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SUDAN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
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**Correlation between Students' Vocabulary Size and Their Reading
Comprehension**

(A Case Study of Medical College at Jazan University, KSA)

علاقة الارتباط بين حجم المفردات اللغوية والقراءة المعرفية لدى الطلاب – الكلية الطبية
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**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Ph.D. in English (Applied Linguistics)**

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Dedication

*To those who are always beside me
my dearest parents, my husband,
my sisters, and my brother,
with love.*

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the correlation between students' vocabulary size and their reading comprehension. The students were from first year Medical College Jazan University Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The samples selected were (50) instructors at Jazan University from different colleges and nationalities, also (150) students who were enrolled in different departments at the Medical College female section, such as Medicine, Dentistry, and Nursing. In order to carry out the study the researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method. Two instruments were used including teachers' questionnaire and students' achievement tests. For analyzing data the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program was used. The results of the study revealed that EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary was weak. In addition to that the size of vocabulary appeared to affect the student's reading comprehension ability. Moreover the use of English language as a medium of instruction appeared to affect the students' learning of vocabulary. Based on the results the researcher recommended that EFL students' should be aware of the importance of learning English vocabulary and develop it by using different learning strategies and techniques. Additionally, students should increase the size of English vocabulary to master their reading comprehension ability as well as all English language skills, since English language has become the language of instruction in English classes. Finally, mastering vocabulary can enhance students' entire understanding.

Abstract

Arabic Version

مستخلص الدراسة

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى استقصاء عوامل الإرتباط بين حجم المفردات اللغوية للطلاب وقراءة الإستيعاب. لقد تم إختيار الطلاب من السنة الأولى بالكلية الطبية بجازان بالمملكة العربية السعودية. العينات التي تم اختيارها عبارة عن 50 مدرّس بجامعة جازان من كليات وجنسيات مختلفة و ايضا 150 طالبا مسجلين في أقسام مختلفة بالكلية الطبية قسم البنات مثل أقسام الطب وطب الأسنان والتمريض. وللقيام بالدراسة تبنى الباحث الطريقة الوصفية التحليلية. تم إستخدام أداتين شملتا إستبيان المدرسين وإختبار تحصيل الطلاب. ولقدتم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج الحزمه الاحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية . وأشارت نتائج الدراسة الى إن وعي الطلاب الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بمفرداتها ضعيف. و يؤثر حجم المفردات في قدرة الطلاب على قراءة الإستيعاب. وايضا ان إستخدام اللغة الإنجليزية كوسيط تعليمي يؤثر في تعلم المفردات اللغوية. إستنادا على النتائج توصلت الباحثة لتوصيات اهمها: ينبغي أن يعي الطلاب الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بأهمية دراسة المفردات اللغوية للغة الإنجليزية وتطويرها عن طريق إستخدام استراتيجيات تعليمية و تقنيات مختلفة. وعلى الطلاب زيادة حجم مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية لزيادة قدرتهم الاستيعابية في القراءة. ايضا ينبغي على الطلاب تطوير معلوماتهم الخاصة بالمفردات اللغوية وحجمها لان اللغة الانجليزية اصبحت وسيطا تعليميا.

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Chapter One

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Background

Vocabulary learning is one of the most challenging issues that EFL learners face. It is incredibly noteworthy to English language acquisition. Vocabulary is the central part of any language. It stands for the meaning of several things. For this language is regarded as a system of conversation. One of the most important aspects of learning language is to understand the meaning or meanings of words and knowing how they are formed. Also, it can guide a language learner to discover the meaning of words. Richards and Platt (1997) define vocabulary as "a set of lexemes, including single word, compound words and idioms". Penny Ur (2004) explains that: vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, post office and mother-in-law, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. It is unfeasible for a learner to communicate without the required vocabulary. Successful second language acquisition presumes a sustained active involvement of the learner. Vocabulary, or words meaning, is one of the keys to understand a comprehension or paragraph or statements, so without understanding of words means that a student will not be able to understand a comprehension. One way students develop vocabulary is indirectly through reading, listening, and speaking. A student's background knowledge and prior experiences play a large role in vocabulary development. As students build connections between known words and unknown words, they develop a deeper understanding of their reading. The knowledge of word meanings and the ability to access that knowledge efficiently are recognized as important

factors in reading and listening comprehension, speaking and writing fluency. Thus, vocabulary knowledge helps students with language comprehension. Like Widdowson (1989), McKeown (2002) argue that vocabulary knowledge is the heart of a language comprehension and use. Additionally, Barra (1995) suggests that to comprehend a text successfully students need to have sufficient word knowledge. This is to say that the comprehension of a language depends on the amount of words that are known in that language. Also, students need to have sufficient word knowledge to understand what they read. Students can understand a writer's message only if they know the meaning of most of the words used in a text. Nation (2001) states that readers need to know at least 97% of the vocabulary in a text for an adequate understanding of it. Without knowledge of the key vocabulary in a text, a learner may have serious trouble in understanding the message. That is, the word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will be able to comprehend the texts they read. So, having students with a large amount of vocabulary knowledge is essential to language comprehension. In addition, vocabulary helps students with language production. Hubbard (1983) states that the more words a student knows the more precisely that student can express the exact meaning he/she wants to. Based on this view, to communicate effectively students need to know a large number of word meanings. Likewise, Cardenas (2001) states that vocabulary is used to determine the proficiency a student has in oral context. This is to say that vocabulary is an essential component to determine how much a student is able to communicate successfully. Therefore, students have to overcome the lack of vocabulary knowledge in order to communicate effectively. Language teachers should focus on effective strategies and instructions to teach vocabulary to help students develop their vocabulary knowledge in order to communicate successfully. However, the focus on the instruction is not always the focus on the vocabulary.

Vocabulary is a fundamental element of language proficiency and its acquisition is a main factor of effective communicative skills. Vocabulary is an integral part of a language as it plays a crucial part in the language learning process. The primary thing in learning a language is the acquisition of a vocabulary, and practice in using it. Vocabulary is the basic necessary factor for mastering language. The aim of learning second language is communication. For learning a language, four skills are need for mastering this language, which are listening, reading, speaking and writing. Meanwhile, vocabulary knowledge is fundamental to them. One cannot understand a sentence without knowing the meaning of the most words. The lack of vocabulary knowledge affects all the four language skills. Unfortunately, many students face difficulty to acquire vocabulary. Lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge is an obvious and series obstacle for many students who learn English as a second language. Learners themselves readily admit that they experience considerable difficulty with vocabulary, and most learners identify the acquisition of vocabulary as their greatest single source of problems (Meara, 1980). Meanwhile, vocabulary is an area which has been neglected in foreign language teaching for a number of years.

Learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language (Schmitt, 2008), and it has been one of the challenging topics in second language acquisition (SLA). There is an agreement among vocabulary specialists that lexical knowledge is the heart of language learning,(Coady, 1997; Coady and Huckin, 1997).Communication without vocabulary is considered meaningless, so vocabulary acquisition is the heart of language acquisition as Laufer (1986) refers to this term. Burton (1992) adds that language learners would be self-confident when they are able to use acquired vocabulary effectively and have a good individual store of lexis. Davies and Pearse (2000) suggest that vocabulary in communication situations is usually more essential than grammar as it is annoying

for language users when they cannot communicate effectively due to the lack of needed vocabulary. This is in consistence with Ellis' (1994) statement in which lexical errors could block comprehension more than grammatical errors.

With the last few years, vocabulary has become viewed as an important aspect in second language learning .In fact many believe it as important as the main skill of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Nation as cited in Nation and Waring 1997:6 explained

“Vocabulary knowledge enables language use, language use enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge, and knowledge of the word enables the increase of vocabulary and language use and so on”

Learning vocabulary is an ongoing process that takes time and practice, Nakata (2006) acknowledged that vocabulary acquisition requires continual repetition in order to achieve effective vocabulary learning. Vocabulary acquisition is not something a student can spend time learning, or memorizing, like grammar and be successful. Acquisition requires that learner is to be disciplined, spending time each day working on words, he/she does not know in order to remember high frequency words and put them into their long memory. Nation and Waring(1997) stated that learners need to encounter the word multiple times in authentic speaking, reading and writing contexts.Language learners, teachers, and researchers agree that vocabulary is an essential element in the process of learning a language (Schmitt, 2008), because words are the primary conveyors of meaning (Vermeer, 2001) and thus carry the main information load in communication. As Wilkins (1972) states:

“ without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (p.111).

Vocabulary knowledge is a reliable predictor of learners ‘proficiency’ in a second or foreign language.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Vocabulary is a fundamental element of language proficiency and its acquisition is a main factor of effective communicative skills. Vocabulary is an integral part of a language, plays a crucial part in the language learning process. The primary thing in learning a language is the acquisition of a vocabulary, and practice in using it. Vocabulary is the basic factor that necessary for mastering language. Learning English language needs to master four skills, which are listening, reading, speaking and writing. Meanwhile, vocabulary knowledge is fundamental to them. One cannot understand a sentence without knowing what most of the words mean. The lack of vocabulary knowledge affects all the four language skills. Unfortunately, many students find it difficult to acquire vocabulary. Lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge is an obvious and serious obstacle for many students who learn English as a second or foreign language. Most of Jazan University students are suffering from the lack of English language proficiency. They have poor reading comprehension and poor language when they communicate; this may be due to the lack of vocabulary stock, as the vocabulary knowledge is the heart of a language comprehension and use. This study is basically carried out to investigate whether the students' vocabulary size can affect reading comprehension ability, and to find out the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension.

1.2 Objectives of the Study:

This study primarily aims to investigate the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. It also aims at the following:

1. Raising the awareness of EFL students about the importance of vocabulary knowledge and size.
2. Showing the useful channels that are liable to increase the vocabulary size of EFL students.

3. Displaying the effect of reading comprehension in increasing vocabulary size among undergraduate EFL students in Saudi Arabia.
4. Raising EFL students' awareness of the role of vocabulary size in reading comprehension.
5. Suggesting some efficient approaches and methods which may enable the students to expand their vocabulary size.

1.3 Research questions

The research questions are as follows:

1. To what extent are EFL students aware of learning English vocabulary?
2. To what extent does the size of vocabulary affect the student's reading comprehension?
3. To what extent is the use of the medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

1. EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak.
2. The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability.
3. The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension.

1.5 Research Methodology

In order to carry out this study the researcher adopted the American Psychological Association (APA) style using the descriptive analytic method. The research population is undergraduate students' level one at the female section of the Medical College at Jazan University, as well as the English language teachers at the same university in different colleges. The sample of the study is selected randomly, the total of the sample are (50) instructors from English language departments, and (150) students who divided into control and experimental groups.

For data collection tools, the researcher used a questionnaire for English language teachers, in addition to the students' achievement test.

1.6 Population of the Study

The population of this study consists of Medical College students' female section, as well as the lecturers of English Language in Jazan University in Saudi Arabia.

1.7 Sample of the study

The sample of the current study is made up of (150) undergraduates EFL female students and (50) lecturers of English Language from different colleges in Jazan University.

1.8 Tools of Data Collection

Achievement tests and questionnaires are employed for collecting data from undergraduate students and English language teachers.

1.9 Procedures of the study

The researcher collected data by designing and distributing a questionnaire to English language lecturers, the participants of students were divided in to control group and experimental one ; the researcher conducted an achievement tests to the students as pre-test and post-test. Data was analyzed by Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), and then the result was explained

1.10 Significance of the study

Many language learners identify vocabulary size as a major source of difficulty during their learning process. So, learners and teachers need a suitable program to promote vocabulary learning and growth. The main purpose of this study is to test the correlation between reading comprehension and vocabulary size for EFL students in Saudi Arabia. The study can be of a great value to the learners and teachers of English language and the curriculum designer as well. In addition, it will help learners to identify some strategies and techniques that help them

developing their English vocabulary knowledge. Moreover it will raise the awareness of EFL students of the importance of vocabulary knowledge and size.

1.11 Limits of the Study

The present study is limited to EFL students in Medical Colleges, level one, Jazan University, Saudi Arabia in the academic year (2017-2018), as well as English language teachers in different colleges at Jazan University.

1.12 Definition of Terms:

1.12.1 Vocabulary

Vocabulary is a set of familiar words within a person's language. A vocabulary, usually developed with age, serves as a useful and fundamental tool for communication and acquiring knowledge. Acquiring an extensive vocabulary is one of the largest challenges in learning a second language. (Wikipedia)

Broadly defined, vocabulary is knowledge of words, including explanations of word meanings. Briefly, a word is described as a sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing that symbolizes and communicates a meaning. To master a word is not only to learn its meaning but also to learn its register, association, collocation, grammatical behavior, written form, spoken form and frequency. All these properties are known as “word knowledge” Schmitt (2000).

To many learners, mastering the meaning of a word means to master the definition of the word in dictionaries. Schmitt (2000) says that word meaning consists of the link of the word and its referent, and the latter means the person, thing, action, and situation. The meaning of a word in dictionaries is the basic meaning elements. However, a word can have different meanings in different contexts. This phenomenon involves the register. It is used in people’s daily life popularly, and it means the denotation of a word meaning from the basic meaning in different contexts. It is the relationship between the content, sender, receiver, situation and purpose (Carthy: 1990, p. 61). Vocabulary is roughly, defined by Penny Ur (2004) as the words that learner teaches in the foreign language. According to Hubbard (1983) vocabulary can be defined as a powerful carrier of meaning. Additionally, Diamond & Gutlohn (2006) suggest that vocabulary is the knowledge of words and their meanings. This means that without establishing a strong vocabulary base first, comprehension and use of a language will not be achieved.

1.12.2 Vocabulary size

A test of vocabulary size can measure how many words a learner knows. It typically measures a learner's knowledge of the form of the word and the ability to link that form to a meaning. A receptive vocabulary size measure looks at the kind of knowledge needed for listening and reading. A receptive test measures whether learners can provide or choose a meaning when they see the form of the word. A productive measure looks at the kind of knowledge needed for speaking and writing, therefore it measures whether learners can provide a word form to express a meaning. The word family (Bauer & Nation, 1993) is the most suitable unit for measuring reading vocabulary knowledge because if the reader knows the base form of a word or a member of the family and has some familiarity with the common word building devices of English, then with a little help from the context it is possible to work out the meaning of previously unfamiliar members of the word family (Biemiller: 2005).

1.12.3 Reading Comprehension

Reading skill is a necessary skill for a language acquisition because it has positive effects on vocabulary knowledge, spelling as well as the learners' writings. Reading is viewed as an interactive process between the reader and the writer in which the former has to understand the message of the passage and then to decode it. Moreover, it is a dynamic process in which information from the text and knowledge possessed by the reader interact to enable him to construct meaning before, during and after reading.

Reading is a complex cognitive ability that is considered one of the basic language skills which can help students in learning foreign language; however, it used more by most of EFL learners who always need to read various printed materials such as: Books, stories, articles, poems and so on. Reading is defined as the meaningful interpretation of written or printed verbal symbols and a result of interaction

between the perception of graphic symbols that represent language and the reader's language skills, cognitive skill, and knowledge of the world. In very similar view, Goodmann (1988) defined Reading as the process which requires readers to make the interpretation of graphic signs, delineates reading in a variety of ways, i.e. matching sounds to letters. In this sense, reading is as a cognitive process which could help readers to create meaning from text. Dubin (1982) assumes that the task reading is a complex skill that contains a number of psychological, physical and social elements. Therefore, reading is considered as the most difficult language skill, which involves the interaction of multiple cognitive, meta-cognitive, linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects. i.e. some other sub-Skills operate all together in order to perform the task.

Reading comprehension is the ability to process text, understand its meaning, and to integrate it with what the reader already knows. (Wikipedia)

Snow (2002, p.11) sees that reading comprehension refers to “the simultaneous ability used by a reader to construct and extract meaning through interaction and involvement with written materials”.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter explains different aspects that concerned with vocabulary and reading comprehension. It illustrates the meaning of vocabulary, vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary size, and the importance of vocabulary size in reading comprehension, developing vocabulary learning. In addition to, the meaning and the value of reading comprehension in learning English language. Also the researcher light shadow on the difficulties in learning vocabulary that encounter the EFL learners of English language. Additionally the researcher tries to enlighten the way to learners and to explain the value of vocabulary size in learning English language. Furthermore, the researcher tries to explain the importance of vocabulary size in English language in general and in reading comprehension in particular. On one hand, the researcher tries to concentrate in this chapter on the vocabulary knowledge as the problematic area that encountering the EFL learners in reading comprehension. On the other hand, the researcher does all her efforts to help the learners to overcome the difficulties by tackling this problem, by using special strategies and techniques that help students in vocabulary learning. Moreover this chapter lights a shadow on the strong relation between reading comprehension and students' vocabulary size. Additionally it includes the previous studies that are tackling the same problematic area. Hence, the researcher tries to use all the previous literature review and studies to help in fulfill this research. Vocabulary is a fundamental element of language proficiency and its acquisition is a main factor of effective communicative skills. Developing a rich vocabulary is an essential and continuing challenge for language learners. Vocabulary learning is one of the most

challenging issues that EFL learners face. Vocabulary learning is incredibly noteworthy to English language acquisition. It is unfeasible for a learner to communicate without the required vocabulary. Successful second language acquisition presumes a sustained active involvement of the learner. The approach suggested is to complement and enhance the strategic teaching of new language. Vocabulary, or word meaning, is one of the keys to understand a comprehension or paragraph or statements, so without understanding of words means that a student will not be able to understand a comprehension. One way students develop vocabulary is indirectly through reading, listening, and speaking. A student's background knowledge and prior experiences play a large role in vocabulary development. As students build connections between known words and unknown words, they develop a deeper understanding of their reading. As a researcher experience vocabulary knowledge is an essential part of the process of education both as a means and end. Lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge is already an obvious and serious obstacle for many students.

2.1 definition of vocabulary

Vocabulary is the central part of any language. It stands for the meaning of several things. For this language is regarded as a system of conversation. One of the most important aspects of learning language is to understand the meaning or meanings of words and knowing how they are formed. Also, it can guide a language learner to discover the meaning of words. Richards and Platt (1997) define vocabulary as "a set of lexemes, including single word, compound words and idioms". Penny Ur (2004) explains that: vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, post office and mother-in-law, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea.

Many authors have similar definitions about vocabulary. According to Hubbard (1983) vocabulary can be defined as a powerful carrier of meaning. Additionally, Diamond & Gutlohn (2006) suggest that vocabulary is the knowledge of words and their meanings. This means that without establishing a strong vocabulary base first, comprehension and use of a language will not be achieved. In addition, the student should be able to recognize words, and know their meanings as well. Thus, when a student is effectively able to recognize and use a word in different contexts, speak, write, pronounce the word well, she/he has the knowledge and meaning of that word. However, some authors suggest more complex definitions about vocabulary. Nation (2001) states that vocabulary knowledge implies knowing a word in the spoken form of the word and the spoken form can be recognized and understood in and out of context rather than guessed at. Additionally, Henriksen (1996) states that vocabulary knowledge is often defined as precise comprehension which is operationalized as the ability to translate the lexical items into L1, the ability to find the right definition in a multiple-choice task, or the ability to give a target language paraphrase. This means that vocabulary knowledge requires the ability to react to words that students do not need to think about. The words just come into students' minds to be used in an effective and natural way. Even in a multiple choice task students react to the multiple definitions of words and they know exactly the meaning of the words to be translated. So, when students have knowledge of a word they do not take much time to think about the word, they just have to use the word naturally and appropriately. In short, what the definitions above about vocabulary have in common is the fact that vocabulary knowledge requires not only word meanings knowledge, but it requires the usage of the words in the appropriate context and in a natural way and also includes the relationship between new words acquired and the ones already acquired. Therefore, teachers should use strategies that teach the meaning of words in context and help students

associate the new vocabulary learned and what they already knew and help students memorize the words and their meanings. It is difficult to explain the concept of a word because there are various views concerning what a word actually is. In vocabulary testing, a fundamental point is that knowledge of words is being assessed. Therefore, it is quite essential to realize the nature of words. However, it is a challenging issue at both theoretical and practical levels, essentially the latter. Singleton (1999, p. 9) states that "words possess a rather confidential status in the general understanding of what a language is and that is because they are vital to linguistic communication". In other words without vocabulary there is no means to communicate and it is evident to everyone. However different people have different perspectives and define vocabulary differently. Singleton (ibid, p. 10) points out that "although the word is vital to comprehending a language one can find a simple definition of the general concept of a word because there are many scholars who have discussed on finding a right definition for describing a word". Singleton (ibid) elaborates his view by saying that "what is considered by the term word will be defined on the level of abstraction at which the language user is operating, the linguistic levels being clarified and even the semantic component of the situation. Another important matter is that there is a variety of word forms in English. As an example, we have the word accept, but then there are also accepts, accepted, acceptable, acceptability. Are they treated as six different words or different word forms? We know that the word formation is consisted of two categories: inflection and derivation. Inflections are those which are added to a base form or root, without altering its meaning and its word class (Carter, 1998). Therefore, among the given examples, accept is the base and accepted is its inflection.

2.2 Counting words

According to Nation (2013), there are several ways of counting words as follows:

2.2. a Tokens

One way is simply to count every word from in a spoken or written text and if the same word form occurs more than once, then each occurrence is counted. If we try to answer questions like 'How many words are there on a page or in a line?' Our unit of counting will be the token, and sometimes running words.

2.2.b Types

The sentence of eight tokens consists of seven different words or types. We count words in this way if we want to answer questions like 'How many words do you need to know to read this book?'

2.2.c Lemma

A lemma consists of a headword and its inflected forms and reduced form. Usually, all the items included under a lemma are all the same part of speech (Francis and Kucera, 1982). The English inflections consist of plural, third person singular present tense, past participle, -ing, comparative, superlative, possessive (Bauer and Nation: 1993).

2.2. d Word families

According to Nation (2013), a word family consists of a headword, its inflected forms and its closely related derived forms. The major problem in counting using word families as the unit is to decide what should be included in a word family and what should not. Learners' knowledge of the prefixes and suffixes develops as they gain more experience of the language. This means that it is usually necessary to set up a scale of word families, starting with the most elementary and transparent members and moving on to less obvious possibilities. Bauer and Nation (1993)

2.3 What does it mean to know a word?

Many scholars have claimed that second language vocabulary comprehension plays an important role in the process of language acquisition. Successful acquisition of a second language vocabulary is essentially vital for learners of

English as a foreign language who constantly learn impoverish lexicons after years of formal education (Hunt & Beglar, 2005). Considering word counts, Nation (2001) states that comprehending a word means knowing the elements of its word family and the elements of the word family will improve as proficiency develops. A language user may know the word "rich", "richly" and "richness" in early stages of language acquisition and later he or she elaborates on this word family with "to enrich and "enrichment". There is research evidence which support the claim that families are psychologically actual phenomena and that rather than discussing about "comprehending a word", a language user should be concerned about "comprehending a word family" (Nation, 2001, p. 47). Mezynski (1983) stated that "knowing the meaning of a word can be 'realized' to varying degrees. Considering the task, a language learner could use the words adequately well with relatively imprecise knowledge. Nation (1990) with regard to the definition of words says that while word meaning, register, frequency, and syntactic properties are important elements of depth of word knowledge, pronunciation, spelling, and morphological properties are also regarded primarily components of word depth for reading comprehension. Nation (1990) furthers suggests a list of criteria a language user must have in order to comprehend a word properly (R: receptive knowledge, P: productive knowledge). In ELT literature, there is a clear distinction between receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary. According to Nation (2001), the ability to understand the form of a word while listening or reading means receptive vocabulary whereas, the ability to use the appropriate spoken and written means productive vocabulary. Language learners are not required to recognize all the aspects of knowing a word. Knowing aspects of a word, it can be said, depends on language learners' level of education, whether learners are beginner, intermediate or advanced. For instance, there is no need for young language learners to deal with morphology, register or collocation since these

aspects are very difficult for them but advanced language learners need to deal with them if they intend to have a better knowledge of vocabulary. Regarding the aspects of knowing a word, Ur (2002) suggested that knowing a word concerns knowing word form (pronunciation and spelling), grammar, collocation, aspects of meaning (denotation, connotation, appropriateness, and meaning relationships), and word formation. In general, knowing a word means knowing its form and its meaning.

A number of recent surveys of vocabulary learning have pointed out that there are many ways to know a word; the simple form–meaning connection does not provide an accurate picture of the types of word knowledge we all learn. Nation et al (2001). According to Nation (2001) in the case of the reading–vocabulary connection, when we know a word well, we access at least nine components of word knowledge as follows:

1. Orthography (spelling)
2. Morphology (word-family relations)
3. Parts of speech
4. Pronunciation
5. Meanings (referential range, variant meanings, homophones)
6. Collocations (what words very commonly go with a word)
7. Meaning associations (topical links, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms)
8. Specific uses (technical, common)
9. Register (power, politeness, disciplinary domain, formality, slang, dialect form)

When we learn a word, we do not know everything about a word immediately, and in many cases, we continue to add information to our mental lexical entries throughout our lives. First encounters with words may only leave a brief impression of the word form or the part of speech of the word. Much of our word knowledge outlined above develops over time through multiple encounters in

multiple contexts. Given the range of types of word knowledge to be learned, it should be evident that word learning must be an incremental process. Moreover, knowing one or two meanings for most words is not nearly the full set of word information that we eventually build. Even when we know a word, we continually update the entry for the word and fill additional pieces of the puzzle. At the same time, each time we access a word, we increase our word recognition fluency until we achieve automatic access for that word. Carter (2000) mentions a number of factors involved in knowing a word: recall difficulty and inter language factors such as storage of these lexical items in appropriate context and the ability to recall vocabulary for active usage in speaking and writing. The ability to recognize the appropriate syntactic frame of the word, to discriminate a basic form a peripheral lexical item and the comprehension of fixed expressions.

Stahl (2003) distinguishes between definitional knowledge and contextual knowledge. Definitional knowledge is similar to that found in dictionaries whereas contextual knowledge refers to an understanding of how a word's meaning adapts to different reading contexts. Learners thus need multiple exposures to the word in different reading contexts in order to fully recognize and understand a word. Furthermore, background knowledge is critical for comprehending what one is reading and being able to guess the meaning of a word from the context. To gain the greater understanding of the vocabulary in the text, a student needs a threshold level of knowledge about the topic. This is important because it helps the student to make a sense of the word combinations and enables the student to choose among various word meanings. Indirect instruction of vocabulary, according to Baumann, Ash (2003) includes instilling an appreciation for words in the learners and helping them experience enjoyment and satisfaction in their use.

(MCarthy, 1984,as cited in Adger, 2002) a crucial distinction is often made between knowing a word and using it. Knowing a word does not necessarily entail

using the word automatically in a wide range of contexts. Since for every vocabulary dimension there is a knowledge dimension and a skill dimension. Evidence suggests that the knowledge aspect requires conscious and explicit learning mechanisms whereas the skill aspect involves mostly implicit learning and memory (Ellis, 1994, as cited in Herrel, 2004). Vocabulary learning strategies therefore, should include strategies for using as well as for knowing a word.

2.4 Aspects of Vocabulary Knowledge

The concept of a word can be defined in various ways, but according to Nation (2001) three significant aspects teachers need to be aware of and focus on are form, meaning, and use. The form of a word involves its pronunciation (spoken form), spelling (written form), and any word parts that make up this particular item (such as a prefix, root, and suffix). An example for word parts can be seen with the word uncommunicative, where the prefix un- means negative or opposite, communicate is the root word, and -ive is a suffix denoting that someone or something is able to do something. Here, they all go together to refer to someone or something that is not able to communicate, hence uncommunicative.

Nation (ibid) stated that meaning encompasses the way that form and meaning work together, in other words, the concept and what items it refers to, and the associations that come to mind when people think about a specific word or expression. Use, Nation noted, involves the grammatical functions of the word or phrase, collocations that normally go with it, and finally any constraints on its use, in terms of frequency, level, and so forth. For form, meaning, and use, Nation declared there is both a receptive and productive dimension, so knowing these three aspects for each word or phrase actually involves 18 different types of lexical knowledge, as summarized in Table (2.1). When teachers teach vocabulary to build students' knowledge of words and phrases, helping them learn any and all of these

different components assists them in enhancing their English vocabulary knowledge and use.

Table (2.1): What is involved in knowing a word

Aspect	Component	Receptive knowledge	Productive Knowledge
From	Spoken	What does the word sound like?	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	What does the word look like	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	What parts are recognizable is this word?	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	What meaning does this word form signal?	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concepts and referents	What is included in this concept?	What items can the concept refer to?
	associations	What other words does this make people think of?	What other words could people use instead of this one?
Use	grammatical functions	In what patterns does the word occur?	In what patterns must people use this word?
	collocations	What words or types of words occur with this one?	What words or types of words must people use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register frequency.....)	Where, when, and how often would people expect to meet this word?	Where, when, and how often can people use this words?

Source: Adapted from Nation (2001, p.27)

2.5 The importance of vocabulary knowledge:

The knowledge of word meanings and the ability to access that knowledge efficiently are recognized as important factors in reading and listening comprehension, speaking and writing fluency. Thus, vocabulary knowledge helps students with language comprehension. Like Widdowson (1989), McKeown (2002) argue that vocabulary knowledge is the heart of a language comprehension and use. Additionally, Barra (1995) suggests that to comprehend a text successfully students need to have sufficient word knowledge. This is to say that the comprehension of a language depends on the amount of words that are known in that language. Also, students need to have sufficient word knowledge to understand what they read. Students can understand a writer's message only if they know the meaning of most of the words used in a text. Still, Nation (2001) states that readers need to know at least 97% of the vocabulary in a text for an adequate understanding of it. Without knowledge of the key vocabulary in a text, a learner may have serious trouble in understanding the message, that is, word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will be able to comprehend the texts they read. So, having students with a large amount of vocabulary knowledge is essential to language comprehension. In addition, vocabulary helps students with language production. Hubbard (1983) states that the more words a student knows the more precisely that student can express the exact meaning he/she wants to. Based on this view, to communicate effectively students need to know a large number of word meanings. Likewise, Cardenas (2001) states that vocabulary is used to determine the proficiency a student has in oral context. This is to say that vocabulary is an essential component to determine how much a student is able to communicate successfully. So, students have to overcome the lack of vocabulary knowledge in order to communicate effectively. Language

teachers should focus on effective strategies and instructions to teach vocabulary to help students to develop their vocabulary knowledge in order to communicate successfully. However, the focus of the instruction was not always on the vocabulary.

Vocabulary knowledge plays an important role in learning English as a Second Language (ESL). Read (2000, p.1) stated that “words are the basic building block of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole text are formed” .The previous statement shows the importance of vocabulary in expressing thoughts and conveying meanings and it can also be an indicator that communication will poorly be understood without a large number of words. Communication without vocabulary is considered meaningless, so vocabulary acquisition is the heart of language acquisition as Laufer (1986) refers to this term. Davies and Pearse (2000) suggest that vocabulary in communication situations is usually more essential than grammar as it is annoying for language users when they cannot communicate effectively due to the lack of needed vocabulary. This is in consistence with Ellis’ (1994) statement in which lexical errors could block comprehension more than grammatical errors.

Vocabulary is much more than just single words. Recent vocabulary studies draw on an understanding of lexis, the Greek for word, which in English refers to all the words in a language, the entire vocabulary of a language .So it will probably not surprise you to learn that vocabulary also includes lexical chunks, phrases of two or more words, such as Good morning and Nice to meet you, which research suggests children and adults learn as single lexical units. Phrases like these involve more than one word but have a clear, formulaic usage and make up a significant portion of spoken or written English language usage.

Language learners, teachers, and researchers agree that vocabulary is an essential element in the process of learning a language (Schmitt, 2008), because words are

the primary conveyors of meaning (Vermeer, 2001) and thus carry the main information load in communication. As Wilkins (1972, p.111) states, “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”.

Vocabulary knowledge is a reliable predictor of learners ‘proficiency’ in a second of foreign language.

In most of EFL contexts, students with knowledge of a wide range of words are successful EFL learner. For ESL/EFL learners, vocabulary plays a crucial role in learning a language; as Hunt and Beglar (2005, p.2) argued that, “the heart of language comprehension and use is the lexicon”.

Inadequate vocabulary items refrains learners from expressing their ideas and thoughts. On the other hand, sufficient or rich vocabulary provides language learners the correct words to apply at the right time.

This strong link is mutual that poor knowledge of words would not make someone a good reader; in contrast, good knowledge of reading comprehension helps someone to acquire more words. Words are the devices learners use to imagine, think or express ideas and thoughts. Reading has been accepted as a major way for vocabulary learning over the years. Krashen (1989) argues that reading promotes L2 vocabulary learning. For the pedagogical purposes of this research, the terms vocabulary and lexis interchangeably to refer to individual words, collocations, and fixed and semi-fixed expressions because vocabulary learning should frequently involve learning "chunks" that are longer than individual words.

There are plentiful former researches related to vocabulary and reading. They provide the insight of the notion of vocabulary size and reading comprehension and the related issues. Most second language readers would assert that their main obstacle to reading is their lack of vocabulary. It is clear that large vocabulary size is the hallmark of individual reading comprehension. High lexical coverage which

refers to high percentage of words a reader understands in a context equips a reader to understand the context well. Also, vocabulary size predicts a reader's performance of reading comprehension. Getting familiar with rich vocabulary can even get the advancement of reading speed.

2.6 Productive and receptive vocabulary

The validity of the receptive /productive distinction in most cases depends on its resemblance to the distinction between the receptive skills of listening and reading, and the productive skills of speaking and writing. Receptive carries the idea that we receive language input from others through listening or reading and try to comprehend it. Productive carries the idea that we produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others. (Nation: 2013)

Productive or active vocabulary involves words that we apply when we speak or write. As Nation (2001, p. 25) stated, productive use of vocabulary is defined as “wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written word form”.

On the other hand, receptive or passive vocabulary is composed of words that we recognize when we hear or see. It is normally bigger than productive vocabulary, and may comprise numerous words to which we allocate some definitions, even if we do not understand their full meanings and implications or use them as we speak and write. Nation *ibid* gives a detailed definition of receptive vocabulary perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning.

In other words, receptive knowledge is the language input that learners receive from others through listening or reading and try to understand it. Productive knowledge on the other hand, is the language output that learners convey messages to others through speaking or writing. Nation (2006)

Schmitt (2010) states the terms meaning recognition and meaning recall for receptive knowledge, and meaning recognition and form recall for productive knowledge.

2.7 Breadth of vocabulary knowledge

Nation (2001) explains that breadth of vocabulary knowledge is referred to the quantity or number of words learners know at a certain level of language competence. The major issue for L2 vocabulary acquisition is “How many words does a L2 learner need?” “There is no doubt that the response will be less than for “How many words does a native speaker know?” As Nation (2006) states the number of words that educated native speakers of English know is around 20,000 word families and for each year of their early life they add on average 1,000 word families. Studies of native speakers’ vocabulary seem to suggest that second language learners need to have a vocabulary size of 2,000 most high frequency words to understand about 80% of the running texts. These data are not regular and large variation would be between individuals. These data do not include proper names, abbreviations, compound words, and foreign words. A word family incorporates a root word, its inflected forms, and small number of logically repeated derived forms. According to Nation and Waring (1997), learners need to know a minimum of 3000 or so high frequency words because it gives coverage of at least 95% of running text. Moreover, most research indicates that knowledge of the most frequent 5000 words should provide sufficient vocabulary to facilitate reading authentic text. As a matter of fact, there still remain some unknown words, but this level of knowledge should permit learners to comprehend most of the communicative content of the text and deduce the meaning of many of the unfamiliar words from context.

2.8 Depth of vocabulary knowledge

Read (1993) explained the notion of depth of word knowledge which is "the quality of the learner's vocabulary knowledge". Many researchers have emphasized the intricate and dynamic nature of this knowledge. It is really obvious that knowing a word means knowing more than its single meaning in a specific text. Learners also need to know the pronunciation, spelling, syntactic and semantic relationship with other words such as collocation, synonym, antonym and hyponym Chapelle (1998). According to Qian(2004)So vocabulary should not be considered a single dimension, instead it is better to be viewed as multidimensional structure .

Depth of knowledge is network of links between words. It is about how they associated and interact with each other, and may be restricted in use according to register and context. This would include, for example, how words collocate, form idioms and can have multiple possible meanings. 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 user. 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, to enable learners to use chosen words appropriately and well.(Milton :2009)

2.9 Incidental and intentional vocabulary learning

In L2 lexical teaching and learning, there are two types of vocabulary learning: incidental learning and intentional learning. Incidental learning is defined as the type of learning that is a byproduct of doing or learning something else; whereas, intentional learning is defined as being designed, planned for, or intended by teacher or students. In terms of vocabulary learning, Nation (2001) argues that there is a distinction between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning by

arguing that the vocabulary learned incidentally refers to all the words that have been learned from a special context, while vocabulary that is learned intentionally is learned in another way. Nation considers the difference in the way in which the vocabulary is acquired.

Incidental learning always means the approach of learning vocabulary through texts, working on tasks or doing other activities that are not directly related to vocabulary. In contrast, the intentional learning always focuses on vocabulary itself, and combines with all kinds of conscious vocabulary learning strategies and means of memorizing words. Vocabulary form, collocation, parts of speech are mainly the results of incidental learning, while the sense of a word, meaning symbolizing and innuendo between words need intentional learning .

Laufer (2001) explains this point by stating that one has to differentiate between what is being done with the word, quality, and how often the word is being met, quantity. It is out of the question that the amount of the vocabulary learned incidentally through a particular context is smaller than the vocabulary taught intentionally and this is a fact that all vocabulary specialists, without any exception, support it. Nation (2001) elaborates on his research in the field and said that explicit learning is “more conscious” (p. 341) than implicit learning. This does not mean that incidental vocabulary learning is unconscious; on the other hand, incidental learning is conscious especially when it comes to inferring meaning from a particular context, such as when reading newspaper, participating in a conversation, listening to the radio, or watching movies. At the end Nation (ibid. 233) concludes that the “distinction is not so easy to observe particularly if we consider the fact that all learning involves some conscious attention”.

The Advantages of incidental vocabulary acquisition is contextualized and gives the learner a richer sense of word use and meaning that can be provided in group activities. It also allows vocabulary learning and reading to happen at the same

time. It is individualized and learner- centered because the vocabulary to be learned depends on the learner's own selection.

2.10 Explicit and implicit vocabulary learning

The distinction between explicit and implicit learning operate within definitions originating from psychology, definitions which generally highlight the presence or absence of conscious processes.

According to Ellis' (1994) terminology, implicit learning is typically defined as acquisition of knowledge by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operation, while explicit learning is said to be characterized by more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure. Ellis (ibid) distinguishes the form learning aspects of vocabulary learning, and the meaning aspects of vocabulary (he calls them Input/ Output aspects). This distinction is based primarily on the kind of learning best suited to the various aspects. Ellis argues for dissociation between explicit and implicit learning where formal recognition and production rely on implicit learning, but the meaning and linking aspects rely on explicit conscious processes. Implicit learning involves attention to the stimulus but does not involve other conscious operations. It is strongly affected by repetition. Explicit learning is more conscious. The learner makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure. Explicit learning can involve a search for rules, or applying given rules. It is strongly affected by the quality of the mental processing. What Ellis calls the meditational aspect is the mapping or linking of knowledge of the word form to knowledge of the meaning of the word.

What this means is that, especially for high-frequency words, teachers should explain the meaning of words, and learners should do exercises, look up dictionaries and think about the meanings. After brief attention to spelling and

pronunciation, however, experience in meeting and producing the word from should be left to encounters in meaning –focused use. Nation (2013)

2.11 The Partial- Precise vocabulary knowledge

A number of quantities studies such as vocabulary size or breadth and different types of achievements tests define vocabulary knowledge as precise understanding (Hazenbarg and Hulstin, 1996). To know a vocabulary item is define as the ability to translate the vocabulary item into the first language, to discover the correct definition in a multiple- choice task, or to paraphrase it in the target language (Hulstin, 1996). In a study of teaching methods asked the informants to match L1 words with L2 words.

For measuring vocabulary size in the L2 word recognition tasks and check lists were effectively used (Palmberg: 1989). These measuring instruments were also used to make comparisons between individuals vocabulary knowledge Grainger, Herman and Anderson (1985) argue that these lexical decision tasks could only show whether a specific vocabulary item is recognized as being part of the learner's vocabulary, since learners are only required to recognize formal features words and many don't know the meaning. In addition to lexical- decision tasks do not differentiate between what the learner precisely or vaguely knows.

2.12 Association's vocabulary learning

According to Schmitt (2010), lexical items have numerous formal and semantic connections with other items in every person's mental lexicon. These connections can lead not only to appropriate lexical usage (e.g. being able to think of words which rhyme; being able to retrieve an appropriate synonym or collocation), but also more automaticity in using this knowledge, as a well-organized mental lexicon is thought to improve accessibility. Lexical connections are apparent in a number of types of language output, In slips-of- the- tongue (when you mean one thing but the another), the misspoken word usually has some close connection to the

intended word, e.g. saying *left to right*. Likewise, similar words are sometimes blended together.

2.13 Word Frequency

Nation (2001) divided vocabulary into four categories: high frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low frequency words. The most commonly used list of high frequency words is General Service List of English Words (GSL), by West (1953), which includes around 2,000 word families. They cover about 80% of the running words in academic texts. Technical words refer to types of words that usually occur in a specific subject area. They differ from subject area to subject area and cover about 5% of the running words in a text. Academic vocabulary is the vocabulary used across all academic disciplines but is not the technical vocabulary of a particular academic discipline. Academic words are based on more Latin and Greek roots than most everyday spoken words. They cover about 10% of the running words in an academic text. This means that knowing the 2,000 high frequency words plus academic words will give about 90% coverage of the running words in academic texts. The last category is low frequency words. They are the biggest groups of words but only cover about 5% of the running words in an academic text.

2.14 Which words need to be taught?

In every language there are too many words that EFL/ESL learners need to know in order to understand authentic texts. It seems obvious that in any language, it is sensible to teach the most frequent words before the unusual ones are taught, as they are probably the most useful words for students of that language. Macro (2003) indicated that there 2,000 high frequency words of which many are function words. This would lead us to decide that they must be taught in L2 classrooms and taught in an explicit way. Once learners acquire these words, it is time to begin increasing their vocabulary command by introducing less frequently used words.

Without the most frequently used words, learners cannot function in the foreign language. Besides, Schmitt (2000) affirmed that words around 2,000 would be a realistic goal. It seems that since in all kinds of text, high frequency words occur, so this leads us to determine high frequency words should be taught to language learners. Nation (2001) indicated that other categories of words are academic words, technical words and low frequency words. Macro (2003) noted that academic words become essential when learners go beyond the intermediate language learning stage and are starting to learn about academic content (e.g. psychology, economics, areas of study) through the medium of the L2 while technical words are very closely related to the topic and subject area of the context. There are thousands of low frequency words in the language (Nation, 2001). As far as low frequently used lexical items form a large number of words, it is definitely impossible to master them in a/the L2 class. As a result, instead of wasting time on less frequently used words inside the class, language teachers should provide and train on good VLSs for learners. Strategies regarding these words should be taught to learners.

2.15 Vocabulary size of the language learners

Vocabulary size refers to the number of words a learner has in mental lexicon. Nation (1990) analyzed one text for young native speakers and another for native speaker at the secondary level, and found that about 87% of the words in the text were all in the most frequent 2,000 headwords (base words) of English, the university words which occur frequently in most kinds of academic texts, technical words and low-frequency words account for the remaining 8%, 3% and 2% of the text, respectively. Nation also concluded that figures for collections of long texts also supported their findings from short texts.

According to Nation (ibid), all learners need to know about 2,000 to 3,000 word level in order to function effectively in English. For instance, it is difficult for

learners to read complicated texts unless they know high frequency words. These words occur often in the material read or listened to, and they occur in many different kinds of material on many different topics. Similarly, drawing on the previous studies, Laufer (1997) suggested that the threshold vocabulary size essential for reading comprehension is about 3,000 word level. It was shown that learners below the 3,000-word vocabulary level did poorly on the reading test regardless of how high their academic ability was. In terms of text coverage, the 3,000 word families were reported to provide coverage of between 90% and 95% of any text. Furthermore, it is necessary to have good knowledge of at least 5,000 words if someone aims to read advanced, authentic, academic texts (Hirsh & Nation, 1992). In short, these studies suggest a threshold size of around 2,000 high-frequency words for effective basic language use and a vocabulary size of 3,000 to 5,000 words for successful text comprehension. On the other hand, a question emerges that how many words should a learner of English as a second or a foreign language learn? Many scholars have done researches in this respect. Some scholars think that 2,000 key words are the least requirements (Nation, 2005). But if one wants to learn English better, 5,000 words are needed (Schmitt, 2000). Other think 3,000 words are the least requirement, and if one wants to learn English well, 8,000 words are necessary. It is reported that vocabulary size for Japanese high school students is 5,000 words while it is 10,000 words for Japanese university students. It is also reported that the vocabulary size for Russian high School students is 9,000 words while it is 15,000 words for Russian university students.

2.16 The importance of vocabulary teaching

As Gass and Selinker (2001) point out, lexical errors lead to most L2 errors and both language learners and native speakers regard lexical errors as the most essential barriers to real communication. For many years vocabulary knowledge was an underestimated area in language learning and teaching. Even though its

ignorance has been somehow due to a specialization in language research on grammar and phonology; that certainly have caused vocabulary be considered a less significant element in acquiring a second language. Bridal (2003) points out that well educated teacher has not given a proper attention to the significance of teaching vocabulary in second language teaching. Teaching the syntax and also sound system of a language was stressed over vocabulary teaching, and one of the reasons is that acquiring too many word items before syntax had been learned could give rise to making mistakes in sentence structures. Moreover, teaching vocabulary in the classroom context was regarded to be fruitless with the idea that word meaning might only be tangible through experience in the context and devoting so much time to it was considered as a total waste of time.

2.17 How much vocabulary does a second language learner need?

Although a language makes use of large number of words, not all of these words are equally useful. One measure of usefulness is word frequency, that is, how often the word occurs in normal use of the language. According to Nation (1990), the learner needs to know the 3,000 or so high frequency words of the language. These are an immediate high priority and there is little sense in focusing on other vocabulary until these are well learned. After these high frequency words are learned, the next focus for the teacher is on helping the learners develop strategies to comprehend and learn the low frequency words of the language. Notice that although the teacher's focus is on helping learners gain control of important strategies, the end goal of these strategies is to help the learners to continue to learn new words and increase their vocabulary size. A way to manage the learning of huge amounts of vocabulary is through indirect or incidental learning. An example of this is learning new words (or deepening the knowledge of already known words) in context through extensive listening and reading. Learning from context

is so important that some studies suggest that first language learners learn most of their vocabulary in this way (Sternberg: 1987).

Extensive reading is a good way to enhance word knowledge and get a lot of exposure to the most frequent and useful words. Liu Na and Nation (1985) have shown that we need a vocabulary of about 3,000 words which provides coverage of at least 95 percent of a text before we can efficiently learn from context. The good news for second language learners and second language teachers is that a small number of the words of English occur very frequently and if a learner knows these words; that learner will know a very large proportion of the running words in a written or spoken text. Most of these words are content words and knowing enough of them allows a good degree of comprehension of a text .Schmitt and Mc Carhy (1997).

According to Nation (2013) states that whether we are designing a language course or planning our own course of study, it is useful to be able to set learning goals that will allow us to use the language in the way we want to. When we plan the vocabulary goals of a long-term course of study, we can look at three kinds of information to help decide how much vocabulary needs to be learned: the number of words in the language, the number of words known by native speakers, and the number of words needed to use the language.

2.18 The importance of measuring vocabulary size

Vocabulary size measurement is important for planning, diagnosis and research. It is not easy to plan sensible vocabulary development program without knowing where learners are now in their vocabulary growth. Research on the amount of vocabulary needed for receptive use indicates that learners need around 6,000 word families to read novels written for teenagers, to watch movies, and to participate in friendly conversation. Around 8,000 to 9,000 words are needed to read newspapers, novels, and some academic texts (Nation: 2006). These figures

assume 98% coverage of the input texts, which still leaves 1 word in every 50 or around six words on every page as unknown vocabulary. A vocabulary size test is also very useful for diagnostic purposes particularly where learners have reading problems. Such problems can be caused by a lack of vocabulary knowledge, a lack of grammatical knowledge, poor reading skill, inadequate background knowledge, vision or hearing problems, or cognitive processing issues. A carefully administered vocabulary size test can work out whether vocabulary knowledge is an issue or not. Studies with native speakers of English in New Zealand schools indicate that for almost all learners, general vocabulary knowledge is unlikely to be a major source of reading difficulty. The coverage research suggests that it is useful to see vocabulary as divided into three main levels. A high-frequency vocabulary of around 2,000 words, mid frequency vocabulary of an additional 7,000 words making a total of 9,000, and the remaining low-frequency vocabulary of at least another 10,000 words but potentially higher. Adult native speakers seem to have the vocabulary size of around 20,000 words, but this would be a very long-term goal for most foreign language learners. More sensible goals are to aim initially at a high frequency vocabulary of 2,000 words, and then to give attention largely to the most useful parts of the mid-frequency vocabulary for particular purposes. These can include academic vocabulary (currently in the form of the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), and technical vocabulary relevant to a particular area of study, work, or pastime interest. Vocabulary size data is also very useful in planning extensive reading; a vocabulary size test can be a very useful contributor to research on language proficiency and the effect of experimental interventions on language learning. It can provide an independent measure to help in equating groups in controlled studies.

2.19 Incremental vocabulary acquisition

The literature has identified that vocabulary learning is incremental in nature, as the mastery of a word is gradual and the learner needs to be exposed to it many times (Henriksen et al. (1999). Achieving mastery of second language vocabulary requires the learner to undergo a complicated process of a comprehensive understanding of different aspects of vocabulary knowledge such as form, meaning and use (Nation: et al. 2001). However, complete mastery of the different facets of vocabulary knowledge cannot be achieved through a limited number of contexts and exposures. This is because “vocabulary learning is not an all-or-nothing piece of learning but is rather a gradual process of one meeting with a word adding to or strengthening the small amount of knowledge gained from previous meetings” Nation (ibid. p.155). According to Henriksen (1999), the incremental nature of acquiring vocabulary knowledge can be described in three components: breadth of vocabulary knowledge (partial/precise knowledge of known words in the target language), depth of vocabulary knowledge (how well are words known in regard to meaning and use), and use of receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge.

2.20 Computer Assisted Vocabulary Learning (CAVL)

According to (Nation:2013) computer assisted vocabulary learning is dealt with in several places, in listening and speaking when looking at vocabulary learning through interaction with others, when dealing with glossing on reading and writing, when looking at vocabulary flashcard programs on learning from word cards, and on dictionary use. On teaching techniques there are six special characteristics of computer assisted vocabulary learning which distinguish it from other ways of learning. Not all of these characteristics are unique to computer –assisted vocabulary learning, but computer–assisted vocabulary learning is an ideal way of putting them into practice. The advantages of computer-assisted vocabulary learning are the following:

1. It can provide fast and easy access to a wide range of resources including other learners.
2. It can provide multimedia recourses.
3. It can provide immediate feedback on success and progress.
4. It can monitor and control learning conditions making sure that optimal conditions are applied according to research findings.
5. It can adapt to the performance of the learner.
6. It can motivate and engage learners.

2.21 Techniques of learning vocabulary

Thornbury (2005) argues that there are numerous techniques concerned with vocabulary learning/ teaching presentation as follows:

2.21.1 Form pronunciation and spelling

Penny Ur (2004) explains that: the learner has to know what a word sounds like "its pronunciation" and what it looks like "its spelling". These are fairly obvious characteristics, and one or the other will be perceived by the learner when encountering the item for the first time. In teaching, we need to make sure that both aspects are accurately presented and learnt.

2.21.2 Pronunciation

Penny Ur (2004) argues that: the learner has to know what a word sound like ' its pronunciation' and what it looks like ' it's spelling'. In pronunciation there are many problematic areas. The sound may not correspond to the spellings, so students may have difficulty knowing how many syllables the word is broken up into. It is also hard to know which syllable is stressed. Some words have shifting stress, a group of consonants together – consonant cluster. A speaker of a particular language might have difficulty with certain sounds. It's true that unfamiliarity with correct pronunciation can result in the learner failing to understand words in connected speech that he understands clearly in written English. Careful attention to

pronunciation is therefore an essential part of vocabulary teaching if new texts are to be used effectively, or understood without difficulty, in spoken English." Most words have only one pronunciation, but sometimes a word has two more pronunciations. English pronunciation is the way English words sound.

2.21.3 Spelling

Spelling is the forming of words from letters according to accepted usage, or a sequence of letters composing a word statement of rules or conventions on how words are to be written.

2.21.4 Synonyms

Yule (1997) states that: "there are two or more forms with very closely related meaning which are often, but not always, intersubstitutable in sentence". Examples of synonyms are (hide – conceal); (almost – nearly). Gaims & Radman (1986) state that: "synonymy occurs when group of words that share a general sense and so may be inter-changeable in a limited number of contexts, but which on closer inspection reveal conceptual different. Example as (extend-increase- expand). Synonyms are different words with identical or at least similar meanings.

Penny Ur (2004) says that, synonyms: are items that mean the same, or nearly the same, for example bright, clever, smart may serve as synonyms of intelligent.

2.21.5 Antonyms

Penny Ur (2004) states that: " antonyms are items that mean the opposite; 'rich' is an antonym of 'poor'.

Yule (1997) states that: two forms with opposite meaning such as (quick – slow).

2.21.6 Hyponymy

Yule (1997) states that:" when the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponyms". Penny Ur (2004) states that items that serve as specific examples of a general concept, dog, lion, mouse are

hyponyms of animal. Wilkins (1972) states that, "by 'hyponymy' is meant a relationship of inclusion".

2.21.7 Collocations

Penny Ur (2004) says that: "the collocations typical of particular items are another factor that makes a particular combination sound 'right' or 'wrong' in a given context". As for Lewi, (2002) states that collocations are those combinations of words which occur naturally with greater than random frequency; collocation is about words which co-occur, not ideas or concept. For example, drive cars, drink coffee. Gairm & Radman (1986) explains example as follows:

Adjective + noun collocate: (real thing, great detail).

Verb + adverb collocate: (drives quickly, fast).

Adverb + adjective collocate: (completely depressed).

Verb + adjective collocate: (raise your hand).

2.21.8 Denotation

Penny Ur (2004) says that: "the meaning of words is primarily what it refers to in real world, its denotation; this is often the sort of definition that is given in a dictionary". For example dog denotes a kind of animal, more specifically, a common, domestic carnivorous mammal, and both dank and moist mean slightly wet.

2.21.9 Connotation

A less obvious component of the meaning of an item is its connotation: the associations or positive or negative feelings it evokes (to cause a response) which may or may not be indicated a dictionary definition. The word dog, for example, as understood by most British People, has positive connotations of friendship and loyalty, whereas the equivalent in Arabic, as understood by most People in Arab countries has negative associations of dirt and inferiority. Within the English Language, moist has favorable connotations while dank has unfavorable, so that

you could describe something as ‘pleasantly moist’ where ‘pleasantly dank’ would sound absurd”. Penny Ur, (2004).

2.21.10 Appropriateness

Penny Ur (2004) says that: " a more subtle aspect of meaning that often needs to be taught is whether a particular item is the appropriate one to use in a certain context or not. Thus, it is useful for a learner to know that a certain word is very common, or relatively rare, or ‘taboo’ in polite conversation, or tends to be used in writing but not in certain dialect. For example, you may know that “weep” is virtually synonyms in denotation with “cry” but it is more formal, tends to be used in writing more than in speech, and in general is much common.

2.21.11 Word Formation and Affixation

Nagy and Anderson (1984) have reported that over 30% of written word types either are inflected or have a derivational affix and that the meaning of the majority of words made up of more than one morpheme are predictable based on the meanings of the parts. In addition, 55% of vocabulary between the 1000 and 2000 most frequent word and at least 58% of academic and low frequency words originate from Latin or Greek (Bird, 1987; Corson, 1997). Consequently, Knowledge of morphology can contribute to expanding and elaborating learners' vocabulary knowledge; indeed, learners who are familiar with English morphology are able to recognize more of the words that they encounter in reading passages (Schmitt and Meara, 1997). This finding is in agreement with the L1 reading literature that shows that morphological awareness plays a significant role in reading ability (Nagy and Anderson: 1993).

2.22 Using Bilingual Dictionaries

Dictionaries can be valuable tools in vocabulary acquisition when properly used. However, according to Baxter (2009) the continuous and extended use of bilingual dictionaries slows down a student's vocabulary development. Garner (2009)

suggested the following ways of helping learners to remember previously learned words. Spend time on a word by dealing with two or three aspects of the word, such as its spelling, pronunciation, parts, related derived forms, its meaning, its collocations, its grammar, or restrictions on its use. Get learners to do graded reading and listening to stories at appropriate level. Get learners to do speaking and writing activities based on written input that contain the words. Let learners do prepared activities that involve testing and teaching vocabulary such as; same or different? Find the difference, word and picture matching. Set aside time each week for word by word revision of the vocabulary that occurred previously. List the words on the board. Break the words into parts and label the meanings of the parts and suggests collocations for the words.

Garner (2009) proposed vocabulary teaching methods that concentrate on input that focuses on the meaning of vocabulary items and pronunciation that explains how the language operates. He also proposes teaching strategies that allow students to learn vocabulary independently through intensive reading.

Effective vocabulary teaching strategies enhance word retention, broaden the depth and breadth of word knowledge and therefore expedite the vocabulary development of the language learner.

2.23 learning vocabulary from Context

This vocabulary learning skill is effective for learning low-frequency vocabulary (Herrel, 2008, as cited in Henriksen, 1999). Suggests the following method in assisting students guessing meaning from context:

Definition- a definition gives the meaning of words. The writer may use phrases or statements to define something. The key words used to provide a definition are: "are/is known as," "are/is described as," "are/is defined as".

Restatement- the writer may use other words, phrases or sentences to provide meaning of difficult words. The key words used in restating something: "in other words", "that is" and "that is to say."

Punctuation marks- the writer uses punctuation marks to describe the meaning of unfamiliar words. The author will write unfamiliar words and then use punctuation, words, phrases or sentences to explain new words. Punctuation marks such as-, commas, "inverted commas, () parentheses; semi-colon and: colon. E.g. Family members (siblings) should always stick together

Examples – examples help learners to understand the meaning of new words. Key words- " such as: "like", "for example", "for instance", "is/are", are used by the author.

Contrast- contrast shows the opposite meaning of new words. Key words- "but," "instead of," "even though," "in contrast" "yet," "and" "in spite of," are used by the author.

Similarity- the writer uses signal words of similarity. Key words like," in the same way", "as", and "just as."

Surrounding words- words surrounding the new vocabulary might provide clues to the meaning of new words. For example- Children are too young to understand that swallowing gum can be dangerous.

Background knowledge- Experience and background knowledge about the text plays an important role in vocabulary comprehension. For that reason it is important for teachers to do schema-building before learners read the text.

2.24 Technology and Vocabulary Instruction

In the growing world of educational technology, researchers are finding many ways to expand the explicit instruction of vocabulary beyond traditional pen and paper activities (Dalton et al., 2011). These activities still contain the essential elements of direct instruction, and in many cases provide students with new tools

for independent vocabulary development. Incorporating various types of technology such as video clips, electronic or computer based games, various means of technological presentations, online tools, and computer based instruction allow students to have greater interaction with text and words (Dalton: *ibid*). Increased amounts of interaction and experience with vocabulary allow students to create more meaningful context for understanding words and deeper vocabulary development. One of the most important aspects of using technology as a means of vocabulary instruction are the visuals presented to further solidify word meanings, as well as provide a shared experience and context for discussion of words. These shared experiences and interactions allows for all students to understand the context of a word so more deep meaning discussion and activities take place to further vocabulary development.

2.25 Vocabulary learning and reading development

According to Nation(2008) word learning through meaning-focused input should make up around one quarter of the opportunities for learning in a course , and learning vocabulary through reading should be an important source of learning that some consider it the only significant source of language learning(Krashen 1985).

It is received wisdom that people learn most of their vocabulary from reading (e.g., Sternberg, 1987). Others take this a little further. Krashen (1993, p.23), for example, states that "reading is good for you". The research supports a stronger conclusion, however, reading is the only way, the only way we become good readers, develop a good writing style, an adequate vocabulary, advanced grammar, and the only way we become good spellers". In either case, reading is seen to be beneficial for foreign language learning and especially for vocabulary building. There are now quite a number of studies which have looked at how much vocabulary is learned from reading in a foreign language.

2.26 Vocabulary and reading comprehension

According to (Anderson & Freebody, 1981) vocabulary knowledge is fundamental to reading comprehension; one can't understand text without knowing what most of the words mean. A wealth of research has documented the strength of the relationship between vocabulary and comprehension. The proportion of difficult words in a text is the single most powerful predictor of text difficulty, and a reader's general vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor well that reader can understand text

(Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986) say that the obviousness of the need and the strong relation between vocabulary and comprehension invite an overly simplistic response: if the students teach more words, they will understand text better. As Alderson et al. (2000) say vocabulary knowledge plays a critical role influencing reading comprehension in both L1 and L2, constructing a mental representation of a text and understanding the text meaning depends on one's knowledge of large vocabulary to decipher the printed message (Adams, et al 2000). Inability to understand words of a particular text can hinder and efficient word recognition, word encoding and lexical access Adams et al.(2004) attributed the difference between skilled and less skilled readers to slower and inefficient lexical access and semantic processing. Moreover, Stahl, (2003) affirmed that text comprehension is affected by word difficulty. He asserts that unknown vocabulary is the most important factor to determine the difficulty of the text. Researcher in applied linguistics (e.g. Laufer, 1996, Qian, 1999) conduct studies to predict the level of academic reading comprehension based on scores on vocabulary size. In her studies, Laufer, (1996) finds significant link between types of vocabulary size tests and reading comprehension tests.

In a study with 80 first- year university students of similar first language background, Laufer, (1996) finds a correlation of .71 between learners' scores on

reading comprehension and those on the vocabulary level test. Likewise, researches by Coady et al. (1993) involving 79 students of English in a university academic preparation program concluded that the two experimental groups which received special instruction in high frequency vocabulary, achieved better ESL reading comprehension at the end of experiments than did a control group, which did not receive such training. Coady (ibid) included that special instruction in the most common 2000 English vocabulary items could improve reading comprehension of learners. Moreover, Qian (1999) investigated the influence of vocabulary on ESL reading and found high correlation between the scores on the vocabulary levels test and those on the reading subset of the TOEFL. Nation, (2001) added to the previous aspects of word knowledge that knowing a word should include receptive and productive use- basically, word knowledge can be categorized into three dimensions: form, meaning, and use. Schmitt and Meara, (1997) believed that mastery of these aspects of word knowledge may enable learners to obtain native-language and then the competency.

Joshi and Aaron (2000) state that vocabulary knowledge can predict reading ability strongly especially when factoring reading speed with decoding and comprehension. Martin-Chang and Gould, (2008) Qian (2002) they state that their studies established a correlation between vocabulary and reading comprehension and between print knowledge and reading rate. They proposed that vocabulary knowledge helps learners to decode the text, which is an important aspect of reading. Insufficient knowledge of word meanings as well as limited vocabulary size hinders students from comprehending the text. Qian and Schedl, (2004) investigated the effects of the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge on reading comprehension in academic settings. Breadth of vocabulary relates to the size vocabulary that a person knows, and depth of vocabulary knowledge refers to how well a person knows a word. The two factors are critical as they play on

important role in learning words; it is very likely that learners come across words with which they are not familiar. Qian (2002,p.518) added that, " having a large vocabulary gives the learners a large data base from which to guess the meaning of unknown words or behavior of newly learned words, having deeper vocabulary knowledge will very likely improve the results of the guessing work" .

In brief, the above studies demonstrate that the role of vocabulary knowledge is an intriguing and complex concept. It is clear that if the text contains too many difficult words, that is high – frequency words, that learners don't know, comprehension of the reading text is likely to be impaired even the text is cohesive. Even if the students have background knowledge on the reading, difficult vocabulary still diminishes the comprehension of the reading.

2.27 Developing EFL Reading vocabulary

The principal notion underlying this study is that the most effective and effective lexical development will occur in multifaceted curriculums that achieve a pedagogically sound balance between explicit and implicit activities for L2 learners at all levels of their development.

In spite of the impressive progress that has been made by researcher, there is reason for concern. "First, students have lack a comprehensive theory of how vocabulary is acquired, although work has begun in this area . Second, there is mounting evidence that many learners, particularly those in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts whose native language is not generally related to English, are not developing their lexicons to level which would permit them to function add equated in many English language contexts . Compared to English as a second language (ESL) learners, EFL learners often lack an adequate amount of oral or written input; consequently, they need to make up for their language learning opportunities. Third, judging by the limited space devoted to vocabulary acquisition in many second language (L2) acquisition texts and teacher education

textbooks, it is still not being accorded a position of importance by the mainstream second language acquisition" Thus, the primary purpose of this article is to present a systematic framework for the development of reading vocabulary in foreign language contexts based on contemporary research, while simultaneously highlighting some of the gaps in that research. The researcher believes that this information can benefit curriculum developers, materials writers, teachers, and researchers.

In addition to distinguishing between explicit and implicit instruction, it is also necessary to define the more elusive concepts of explicit and implicit learning, and to consider which is more effective for promoting the acquisition of different types of vocabulary knowledge. From a general education perspective, Lufer and Hulstijn (2001: 11) have stated that explicit learning can take place both intentionally and incidentally, but that implicit learning can only be incidental, which they define as "without learners' awareness of an upcoming retention test, or without learners' deliberate decision to commit information to memory. Incidental learning which probably requires learners to attend to and notice input, can also be viewed as a secondary result of the primary goal of communication From a cognitive psychology perspective, explicit learning can be characterized as a conscious searching, building and testing of hypotheses and assimilating a rule following explicit instruction, whereas implicit learning is characterized by the "automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material arrived at from experience of instances" (Ellis, 1994a,p.214). With regard to vocabulary development, connecting word form and meaning is best taught implicitly (Ellis, 1994b). While these definitions begin to clarify explicit and implicit learning, questions remain concerning what features vocabulary and grammar are best learned explicitly or implicitly and how these processes occur (Laufer, and Hulstijn; 2001).

2.28 Explicit lexical instruction and learning

Explicit lexical instruction and learning strategies involve the study of de-contextualized lexis, using dictionaries and inferring vocabulary from context. However, in this section, the researcher will focus primarily on justifying the study of de-contextualized lexis because some researchers have proposed that it is unnecessary (e.g. Krashen, 1989) or inadequate for helping learners acquire the large numbers of words that they ultimately need to know to achieve advanced levels of proficiency (Nagy, 1997). However, he argues that when combined with a large quantity of written input, explicit lexical teaching and learning are valuable for a number of reasons.

First, many researches show that explicit temporary study of de-contextualized vocabulary is valuable in the EFL reading classroom and early studies of de-contextualized vocabulary learning.

Second, an additional argument for explicit instruction and learning arises from the difficulties of increasing vocabulary size through inferring unknown word meaning, especially for less proficient learners (Folse, 2004,p.71-83).successfully inferring vocabulary from context is problematic for a variety of reasons. First, the probability of successful inference is improved when learners know 98% or more of the surrounding vocabulary, which in many cases amount to knowing at least 5,000 word families in an authentic text (Hirsh and Nation, 1992, Lufer, 1997). Second, vocabulary retention is enhanced when learners temporarily isolate words from their context (Prince, 1996) and elaborative process them. Third, numerous linguistic and textual obstacles can lead to partially or fully incorrect inferences and attributes, which can require years to unlearn.

As a researcher experience vocabulary knowledge is an essential part of the process of education both as a means and end. Lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge is already an obvious and serious obstacle for many students.

2.29 Autonomy Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary learning is one of the most important challenging issues that EFL learners face. In the past the learners depended on their teachers but new teaching methodologies encourage learner autonomy. At the university level, learners should become more autonomous in learning foreign language vocabulary and try to find different ways of how to become more successful learners. At the university level learners are forced to become autonomous and make conscious efforts to learn vocabulary outside of the classroom simply because exposure to target language is limited in university classes. Consequently, the autonomy of the learner plays an important role in developing and enhancing their vocabulary. Some educators as Holec (1981), and Benson (2003) attached great importance to the necessity of autonomy in education. A majority of learners at the university level are lucky enough to have many different opportunities to improve their vocabulary. In different university's programs the textbooks are in English language , in addition that we have different English courses that offer a great variety of activities that enhance the learner's motivation and independence in learning vocabulary, also there are several significant resources available in the internet that enhance vocabulary learning, they're absolutely free. It has been argued that new technologies, in particular computer networks, have the potential to increase learner autonomy when they used appropriately. Students have the independent opportunity to use the foreign or second language vocabulary for communication in different activities

2.29.1 The concept of learner autonomy

Holec defined learner autonomy as the “ability to take charge of one’s own learning”, noting that this ability “is not inborn but must be acquired either by ‘natural’ means or (as most often happens) by formal learning, i.e. in a systematic, deliberate way”, and pointing out that “To take charge of one’s learning is to have

“The responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning”

2.29.2 The definition of learner autonomy and vocabulary learning

According to Little (1991), definitions of autonomy have varied, but they have typically included these vital features:

- Students should take responsibility for their own learning. ·
- Taking responsibility' involves learners in taking ownership (partial or total) of many processes which have traditionally belonged to the teacher, such as deciding on learning objectives, selecting learning methods and evaluating progress.

Little wood (1996) believed that the influencing goal of teaching is to produce learners that can act and think more independently, i.e. more autonomously, and a strategy for developing autonomy is the main target of language teaching.

According to Holec (1981) there are varying degrees of self-direction in learning which may be connected to varying degrees of autonomy. He outlines the following components as an entirely self-directed process of learning:

- Fixing the objectives
- defining the content and progressions
- selecting the methods and techniques to be used
- monitoring the acquisition procedure

2.29.3 What is the necessity to have autonomy in vocabulary learning?

There is no doubt that learning any foreign language requires learning words of that language. The words are stored and retrieved in the human brain. Language learning strategies are a central issue in teaching and learning, especially in encouraging learner autonomy. No doubt that a learner cannot learn all language vocabulary in university classes so he is forced to find other ways to learn vocabulary. Learner autonomy is a great relief for students in vocabulary learning because it provides the learner with many privileges as:

- Learner autonomy enhances the learner's motivation and leads to more effective vocabulary learning.
- Learner autonomy provides learners with more free opportunities for English communication in a non-native environment.
- Learner autonomy caters to the individual needs of learners at all levels.
- Learner autonomy supports self-confidence.
- Learner autonomy enhances the learner's willingness towards active learning.

2.29.4 Learning vocabulary weakness

It is important to delve into the reasons beyond English vocabulary weakness and why it is essential to empower student's ability to grasp more words in different techniques. According to the researcher experience following are some weakness' reasons for students' vocabulary learning

1. Lacks the awareness to the objectives of learning vocabulary.
2. Very limited experience of practicing conversation with native speaker.
3. A serious problem in spelling.
4. Lacks the motivation to learn the English Language.
5. Lives in an environment where higher level vocabulary are not used.
6. Phobia of English language as a foreign language.
7. Lower education level.
8. Does not read much or has a reading problem.
9. Some learners have an auditory perception problem which makes it difficult to hear the subtle differences in words.
10. Some learners do not have a good understanding of the structure of language including parts of speech and word parts, prefixes, suffixes and word roots.

Students cannot develop their autonomy alone; they should coordinate with their teachers in order to achieve the desired results.

2.29.5 How to develop the learner's autonomy in vocabulary learning?

According to Boud (1995), an autonomous learner is the one who is prepared to take some significant responsibility for his own learning. And in order to be a good autonomous one, the learner should make decisions about his/her own learning, he/she should be able to set realistic goals, plan program of work, and develop strategies for coping with new and unforeseen situations, evaluate and assess his/her own work and generally to learn how to learn from his/her own successes and failures in ways which will help his/her to be more efficient learners in the future. Autonomous learners willingly partner with faculty and peers in learning, and are reflective about their own learning.

2.29. 6 Strategies to enhance students' ability to improve vocabulary

Being an autonomous learner means using different learning strategies. Nation (1997) suggests that learners need to be able to use vocabulary strategies to cope with unknown vocabulary met in listening or reading texts, to make up for gaps in productive vocabulary in speaking and writing, to gain fluency in using known vocabulary and to learn new words in isolation. Most of the strategies can begin to be developed in the earliest English classes. Research suggests educators focus on some practices that help bring words alive for their students Rubin (1987):

- Develop word awareness and love of words through increasing motivation.
- Develop explicit, rich instruction to build vocabulary.
- Build strategies for independence.

2.30 Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs)

Developing a rich vocabulary is an essential and continuing challenge for language learners. Language learners need to use strategies to help them acquire new lexical items and to have rich vocabulary. The use of suitable strategies makes a distinction between experienced learners and beginners in many learning areas. It is a necessity for language learners to increase their vocabulary knowledge and to

understand words to use them correctly. In order to achieve this purpose, emphasis has to shift from language instructors and teaching to language learners and learning (Sadighi & Zarafshan, 2006). As stated by Rubin et al (1987), language learning strategies are any set of activities, strategies, procedures, notions that language learners use to assist in the knowledge, storing, recovery and usage of language. This approach seems reasonable for language instructors to help language learners to use vocabulary learning strategies so they can be independent vocabulary learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). However, Cameron (2001) states that language learners may not implement strategies automatically, they learn words in various ways, and as a result, learners need to be taught different vocabulary learning strategies to help them to be successful language learners. Meanwhile, several researchers have suggested that some vocabulary learning strategies are more efficient in learning and developing new lexical items (Schmitt, 1997). Nation (1990) indicates that language learners have to learn how to store, recall, and use new vocabulary items by employing several kinds of vocabulary learning strategies. Oxford (1990) and Schmitt (2000) add that each strategy for vocabulary learning might be suitable for its goal. This brings about vocabulary learning strategies, as they are subclass of language learning strategies with the focus on vocabulary acquisition. Consequently, the definition of vocabulary learning strategy developed from language learning strategies (Catalán, 2003). Oxford (1990, p. 8) defines them “as the operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information (vocabulary)”. Cameron (2001, p. 92) defines vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) as “the actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary items”. Oxford (1990); and Schmitt (1997) as the adopted definition in her study as knowledge about the mechanisms (processes, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning

of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode.

Then vocabulary learning strategies are intended mental strategies that language learners employ to enhance vocabulary learning and retrieve easily new words. Language learners attempt several ways to use different vocabulary learning strategies. It is impossible for learners to memorize all the words in any language, and they cannot master the vocabulary of the target language. As a result, they need to use the techniques mentioned before at different stages of learning in order to advance their vocabulary acquisition and remember these vocabulary items. Moreover, vocabulary learning strategies vary from one learner to another in terms of different variables such as age, gender, language proficiency level, etc. In the language classroom, VLSs taught probably build learners' self-confidence to learn vocabulary autonomously. In order to deal with a new word when it occurs and be successful and independent language learners, Harmer (1991) stated that language learners should be familiarized with extensive kinds of strategies, which is very beneficial since they become able to select the type of strategies that are appropriate to their individual learning styles. LLSs create a better self-direction for language learners. Oxford (1990) pointed that independent language learners are self-directed learners, who have the responsibility for their own learning strategies and progressively obtain confidence and proficiency. Schmitt (1997) declared that learners are widely inclined to employ basic VLSs. This in turn makes VLS instruction an important part of foreign or SLL. Language teachers need a good knowledge of VLS that could be useful to plan their teaching more successfully and guide learners in adopting effective strategies. Therefore, training in the VLSs is necessary for language learners.

2.31 Vocabulary Learning Strategies Classifications

In classifying learning strategies, several scholars have classified vocabulary learning strategies into different categories in relation to their findings. These classification systems contribute vitally to the knowledge of vocabulary strategies such as Cohen (1987); Gu and Johnson (1996); Schmitt (1997); Cook (2001); Nation (2001), and Schmitt (1997). Schmitt's taxonomy (1997) is a comprehensive inventory of vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt took social, memory, cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies established by Oxford, and invented a new category that is determination strategies. Learners use this category to discover the meaning of new words without asking from another person. Consequently, learners attempt to find out the meaning of a new word by using the context, structural knowledge of language, and reference materials. Schmitt's VLSs are divided into two groups: strategies used to define the meaning of new words and strategies used to consolidate the meaning of the new words when learners come across them again. As social strategies can be employed for both purposes according to Schmitt, he includes these strategies in both groups. The first group contains determination and social strategies and the second contains cognitive, metacognitive, memory and social strategies (Schmitt, 1997). Concerning the other classified vocabulary learning strategies, according to Cohen (1987), three main categories for vocabulary learning strategies were classified. They include strategies for remembering words, semantic strategies, and strategies for vocabulary learning and practicing. As for Gu and Johnson (1996), they had grouped eight categories of vocabulary learning strategies after advanced EFL Chinese learners reported their employed VLSs. The eight categories are beliefs about vocabulary learning; Metacognitive regulation; Guessing strategies; Dictionary strategies; Note-taking strategies; Memory strategies (rehearsal); Memory strategies (encoding); and Activation strategies. With reference to Cook

(2001), she classified two major categories for getting meaning and acquiring words. Getting meaning strategies include guessing meaning from situation or context, using a dictionary, making deductions from the word-form, and linking lexical items to cognates. While acquiring word strategies include repetition and rote learning, organizing words in the minds of learners, and linking lexical items to existing knowledge. Finally, Nation (2001) classified vocabulary learning strategies in three main categories which are planning, sources, and processes. Nation (*ibid*, p. 222) states that “planning involves deciding on where, how and how often to focus attention on the vocabulary item. Strategies include the choosing of words, choosing aspects of word knowledge, and choosing strategies as well as planning repetition. Source includes the getting of information about the word. This information may include all the aspects involved in knowing a word. It can come from the word form itself, from the context, from a reference source such as www.ccsenet.org/ells English Language and Literature Studies Vol. 6, No. 1; 2016 49 dictionaries or glossaries, and from analogies and connections with other languages. Lastly, processes include the establishment of word knowledge through noticing, retrieving and generating strategies”.

In the language classroom, VLSs taught probably build learners’ self-confidence to learn vocabulary autonomously. In order to deal with a new word when it occurs and be successful and independent language learners, Harmer (1991) stated that language learners should be familiarized with extensive kinds of strategies, which is very beneficial since they become able to select the type of strategies that are appropriate to their individual learning styles. Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) create a better self-direction for language learners. Oxford (1990) pointed that independent language learners are self-directed learners, who have the responsibility for their own learning strategies and progressively obtain confidence and proficiency. Schmitt (1997) declared that learners are widely inclined to

employ basic vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs). This in turn makes VLS instruction an important part of foreign or second language learning (SLL). Language teachers need a good knowledge of VLS that could be useful to plan their teaching more successfully and guide learners in adopting effective strategies. Therefore, training in the VLSs is necessary for language learners.

2.31.1 Word cards theory

The most usual strategy for students learning vocabulary is learning from word cards. According to Nation, a learner writes the foreign word on one side of a small card, and its translation of the first language on the other. The learner goes through a set of cards and tries to recall its meaning (Nation 2001). In China, it is one of the most commonly used strategies for learning English vocabulary among College students. Learning from word cards is a form of decontextualized learning, which means there is no context to help learners to understand the meaning and usage of the words. It helps learners with learning the written form of the word, learning the concept of the word and making connections between word form and meaning. To L2 vocabulary learners, learning from word cards is a good strategy for it is both useful for successful learners and students who find it difficult to learn vocabulary. Though it may be somewhat boring, it is the easiest way for learners to memorize the meaning of the new word.

2.31.2 Behaviorist learning theory

Behaviorists believe that language acquisition is the result of habit formation (Lightbown & Spada 1999, p. 9). They use the term “habits” to explain all kinds of behavior found in language acquisition (Ellis 1997). Behaviorism concerns the connection between the target language and the learners. This connection begins when the learner receives the linguistic input from the target language, no matter whether it is verbal or non-verbal. The connection becomes stronger through practice, then a habit forms through this process, and the language learning process

is regarded as the habit-formatting process. The quality and quantity of language input which learners hear from the environment can help them to form the habit and have an effect on their success in L2 acquisition (Lightbown & Spada 1999). From this aspect, learning a language is just like putting language items into the learner's ears, and a habit then forms through this. Once the habit is formed, a language system is established in the learner's mind and the learner can make the conditioned reflex to the language. From the behaviorist point of view, the most useful strategy of learning vocabulary is through hearing the word repeatedly. The more frequently the word is heard, the more deeply it will impress the learner, and the learner will acquire the word more easily, e.g. a man hears the word 'sorry' when someone doing something wrong. At first he completely does not know what does it mean, then he would realize that it means that people do something improperly and feel regret about it. As a habit forms in his mind, he has the deep impression of the word 'sorry'. In this process, the learners can acquire vocabulary easily through repeated hearing.

2.31.3 Incidental vocabulary learning theory

The incidental learning theory is an important vocabulary learning strategies in L2 vocabulary acquisition. Many linguists have made the definition of incidental vocabulary learning. Nation (2001) defines the incidental learning via guessing from context to be the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning. It refers to the learning which occurs without specific intention to focus on vocabulary. One can develop vocabulary knowledge subconsciously while being engaged in any language activities, especially from reading and listening. How does context contribute to vocabulary learning? Nation argues that the more often a word occurs in the context the more likely it can be guessed and learnt). Context provides clues for word guessing. The clues that are near the unknown word are more likely to be used. The more clues there are, the easier guessing will be. A

critical factor in successful guessing is the learners' vocabulary size, because this will affect the density of unknown words in a text. Besides, the synonyms in the context can help guessing. If the word is essential for understanding the context, the learner will put more effort into guessing. The topical knowledge about the context is also helpful in guessing new words. Learning vocabulary in context can be very efficient. An analysis of twenty studies shows that fifteen percent of the unknown words are learnt from guessing in the context, in which the unknown words make up three percent of the running word (Nation 2001). Meara (1994) claims that incidental learning is a by-product of learning something else and it is not like the intentional learning which is designed by teachers or students. That means learners acquire vocabulary when they are involved in some learning activities, such as reading, speaking, and interacting with others. From the views mentioned above, incidental learning of vocabulary can be defined as a kind of learning method from reading, listening, speaking or writing to language use while learners' main attention focuses on the information of passages or texts. This method includes learning from extensive reading, learning from taking part in conversations, and learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio. Nation (2001)

2.32 Reading Comprehension

Reading is a source of learning and a source of enjoyment. It can be a goal in its own right and a way of reaching other goals. As source of learning, reading can establish previously learned vocabulary and grammar, it can help learners learn new vocabulary and grammar, and through success in language use it can encourage learners to learn more and continue with their language study. As a goal in its own right, reading can be a source of enjoyment and a way of gaining knowledge of the world. As learners gain skill and fluency in reading, their enjoyment can increase. (Nation: 2008)

Reading skill is a necessary skill for a language acquisition because it has positive effects on vocabulary knowledge, spelling as well as the learners' writings. Reading is viewed as an interactive process between the reader and the writer in which the former has to understand the message of the passage and then to decode it. Moreover, it is a dynamic process in which information from the text and knowledge possessed by the reader interact to enable him to construct meaning before, during and after reading.

Reading is a complex cognitive ability that is considered one of the basic language skills which can help students in learning foreign language; however, it is used more by most of EFL learners who always need to read various printed materials such as: Books, stories, articles, poems and so on.

Reading is defined as the meaningful interpretation of written or printed verbal symbols and a result of interaction between the perception of graphic symbols that represent language and the reader's language skills, cognitive skill, and knowledge of the world. In very similar view, Goodman (1988) defined Reading as the process which requires readers to make the interpretation of graphic signs, delineates reading in a variety of ways, i.e. matching sounds to letters. In this sense, reading is as a cognitive process which could help readers to create meaning from text.

. Dubin (1982) assumes that the task reading is a complex skill that contains a number of psychological, physical and social elements.

Therefore, reading is considered as the most difficult language skill, which involves the interaction of multiple cognitive, meta-cognitive, linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects. i.e.; some other sub-Skills operate all together in order to perform the task.

Reading is not a passive task, but rather an active one. In fact, reading requires both the learner's mental and experiential inputs of who is expected to comprehend the written message.

Reading comprehension means "reading and understanding". The reader can only decode, translating written symbols into corresponding sounds. Penny Ur (2004). Reading comprehension is the ability of the readers to understand written materials. According to Seyed et al (2010, p.376-380), the word comprehension refers to "the ability to go beyond the words, to understand the ideas conveyed in the entire text". Furthermore, Snow (2002, p.11) sees that reading comprehension refers to "the simultaneous ability used by a reader to construct and extract meaning through interaction and involvement with written materials". Besides that, Reading comprehension is the process of extracting meaning from text. The goal, therefore, is to gain an overall understanding of what is described in the text rather than to obtain meaning from isolated words or sentences. A similar view was given by Katherine Maria (1990,p.14-15) who defined "reading comprehension as holistic process of constructing meaning from written text through the interaction of (1) the knowledge reader brings to the text i.e. word recognition ability, word knowledge, and knowledge of linguistic conventions; (2) readers interpretation of the language that the writer used in constructing the text; and (3) the situation in which the text is read" .

Reading comprehension has been defined in many ways over the years. Nuttall (1996) suggests that the overriding purpose to reading is to get the correct message from a text- the message the writer intended for the reader to receive. Allen (2003) stated that the idea of reading has changed and moved from what was considered a receptive process to what is now an interactive process. Reading can be done using a number of processes that can be divided into two main categories: bottom-up processing and top-down processing. Bottom-up processing refers to the reader

obtaining meaning from the letters and words of a text and reconstructing the intended message that way. Top-down processing refers to the reader's ability to look at a text as a whole and to connect and relate it to his existing knowledge base. Both processes are needed to obtain a message from a text.

2.32.1 Models of Reading Process

Reading is a cognitive process that consists of a reader, a text, and the interaction between the reader and the text. There are three models for the second-language reading process: the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model.

2.32.2. The Bottom-up Model

This reading model focuses on the smaller units of a text such as its letters, words, phrases and sentences. Then, a syntactic and semantic processing occurs during which reading reaches the final meaning. In this model, the reader reads all of the words in a phrase, or a sentence before being able to understand. The bottom-up reading process begins with decoding the smallest linguistic units, especially phonemes, graphemes, and words, and ultimately constructs meaning from the smallest to the largest units. While doing this, the readers apply their background knowledge to the information they find in the texts. This bottom-up method is also called data-driven and text-based reading (Carrell: 1989). The disadvantage of this model is that the readers will only be successful in reading if they accurately decode the linguistic units and recognize the relationship between words. It is impossible for the readers to store in their memory the meaning of every word in a passage. It is also difficult to relate one word to the other words. It can be concluded that there are some arguments against the bottom-up model. In the reading process, the readers understand that what they have read is the result of their own constructions, not the result of the transmission of graphic symbols to

their understanding, and that without their background knowledge, they cannot comprehend the texts.

2.32. 3. The Top-down Model

The top-down model was first introduced by Goodman (1967). He proposed the idea of reading as a “psycholinguistic guessing game” in which the reader uses his background knowledge or textual schemata to.. connect with a text and to relate these to new or unexpected information found in the text in order to understand it. This model focuses on linguistic guesswork rather than graphic textual information. The readers do not need to read every word of a text, but rather, they concentrate on predicting the next group of words. They concern themselves with guessing the meaning of the words or phrases. Readers might start predicting from the title of the reading text, something that allows them to limit the scope of their reading. While reading, they may hypothesize the message the writer wants to convey and modify their hypotheses according to what they read in the text. Comprehension begins with higher levels of processing, and proceeds to the use of the lower levels (Nuttall, 1996).

2.32.4 The Interactive Model

This model is built on the interaction of the bottom-up and top-down models. Nunan (1990) and Grabe (1991) argue that efficient and effective reading requires both top-down and bottom-up decoding. L2 readers, for example, may use top-down reading to compensate for deficiencies in bottom-up reading. To achieve meaning, they use their schemata to compensate for the lack of bottom-up knowledge Stanovich (1980) argued that the interactive model is a process based on information from several sources such as orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic knowledge, and schemata. While reading, decoding processes can support one another in a compensatory way when reading word by word, readers with good bottom-up skills do not comprehend the texts, they need to use their

prior knowledge (schemata) to assist them. Readers who rely on the top-down model use textual clues and guess wildly at the meaning, but they need to compensate for deficits such as weaknesses in word recognition and lack of effective bottom-up processing. The interactive model, which is the combination of the bottom-up and top-down processes, leads to the most efficient processing of texts. Knowing that the interactive model can help L2 readers in achieving successful reading, teachers should find reading instructions based on this model to promote L2 readers' abilities. The reciprocal teaching approach is a type of reading instruction that is based on the interactive model.

2.32.5 Types of reading

2.32.5. a Intensive Reading

It refers to a high degree of comprehension and retention over a long period of time, in other words, it is reading in depth or carefully to comprehend a given text for example; studying it line by line, using the dictionary, comparing, analyzing, translating, and retaining every expression that it contains. Brown (1988,p.400-450) explains that intensive reading “calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and the surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like”. Therefore, intensive reading is reading for a high degree of comprehension and retention over a long period of time (Texas Women's Universty counseling Center, 2014).

2.32.5. b Extensive Reading

Bamford et al (2004,p.1-4) defined “Extensive reading is a language teaching procedures where learners are supposed to read large quantities of materials or long texts for global understanding, the principal goal being obtaining pleasure from the text”. According to Liana’s Extensive Reading Journals (2011), it is “reading as much as possible, for your own pleasure, at a difficulty level at which

you can read smoothly and quickly without looking up words or translating to English as you go”. So, we can say that extensive reading is connected to student choice and pleasure in reading in order to reach enjoyment.

2.33 Reading comprehension Strategies

In educational system, most of EFL learners face many problems especially in comprehension of written materials when reading. According to them, understanding the meaning of texts can be a great challenge i.e. they are able to understand each word and even each sentence; but unfortunately, they fail to achieve the meaning of text as a whole. For that reason, many psychologists and researchers assume that those who always struggle and find reading comprehension as a problematic issue. Because of most of these students lack the reading strategies that may help them to overcome their reading problems.

There are much evidence that have been shown on the importance of reading strategies and their effective role in enhancing and developing reading comprehension. Mc Namara et al (2009,p.218) views that “reading strategies are more useful and beneficial for learners who show lack of knowledge in the domain of reading, as well as those with lower reading skill, these kinds of learners are strongly needed to these strategies to achieve reading comprehension”. Therefore, the continuous use of reading strategies will lead the readers to become skilled and later they will be able to utilize the reading skills acquired without conscious efforts.

In the area of reading strategies studies, many researchers have utilized different types of strategies; these last are more effective, useful and beneficial ones for students which some of them are as follows: predicting, skimming, scanning, inferring, guessing the meaning of new words, self-monitoring, and summarizing.

2.33.1. Predicting

Magilano (1993, p.35-53) stated that “prediction strategy involves thinking about what might be coming next in the text. It is applied by effective reader that mean, they used pictures, headings and text as well as personal experience to make predictions before they begin to read” . So, predicting involves thinking ahead while reading and anticipating information and events in the text. Jessica also viewed that “it is used in reading task, it helps learners to think what will happen based upon the text, the author, and background knowledge in other words it makes students elicit their interest, activate their prior knowledge, or pre-teach vocabulary or concepts that may be difficult” (Jessica, G, 2000 cited in The Ohio University Education, 2014). In this sense, predicting requires learners to use the text to decide what will happen next. Readers confirm or deny predictions with support from the text (Test Wise Word Association, 2006).

2.33.2. Skimming

It is used by readers to get “a general idea about the content of printed materials through reading the text quickly i.e. in this strategy, readers will look for something quite specific or get general ideas before putting effort into close reading” (Grellet:1999, P. 2-25). For instance, one does not want to read the whole texts or articles; s/he may use various techniques to skim: (1) Use of quick glance through the pages (2) Notice the titles and headings and subheadings (3) Read the opening sentence and the conclusion carefully (4) Read the first and the last sentence of each paragraph in order to gain the main idea of the main points (As Dinah Mack & Holly Epstein Ojalov, 2009 cited in The article of New York Times, 2014). So, skimming is one of strategies that require readers to read quickly in order to get an overview/the general idea or gist of a section.

2.33.3. Scanning

According to Grellet (1981:p.58-59), “scanning is a reading technique that requires reader to search for specific information without reading the whole text, through looking at its title, table of content and so on”. It is a strategy you often use when looking for specific information by reading something quickly such as search for key words or ideas. In most cases, you know what you're looking for, so you're concentrating based on finding a particular answer. It involves moving your eyes quickly down the page seeking specific words and phrases. In this way, we can say that scanning is reading quickly to locate specific information (Test Wise Word Association, 2006).

2.33.4. Inferring

Prezler (2006, p.4) stated that “inferences are evidence -based guesses i.e. in case of reading; students use their prior knowledge to make inferences about the text”. According to Zimmermann (2009) saw that inferences are often referred to as what you “read between the lines” that means the author wants the reader to make the jump to the same conclusion the author has made. He states also that “Drawing inferences from text is a technique which requires readers to use their prior knowledge (schema) and textual information to draw conclusions, make critical judgments, and form unique interpretations from text” (p23). So, the inferences are the conclusions that a reader draws about the unsaid passage based on what is actually said by the author.

2.33.5. Guessing the Meaning of New Words

One of the most difficult problems that make an obstacle for students in the comprehension of reading is unfamiliar/new words. According to Clark (1980,p.211-220) the best way to solve this problem is “to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context in order to save time and to continue reading without interruption or referring to a dictionary” .The ability to guess meaning

from context is a useful skill to practice and try to improve. There are many things that could help students such as: (1) Guess the meaning of the text which surrounds it (2) the way the word is formed (3) background knowledge of the students about the subject (E.O.I. de Sabinaningo organization, 1993).

2.33.6. Self-Monitoring

Hanson (1996) views that the ability of a student to self-monitor his or her performance is a natural step toward becoming independent, which can only happen when students take responsibility for their own behavior and essentially become “agents of change” (P, 173-191). Furthermore, self-monitoring can be used both to assess where students are functioning academically and behaviorally and to improve academic or behavioral performance (Carr, Punzo, Rutherford, Quinn & Mathur, 1993.P, 50-241).

2.33.7. Summarizing

It is the last strategy that can be used by readers, it requires the readers to organize or restate the information or the main ideas of a given text by his/her own style after their comprehension or in other words, taking a lot of information and creating a condensed version that covers only the main points. Oxford (2006) defines “summarizing as a short description of the main ideas or points of something without any details” (p: 717). Similarly, Reading Rockets Organization (2014) puts: “Summarizing teaches students how to discern the most important ideas in a text, how to ignore irrelevant information, and how to integrate the central ideas in a meaningful way. Teaching students to summarize improves their cognitive ability about what is read.”

Finally, students cannot able to apply all of these reading strategies without relying on their teachers who have a role in teaching some instructions for EFL students, and this, will be spoken in the next page.

2.34 Previous Studies

This part of the chapter aim at provide review of the contributions of some previous studies in the field of learning vocabulary in reading comprehension.

The 1st Study

By Elsiddig Babiker Mohammed Babiker is entitled “The Effectiveness of Acquiring English Vocabulary towards Enriching EFL learners in Reading Comprehension” it is unpublished thesis Sudan University of Science and Technology faculty of education (2016)

This study aimed at investigating the impact of vocabulary acquisition learning on the students' academic performance. It also aimed at providing the instructors and students with more information on vocabulary learning in reading comprehension and its characteristics so as to encourage and motivate their students to be more active and creative in EFL classroom interaction which will eventually lead to learning.

The population and sample of the study is made up of seventy (70) undergraduates' students of English and fifty five (55) lecturers of English language at Jazan University.

The Tools of Data Collection are questionnaires for collecting data from teachers and students, also students' achievement tests.

The Main Findings of this Study included the following:

1. There is a significant statistical difference between the performance of the subjects who were taught through vocabulary items learning and those who were taught through non vocabulary items in reading comprehension.
2. Vocabulary acquisition increases students' motivation, participation, understanding and positive attitude towards learning.
3. It is viewed from data analysis; that vocabulary knowledge learning is more effective, interaction and suitable techniques than other techniques which were not

used vocabulary items in educational process. Although the majority of instructors agree that 'vocabulary acquisition' is effective and important for students to understand the texts.

4. Vocabulary acquisition learning is an easy and perfect teaching technique for EFL instructors by developing team skills.

5. It is assumed that students in vocabulary acquisition learning activities and complex learners in Engineering College problem-solved will feel more like by their classmates because of the increased opportunities to interact with one another and relate to each other.

6. Vocabulary knowledge learning creates opportunities, allowing shared knowledge, ideas, information, understanding, experiences, and authority among students and instructors.

7. Vocabulary acquisition learning is the best option for most students because it demonstrates more positive student outcomes in academic achievements and understanding of reading comprehension.

8. Vocabulary knowledge learning implies the sense of belonging to community in which students feel more comfortable and more confident than others who don't use this technique.

This study is very important since it aimed at investigating the impact of vocabulary acquisition learning on the students' academic performance. It also aimed at providing the instructors and students with more information on vocabulary learning in reading comprehension. The similarity between this study and the present study is that they both deal with role of vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehending they differ in areas such as population, sampling etc.

The 2nd Study

By Ibrahim Mohammed Alsabteen is entitled "The Effect of Lexical, Grammatical and Cultural Background on Reading Comprehension". It is unpublished PhD thesis, Sudan University of Science & Technology (2008).

The study aimed at investigating the effect of lexical, grammatical and cultural background knowledge on reading comprehension. It also investigates if there are significant differences between subjects' performance in reading and comprehension that can be sex and to general ability in English.

The population of this study consisted of first year students majoring in English language at Hebron University in the first semester of the academic year 2006-2007, they were 600.

The sample of this study consisted of 120 subjects, males and females divided into four groups, two experimental and two controlled.

The researcher followed the experimental method. He gave the first experimental group five lectures of lexis and syntax while the first controlled group was not given any lecture. The researcher gave the second experimental group five lectures on American culture while the second controlled group was not given any lecture.

The results are as follow:

- a) There are statistically significant differences in performance in reading comprehension between subjects who have lexical and grammatical knowledge and who don't have any knowledge.
- b) There are no statistically significant differences in performance in reading comprehension between male and female subjects who have lexical and grammatical knowledge and those who don't have any knowledge.
- c) There are statistically significant differences in performance in Reading comprehension between subjects who have cultural background knowledge and these who do not have any knowledge.

d) There are no statically significant differences in performance in reading comprehensions between male and female subjects who have cultural background knowledge and those who have any knowledge.

This study is very important since it attempts to investigate the effect of lexical, grammatical and cultural background knowledge on reading comprehension. The similarity between this study and the present study is that they both deal with role of lexical in reading comprehension, but they differ in areas such as population, sampling etc.

The 3rd Study

By Abbas Abdel rahman Babiker is in entitled "The Impact of Strategies on Reading Comprehension". It is unpublished PhD thesis, Omdurman Islamic University 2005.

The study intended to investigate the impact of reading comprehension strategies on Sudanese Universities reading comprehension performance.

It also aimed at investigating the relationship between these strategies and efficient of reading comprehension of English at the first international language of science and technology.

The population of the study were (275) the first year entrants at different faculties and universities.

It consisted also (150) teachers from basic and secondary levels. The sample of the study was chosen from larger population of the study. The data of the study were gathered by two instruments:

a) Test designed for two hundred seventy five (275) first year university entrants at different faculties and universities.

b) Questionnaire given to one hundred and fifty (150) teachers and secondary levels.

The results have revealed that teachers at both levels of education (basic and secondary) are unaware of the significant impact of reading strategies.

The similarity between this study and the present study is that they both deal with role of reading strategies in comprehending English text but they differ in areas such as population, sampling etc.

The 4th Study

By Ruqaya Hassan Mohammed is entitled "Investigating Difficulties in Reading Comprehension". An unpublished M.A, thesis in EFL, university of Gezira, Faculty of education Hassahiesa, 2004.

The study aimed at stating what is mean by reading comprehension and to examine the usefulness of reading skill in secondary level classes. It aimed also at investigating difficulties in reading comprehension by using questionnaire.

The population of this study consisted of all students in secondary school in El-Hassahiesa Locality.

The sample of this study was randomly chosen (50) students. In this study the questionnaire was chosen to collect data.

The researcher reached up to following findings:

- a) There is a significant relation between vocabulary and comprehension process.
- b) Punctuations marks are important and considered as an aid for the reader in comprehending sentences meaning.
- c) Reading and writing integrated.
- d) The textual material is just mere mechanical process.
- e) Positive relation was found between the reader and motivation and reading.

The study is relevance to the present study since it focuses on difficulties in reading comprehension. This study and present study are similar because both investigate the vocabulary and problem in reading comprehending in English. They differ in terms of population, sampling, and tools.

The 5th Study

By Abd Allah Adam Othman Algzoly is entitled "Developing University Teaching Method to Improve Reading Skill in English". It is unpublished M. Ed thesis in ELT, Sudan University of Science and Technology, College of Graduate Studies 2008.

The study aimed at improving teacher's mode in order to teach EFL reading efficiently. It aimed also at investigating the difficulties, which faced students in teaching reading comprehension in L2.

The population of this study was the teachers of English language department at Sudan University of Science and Technology. It consisted also of the teachers of English language department of Alzaiem Alazhari University.

The sample of this study consisted of (30) teachers at Sudan University and Alzaiem Alazhari University who have taken English language major subject.

In this study the researcher used questionnaire to collect data. The main findings of this study as follows:

- a) Teachers of English language find difficulties in teaching reading comprehension.
- b) Teachers of English give less attention to the techniques and strategies of reading skill in the process of teaching reading comprehension.
- c) The majority of teachers agree that teachers must be trained well so as to use the strategies of teaching reading comprehension. This study is relevant to the present study since it focuses on reading comprehension. It differs in, population, sample, and method.

2.35 Summary of the chapter

This chapter explains the literature review that concerns with different aspects of English vocabulary such as meaning, definition, and types of vocabulary. It also includes the nature, characteristics, goals and problems of vocabulary acquisition

among EFL learners. In addition to the strategies and techniques that help learners to increase their vocabulary knowledge and size .Since there has been a shift in language learning/ teaching from a traditional method of lecture-centered to a modern trend of student-centered that enhances students' understanding, communicative competences, active creation, and solving problems through vocabulary learning. This chapter also illustrates the role of vocabulary in reading comprehension, and the relation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Moreover it explains definitions, models, and types of reading, and some strategies of reading comprehension. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the dynamic forces of vocabulary acquisition and previous studies and their influences on completing this study. The following chapter is dedicated to the methodology of the study.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in this study to achieve the objectives. A detailed description of the subjects of the study, data collections instruments, validation of questionnaire, achievement test, and procedures used for the required data analysis. In addition, the validity and reliability of the tools used to obtain required information were checked. To find out satisfactory results and effective evaluation, the researcher used the descriptive analytical methods of research. For data collection instruments, the researcher constructed a questionnaire which is basically addressed the teachers of English language, in addition to the achievement test for the students.

3.1 The Study Paradigm

The researcher adopts the analytical and descriptive methods to analyze the data received from participants in order to find out the correlation between variables being studied.

3.2 The Population and Sampling Method

3.2.1 The sample of the Study

3.2.2 The students

The targeted population for this research is the students of level one, in preparatory year Medical College from different departments such as Medicine, Dentistry, and Nursing at Jazan University, Saudi Arabia. There are (150) participants. They are Saudi students. Students' ages are around 19 years old. They have the same English Language and linguistics backgrounds that enable the researcher to find out the real results.

3.2.3 The teachers

The teachers are from different countries. Some of them are native speakers while others are EFL learners and lecturers. Their academic degrees vary between, M.A, PhD and Assist professor, specialized in different fields concerning the English language such as ELT, Applied linguistics, English literature, and translation. They share the same backgrounds about English language and have been working in the English language Teaching field. Therefore, they are considered as effective participants. The total number of participants is (50). The lecturers are (36) while the others (14) are PhD holders. The participants work in different colleges at Jazan University.

3.3 Logging and Tracking Data

Data collection requires some procedures to log the information as it comes in and track it until it is ready to be analyzed. Computer was used to facilitate the process. (SPSS) program was used to analyzed the data and find out the result.

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

The instruments used for data collection are the questionnaire and test. They are designed to elicit information that obtained from written responses of the participants. The information obtained is all related to “Correlation between Students’ Vocabulary Size and Reading Comprehension”.

3.4.1 Teachers’ questionnaire:

A 20 items questionnaire was designed and distributed to EFL teachers, males and females; they are from different countries in different colleges at Jazan University, Saudi Arabia. The sample was selected randomly. The questionnaire focused mainly on the items concerned with research questions and hypotheses. (See appendix 1)

3.4.2 Aims

The aim of the questionnaire is to know the opinions of lecturers and PhD holders and their experiences. The questionnaire consists of 20 statements according to the hypothesis of the study. It is designed by the researcher and there are many lecturers and PhD holders checked it.

3.4.3 Students' Test

The test is composed of two main parts one for reading comprehension and the other part for vocabulary acquisition. Students are given 30 minutes to answer the questions. (See appendix 2)

3.4.4 Aims

The ultimate aim of making test is to find out the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension in English language for the students in Saudi Arabia (Jazan University/ Preparatory Year). The researcher followed the experimental method and makes two tests, pre-test and post-test for the two groups, control group and experimental one who have the same linguistics level. The researcher gave the experimental group many fire lectures while the controlled group was not given any lectures.

3.4.5 The Results

The results and the statistics clearly highlight the significant differences in the students' performance in the reading comprehension and vocabulary test; which was conducted between the experimental and the controlled groups. The former group was guided for vocabulary terms in their class, while the latter was totally deprived of any guidance for the same.

3.5 Ethics

The questionnaire procedures were also carried out in order to generate the knowledge ethical principles. According to teachers' questionnaire, instructors who filled the questionnaire have been informed previously about the research topic so

that their answers will be used for the research purposes. Each one received a full explanation about the objectives of the study and the questionnaire procedures.

3.6.1 Procedures

The questionnaire was distributed during the month of January 2018. All the copies of questionnaire were distributed at Jazan University. The questionnaire was explained to the respondents. In total, 50 copies of the questionnaire were distributed, the respondents managed to provide the data, and making a satisfactory respondent rate of 100% as required by the sample size. The test's 150 copies are distributed between students as pre-test and post -test.

3.6.2 Validity

The validity of the research instrument is usually evaluated for force content and constructs validity. The content validity of the questionnaire used in the study by judgments promoters to guarantee the correction of the content and its relevance. Therefore, the researcher consulted a number of doctors and instructors for administrating the questionnaire before piloting.

3.6.3 Reliability

Hunger & Poit (1999) define reliability as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attributes it is designed to measure. Berg (1989) explains that, as the use of a consistent and systematic line of questions for even unanticipated areas is particularly important for reliability and for possible replication of a study.

3.7 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire and the test

The study used the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data collected. The researcher used Pearson's Correlation and the results obtained as follows:

4. Reliability and Validity of Teacher's Questionnaire:

Using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 17) enables the researcher to calculate the reliability coefficient for the teacher's questionnaire using Alpha Cronbach approach.

Table (3.1): Reliability and Validity values for Teacher's questionnaire

	Alpha Cronbach
Reliability	0.691
<i>Validity = $\sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$</i>	0.831

The above table (3.1) shows that the reliability value tends to be near to 1, which means that the final design of the questionnaire is reliable and can be used effectively. Also, from the validity value reflects the same result which has been obtained from the reliability coefficient.

5. Reliability and Validity of Student's Test:

Table (3.2): Reliability and Validity values for Student's test

	Alpha Cronbach
Reliability	0.882
<i>Validity = $\sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$</i>	0.939

The above table (3.2) shows that the reliability value obtained is greater than table (1) value, which gives more evidence for the reliability and validity of the Student's test.

6. Summary of the chapter

This chapter explains the research design and methodology that is used to accomplish the study. Firstly, the structure of the research methods employed in this study have been discussed, the considerations taken into account in adopting

the research methodology are presented. Secondly, detailed descriptions of the population of the study, data collection instrument, and the main survey procedures are given. Finally, the analysis and interpretation of the empirical data collected through these methods will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, Results and Discussions

Chapter Four

Data Analysis Results and Discussions

4.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the statistical approaches applied for data analysis instrument, discussion and result .Also it presents the responses of each instrument. The researcher used two tools for data collection in this study: a questionnaire and achievement test. Also this chapter provides a detailed description of study samples. Based on the results obtained the researcher made recommendations and suggestions for further studies in chapter five.

4.1 Analysis and Result of Teacher's Questionnaire

Teachers' Questionnaire

The researcher divided the teacher's questionnaire into three categories according to the research hypothesizes, so as to analyze and come out with the required frequency and percentage. The first category is concerned with the first hypothesis of the study "EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak". The second category is associated with second hypothesis "the size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability". Whereas the third category is concerned with the third hypothesis "medium of instruction can affect the learning of the vocabulary required for reading comprehension".

The questionnaire consists of "20 items" posed for instructors in order to find out their opinions on the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension.

The descriptive features of poll were as follows:

1- 50 instructors, both males and females, from Sudan, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Hungary, Egypt, and Yemen.

2- 150 students of first year Medical College, all of them are Saudi. They performed the achievement test. Those students were distributed into control and experimental groups.

The three hypotheses of this research are tested by Statistical Package for Social Sciences program (SPSS), in descriptive and analytic methods, respectively. First, the descriptive method finds the mean, standard deviation, percentages, the minimum and the maximum values.

Table (4.1): Participant's percentage

Degree	Percent
Master	72%
PhD	28%

The results of the above table (4.1) show that 72% of the sample is master degree holders, while the remaining 28 % of the sample are PhD holders.

The T- test is a parametric comparison of the average or mean level for each group, and is based on the assumption that the individual scores are normally distributed about the mean (Baber, 1988: 55).

4.1.1 Analysis of the first Hypothesis Questions

-EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak.

Table (4.2): The first hypothesis's questions

Q N	SD	D	Un	A	SA
1	0%	2%	2%	34%	62%
2	2%	0%	0%	50%	48%
3	0%	18%	0%	48%	34%
4	0%	0%	0%	34%	66%

5	0%	0%	2%	44%	54%
6	2%	34%	24%	34%	6%
7	0%	2%	14%	48%	36%
8	0%	4%	10%	54%	32%
9	0%	0%	2%	38%	60%
10	0%	0%	0%	34%	66%
11	4%	2%	4%	34%	56%
12	0%	0%	4%	34%	62%
13	0%	0%	2%	44%	54%
14	0%	10%	16%	46%	28%
Weighted mean	4.29				

The first hypothesis is investigated using two methods, Likert scale and T-test for one sample, respectively.

As shown above in table (4.2) this hypothesis is tested by using the data generated to statements, from number 1 to number 14 for instructors' questionnaire. The weighted mean of the sample is (4.29) this means the majority of instructors are agreed with the first hypothesis which says “EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak.” So, this area must be put in consideration as a problem that needs care and more attention. This result confirms the first hypothesis.

The Analysis is as following:

As for item (1) it is obvious that the majority of respondents (62%) strongly agree that vocabulary learning is crucial to achieve academic development for EFL learners.(34%) agree,(2%) undecided while (2%)disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

The above result indicates that the majority of the teachers see that, vocabulary learning is crucial to achieve academic development for EFL learners, and it's important to master it. Since vocabulary is the cure of English language; by mastering vocabulary learner can communicate effectively and can master all English skills such as listening, reading, writing and speaking. Vocabulary

knowledge helps students with language comprehension and use. Additionally, to comprehend a text successfully students need to have sufficient word knowledge. This is to say that the comprehension of a language depends on the amount of words that are known in that language. Also, learners need to have sufficient word knowledge to understand what they read. Learners can understand a writer's message only if they know the meaning of most of the words used in a text.

Regarding item (2) the majority of the subjects (50%) agree, (48%) strongly agree, (2%) strongly disagree, which means multiple factors contribute to the differential rates of vocabulary learning. i.e. many factors are standing beyond the rates of students' vocabulary learning.

The above result reflects that the half of the teachers sees that, multiple factors contribute to differential rates of vocabulary learning.

Item (3) reflects that the majority of respondents (48%) agree that reading comprehension is the main source of students' vocabulary learning. (34%) strongly agree, (0%) undecided while (18%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result shows that most of the teachers see that, reading comprehension is the main source of students' vocabulary learning. They believe that reading is a receptive skill so it can enrich students' vocabulary learning.

As for item (4) it is clear that the majority of the subjects (66%) strongly agree that listening skill, speaking, and writing activities can help reinforce and support students acquired vocabulary. (34%) agree, (0%) undecided while (0%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result clarifies that the majority of the teachers see that. Listening skill, speaking, and writing activities can help reinforce and support students acquired vocabulary.

Concerning item (5) it is clear that the majority of the respondents (54%) strongly agree that implementing outside class activities for recycling new words is important for supporting vocabulary learning. (44%) agree, (2%) undecided while (0%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result indicates that the majority of the teachers see that, implementing outside class activities for recycling new words is important for supporting vocabulary learning. This implementation is so important for repetition, and more exposures can support vocabulary learning process.

Regarding item (6), it is clear that (34%) of the subjects agree. (34%) disagree, and (24%) undecided .Whereas, (2%) strongly disagree, means that the students are not interested enough in receiving new lexical items.

This result clarifies that half of the teachers see that students are not interested enough in receiving new lexical items. This means students' are suffering from lack of motivation.

According to item (7) it is obvious that the majority of the respondents (36%) strongly agree that connecting lexical items with the learners' culture motivates learners. (48%) agree, (14%) undecided while (2%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

The above result indicates that the majority of the teachers see that, connecting lexical items with the learners' culture motivates learners. This indicates the importance of learners' culture to be connected with the lexical item. Motivation is important factor for learning English language in general and vocabulary learning in particular.

Concerning item (8), it is clear that the majority of the respondents (54%) agree that the word formation process can be a rich source for motivating students' vocabulary acquisition. (32%) strongly agree, (10%) undecided while (4%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result illustrates that the majority of the teachers believe that the word families and underlying forms can be a rich source for motivating students' vocabulary acquisition. So it is advisable to be put into consideration.

As for item (9), it is clear that the majority of the respondents (60%) strongly agree that students should be aware of the good dictionaries that they can consult.(38%) agree, (2%) undecided while (0%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result clarifies that the majority of the teachers see that, students should be aware of the good dictionaries that they can consult. Actually dictionary has lots of functions which are very important for the learners to consider such as pronunciation, word derivation, and spelling. In addition the learner should be aware of good dictionary. i.e. not all the dictionaries are of the same value. Also the learners should be well trained in how to make use of dictionary skills.

In regard to item (10), which explains the majority of the respondents (66%) strongly agree that using different vocabulary learning strategies can increase vocabulary knowledge.(34%) agree, (0%) undecided (0%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result reveals that the majority of the teachers see that, that using different vocabulary learning strategies can increase vocabulary knowledge. So, learners should be aware of variety of vocabulary learning strategies such as determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies.

Item (11) shows that the majority of the respondents (56%) strongly agree that guessing the meaning of words from context is one of the best ways to learn vocabulary. (34%) agree (4%) undecided while (2%) disagree and (4%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result illustrates that the majority of the teachers see that, guessing the meaning of words from context is one of the best ways to learn vocabulary.

Item (12) reflects that the majority of the respondents (62%) strongly agree that, extensive reading outside the classroom can increase vocabulary size. (34%) agree, (4%) undecided while (0%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result reflects that the majority of the teachers see that extensive reading outside classroom can increase students' vocabulary size. In regard of extensive reading the learner can read for the content and pleasure not for words so they are motivated, then they can increase their vocabulary size.

Concerning item (13) shows that the majority of the respondents (54%) strongly agree that, vocabulary size can be expanded through reading comprehension materials. (44%) agree, (2%) undecided while (0%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

The above result indicates that the majority of the teachers see that vocabulary size can be expanded through reading comprehension materials, because of the richness and variety of vocabulary in written texts compared to oral discourse.

In regard to item (14) it is clear that the majority of the subjects (46%) agree that, the adoption of vocabulary-rich syllabuses will enhance overall proficiency in English. (28%) strongly agree, (16%) do not decide while (10%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result shows that the majority of the teachers agree that the adoption of vocabulary-rich syllabuses will enhance overall proficiency in English.

Based on the above analysis, the first hypothesis which reads "EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak" has been achieved and in favor of agreed.

4.1.2 Analysis of the Second Hypothesis Questions

The Second Hypothesis

-The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability.

Table (4.3): Second hypothesis's questions

Q N	S D	D	Un	A	S A
15	0%	2%	4%	42%	52%
16	0%	0%	4%	40%	56%
17	0%	18%	0%	48%	34%
Weighted mean	4.42				

As shown in the table above table (4.3) this hypothesis is tested by using the data generated to statements 15, 16, and 17 for instructors' questionnaire. The weighted mean of the sample is (4.42) this means the majority of instructors agree with the first hypothesis which says "The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability". This result confirms the second hypothesis. The analysis is as follows:

As for the item (15), it is obvious that the majority of respondents (52%) strongly agree that the lack of students' vocabulary knowledge can hinder reading comprehension ability. (42%) agree, (4%) undecided while (2%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement. From the achievement test the analysis shows a strong and positive correlation between vocabulary and reading comprehension sections.

The above result indicates that most of the teachers see that lack of students' vocabulary knowledge can hinder reading comprehension ability.

In regard to item (16) the majority of the subjects (56%) strongly agree, (40%) agree, (4%) undecided, (0) disagree, and (0%) strongly disagree that there are many factors that contribute to students' ability to read effectively.

This result clarifies that most of the teachers see that that there are many factors that contribute to students' ability to read effectively.

Item (17) reflects that the majority of respondents (48%) agree that Students' vocabulary size is the one important factor that enhances reading comprehension. (34%) strongly agree, (0%) undecided while (18%) disagree and (0%) strongly disagree with the statement.

The above result reflects that most of the teachers agreed that the Students' vocabulary size is one important factor that enhances reading comprehension. We notice from the students' achievement test, from table (4.18) shows strong and positive correlation between vocabulary size and reading comprehension.

Depending on the above analysis, the researcher comes to the result that the second hypothesis "The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability" has been achieved and in favor of strongly agreed..

4.1.3 Analysis of the Third Hypothesis Questions

The Third Hypothesis

-The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension.

Table (4.4): Third hypothesis's questions

Q N	S D	D	Un	A	S A
18	6%	22%	20%	46%	6%
19	4%	34%	16%	38%	8%
20	2%	24%	8%	42%	24%
Weighted mean	3.54				

As shown above in the table (4.4) this hypothesis is tested by using the data generated to statements 18, 19, and 20 for instructors' questionnaire. The weighted mean of the sample is (3.54) this means that the majority of instructors are agree

with the third_hypothesis which says “The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension.” This result confirms the third hypothesis. The analysis is as follows:

As for the item (18) it is clear that the majority of respondents (46%) agree that using English as the only medium of instruction is a barrier to effective teaching/learning vocabulary. (6%) strongly agree, while (20%) undecided, (22%) disagree and (6%) strongly disagree with the statement.

This result shows that most of the teacher agreed that, using English as the only medium of instruction is a barrier to effective teaching/learning vocabulary. Sometimes the learners couldn't understand teacher's instructions or discussions.

Concerning the item (19), the majority of the subjects (38%) agree, (8%) strongly agree, (16%) undecided, (34) disagree, and (4%) strongly disagree that using English as the only medium of instruction affects learners' participation in the classroom.

This result clarifies that most of the teachers agreed that using English language as the only medium of instruction affects learners' participation in the classroom. . Since some learners couldn't understand the lesson, so they couldn't participate in the class discussion, in addition they unable to answer some questions.

Item (20) reflects that the majority of respondents (42%) agree that explaining only in English is a problem for some learners as they do not understand. (24%) strongly agree (8%) undecided while (24%) disagree and (2%) strongly disagree with the statement.

The above result reflects that most of the teacher agreed that explaining only in English language is a problem for some students.

Depending on the above analysis the researcher concludes that the third hypothesis which states that “The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension” has been achieved and in favor of agreed.

4.2 Presents the Results of the Questionnaire and the Test

4.2.1 Present the results of a questionnaire of instructors

Table (4.5): Likert scale intervals

Weighted Mean	Decision
From 1 to 1.79	S D
From 1.80 to 2.59	D
From 2.6 to 3.39	Un
From 3.4 to 4.19	A
From 4.2 to 5	S A

The results table above (4.5) shows that there are five different groups, which are similar to the categories in the designed questionnaire.

4.2.2. Showing the results of the first hypothesis

- EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak.

Table (4.6): weighted mean and SD for the first hypothesis's questions

	Weighted Mean	SD	Decision
First hypothesis's questions	4.29	0.28	S A

The results table above (4.6), shows the weighted mean is (4.29) and according to the table (5) it belongs to the last group of Likert scale and it concludes that the sample under study is strongly agree that "EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak".

Using T-test method is totally different from the Likert scale and method, and it is required to check the normality of the data under investigation. So, the hypothesis needs to be tested is stated below,

H_0 : The data follows the normal distribution v.s. H_1 : The data does not follow the normal

distribution

The above hypothesis is examined using graphical and Kolmogorov-Smirnov techniques to check the normality of the data.

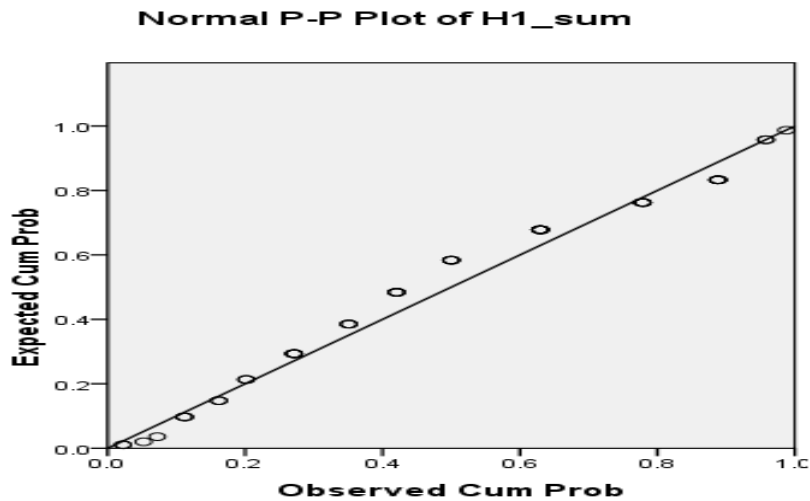


Figure (4.1): P-P plot for first hypothesis's questions

The above figure (1), shows that the data tends to be normally distributed, and can be confirmed using inference technique.

The T- test is a parametric comparison of the average or mean level for each group, and is based on the assumption that the individual scores are normally distributed about the mean (Baber: 1988, p. 55).

Table (4.7): One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for first hypothesis's questions

		H1_sum
N		50
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	60.16
	Std. Deviation	3.976
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.138
	Positive	.107
	Negative	-.138
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.977
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.295

The above table (4.7), shows that the p-value (0.295) is greater than the significant level (0.05), so it is concluded that the data follows the normal distribution at

significant level 0.05. Therefore, T-test is used to investigate the general trend of the first hypothesis's questions.

$$H_0: \mu_{H1} = 56 \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \mu_{H1} > 56$$

The above statement inclines to clarify whether the population mean is equal to 56 or greater than the given value.

Table (4.8): One Sample T-test for first hypothesis's questions

	Calculated-t	df	p-value	95% C.I	
				Lower	Upper
First hypothesis's questions	7.3978	49	0	59.21723	Inf

The above table(4.8), shows that the p-value is extremely less than 0.05, so null hypothesis is rejected and concluded that the mean of the population under study is greater than 56 which means that the general trend of the first hypothesis's answers is agree. This result is connected to the same result we obtained in Likert scale.

For investigation if there is a difference in the mean between the participants' groups. The hypothesis is stated as follows:

$$H_0: \mu_{Ma1} = \mu_{PhD1} \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \mu_{Ma1} \neq \mu_{PhD1}$$

Table (4.9): two samples T-test for first hypothesis's questions

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
H1_sum	Equal variances assumed	.084	.773	.969	48	.337
	Equal variances not assumed			.935	22.129	.360

The results table above (4.9) shows that the calculated (t) has been obtained using two methods, when the variances of the two groups are the same and when they are different. So, the equality of the variances should be investigated first, before answering the hypothesis under question.

$$H_0: \sigma_{M\alpha 1}^2 = \sigma_{P\eta D1}^2 \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \sigma_{M\alpha 1}^2 \neq \sigma_{P\eta D1}^2$$

From the above table(4.9), the researcher notice that the p-value (0.773) is greater than the significant level (0.05), so the null hypothesis are not rejected and concludes that the variance is equal for the two groups at significant level 0.05. Therefore, the calculated (t) is (0.969) and the p-value is (0.337), as a result, the null hypothesis are not rejected and conclude that there is no significant difference in the mean for the two groups at significant level (0.05).

4.2.3. Showing the Results of the Second Hypothesis

- The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability

Table (4.10): Weighted mean and SD for the second hypothesis's questions

	Weighted Mean	SD	Decision
Second hypothesis's questions	4.42	0.47	S A

The above table(4.10), shows that the weighted mean is (4.42) and regarding table (4.5) it belongs to the last group of Likert scale is concluded that the sample under study are strongly agree that “The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability”.

Then, the researcher use T-test method as before, to check the normality.

H_0 : The data follows the normal distribution v.s. H_1 : The data does not follow the normal distribution

The above hypothesis is examined using graphical and Kolmogorov-Smirnov techniques to check the normality of the data.

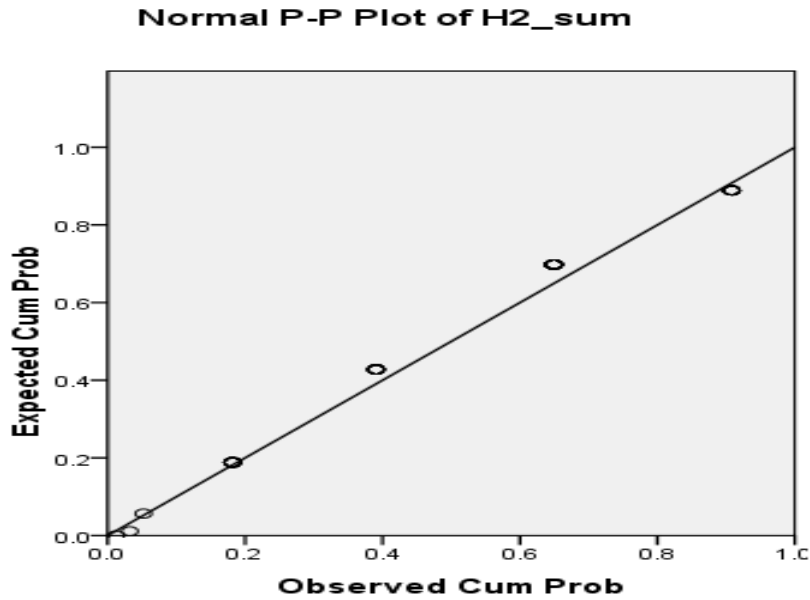


Figure (4.2): P-P plot for second hypothesis's questions

Considering the above figure (4.2), the researcher is not totally sure about the normality of the data, so Kolmogorov method is used to have better understanding.

Table (4.11): One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for second hypothesis's questions

		H2_sum
N		50
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	13.26
	Std. Deviation	1.426
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.218
	Positive	.122
	Negative	-.218
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.542
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.017

The above table (4.11) reflects that the p-value (0.017) is less than the significant level (0.05) this indicates that the data doesn't follow the normal distribution at significant level 0.05. As a result, T-test for independent samples cannot be used and another non-parametric test is going to be used to investigate the hypothesis under study.

Mann-Whitney Test

H_0 : There is no difference in the population distributions v.s. H_1 : There is a difference in the population distributions

Table (4.12): Test statistics for second hypothesis's questions

	H2_sum
Mann-Whitney U	213.500
Wilcoxon W	879.500
Z	-.860
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.390

The above table (4.12) explains that the p-value (0.390) is greater than the significant level (0.05), so this shows that there is no difference in the population distributions. In other words, there are no differences in the mean between the respondents' opinions (Master degree and PhD holders) in the second hypothesis.

4.2.3. Showing the Results of the Third Hypothesis

- The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension.

Table (4.13): Weighted mean and SD for the third hypothesis's questions

	Weighted Mean	SD	Decision
Third hypothesis's questions	3.54	0.94	A

From the above table(4.13), it is noticed that the weighted mean is (3.54) and according to table (4.5) it belongs to the third group of Likert scale and it can be said that the sample under study are agree that “The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension”.

Now, T-test method is used as before. But first, we check the normality.

H_0 : The data follows the normal distribution v.s. H_1 : The data does not follow the normal distribution

The above hypothesis is examined by using graphical and Kolmogorov-Smirnov techniques to check the normality of the data.

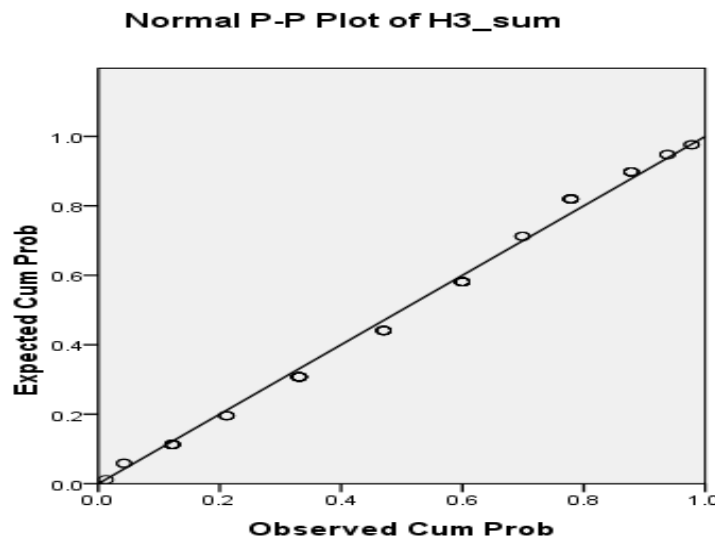


Figure (4.3): P-P plot for third hypothesis's questions

The above figure (4.3) shows that the data tends to follow the normal distribution, but further investigation will increase our knowledge about any hidden patterns. Therefore, Kolmogorov method is used as follows:

Table (4.14): One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for third hypothesis's questions

		H3_sum
N		50
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	9.42
	Std. Deviation	2.822
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.113
	Positive	.113
	Negative	-.100
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.796
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.550

The above table (4.14) reflects that the p-value (0.550) is greater than the significant level (0.05), so this informs that the data follows the normal distribution at significant level 0.05. So, for the following hypothesis:

$$H_0: \mu_{H3} = 12 \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \mu_{H3} > 12$$

The T-test for one sample is given below:

Table (4.15): One Sample T-test for third hypothesis's questions

	Calculated-t	df	p-value	95% C.I	
				Lower	Upper
Third hypothesis questions	1.0524	49	0.1489	8.750938	Inf

The above table (4.15) reflects that the p-value is greater less than 0.05, so the null hypothesis is not rejected, and shows that the mean of the population under study is equal to 12 which mean that the general trend of the third hypothesis answers is agree. It is observed that this result is similar to the result which has been obtained in Likert scale.

Further, it is tried to investigate, if there is a difference in the mean between the participant's groups. The hypothesis is stated as follows:

$$H_0: \mu_{Ma3} = \mu_{PhD3} \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \mu_{Ma3} \neq \mu_{PhD3}$$

Table (4.16): Independent samples T-test for third hypothesis's questions

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
H3_sum	Equal variances assumed	.015	.903	1.105	48	.275
	Equal variances not assumed			1.126	24.683	.271

The above (4.16), shows that the calculated (t) has been obtained using two methods, when the variances of the two groups are the same and when they are different. Therefore, the equality of the variances should be investigated first, before answering the hypothesis under question.

$$H_0: \sigma_{Ma1}^2 = \sigma_{PhD1}^2 \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \sigma_{Ma1}^2 \neq \sigma_{PhD1}^2$$

The above table (4.16) reflects that the p-value (0.903) is greater than the significant level (0.05), so the null hypothesis is not rejected and concludes that the variance is equal for the two groups at significant level 0.05. So, the calculated (t) is (1.105) and the p-value is (0.275), as a result, we will not reject the null hypothesis and shows that there is no significant difference in the mean for the two groups at significant level 0.05.

4.2.4. Showing the results of the questionnaire's answers

Investigating the general trend of the questionnaire's answers and interesting result has been obtained, trying to test the following hypothesis:

$$H_0: \mu_{Total} = 80 \quad \text{v.s.} \quad H_1: \mu_{Total} > 80$$

However; as before, the normality is needed to be checked. Using Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, we got p-value (0.959), which is extremely greater than 0.05, accordingly, it can be concluded that the data follows the normal distribution at significant level 0.05. Therefore, T-test for one sample is given below,

Table (4.17): One Sample T-test for the questionnaire's questions

	Calculated-t	df	p-value	95% C.I	
				Lower	Upper
All questionnaire questions	3.3219	49	0.0008478	81.40667	Inf

The above table(4.17), shows that the p-value is significantly less than 0.05, so the null hypothesis is rejected showing that the mean of the population under study is greater than 80, which means that the general trend of the questionnaire's answers are agreed.

4.2 Results and Analysis of Student's Test

4.2.1 Showing the Result of Students' Total Marks

Table (4.18): Student's minimum, maximum, mean and SD for their marks

Groups		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Controlled	Total marks	0	15	6.32	4.888
	Reading	0	6	3.01	1.736
	Vocabulary	0	9	3.65	3.232
Experimental	Total marks	16	28	23.99	3.232
	Reading	7	13	11.44	1.473
	Vocabulary	7	15	12.55	2.286

From the above table (4.18), it is observable that the controlled group has lower marks compared with the experimental group. In the vocabulary section, it is noticed that there are some students in the controlled group achieved zero score, while the case is different in the experimental group and the lowest mark was 7;

answers were correct out of 15 questions. Additionally there is differences between the standard deviation and the mean for two groups; for control group the standard deviation is (4.888) bigger than standard deviation for the experimental one (3.232). Besides, the mean for control group is (6.32) less than the mean (23.99) for experimental group.

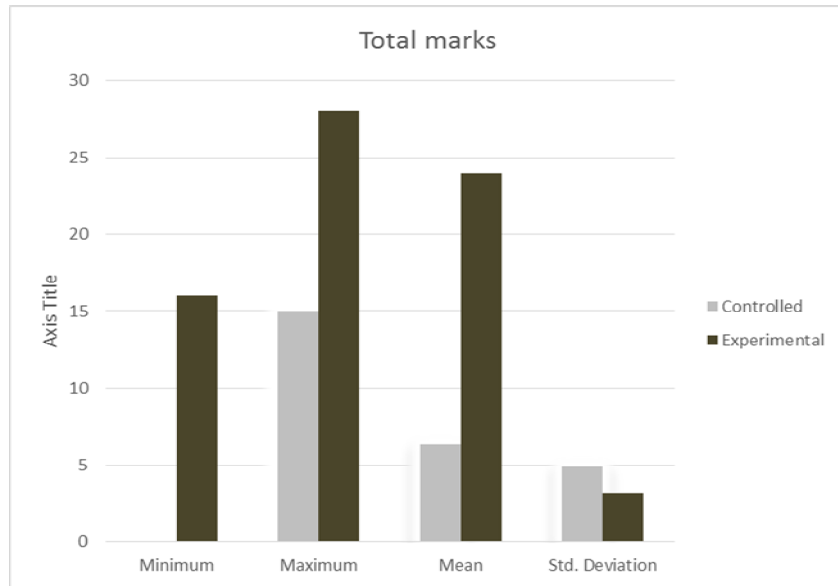


Figure (4.4): Students' total marks for the two groups

The above figures (4.4), shows clear understanding about the differences between the students' performance in control group and experimental one.

To have better understating of the two groups, the results have been grouped according to the following table:

Table (4.19): Student's grades

Range	Group
Less than or equal to 11	Fail
12 to 16	Pass
17 to 21	Good
22 to 26	V. good
27 to 28	Distinction

Using the above categories, the data has been presented as follows:

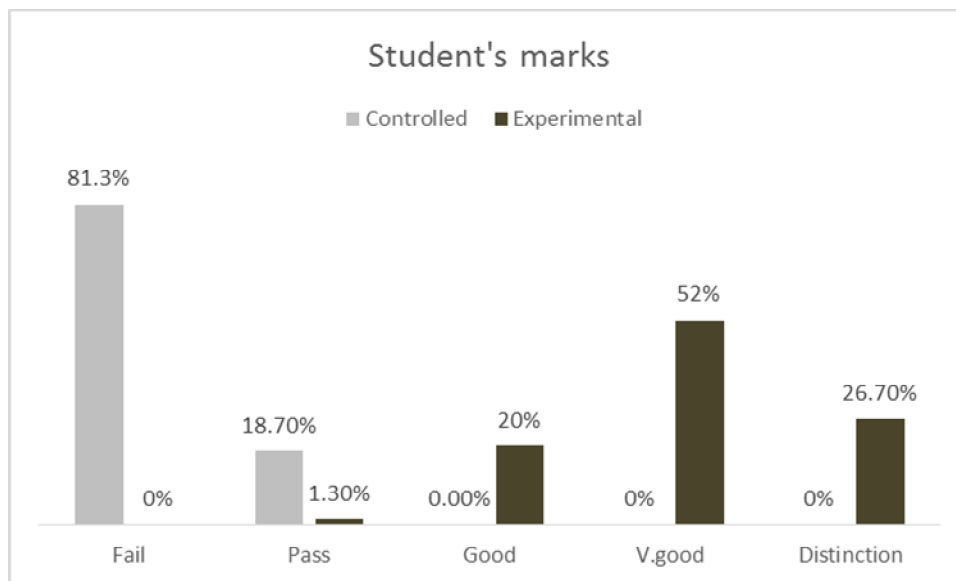


Figure (4.5): Student's marks

The above figure (4.5) reflects that the experimental group has achieved higher marks compared to the controlled group. This confirms that the lectures and instructions that the researcher has given to the experimental group have affected that group. On the other hand, the controlled group hasn't any lectures or instructions and the results are clear in this group; that their performance is low than the experimental one. The researcher gave the experimental group some lectures regarding vocabulary learning strategies such as determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies. In addition to some reading strategies that help learners to figure out the meaning of new vocabulary words by using synonyms, antonyms, using pictures, punctuation clues, and understanding meaning from the context. Besides skimming, scanning, and making prediction for the articles.

From the above findings, the researcher is more attracted to have deep understanding about the given data. Therefore, further investigation is going to be done. First, the normality of the given data was checked as was done before.

H_0 : The data follows the normal distribution v.s. H_1 : The data does not follow the normal distribution

Similarly, the above hypothesis is examined using Kolmogorov-Smirnov technique to check the normality of the data.

The p-value which has been obtained from Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was (0.016), which is less than 0.05, so it concludes that the data does not follow the normal distribution at significant level 0.05. As a result, T-test for the samples cannot be used and another non-parametric test is used to investigate the hypothesis under study.

Mann-Whitney Test

H_0 : There is no difference in the population distributions v.s. H_1 : There is a difference in the population distributions

Table (4.20): Test statistics for student's total marks

	Total marks
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	2850.000
Z	-10.587
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

The above table (4.20) explains that the p-value (0.000) is extremely less than the significant level (0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected, concluding that there is a significant difference in the population distributions at significant level 0.05. This reflects that there is a difference between the students' performance in control group and the experimental one. In addition it illustrates that the lectures and instructions that the researcher has given to the experimental group have affected that group. On the other hand, the controlled group hasn't any lectures or instructions and the results are clear in this group that their performance is lower than the experimental one. The researcher gave the experimental group some lectures regarding vocabulary learning strategies such as determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies. In addition to some reading strategies that help learners to figure out the meaning of new words by using synonyms, antonyms, using pictures, punctuation clues, and understanding meaning from the context. Besides skimming, scanning, and making prediction for the articles.

4.3.2 Showing the result of students' reading marks

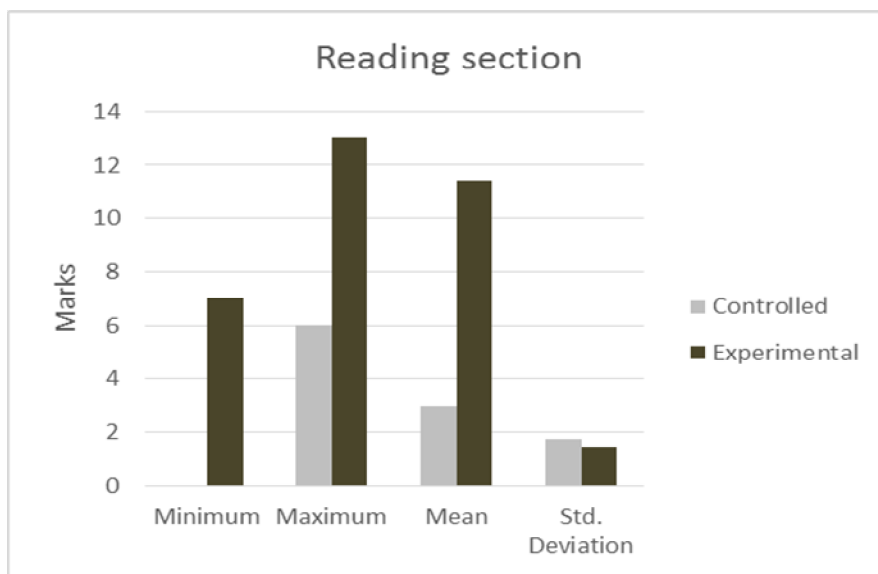


Figure (4.6): Students' reading section marks for the two groups

The researcher checks if there is a significance difference according to the reading section or not. As it was done before, the normality is checked. According to Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the p-value (0.013) is less than 0.05, so it can be said that the data does not follow the normal distribution at significant level 0.05. As a result, Mann-Whitney test is used to check the differences between the two groups.

Mann-Whitney Test

H_0 : There is no difference in the population distributions v.s. H_1 : There is a difference in the

Table (4.21): Test statistics for student's reading section marks

	Reading Marks
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	2850.000
Z	-10.630
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

The above table (4.21) shows that the p-value (0.00) is extremely less than the significant level (0.05), so the null hypothesis is rejected and indicated that there is a significant difference in the population distributions at significant level 0.05. This means that there is a difference between the students' performance in the control group and the experimental one.

From results table above (4.18), the Standard deviation (1.736) for control group is bigger than experimental group (1.473). Also there is a difference between the mean (3.01) for control group it is less than the mean (11.44) for experimental

group. Additionally it shows that the lectures and instructions that the researcher has given to the experimental group have affected that group. On the other hand, the controlled group hasn't any lectures or instructions and the results are clear in this group that their performance is lower than the experimental one. The researcher gave the experimental group some lectures regarding vocabulary learning strategies such as determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies. In addition to some reading strategies that help learners to figure out the meaning of new vocabulary words by using synonyms, antonyms, using pictures, punctuation clues, and understanding meaning from the context. Besides skimming, scanning, and making prediction for the articles.

4.2.2 Showing the result of students' vocabulary marks

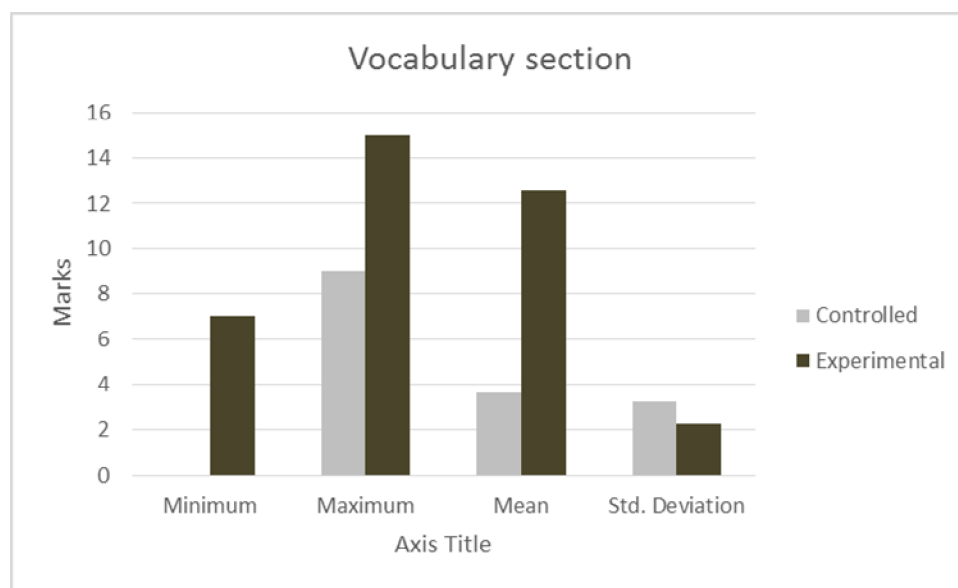


Figure (4.7): Students' vocabulary section marks for the two groups

The researcher investigates if there is a significance difference according to the vocabulary section or not. As we did before, first the normality is checked. According to Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the p-value (0.000) is less than 0.05, so it can be stated that the data does not follow the normal distribution at significant

level 0.05. As a result, Mann-Whitney test is used to check the differences between the two groups.

Mann-Whitney Test

H_0 : There is no difference in the population distributions v.s. H_1 : There is a difference in the population distributions

Table (4.22): Test statistics for student's vocabulary section marks

	Vocabulary marks
Mann-Whitney U	88.000
Wilcoxon W	2938.000
Z	-10.299
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

The above table (4.22) reflects that the p-value (0.00) is extremely less than the significant level (0.05), so the null hypothesis is rejected and concluded that there is a significant difference in the population distributions at the significant level (0.05). From results table above (4.18), the standard deviation (3.232) for control group is bigger than experimental group (2.286). Also there is a difference between the mean (3.65) for control group it is less than the mean (12.55) for experimental group. This shows that there is a difference between the students' performance in control group and the experimental one. In addition it shows that the lectures and instructions that the researcher has given to the experimental group have affected that group. On the other hand, the controlled group hasn't any lectures or instructions and the results are clear in this group that their performance is lower than the experimental one. The researcher gave the experimental group

some lectures regarding vocabulary learning strategies such as determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies. In addition to some reading strategies that help learners to figure out the meaning of new vocabulary words by using synonyms, antonyms, using pictures, punctuation clues, and understanding meaning from the context. Besides skimming, scanning, and making prediction for the articles.

4.3.4 Showing the Correlation's Result

First, check the correlation between reading and vocabulary sections. Then, present the correlation results for the two groups. Firstly, the Pearson correlation analyses in the following figure (4.8).

Correlations

		Reading_ Sec1	Reading_ Sec2	Reading_ Sec3	Vocabulary_ Sec1	Vocabulary_ Sec2
Reading_Sec1	Pearson Correlation	1	.720**	.780**	.812**	.844**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	150	150	150	150	150
Reading_Sec2	Pearson Correlation	.720**	1	.756	.803*	.716**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.056	.013	.000
	N	150	150	150	150	150
Reading_Sec3	Pearson Correlation	.780**	.756	1	.843**	.794**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.056		.000	.000
	N	150	150	150	150	150
Vocabulary_Sec1	Pearson Correlation	.812**	.803*	.843**	1	.774**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.013	.000		.000
	N	150	150	150	150	150
Vocabulary_Sec2	Pearson Correlation	.844**	.716**	.794**	.774**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	150	150	150	150	150

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure (4.8): correlations' results

In the light of Pearson correlation analysis, from the above figure (4.8), it is clear that there is a positive correlation in all the sections. To have better understating of the above results, correlation table can be used as follows:

Table (4.23): correlations' table

Range	Decision
from 0 to 0.3	zero correlation
0.3 to 0.5	weak correlation
.5 to 0.7	moderate
0.7 to 0.9	strong correlation
0.9 to 1	very strong

The above figure (4.8) reflects that all the correlations are strong and positive. Reading section one has positive and strong correlation with Reading section2, Reading section3, Vocabulary section 1 and Vocabulary section 2, which gives indicator that as the number of marks for a specific section increase, it will affect positively on the performance on the other sections and the opposite is true.

The correlations' results for the control and experimental groups are given below:

Correlations

Groups			Reading_ Sec1	Reading_ Sec2	Reading_ Sec3	Vocabulary_ Sec1	Vocabulary_ Sec2	
Control	Reading_Sec1	Pearson Correlation	1	.720	.742**	.749**	.745**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.080	.000	.000	.000	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
	Reading_Sec2	Pearson Correlation	.720	1	.711	.718	.334**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.080		.345	.117	.003	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
	Reading_Sec3	Pearson Correlation	.742**	.711	1	.734**	.741**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.345		.003	.000	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
	Vocabulary_Sec1	Pearson Correlation	.749**	.718	.734**	1	.752**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.117	.003		.000	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
	Vocabulary_Sec2	Pearson Correlation	.745**	.733**	.741**	.752**	1	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.000	.000		
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
	Experimental	Reading_Sec1	Pearson Correlation	1	.834**	.825*	.834**	.851**
			Sig. (2-tailed)		.003	.033	.003	.000
			N	75	75	75	75	75
Reading_Sec2		Pearson Correlation	.834**	1	.803	.806	.826*	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.003		.776	.622	.024	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
Reading_Sec3		Pearson Correlation	.825*	.033	1	.815	.818	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	.776		.209	.114	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
Vocabulary_Sec1		Pearson Correlation	.834**	.806	.815	1	.850**	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.622	.209		.000	
		N	75	75	75	75	75	
Vocabulary_Sec2		Pearson Correlation	.851**	.826*	.818	.850**	1	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.024	.114	.000		
		N	75	75	75	75	75	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure (4.9): correlations' results for the two groups

Correlations			
		Reading	Vocabulary
Reading	Pearson Correlation	1	.767**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	150	150
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation	.767**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	150	150

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure (4.10): correlations' results for the reading and vocabulary sections

In the light of the results of Pearson correlation analysis, a significant and strong correlation was found between reading comprehension and vocabulary size. As in the above figure (4.10), reflects that there is a positive and strong correlation between the reading and vocabulary sections in general (0.767). This result confirms the second hypothesis of the research, which says "The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability."

4.4 Verification of the Study Hypotheses

1. Showing on the table (4.2) and table (4.6) which analyzed the first hypothesis that reads "EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak" has been achieved and in favor of agreed.
2. Depending on table (4.3) and table (4.10) which analyzed the second hypothesis the researcher comes to the result that the second hypothesis that reads "The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability" has been achieved and in favor of strongly agreed.

3. Displaying on the table (4.4) and table (4.13) which analyzed the third hypothesis; the researcher concludes that the third hypothesis that states “The medium of instruction can affect the learning of vocabulary required for reading comprehension” has been achieved and in favor of agreed.

4.5 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter explains the actual situation for correlation between students’ vocabulary size and reading comprehension. Also it analyses this actual situation by investigating a questionnaire for “50” teachers and achievement test for "150" students’ level one from Medical College female section at Jazan University, as a participants. The analysis obtained data through hypotheses revealed significant and very important results. Based on these results the researcher suggests some recommendations and suggestions in the following chapter.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, results, finding, conclusion, recommendations, and suggestions for further researches. The results and recommendations are in the light of hypotheses of the study, questions, review of the literature and the study sample. The most important thing is that all the findings are in the favor of research hypothesis.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The results of this study appear to support the major objective of this study; that is to find out the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. The study is also attempt to find out effect of medium of instruction in learning English vocabulary. Moreover the study investigated whether there are any differences in academic achievement between students who received some vocabulary instructions and those who didn't have any instructions. Additionally the study attempted to find if there is any significance difference in students' performance. The investigation has been carried out through five chapters. This study proposes to investigate the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. The summary of this research is as follows:

Chapter One is an introduction to the study that illustrated the statement of the problem, the objective, the hypotheses of the study, and the significance of the study, in addition to the instruments of the study, the methodology, the sample and definitions of terms.

Chapter two is associated with the literature review that discusses the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. It highlighted the

meaning, definition, types of vocabulary and reading comprehension. It also included the nature, goals, benefits and problems of vocabulary in reading comprehension and its effective strategies that affect the learners' performance and achievement. The chapter covered different aspects concerned with vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Moreover, the chapter discussed the previous studies and its contributions that supported this study.

Chapter Three discussed the methodology of the research. It illustrated the research design and methodology used to accomplish the study. It gave a detailed description of samples and instruments of the study.

Chapter Four stated the description of data analysis and discussion. This chapter reveals the summary, results, findings, conclusion, recommendations, and suggestions for further researches.

5.2 Findings of the Study

As for the summary of the findings and results, there are two different sides that the study considered. They are represented in the achievement test and teacher questionnaire. Each side supports a specific area which is worth mentioning and stressing. So it is worth pointing that the findings of this study indicate that:

1. EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak. This basically leads to a general weakness in language proficiency. That attributed to various factors like the lack of information on the part of school, the university, and English language department curriculum, teaching methodology, lack of the target language environment, and the learners' lack of motivation.
2. With reference to the achievement test, the results show that the size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability. There is strong and positive correlation between vocabulary section and reading section in the students' performance in achievement test.

3. There is an agreement by teachers that the medium of instruction can affect the language learning and vocabulary that required to reading comprehension, as some learners couldn't understand the lessons when the teacher uses only English language as a medium of instruction.
4. The study reveals that English teachers agreed on the value of the English dictionary as a valuable source to enriching and supporting students' learning vocabulary, but the attitudes towards the English dictionary is negative, and most of the students consult the dictionary just for word meaning, i.e. they don't consider the other functions such as synonyms, antonyms, pronunciation, parts of speech, derivations, collocations, etc.
5. The study found that extensive reading outside classroom can increase students' vocabulary size. As the learner can read for the content and pleasure not for words so they are motivated, then they can increase their vocabulary knowledge and size.
6. Connecting the lexical items with the learners' culture, it motivates learners as some students are suffering from lack of motivation in learning English vocabulary
- 7- Most teachers agreed that learning from context is a very important strategy can increase students' vocabulary knowledge and size.
8. The result found that using different vocabulary learning strategies can increase vocabulary knowledge and size. So, learners should be aware of variety of vocabulary learning strategies such as determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies.
9. The result found that reading comprehension is the main source of students' vocabulary learning, that reading is a receptive skill, and because of the richness and variety of vocabulary in written texts compared to oral discourse, so it can enrich students' vocabulary size.

Clearly, the above research findings can answer the research questions. In addition, it is expected that the results of this study will be of some value for those who are

concerned with students' vocabulary size as well as those who are interested in foreign language learning. Moreover, this study will provide important information about the importance of vocabulary in reading comprehension for Saudi Arabian students.

5.3 In the light of the findings of this study, the researcher concluded that

1. EFL students' awareness of learning English vocabulary is weak.
2. Vocabulary learning is more effective in teaching / learning items than other items in reading comprehension.
3. The size of vocabulary affects considerably the learner's reading comprehension ability
4. Vocabulary size is important for mastering all English language skills such as reading, listening, speaking, and writing. So it is important for language comprehension and use.
5. There is a correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension
6. The medium of instruction can affect students' vocabulary learning.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are mainly based on the findings of the study, as well as literature review and previous study.

1. EFL learners should be aware of the importance of learning English vocabulary and develop it by using different vocabulary learning strategies and techniques.
2. Learners should increase the size of English vocabulary to master their reading comprehension skill and all other English language skills.
3. Learners should develop their vocabulary knowledge, as English language becomes a medium of instruction, so mastering vocabulary can affect language learning in general, and learning vocabulary in particular.
4. Extensive reading outside classroom can increase vocabulary size.

5. It is recommended that colleges should pay attention to the extra- curricular activities especially that concerned with vocabulary learning.
6. The adoption of vocabulary-rich syllabuses will enhance overall proficiency in English language.
7. Faculty members and authorities should equip the libraries with all materials that needed for this field to help the learners achieve and master their English vocabulary learning.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

The present study investigates the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. So the researcher suggests the following topics for further studies on the same area:

1. A study to carry out the correlation between students' vocabulary size and reading comprehension for male section, with a large sample size. Gender differences seem to be important area to be investigated.
2. Further research to carry out other studies exploring the effects of vocabulary size on other English language skills (listening, writing, and speaking).
3. A study in the same topic with English native speaker students and for different language background.
4. A study to investigate the effectiveness of using vocabulary knowledge to develop reading, writing, speaking and listening skills in English language.
5. A study to explore the effects of using vocabulary size to enhance students' attitude toward English as a foreign language.
6. Investigating the impact of vocabulary learning on EFL learners' outcomes in other universities and institutes in other countries.
7. The significant effect of vocabulary size on reading comprehension found in the current study calls for more comprehensive investigation of the reasons behind.

Such investigations may also help educators understand some of the major causes behind the poor reading habits of many EFL learners.

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Appendixes

Appendix (1)

Teacher's Questionnaire

Dear Teachers,

The researcher is very grateful for your participation in this questionnaire for a study entitled. "Correlation between Student's Vocabulary Size and Their Reading Comprehension" Your information will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. Please tick (√) where appropriate. Scale:

A: Strongly agree, B: Agree, C: Undecided, D: Disagree, E: Strongly disagree

Name (Optional)..... Participant's Degree: MA () PhD ()

No.	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Vocabulary learning is crucial to achieve academic development for EFL learners.					
2	Multiple factors contribute to differential rates of vocabulary learning.					
3	Reading comprehension is the main source of students' vocabulary learning.					
4	Listening skill, speaking, and writing activities can help reinforce and support students acquired vocabulary.					
5	Implementing outside class activities for recycling new words is important for supporting vocabulary learning.					
6	Students are not interested enough in receiving new lexical items.					
7	Connecting lexical items with the learners' culture motivates learners.					
8	Word formation process can be a rich source for motivating students' vocabulary acquisition.					
9	Students should be aware of the good dictionaries that they can consult.					

10	Using different vocabulary learning strategies can increase vocabulary knowledge.					
11	Guessing the meaning of words from context is one of the best ways to learn vocabulary.					
12	Extensive reading outside classroom can increase vocabulary size.					
13	Vocabulary size can be expanded through reading comprehension materials.					
14	The adoption of vocabulary-rich syllabuses will enhance overall proficiency in English.					
15	Lack of students' vocabulary knowledge can hinder reading comprehension ability.					
16	There are many factors that contribute to students' ability to read effectively.					
17	Students' vocabulary size is one important factor that enhances reading comprehension.					
18	Using English as the only medium of instruction a barrier to effective teaching/learning vocabulary.					
19	Using English as the only medium of instruction affect learners' participation in the classroom.					
20	Explaining only in English is a problem for some learners as they do not understand.					

Dear participant, your comment is invaluable _____

Appendix (2)

Students' Test

Part (1): Reading

Read the passage and answer the following questions:

A college is a wonderful place. It is like a town or small city in several ways. One way is population. In general, the population of town is less than 10,000 people. A city is more than 10,000 people. In the United States, many colleges and universities have several thousand students. For example, Pasadena City College, in California, has almost 30,000 students. Miami –Dad College, in Florida, has 174,000 students on eight campuses! In other ways, too, a modern college is like a small city. Like a city, many colleges have everything for student life. A dormitory is a room or building where students live .This is also called an apartment building. There are places to eat: dining rooms, coffee shops, and snack bars. There is a student store, with food clothes, and computers. There is a health center, with doctors and dentists. There is often a shuttle for students. (A shuttle is a bus .It takes students from one place on campuses to another). Like any city, there is a student art gallery. There is a sport center , where students exercise .In addition, one important place is learning recourses center. This is like a library, but it also has computers and tutors.(A tutor is a teacher who helps one student with questions or problems).

A. Answer the following questions: (4Marks)

1. What is a shuttle? _____
2. Who live in dormitories? _____
- 3-What is learning recourses center? _____
- 4- The title of this passage is _____

B. Choose T (true) or F (false) for the following: (6Marks)

- 1- College campus is like a small city. (T) (F)
- 2-.Learning resources center is like a library. (T) (F)
- 3- There is health center with teachers and professors. (T) (F)
- 4-College camps is like a city in the population. (T) (F)
- 5- Pasadena City College has almost 40,000 students. (T) (F)
- 6- In college campus there is place for entertainment. (T) (F)

C. Circle the correct answer:**(3Marks)**

1- Miami –Dad College in Florida has _____ students.

- a. 24,000 b. 174,000 c.50000 d.30,000

2- _____ is a place where you can see art.

- a. Doctor b. Shuttle c. Computer d. Gallery

3- _____ a place where students can exercise.

- a .class room b. health center c. sport center d. shuttle

Part (2): Vocabulary**A. Match the following words with the suitable meaning:****(7Marks)**

Column A	Column B	Answers
1-not old-fashioned.	a- dorm	1-
2- students sleep here.	b. population	2-
3- helps you learn.	c-transportation	3-
4-how many people.	d-modern	4-
5-little bit to eat.	e- wonderful	5-
6-very good	f-tutor	6-
7-cars,buses,trains	g-snack	7-

B. Fill in the blank with the correct word from the box:**(8Marks)**

About	ago	internet	knew	online	knows	think	information
-------	-----	----------	------	--------	-------	-------	-------------

Twenty-five years _____, very few people used the _____. Only scientists and people in the government _____ about the Internet and how to use it. This is changing very fast. Now almost everyone _____ about the Internet, and many people are _____ (on the Internet) every day. When people _____ about the Internet, they often think about _____. But now, more and more, when people think _____ the Internet, they think about shopping.