of a word can be partial and contextually based.

2.3 Vocabulary Development

Learning to read and write is a key developmental milestone in a literate society. Children who learn to read early, without significant difficulties, and well, tend to be more avid readers than children who experience difficulties in learning to read. As a consequence, these children experience more exposure to print, thereby both solidifying and expanding their skills in reading and writing. These reading skills serve as the cornerstone to acquiring content knowledge in other domains both in school and throughout life.

Significantly, a relatively large degree of children’s exposure to and acquisition of vocabulary and other language skills occurs through reading. In contrast to those children who acquire reading skills early and without much difficulty, children who are poor readers tend to continue to struggle with reading and writing, read less than their peers who are more skilled in reading, and receive less exposure to content knowledge, vocabulary, and other language skills.

Whereas many children learn to read without significant difficulty, a sizable percentage of children experience at least some difficulty, and a significant number of children experience substantial difficulties. Recent results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (National Center for Education Statistics; November, 2003) indicated that among fourth-grade children in the United States, only 32% performed at or above the proficient level in reading and 37% performed below the basic level in reading (an additional 31% scored at the basic level). Although it is tempting to conclude from these findings that schools are doing worse today in educating children, examination of results of the NAEP across years reveals that the percentage of children performing at proficient levels has remained constant. The problem is not that schools are increasingly failing to teach children to read. The problem is that societal demands for literacy are increasing.

The most common cause of early reading difficulties is a weakness in children’s phonological processing skills, the ability to recognize, manipulate, and use the sound structure of spoken language. Children with poor phonological processing skills have difficulty cracking the alphabetic code that connects the graphemes in written alphabetic languages to the phonemes in spoken language. These children lack an effective strategy for decoding an unfamiliar word when they encounter it in print. They tend to rely too heavily on contextual cues to guess the unfamiliar word rather than using knowledge of phonics to decode it. Consequently, their attempts to decode unfamiliar words result in many word-reading errors. Reading grade-level material is difficult, and many of these children begin to develop negative attitudes about reading, resulting in reduced opportunities to practice reading (Oka & Paris, 1986).

2.4 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: Muawia Mohammed Alhasan Gaily, (2001).

(Teaching English speech Acts in Sudanese EFL context ) Afocus on Apology , Request , Refusal and complaint forms .

The study investigated how programmed pedagogical sessions could lead to promoting The participants performance of the four target speech acts apology , request , compliant and refusal .
A group of 20 Male Sudanese university learner's studying at different five Sudanese universities participated in this study. Data were collected via two kinds of tools: Discourse completion Test and Multiple choice pragmatic comprehension test, which they were used both as a pre–test and post. The results obtained revealed noticeable development in the participant's performance of the target four speech acts in the post test.

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.

3.1 Methodology of the Study.

The questionnaire has been used as an instrument to gather information that related to the study hypotheses, which has been developed through the surveillance of so many previous relevant studies, aiming at gauging the opinions of surveyed members (teachers).

The Questionnaire divided into two parts:-
1- The first part:- contains the data of the research sample members in particular, which is the descriptive personal information of research sample as follows:-
1- Highest degree earned
2- Numbers of years in teaching English

2- The second part:- the prime study items which is the axis through it we will have clear idea of the study hypotheses, this part included 3rd axis with rate of (6) items for the first axis, (3) items for the second section, and (6) items for the third section measuring the study hypotheses

3- Asinter-alia:-
1- The first section, it has been measured by (6) items.
2- The second section, it has been measured by (3) items.
3- The third section, it has measured (6) items.

1- Study measurement.
The possibility inquiry rate was measured against the paragraphs, based on graded five fold in accordance with the Liker scale measurement distributed on the weight of the response of sample members, that graded from the highest weight which is (5) represented in field (highly agree) leaning toward the lowest weight which is (1) represented in the field (categorically disagree) leveled with three weight in between. Purposely, so as to give the sample members a free hand to select the accurate answer as illustrated here in after; table (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of approval</th>
<th>Relative weight According to likert scale</th>
<th>percentage</th>
<th>Statistical significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Bigger than 80%</td>
<td>Very high approval grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>%80-70</td>
<td>high approval grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>%69-50</td>
<td>Medium approval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>%49-20</td>
<td>Low approval grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Less than 20%</td>
<td>No approval grade</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consequentially, hypothetical mean of the study could be explained as:
The overall grade of the measurement is the grand total of the sample for the items \(\frac{1+2+3+4+5}{5}=(\frac{5}{15})=3\) this represent the hypothetical mean of the study, consequentially, if the average sample increases compare to the hypothetical mean (3) this indicate the compatibility of the sample members to the item. Chart (4/2) showing the distribution of the first hypothesis.

![Chart showing distribution of first hypothesis](image)

Table (4.2) and figure (4.2) show the descriptive statistics (percentages and frequencies) of the first hypothesis. It is found that (29.4%) of the participants strongly agree, and (69.4%) of them agree. This indicates that all the respondents agree with the statements of the first hypothesis.

![Descriptive statistics of first hypothesis](image)

The results of participants in chart (4/2) indicate that most of the respondents response are agree.

Table (4/2) descriptive statistics of the first Hypothesis.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>language learning is thought to profit from explicit presentation of rules and error correction</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A crucial distention is often made between knowing a word and using it</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For every vocabulary dimensions there is a knowledge dimension and skill dimension</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and general reading skills</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In school Children develop additional word learning strategies</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When Children learn to read, their ability to derive word meanings form context extends from oral to written context</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.498</td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data of field Study

Table (4/2) shows the descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and mode) of the first hypothesis items. The computational circles around the numbers (4 and 5) for all the statements and as indicated by the numbers (4), have average and homogeneous standard deviations for all the differences, not exceeding (0,305). According to Likert Scales which were previously explained figures (4&2) mean agree and strongly agree respectively. This confirms that the opinions of sample members of the first hypothesis are the strongly agree or agree and the column called the result shows this.

Table (4/5) One-Sample Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Value = 3</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All items</td>
<td>32.584</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data of field Study

The test of statistical significance of differences between agreed members and disagreed members with hypothesis items through the test of differences between the mean for the items compared with hypothesis mean of the study and from the table (4/5) the researcher noted that the general mean for all items (4.2) with standard deviation 0.20233 in the table (4/5) the calculated value (T) All items (32.58) with agrees of freedom (29) and significance level (0.000) . This value for level of significant is less than level significant (0.05). That means there is statistical significance
differences and with regard to the previously mentioned tables (percentage and frequencies and Chi- square tables and (T). We can say that there is a highly agreement with the all items of the hypothesis this table shows the degree of the students in the test given

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failed</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data of field Study

The scores of the test show that most of the responses of the participants are either accepted or descriptively accepted.

4.1 Summary of the main Findings:

The present study come out with following findings:

It is noted from the response of the participants of the questionnaire that there is a strong relationship between Vocabulary Knowledge and reading skills. It is also found that when children learn to read, their ability to derive word meanings from context extends from oral to written context. Children were found to acquire root word meaning through direct explanations from parents, educators and peers and within texts.

Another finding concerning this study is that acquiring an extensive vocabulary is one of the largest challenges in learning second language - A further finding is that children anywhere learn their first or early words parentally. Also direct vocabulary instruction contributes to vocabulary acquisition. The finding of the study indicate that learners acquire language via natural authentic communication, not direct instruction that is to say grammar is not important.
Children were also found to acquire their native language for phonological system and produce the sound of their native language.

4.2. Conclusions:
(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.

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