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Investigating the Effect of Using Vocabulary Learning

Strategies on Oral Communication

تقصي اثر استخدام استراتيجيات تعلم المفردات اللفظية علي المخاطبة الشفوية

**"A Case Study of First Year Students, College of Languages, Sudan
University of Science and Technology"**

(دراسة حالة طلاب السنة الاولى بكلية اللغات - جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا)

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Opening Quranic Verse :

قال تعالى:

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

(فَتَعَالَى اللَّهُ الْمَلِكُ الْحَقُّ وَلَا تَعْجَلْ بِالْقُرْآنِ مِنْ قَبْلِ أَنْ يُقْضَىٰ إِلَيْكَ وَحْيُهُ وَقُلْ رَبِّ زِدْنِي عِلْمًا)

صدق الله العظيم

طه الآية (114)

Dedication

To the memory of my father's and my family members.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my husband and my youngest sister. khadiga.....

Acknowledgments

All praise and great thanks are due to Allah the Almighty who bestowed me with patience, perseverance and the means to Accomplish this study.

My sincere gratitude and appreciation are due to Prof. Mahmoud Ali Ahmed Supervisor for his invaluable guidance , great support and encouragement throughout the stages of this study.

Abstract

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

Abstract (Arabic version)

المستخلص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى ؛ تقصي اثر تعلم المفردات اللفظية علي مهارة المخاطبة . اتبعت الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي لجمع البيانات عن طريق الاستبانة والاختبار . لتقويم وتحديد فاعلية تقويم مثل هذه الطريقة في تحسين مفردات الطلاب اللفظية ومهارة المخاطبة في الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية تم اختيار الاستبانة والاختبار كوسيلتين أساسيتين لجمع البيانات وكذلك تم توزيع الاستبانة لعدد (30) محاضراً يعملون في جامعات سودانية مختلفة . تم اعطاء الاختبار لعدد (50) طالباً وطالبة في الصف الاول بكلية اللغات بجامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا ، وتم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج الحزم الاحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (spss) . توصلت الدراسة لنتائج اهمها ان التحليل الاحصائي للاستبانة والاختبار اوضح ان استخدام اسلوب استراتيجيات تعلم المفردات اللفظية يحسن من مفردات الطلاب اللفظية ومهارتهم في المخاطبة . استناداً علي هذه النتائج فقد اوصت الدراسة بضرورة تشجيع الطلاب لتعلم المفردات اللفظية ومهارة المخاطبة وذلك لتشجيع المتعلمين لتعلم اللغة بحرية .

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This introductory chapter is an overview of the study. It includes the background of the study, statement of the study problem, objective of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, significance of the study, research methodology, and limits of the study and organization of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

In order to communicate effectively, a considerable amount of vocabulary words is necessary for EFL / ESL learners. Certainly, the numbers of words learners need to be capable of using another language (L2) vary. (Coady, 1997; Huckin & Coady, 1999) suggest that learners need at least 3,000 word families, and 5,000 to 10,000 word families for university-level texts to achieve accurate contextual guessing, while Schmitt & McCarthy (1997) claim that a learner knows 80 per cent of the words in a text with a vocabulary size of 2,000 words. Cristina (2010) argues that it takes many years of hard work for a second-language speaker to get to native-speaker level, and goes further stating that “Some linguists estimate that educated native speakers could have an active vocabulary of between 8,000 and 10,000 words. Good second-language speakers might have an active vocabulary of 3,500 words. That is quite a difference” (p. 171)

Nation (2001: 20) goes further claiming that language users probably need a vocabulary of 15.000 to 20.000 words “to read with minimal disturbance from unknown vocabulary.”

Vocabulary knowledge is undoubtedly a central part of linguistic knowledge, and its study is as old as the study of language learning itself. The literature of second language learning/acquisition abounds in the study of vocabulary learning. Schmidt (1993), Knight (1994), Nation (1997, 2001), and Yoshii (2002) are among many researchers who consider learning vocabulary essential for ESL and EFL learners. Much of the recent research has been conducted to examine the importance of vocabulary in reading comprehension. The findings of many studies show

a strong relationship between students' vocabulary knowledge and general reading skills (Salem, 2007).

Psychologists, linguists, and language teachers have been interested in vocabulary learning strategies for a long time (Levenston, 1979). Actually, researchers began to effectively focus on vocabulary learning research in the mid 1980s and vocabulary learning is now a current focus in ESL pedagogy and research. Learning new vocabulary is, presumably, the most important element in second language learning, (Knight, 1994). Candlin (1988) describes the study of vocabulary -in its social context- by being "the heart of the learning process" (p. 260). Other researchers such as Harley (1996) accept the importance of vocabulary learning in language proficiency and academic achievement. However, their ideas about how vocabulary is learned vary widely. They argue that one of the major concerns in FL/L2 vocabulary learning is the need to develop effective pedagogical methods for teaching FL/L2 vocabulary. Yet, here, it is important to mention what Nation (2001) states about the difference between two categories of vocabulary concerning the teachers' and learners' aims, and the efforts they exert: high-frequency words, and low-frequency words. High-frequency words do not require as much effort as low-frequency words. For the latter, he claims that "the teachers' aim is to train learners in the use of strategies to deal with such vocabulary. These strategies are guessing from context clues, deliberate studying words on word cards, using word parts, and dictionary use". (p. 20)

A number of questionnaires, interviews and case studies (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Jones, 1995; Lawson & Hogden, 1996; Porte, 1988; Sanaoui, 1995) – as reported in Hulstijn (2001) – handled the concern of learners of a second language with the burden of vocabulary learning. They investigated two major hypotheses: students should learn words intentionally, even by memorizing, and students should learn or acquire new vocabulary by 'picking up' words incidentally, as a by-product of being exposed to L2 input in reading and listening tasks.

According to the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis (Krashen 1981), second language learners have two distinct ways of developing ability in second languages: learning and acquisition. Language acquisition is similar to the way children develop their first language. Learners can acquire L2 without meaning to. What they are aware of is using the

language for some communicative purposes. What is more, they are often not aware of what they have acquired; they usually cannot describe or talk about the rules they have acquired but all they have is a "feel" for the language. Language learning is different. It involves knowing about language or formal knowledge of a language. Language learning is thought to profit from explicit presentation of rules and from error correction. Error correction, supposedly, helps the learner come to the correct conscious mental representation of a rule. "Error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning". (Krashen, 1982:14). Similarly, Saville-Troike (2012:2) argues that:

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers both to the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language." "The scope of SLA includes informal L2 learning that takes place in naturalistic contexts, formal L2 learning that takes place in classrooms, and L2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings and circumstances.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Lack of L2 sufficient vocabulary has been a common complaint or a problem for university first year students in Sudanese universities. There is always a big gap between their levels as secondary school graduates, and the courses they are supposed to study at the university.

A considerable percentage of university first year students find difficulty in expressing themselves in English (L2) and consequently in coping with the activities in their daily classes. For students who just joined a new course, they are frustrating to open their English books and see a majority of unfamiliar words. Consequently, the university's Curriculum Unit has to look for courses of lower levels than the assumed ones, to be able to fill this gap. In addition, individual differences among those students are huge due to the big differences in quality and quantity among the courses they have already studied as they are coming from different schools and areas. For all these reasons, using glossary can be beneficial in two ways: solving this problem, and helping students learn and retain new vocabulary without wasting too much time in teaching new vocabulary or choosing English courses of lower levels.

1.3 Objective of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to explore the effectiveness of learning and teaching the strategies to be used in developing first year students at Sudanese universities. There are many strategies advocated by linguists in this respect foremost of which is the use of glosses such as L1 translation of target words and definition of the target words. Arabic can be used to make the different glosses as well as English. The followings are the research objectives

1-To find out to what extent the teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies can help improve learners' oral communication.

2-To find out to what extent student's aptitude can govern vocabulary learning.

3-To find out to what extents actions of learners can affect vocabulary learning.

1.4 Significance of the Study

What makes this study significant is the fact that almost all Sudanese first year students are incapable of expressing themselves in good sensible English. So the study seeks to explore the type of vocabulary suitable for that desired end. Much of the relevant research, over the past three decades or so, has been done on the effects of vocabulary learning for communicative purposes. Most of these studies attempt to question the following issues: the kind of vocabulary needed to learn effectively the second or foreign language;

The contradictory and inconsistent results of many studies regarding the effects of vocabulary learning strategies and oral communication. Research into the area of language strategies began in earnest in the 1970s as part of the movement away from a predominantly teaching-oriented perspective, to one which included interest in how the actions of learners might affect their acquisition of language. Concurrently, there was a growing awareness that aptitude was not the governing factor in language learning success, implying that language achievement depended quite heavily on the individual learner's endeavours. This naturally led to a greater interest in how individual learners approached and controlled

their own learning and use of language. (For summaries of the development of language strategy research, see Rubin, 1987; Skehan, 1989; for book-length treatments of learner strategies, see Wenden and Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; McDonough, 1995).

1.5 Questions of the Study

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

1.6 Hypotheses of the Study

1. The teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies can help improve learners' oral communication.
2. The right aptitude can govern vocabulary learning success.
3. The actions of learners affect their vocabulary acquisition.

1.7 Methodology of the Study

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

1-8 Limits of the study

This study is limited to first year students at college of languages, Sudan University of Science and Technology. It is limited to only academic vocabulary that can help learners in oral communication. Only questionnaire and test are used in the study.

1.9 Summary of the chapter

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

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.0

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the issue of L1 use on FL classroom and other related topics with some emphasis on the nature of reading comprehension. Important findings and arguments from opponents and proponents of an English-only teaching method will be discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts, the first one is on the theoretical framework, and the other is on previous studies.

Part one: Theoretical framework

2.1 Historical Review

Much of the literature on second language acquisition as a general process (e.g. Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 1999) pays little attention to vocabulary learning. This is not just a recent phenomenon. O'Dell (1997: 258) comments that vocabulary and lexis are absent from major books on the syllabus and theory of language teaching throughout the 1970s and 1980s. Its omission may have an even longer history. Wilkins (1972: 109), writing at the beginning of the 1970s, suggests it dates from the development of structural linguistics. For much of the last half century or so, therefore, the consideration of vocabulary in the process of language learning, testing and teaching appears to have been sidelined and, as Meara (1980) describes it, turned into a Cinderella subject.

Much of our understanding of which words are learned, how they are learned and how to test for word knowledge, is governed by our understanding of word frequency. This chapter will. Examine the frequency model of vocabulary learning; illustrate the lexical profiles that groups and individuals possess;. Show how these profiles develop over time and as overall language knowledge increases;. Consider how word difficulty might also influence learning. Because word frequency and learning are so closely connected, it is generally thought necessary to target knowledge of the most frequent words in a language for assessment. This enables a good measure of vocabulary knowledge to be constructed that works accurately yet efficiently.

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

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

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

By the age of 3, most children have acquired an almost adult-like understanding of syntactical constructions (Bates & Goodman, 1997). By the time they have entered first grade they have acquired their native languages' phonological system, and can produce almost all of the sounds of their native language (Graves, 1987). The mastery of vocabulary acquisition, though, is still vastly incomplete. In school, children develop additional word-learning strategies. Direct vocabulary instruction appears to contribute to vocabulary acquisition (Graves, 1987). Biemiller (2001) suggests that at least 80% of the words children acquire by the sixth grade are learned through direct instruction; children acquire root word meanings through direct explanations from parents, educators, and peers, and within texts. Although research on the best technique of direct vocabulary instruction is mixed, several conclusions concerning its overall efficacy can be made:

First, all instructional methods produce better word learning than no instruction. Second, no one method has been shown to be consistently superior. Third, there is advantage from methods that use a variety of techniques. Fourth, there is advantage from repeated exposures to the words to be learned. The simple version of these findings is that people tend to learn what they are taught, and more attention to what is being taught is useful. (Beck & McKeown, 1991, p. 805)

Direct instruction of words, then, needs to go beyond simply asking children to memorize a definition to providing children with repeated exposures to words, their definitions, and contextual information, and allowing the child to explore the meaning of the new words rather than simply memorizing them (Osborn & Armbruster, 2001). Three seemingly successful methods of direct vocabulary instruction include the *keyword method* (e.g., McDaniel & Pressley, 1984; Pressley, Levin, & Miller, 1982), *semantic mapping* (e.g., Johnson, Pittelman, & Heimlich, 1986), and *semantic feature analysis* (Anders & Bos, 1986). The keyword method encourages children to find a familiar word within the unfamiliar word (e.g., *car* from the novel word *carlin*, meaning old woman), and then connect the meaning of the novel word with an image associated with the familiar word (e.g., an old woman driving a car; Pressley et al., 1982). McDaniel and Pressley (1984) found significantly greater

definition recall with the keyword method in comparison to a context method for acquiring word meaning. Semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis involve graphically relating novel words to a familiar thematic concept, thereby activating students' familiar experiences and concepts (Anders & Bos, 1986; Johnson et al., 1986).

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

Sternberg and Powell (1983) explored the benefits of instructing students in three strategies to better utilize context in acquiring word meaning: selective encoding, selective combination, and selective comparison (Sternberg, 1987). *Selective encoding* asks students to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant cues that will aid in defining the word. Students next use *selective combination* to decide which cues should be combined to construct the word's meaning. Then students employ *selective comparison* to relate prior knowledge to the information derived from the context, to better define the unknown word. Buikema and Graves (1993) successfully taught a small group of seventh- and eighth grade students strategies for utilizing context in defining words, combining several cues from Sternberg and Powell (1983) with an additional strategy for assessing a word's sensual aspects (e.g., its appearance, its smell).

Fukkink and de Glopper (1998) performed a **meta-analysis** on studies that directly attempted to improve students' ability to derive word meanings through context. They found that **direct instruction in using contextual cues is effective**, with a mean instructional effect of .43

standard deviation units. It appears therefore that students learn about words in both oral and written contexts, and that direct instruction in utilizing context more effectively positively influences their vocabulary acquisition.

2.2 Knowledge of a Word

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

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

1. Stage 1: never saw it before.
2. Stage 2: heard it, but doesn't know what it means.
3. Stage 3: recognizes it in the context as having something to do with _____.
4. Stage 4: knows it well.

These four stages of word knowledge recognize that the meaning of a word can be partial and contextually based. Beck, McKeown, and Omanson (1987) suggest that degrees of knowledge about a word can be represented on a continuum:

1. No knowledge.
2. General sense such as knowing *mendacious* has a negative connotation.
3. Narrow, context-bound knowledge, such as knowing that a "radiant bride" is beautiful and happy, but unable to describe an individual in a different context as "radiant."
4. Having knowledge of a word but not being able to recall it readily enough to use it in appropriate situations.
5. Rich, decontextualized knowledge of a word's meaning, its relationship to other words, and its extension to metaphorical uses, such

as understanding what someone is doing when they are “devouring” a book.

Empirical support has been provided for the idea that a person may have a general sense of a word even if he or she does not have explicit knowledge of the word or its meaning (Shore & Durso, 1990).

Anderson and Ortony (1975) explored implications for partial word knowledge and word sense. They suggest that a single word will have many different meanings in a multitude of sentences even if the “core” meaning is the same. Take the word *piano*, for example. In a sentence context involving music, the meaning of *piano* as a musical instrument will be in the forefront. However, in a sentence context involving moving household items, the meaning of *piano* as a very heavy, bulky, but nevertheless fragile piece of furniture will be more relevant. There is a “sense” of the word that cannot be adequately defined from a dictionary meaning, one that only comes from experiences that allow for the differentiation of macro- and micro-distinctions in a word’s meaning. Clearly, word knowledge is not as decontextualized and dichotomous as once perceived.

Cronbach’s (1942) assessment of word knowledge derived from differences in what one is asked to do to demonstrate knowledge of a word:

1. *Generalization*, or the ability to define a word.
2. *Application*, or the ability to select or recognize situations appropriate to using a word.
3. *Breadth*, or knowledge of the multiple meanings of a word.
4. *Precision*, or the ability to apply a word correctly and to recognize its inappropriate use.
5. *Availability*, or the ability to actually use a word in thinking and discourse.

Graves (1987) considered aspects of vocabulary knowledge from the perspective of tasks that represent stages of acquisition of vocabulary words:

1. Learning to read known words.
2. Learning new meanings for known words.
3. Learning new words representing known concepts.
4. Learning new words for new concepts.

5. Clarifying and enriching known words and meaning.
6. Moving words from receptive to expressive vocabulary.

Finally, Nagy and Scott (2000) argue that there are five key aspects of word knowledge:

1. *Incrementality*: the idea that words are known to varying degrees of complete knowledge.
2. *Polysemy*: words have multiple meanings, and shades of meanings, which means that context must be used to infer the intended meaning.
3. *Multidimensionality*: because word knowledge is multidimensional, it cannot be represented on a single, linear continuum.
4. *Interrelatedness*: word knowledge is represented by a configuration of relation in a semantic network of words.
5. *Heterogeneity*: different kinds of words require different kinds of resented by a dichotomous indication of whether or not you can produce an acceptable dictionary definition. Second, since what exactly “word knowledge” is beyond this is not clear, clarifying this situation is an important near-term goal for vocabulary researchers, word knowledge.

Two conclusions are obvious from our consideration of what you know if you know a word. First, word knowledge is not adequately represented by a dichotomous indication of whether or not you can produce an acceptable dictionary definition. Second, since what exactly “word knowledge” is beyond this is not clear, clarifying this situation is an important near-term goal for vocabulary researchers.

2.3 Vocabulary Development

Learning to read and write is a key developmental milestone in a literate society. Children who learn to read early, without significant difficulties, and well, tend to be more avid readers than children who experience difficulties in learning to read. As a consequence, these children experience more exposure to print, thereby both solidifying and expanding their skills in reading and writing. These reading skills serve as the cornerstone to acquiring content knowledge in other domains both in school and throughout life. Significantly, a relatively large degree of children’s exposure to and acquisition of vocabulary and other language skills occurs through reading. In contrast to those children who acquire reading skills early and without much difficulty, children who are poor

readers tend to continue to struggle with reading and writing, read less than their peers who are more skilled in reading, and receive less exposure to content knowledge, vocabulary, and other language skills.

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

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

2.3.1 Second Language Vocabulary Development

Second Language Acquisition,¹ as a field of scientific research and a foundation of contemporary language instruction, is still a relatively young discipline. Historically, second language instruction was either not grounded on any scientific theory (e.g. the Grammar-Translation

Method), or was grounded on conclusions partly derived from valid linguistic theories and partly from general theories of learning (e.g. the influence of structural linguistics and behaviorism on the development of the audio-lingual method). The Grammar-Translation Method was based on the fundamental assumption that learners will learn the target language simply by following the teaching method, whereas according to the audio-lingual method the learner is conceived of as a passive recipient of the programme whose intervention would seriously interfere with the desirable automatic reaction. These theories received severe criticism from the new opposing theories, such as the interlanguage theory that views the learner as a creator of rules and errors as evidence of positive efforts by the learners to learn (Selinker, 1972). The new theories incited two general directions in SLA research: Rubin (1975) begins her work on raising awareness of learners' strategies of learning responsible for the language learning success, and Krashen (cf. 1981) proposes his influential theory which states that, for language acquisition to occur, learners need natural authentic communication, and not direct instruction. Due to this idea Krashen has often been recognized as the originator of the communicative approach to second language teaching. In addition to the above-mentioned approaches and methods, there is a host of other methods, often referred to as alternative, that have, in their own ways, influenced second language instruction. In general, language instruction today clearly reflects recognition and appreciation of the values and contributions of various methods and approaches.

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

The ardent 'advocates' of the extreme cognitive approach entirely discard the behaviorist tenets; whereas the less radical cognitivists agree that the behaviorist theory is able to explain some aspects of learning. Gagne' (1977, cited in Stern, 1986), for example, distinguishes several varieties of learning: learning intellectual skills, concepts and rules; learning

problem solving or cognitive strategies; verbal information learning; motor skill learning; and the learning of attitudes. His conceptualization of learning includes both behaviorist and cognitive principles and is reflected in his postulation that any concrete learning task, such as language learning, involves several or even all kinds of learning. Zarevski (1994) finds it rather unrealistic to expect that one coherent theory can explain the whole complexity of learning. This is why the explanations within one theory range from the point of conflict to the point of interaction. The great strength of the cognitive theory lies in its capacity to explain the development of the competence to use the second language knowledge. This may serve as a basis for further developments of a more comprehensive theory that would be able to fully account for second language acquisition.

Due to the influence exerted by the cognitive theory of learning, the concept of language learning strategy or learner strategy referring to what learners do in order to make their learning manageable and efficient has become widely recognized in the field of second language acquisition.

An adequate explanation of how learning strategies contribute to the acquisition and attainment of the language has to account for a number of variables, from social and cultural learning context, covering varieties of factors influencing the use of strategies, to the language task.

This part of the research focuses primarily upon vocabulary learning strategies. It aims at exploring what lies behind this phenomenon and examines both its linguistic and psychological aspect. Although the approach taken is rooted in the cognitive theory of learning we also look at the inherent linguistic features of lexical items and the complexity of lexical forms and relationships. By doing so, we acknowledge the potential impact that these linguistic features may have on vocabulary acquisition, which the cognitive theory has been reputed to fail to do.

2.4 Word Frequency and Coverage

This chapter examines the relationship between the most frequent vocabulary and text coverage _ how much of a text a reader is likely to understand. It will introduce Zipf's law, which allows the relationship between word frequency and coverage to be graphed. This will suggest:. How much vocabulary is needed to read a text for basic, gist understanding;. How much vocabulary is needed in listening to normal

spoken text;. How much vocabulary is needed for full comprehension in both reading and writing; Whether specialist lexicons can reduce the learning burden and add to coverage and comprehension; . Whether vocabulary measurements can be a good indicator of general foreign language level.

It was already mentioned that frequency helps explain much about which word or words are likely to be learned and when.

2.4.1 Types of Vocabulary

A person's **vocabulary** is the set of words within a language that are familiar to that person. A vocabulary usually develops with age, and 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.

(i) Reading vocabulary

A literate person's reading vocabulary is all the words he or she can recognize when reading. This is generally the largest type of vocabulary simply because a reader tends to be exposed to more words by reading than by listening. In many cases, notably Chinese characters, as in Chinese and Japanese kanji, where the pronunciation may be in obscurity for little indication judging from the written word, some words may be part of the written vocabulary but not the commonly spoken language.

(ii) Listening vocabulary

A person's listening vocabulary is all the words he or she can recognize when listening to speech. People may still understand words they were not exposed to before using cues such as tone, gestures, the topic of discussion and the social context of the conversation.

(iii) Speaking vocabulary:

A person's speaking vocabulary is all the words he or she uses in speech. It is likely to be a subset of the listening vocabulary. Due to the spontaneous nature of speech, words are often misused. This misuse – though slight and unintentional – may be compensated by facial expressions, tone of voice, or hand gestures.

(iv) Writing vocabulary

Words are used in various forms of writing from formal essays to Twitter feeds. Many written words do not commonly appear in speech. Writers generally use a **limited** set of words when communicating for example:

- a. If there are a number of synonyms, a writer will have his own preference as to which of them to use.
- b. The writer is unlikely to use technical vocabulary relating to a subject in whom he has no knowledge or interest.

(v) Focal vocabulary

Focal vocabulary is a specialized set of terms and distinctions that is particularly important to a certain group: those with a particular focus of experience or activity. A lexicon, or vocabulary, is a language's dictionary: its set of names for things, events, and ideas. Some linguists believe that lexicon influences people's perception of things, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. For example, the Nuer of Sudan have an elaborate vocabulary to describe cattle. The Nuer have dozens of names for cattle. This kind of comparison has elicited some linguistic controversy, as with the number of "Eskimo words for snow". English speakers with relevant specialized knowledge can also display elaborate and precise vocabularies for snow and cattle when the need arises.

Vocabulary knowledge is not something that can be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens over the course of a life time. In learning English language, lexis or vocabulary is recognized as a vital factor for ESL or EFL literary development (Coxhead, 2006; Horst et al., 2005; Lee & Munice, 2006). That is, L2 learners' lexical knowledge may determine the quality of their listening, speaking, reading, and writing performances. Nevertheless, the nature of lexical knowledge, that is the question of what it actually means for a language learner to "know" a word, lies at the very heart of L2 vocabulary acquisition. As Laufer and Paribakht (1998, p. 366) observe, "No clear and unequivocal consensus exists as to the nature of lexical knowledge", apart from the general agreement that it should be construed as some sort of continuum

of several levels or dimensions rather than an all-or-nothing phenomenon.

Stahl (2005) describes Vocabulary knowledge as the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world”,

According to Lehr, Osborn and Heibert (2005), vocabulary knowledge comes in two forms namely receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary includes words that we recognize when we hear or see them. Productive vocabulary, on the other hand, includes words that we use when we speak or write. Receptive vocabulary is typically larger than productive vocabulary.

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agreement that it should be construed as some sort of continuum of several levels or dimensions rather than an all-or-nothing phenomenon. Vocabulary knowledge involves more than just knowing a lot of lexical items, learners must have ready access to that knowledge and be able to draw on it effectively in performing language use tasks. In addition, need to have strategies for dealing with situations where their vocabulary knowledge is insufficient to meet their communication need (Bachman and Palmer, 1996 p. 17).

The concept of a *word* can be defined in various ways, but three significant aspects students need to be aware of and focus on *form*,

meaning, and *use*. According to (Nation 2002 p.32), the form of a word involves 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*, so the form and meaning go together to produce new word with another new meaning.

2.4.2 What it means to know a word

what does it mean to “Know” a word? Nagy and Scott (2000) pinpoint several dimensions that describe the complexity of what it means to know a word. First, word knowledge is *incremental* which means that several exposures to a word in different contexts are needed before “knowing” it. Second, word knowledge is *multidimensional* which means many words have multiple meanings and serve different functions in different sentences, texts, and even conversations. Third, word knowledge is *interrelated* in that knowledge of one word connects to knowledge of other words. Thus, “knowing” a word is a matter of degree rather than an all-or-nothing proposition (Nagy & Scott, 2000).

The degrees of knowing a word are reflected in the precision with which the word is used, how quickly it is understood, and how well the word is understood and used in different modes eg. receptively or productively, and for different purposes eg. formal or informal occasions. In addition, knowing a word also means knowing how that word relates to other knowledge. The more one knows about a specific topic, for instance, the more words one brings to one’s understanding of that topic. Because everybody has different interests and backgrounds, one may bring different words to shape that understanding. Finally, knowing a word also means being able to appreciate its connotations and subtleties. When one knows a word at this level, one can use and recognize it in idioms, jokes, slang, and puns (Johnson, Johnson, & Schlicting, 2004).

Nation (2001) 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, he 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,) he 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 2.2. What is involved in knowing a word” adopt, from Nation (2001: 27). Nation (1990) distinguished eight types of word knowledge (e.g form, grammatical pattern, meaning, function, relation with other words), which were specified both for receptive and productive knowledge.

Chapelle (1998) argued that a trait definition of vocabulary should contain four dimensions: (a) vocabulary size, (b) knowledge of word characteristics, (c) lexicon organization, and (d) processes of lexical access. Henriksen (1999) proposed three separate but related vocabulary dimensions:

- a "partial-precise knowledge dimension
- a “depth of knowledge” dimension
- a “receptive-productive” dimension.

Qian’s (2002) recent framework, developed on the collective strength of earlier models of vocabulary knowledge proposed that vocabulary knowledge comprises four intrinsically connected dimensions:

- vocabulary size
- depth of vocabulary knowledge)
- lexical organization,
- Automaticity of receptive–productive knowledge.

The importance of various factors in these dimensions will vary according to the specific purpose of language use in all the frameworks reviewed, there is a clear consensus that vocabulary knowledge should at least comprise two dimensions, which are vocabulary breadth, or size, and depth, or quality, of vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary bread refers to the number of words the meaning of which a learner has at least some superficial knowledge. Depth of vocabulary knowledge is defined as a learner’s level knowledge of various aspects of a given word, or how well the learner knows this word.

The place of vocabulary in language learning has been significantly revised over the last decade and current academic thinking is very much at odds with much classroom and textbook practice. Far from being an

element which is merely incidental to language learning, current thinking advocates that vocabulary may be crucial to the development of language performance overall. In a recent version of generative grammar, According to Diamond and Gutlohn (2006), *vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings*.

Stahl (2005) describes Vocabulary knowledge as “the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world”, Vocabulary researchers normally differentiate between passive (receptive) and active (productive) vocabulary knowledge having passive vocabulary knowledge enables one to perceive the form of the word and retrieve its meaning(s) (Nation, 2001). Active vocabulary knowledge, on the other hand, enables one to retrieve the appropriate spoken or written word form of the meaning one wants to express (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). In other words, vocabulary knowledge can be viewed from quantitative and qualitative angles.

1.5 Lexical Knowledge and Language Learning

Many people believe that knowing a word means knowing its meaning-breadth of knowledge. Nation and Waring (1997, p. 6) described quantitative vocabulary knowledge as being concerned with the question “How much vocabulary does a second language learner need?” However, Cook (2001) states that “a word is more than its meaning” (p. 61). For Cook, knowing a word involves four aspects:

Form of the word such as pronunciation and spelling.

- Grammatical properties such as grammatical categories of the word,
- Lexical properties such as word combinations and appropriateness,
- Meaning the general and specific meaning.

Clearly, “knowing a word requires more than just familiarity with its meaning and form” (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997, p. 4). Thus, the notions of Receptive (Passive) and Productive (Active) Vocabulary (RPV) are normally discussed in four different ways.

- First, RPV processes refer to subconscious mental processes involved in the recognition, recall, retrieval, comprehension, and production of lexical items.
- Second, the RPV abilities involve the control of what is received and what is produced.

- Third, RPV skills denote the receptive skills of listening and reading from the productive skills of speaking and writing. Finally, the RPV product is represented by the RPV sizes and what we know about one's own RPV knowledge as viewed through language tasks (Waring, 1999). As a rule of thumb, the receptive vocabulary is at least twice the size of the productive vocabulary. Productive vocabulary knowledge describes from two perspectives: aspects of vocabulary knowledge (i.e., "receptive vs. productive" and "size vs. depth") and their assessment methods. Vocabulary can be conceptualized in many ways (e.g., Henricksen, 1999; Nation, 2001; Qian, 2002). For instance, Qian (2002 p. 516.) summarized previous categories and proposed a framework that consists of the following four aspects:

- vocabulary size
- depth of vocabulary knowledge
- lexical organization (i.e., "the storage, connection, and representation of words in the mental lexicon
- automaticity of receptive-productive knowledge (i.e., "all fundamental processes through which access to word knowledge is achieved for both receptive and productive purposes,"

The second constituent, vocabulary knowledge and fundamental processes, has four dimensions:

- Vocabulary size,
- Knowledge of word characteristics,
- Lexicon organization,
- Fundamental vocabulary processes.

The first two are described below. Lexicon organization is a way in which words are related to one another; whereas fundamental processes involve the automaticity. The first two are described below. Lexicon organization is a way in which words are related to one another, whereas fundamental processes involve the automaticity in accessing and utilizing each word. The third component of vocabulary ability categorized by Chapelle (1994) is meta cognitive strategies for vocabulary use. It is the same as Bachman's (1990) said "*Strategic competence, or "the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use (Bachman, p. 84). "*" While there are many types of classification, this

study mainly analyzes vocabulary knowledge from two viewpoints: (a) receptive vs. productive, and (b) sizes.(d)depth.

This study focuses on vocabulary knowledge by dealing with its relationships with speaking performance because productive vocabulary knowledge seems more relevant to speaking performance by its definition. As for relationships between the two types of vocabulary, there are two ways to look at them.

First, receptive vocabulary and productive vocabulary are considered to be located at opposite ends of the continuum of vocabulary development (Melka, 1997). In Melka's model, it is overall considered that receptive vocabulary gradually changes into productive vocabulary, and learners are gradually able to use productive vocabulary in speaking and writing, but there is overlap between receptive and productive vocabulary.

- Second, Meara (1990) regarded receptive and productive vocabulary as different entities that are activated by different stimuli (i.e., external stimuli, such as sound and spelling, vs. association with other words), not something that belongs to the continuum.

Although the general concept of receptive and productive vocabulary is consistent, previous studies have used definitions of the terms "receptive (sometimes called passive)" and "productive (sometimes called active)" ambiguously or differently, which leads to difficulty in interpreting previous results (Read, 2000). There have been two attempts to address these problems. First, Read (2000) proposed a four-cell matrix of differentiating receptive and productive vocabulary (Read, 2000, pp. 154-157). He divided receptive vocabulary into two types: recognition and comprehension. He also separated productive vocabulary into two types: recall and use, depending on whether there is a context. The context here "includes whole texts and, more generally, discourse" (Read, 2000, p. 11). "Recall" refers to retrieval of vocabulary from memory in response to a stimulus word, whereas "use" refers to production of vocabulary in speaking and writing (Read, pp. 155 & 156)

2.6 The aspects of vocabulary knowledge

The place of vocabulary in language learning has been significantly revised over the last decade and current academic thinking is very much at odds with much classroom and textbook practice. Far from being an element which is merely incidental to language learning, current thinking advocates that vocabulary may be crucial to the development of

language performance overall. The most important things the students need to know about a lexical item is its written and spoken form and its most usual meaning. However, there are additional aspects which need to be learned: its grammar, collocation links, connotations, appropriateness of use and relationships with other items in English.(Ur.2012:60).

(a) Pronunciation and Spelling Form

The learner has to know what a word sound looks like (its pronunciation) and what it looks like (its spelling).

Many people assume that meaning is more important than form: but remember that knowing a meaning is pretty useless without knowing the form it is attached to. In most cases the learners will encounter a form before they know its meaning, not vice versa – which is why it is put first here.(ibid).

Most English words are pronounced and spelt according to regular rules that are worth teaching:

- The digraphs th, ch, (tch), sh, wh, and the less common ph;
- The final e, which causes a previous vowel to be pronounced like its name in late, these, time, hope.
- The letter 'c', usually presenting the sound /k/ regularly pronounced /s/ before i, e, y.
- The Suffixes- tion- sion- ssion;
- The prefix al -, spelt with one /in words like always.
- The suffixes – al, - ful spelt with one l;
- The letter 'g', usually representing the sound /g/ but sometimes (not always) pronounced /dz) before e, I;
- The 'u', following 'q, . (ibid, 2012:163).

These requirements for knowing vocabulary are very important in second language (L2) learning because any ineffective vocabulary teaching and learning may lead to undesirable results such as:

1. Inability to retrieve learnt vocabulary while communicating in the language.
2. Inappropriate use of the vocabulary items in difficult situations as in the underlined words of the following sentences:
 - My car was badly injured in the accident (damaged).

– We shall discuss about the problem (talk).

3 Using vocabulary in a meaningless or in an unidiomatic way. For example :

-Her name is familiar with me (to).

4..incorrect use of grammatical form, stress, pronunciation and spelling.

Examples: Words of different forms but of identical pronunciation such as genes/jeans, two/too, knight/night, in/inn or words of similar forms but preannounced differently such as wood/mood, book/food, bought/taught or words that function both as verb and noun such as record(noun) record (verb) . Thus, The process of teaching/learning vocabulary requires good planning, effective presentation, demonstration and adequate practice-(Al-Mutawa et al , 1997L48,49).

(b) Word Formation

Words can be broken down into morphemes: for example, unkindly is composed of the prefix un-, the root word kind and the suffix, - ly . The basic and literal meanings sub categorization of words as it mentioned are pronunciation Spelling, Inflections. Derivations(form –meaning – usage). How these components are put together in another piece of use information. Teaching common prefixes and suffixes for example, if the students know the meaning of the prefixes: sub-, un- , and the suffix – able, this may help them guess the meaning of words like substandard, ungrateful and untranslatable. Another way vocabulary items are built is by combining two (occasionally three) words to make one item sometimes hyphenated (bookcase, follow – up, swimming- pool, four-wheel drive. (ibid).

(c) Meaning Denotation:

The meaning of a word or expression is what it refers to, or denotes in the real world. This is given in dictionaries as its definition. Sometimes a word may have various meanings: most often these are metaphorical extensions of the meaning of the original word (for example, the 'foot, of the mountain deriving from foot as part of the body). But sometimes a word such as ' bear, has multiple meanings (bear the animal and bear meaning, tolerate) because they are derived from two different words which happen to have developed into the same form (homonyms). Now , let us be more practical and see how new more words are learned:

(d) TIPS FOR LEARNING NEW WORDS

Here are some tips for learning new words. As you review them, place a check mark next to those that you plan to use.

□ **Use new words.** Over and over. Choose a few words you want to learn, then bore everyone to tears. Use them in the office cafeteria, during meetings, while chatting with friends. Use them at the risk of making mistakes or appearing foolish. You must use them regularly to retain them. Count each time you use a new word. Try for fifty times in one week. By making new words a game, you will enjoy it more. Be sure that the words you select are useful to you and fit easily into your everyday vocabulary.

□ **Carry a pocket dictionary.** You do not need the lap-breaker size to find most of the words you need; however, some pocket dictionaries are not always exact. You might want to verify the definition in a college dictionary later.

Carrying a small dictionary in your purse or pocket allows you to look up words on the spot.

□ **Use mnemonics (nih-MON-iks).** A mnemonic is a mental game to help you memorize words more easily. Acronyms and poems are examples. Remember the acronym for recalling the colors of the rainbow. ROY G BIV—red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet; or the poem for remembering a spelling rule: i before e, except after c. Choose a word you want to remember, and associate it with something familiar or even naughty, or create a rhyme. Example:

To spell the word piece, think of a piece of pie.

□ **Write down new words.** Use a folded piece of paper as a bookmark and write down new words as you read. Keep a vocabulary notebook and add new words when you hear them. Check the dictionary for the correct spelling, definition and pronunciation. Use 3×5 note cards as flashcards, with the word you want to learn on one side and the definition on the other. Pull these out and practice them at odd moments.

□ **Visualize.** Create crazy mental pictures of your word. Suppose you want to remember anonymous (meaning “not named” or “unknown”). In your mind create a character with no face, named Anon A.Mess. Visualize his clothing as rumpled, with that freshly slept-in look (a mess). Exaggerate your image as much as possible. If you have to

struggle a little to come up with a creative visualization, you will remember your word even better.

After reviewing these learning techniques, you can see that you have to work a little to learn new words. Thinking nice thoughts and swallowing little green vitamins will not improve your vocabulary. Learning new words is like dieting. You have to exercise your mind, choose your intake and stay focused.

2.7 Origin of English Words

Every day the forces of language shape our relationships and our work. We live in a multicultural society, where language is sometimes a barrier. It does not have to be so. Most of us share a strong common bond, rooted in the Indo-European family of languages. Knowledge of our shared linguistic history creates the possibility of a broader point of view. A broader view creates tolerance, and tolerance opens the door to acceptance. Acceptance brings peace.

English is one of 1500 languages spoken by the 5 billion people on the planet Earth. One-half billion people speak English, although they may sometimes have difficulty understanding each other. Accents, dialects, tonal changes and occupations cause great differences, even within one language. Therefore, people from Atlanta, Georgia, may not easily be able to understand people from Cork, Ireland, or Auckland, New Zealand.

Nearly half of the world's population speaks one of the Indo-European group of languages. The English language came from this "parent" language spoken in Northern Europe about 5000 years ago. Eventually the Indo-European language family split and went into eight different directions. (Families had their problems even then.) Among the branches were the Celtic (now represented by Welsh and Irish); Hellenic (Greek); Italic (Latin and its children, French, Spanish, Portuguese); and Germanic (including German, Dutch—and English). These groups split and split again as words were lengthened, shortened, coined, swapped and dropped. The following words show evidence of the relationship of the Indo-European languages: English mother, German mutter, Swedish moder, Latin mater, Spanish madre, French mère; English brother, Dutch breeder, German bruder, Greek phrater, Sanskrit bhrater, Latin frater, Irish braither. After a few more splits and splices, English began as an offshoot of the Germanic branch of the family. Specifically, it

developed from Low German, named for the lowlands of the northern German areas where it began. English as we know it has a short history compared to other languages. It is only 1500 years old. The development of English is divided into three periods:

- (i) Old English: AD 450–1150
- (ii) Middle English: AD 1150–1500
- (iii) Modern English: AD 1500–present

(i) OLD ENGLISH: AD 450–1150

About AD 450 several Germanic tribes (the Angles, Saxons and Jutes) began to invade and conquer the island of Britain. Eventually these tribes occupied all of present-day England. These newcomers brought with them many closely related dialects (called Anglo-Saxon), out of which Old English developed. Old English also borrowed some words from Latin—the language of the Romans who invaded Britain around AD 43.

These were the foundations for today’s modern English. The vocabulary of Old English was small. Approximately 85 percent of it is no longer in use. Most of the Old English vocabulary was replaced by French and Latin words. However, Old English was flexible and combined old words easily to form new ones. It was rich in prefixes and suffixes, so that old words could be changed for new ones.

Some words from everyday life are the same as they were in Old English—cap, land, mat, meat, eat, fight, sleep, work, live, child, foot, house. Some religious words were borrowed from Latin when Christianity was introduced in AD 597 —abbot, altar, candle, martyr, relic.

Old English was also influenced by a 26-year Danish reign (1014–1040). Later the Angles, Saxons and Danes in England unified. From Old Norse spoken by the Danes, the English language acquired many sk words: sky, bask, skirt, skill. Some Old Norse words drove English words out of the language. If the Old English word for “sky” had prevailed, today we would be saying, “Look at all of stars in the welkin.”

The Arab conquest of Spain in the eighth century brought many Arabic words into the European languages, including English. They were related mostly to science and math—such words as alchemy, alkali,

elixir, zenith, algebra and zero. Some can be recognized by the definite article *al* (*the*) at the beginning of the English form.

(ii) MIDDLE ENGLISH: AD 1150–1500

Middle English developed from Old English, with heavy borrowing from French. There was also some borrowing from Latin. Sometimes three words of different origins meant almost the same thing: *ask* (from Old English); *question* (from French); and *interrogate* (from Latin). Middle English was the earliest form of the language that was clearly English.

Modern-day English speakers can read Middle English texts without too much difficulty—for example, Geoffrey Chaucer’s *Canterbury Tales*. Middle English was not yet an individual language, but a group of dialects not yet standardized.

However, due to the Norman conquest in 1066, Middle English was not the primary language in England. The French language dominated England until the beginning of the Renaissance, around 1400.

About ten thousand loanwords entered the language in the Middle English period. Loanwords are words borrowed from other languages. *Justice* is a loanword from French that has become part of the English language. About 75 percent of the French loanwords from the Norman conquest are still used in some form today. In the Middle English period, French became the language of the court and the upper classes. Although the common people and middle classes still spoke English, French changed almost every aspect of the English vocabulary, and more of the Old English elements dropped out of the language. Some French loanwords include:

TOPIC	BORROWED WORDS
Government	realm, royal, govern, mayor
Social rank	prince, duchess, baron, peasant
Law	justice, suit, jury, pardon
Religion	saint, mercy, charity, preach
Defense	war, peace, battle, lieutenant
Wearing apparel	costume, robe, cape, lace, jewel
Food	beef, gravy, cream, peach, jelly, vinegar, spice, mince, roast

French influence greatly simplified the English vocabulary by changing the forms of many verbs. Old English had a lot of “strong verbs” such as sing, sang, sung. The French changed many verbs to “weak verbs” with -ed endings, such as talk, talked. Some modern-day verbs have retained their strong forms, such as drink, drank, drunk; swim, swam, swum. When English and French words were both used, their meanings gradually changed. Today we have the following words that were originally the same in meaning.

ENGLISH	FRENCH
Doom	Judgment
Heart	Cordial
Sheep	Mutton
Calf	Veal
House	Mansion
Swine	Pork
Ask	Demand

Even after the year 1200 when France lost its power in England, French remained the dominant language. In the Middle Ages, Latin was the language of universities, law and official documents. Many words came into English directly from Latin, such as adjacent, genius, index, inferior, intellect, lucrative, limbo, minor, and necessary. Greek words came in through Latin and French, many as technical terms introduced by educated people: scepter, theology, schism, heresy.

Over time, a growth of national pride led to a reclaiming of the English language. Around the fourteenth century, English again became the language of the upper class (nobility), the law courts and the schools. Although English was well established during this period, many felt that Latin should be restored as the language of learning. They said English was gross. (Thus, gross was not a word created by modern teenagers.) However, these arguments were drowned out by the public demand for English translations of foreign books and articles. Toward the end of the fourteenth century the invention of the printing press sped the emergence of a standard written language. The Standard English in the sixteenth century was based largely on the dialect of the populous district of the East Midlands. Oxford, Cambridge, Westminster and

London were located there. This was the language of Chaucer's tales. Gradually the language developed into Modern English.

(iii) MODERN ENGLISH: AD 1500 TO THE PRESENT

The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries added thousands of new words to the language, most of them from Latin. Modern English probably owes more of its vocabulary to Latin than to any other language. English also borrowed from Greek, either directly or via Latin. French, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish also contributed. Early dictionaries appeared during this time. You may have heard the phrase "Neither a borrower nor a lender be." If we followed that principle strictly, the English language would be very different from what it is today.

Modern English developed rapidly as a result of the Renaissance. The theater, printed materials, education, booming business and social awareness created a stimulating setting for the language. As English developed, its pronunciation changed so that it became more like we hear it today. It continued to borrow heavily from other languages to meet the demands for words to describe new activities and new knowledge. New words entered the language at a rapid rate as England traded with the Low Countries and with northern Germany, especially in wool. Dutch, Flemish and Low German words entered the language: yacht, schooner, sloop, cruise, skipper, mate, swab, deck, freight, smuggle and dollar.

Measles, pickle, plump, poppycock, slurp, snoop and sputter were added. As the British Empire expanded in the eighteenth century, so did its vocabulary. From the American Indians were borrowed the words caribou, hominy and moose. From Spain came chocolate, for which we are all grateful. Great Britain built a vast empire in North America, India and Australia, thus expanding English throughout the world. Hindi, a language of India, contributed jungle and thug. Australia gave us boomerang, a word that comes and goes. American English advanced new words to fill the needs of colonial life, such as bullfrog, sidewalk, cent (coined by Thomas Jefferson around 1785).

The earlier creativity of the Renaissance began to give way to the need for order. People wanted an organized system that would conform to a standard. Attempts to standardize the language resulted in style manuals, grammar books and Dr. Samuel Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language (1755).

From the Industrial Revolution to the advancing technology of today, English-speaking people have created new words to meet their ever-changing needs. Words such as manufacturing, automobile, telephone, computer, television, relativity, evolution, automation, stethoscope, psychoanalysis, countdown, astronaut, caller ID and global warming reflect the energy and dynamic growth of the English language.

(iv) English Today

Of all European languages, English has the simplest grammar. It is an analytic language, which means that it shows the relationship of words by their positions in a sentence, and by the use of prepositions. In English, a noun is usually followed by a verb, then a direct object. These words are linked by modifiers such as adjectives and prepositional phrases, most of the time. For all of its assets, English has two serious problems. First, it is full of idioms. Idioms are expressions that vary from the grammar rules or from the usual dictionary meaning. They are unexpected word detours that make no sense unless you know what they mean. A snap is an easy task; to get the brush off is to be ignored or dismissed; and to get cold feet is to lose confidence.

Additionally, English spelling is a mess! We represent the same sound in several different ways. Note how the /sh/ sound is represented in sugar, tension, tissue, fission, motion, ocean, suspicion, nauseous, conscious and shin.

English-speaking students struggle to speak and write correctly, and those who learn English as a second language find the task very difficult indeed. For all of its simple construction and its wide range of vocabulary, English is perhaps too complicated ever to be adopted as a world language.

2.8 What is in a dictionary?

A reference book containing a selection of words usually listed in alphabetical order, with information about their meanings, pronunciations, and histories.

If you plan to learn new words, you will want to become friends with your dictionary. It is the most useful word book you can own. It tells you what a word means and how many different meanings it has. You can check spelling, pronunciation and parts of speech. You will learn where to break (hyphenate) a word when you have too little right margin to complete the word on the same line. It tells you what words are

capitalized, how they are used, their histories and what other words have the same meanings (synonyms) or opposite meanings (antonyms). Depending on the size (and weight) of your dictionary, it may tell you much more.

2.7.1 History or Etymology

The etymology or history of a word tells us where and how the word originated and how it developed. Most dictionaries provide this information in a very brief form, either near the beginning or at the end of the entry. The etymology traces a word as far back as possible. It tells you from what language, and in what form, a word came into English; and it even traces the pre-English source as far back as possible.

The English language comes from a language spoken thousands of years ago in north-central Europe called Indo-European. It was a combination of many dialects that had spread over Europe and parts of India.

Different dictionaries may use different abbreviations to indicate a word's origin. In the front of your dictionary you will find a list of abbreviations that tells you what the word origin abbreviations stand for. Here are some examples from Funk and Wagnall's Standard Dictionary.

label [<OF, a ribbon, ?< OHG lappa, a rag]

This means that the modern word label comes from (<) the Old French word label, meaning “ribbon,” and that the Old

French word perhaps came from the Old High German word lappa, meaning “rag.”

alcohol [Med.L, orig., fine powder <Arabic al-hoh'l the powdered antimony]

The modern word alcohol comes from the Medieval Latin word for a “fine powder,” derived from the Arabic al-hoh'l, “the powdered antimony” (a metallic element). **hassle** [?, hagggle+tussle] The question mark means that perhaps—no one is sure—hassle is derived from a blending of hagggle and tussle.

2.8 Standard English

This is English language at its best and most formal. Standard English is the least offensive and most accepted form of spoken and written communication in our culture. It includes proper grammar (no “ain'ts” allowed), clear diction and correct usage. Most TV and radio newscasts are delivered in Standard English. Business letters and reports, speeches,

magazines and textbooks are good examples. Standard English is a clear, descriptive language, with minimal slang or jargon. If you want to succeed in the United States you will have a much better chance if you master Standard English. Using substandard speech, including double negatives such as “I don’t have no time,” usually identifies the speaker as less educated and of a lower social standing than speakers who use English correctly.

The following description, by Robert Bone, of the island of Oahu in Hawaii, appears in his book *The Maverick Guide to Hawaii*. It is an example of Standard English. The gently sloping area between the Waianaes and the Koolaus traditionally has served as a wide agricultural belt, mostly composed of sugar and pineapple plantations. These green areas are still there, although there are examples of intruding urbanization now cutting into the fields.

The shape of Oahu is so irregular, and its routes of commerce so winding, that standard compass directions are seldom used. Instead, today’s population has maintained the ancient Hawaiian system of direction finding. There is mauka for inland or toward the mountains, and makai for toward the sea. Otherwise, the directions are indicated by naming known landmarks that lie farther along the same general path.

Everyone should know the guidelines for Standard English and should be able to use them effectively. You need them regularly when you present information to co-workers or management, write business documents, sell products, or talk with your superiors.

Remember that Standard English changes. Today it differs greatly from Shakespeare’s English. If you were to speak

Shakespearean English today, you would be considered weird—and probably unemployable.

One key element of speaking Standard English is pronouncing words correctly. Some people speak as though they had rented lips. Correct pronunciation means not only saying words properly, but also speaking your words clearly. If you speak correctly but sound as if you have a mouthful of raw broccoli, you are defeating your efforts.

2.8.1 Accents

Learners should not worry about accents. They are interesting and most people listen better to speakers with accents. However, if your accent is very strong, consider an accent-reduction class. If you cannot be

understood when you speak, then Standard English will not matter anyway.

Sometimes self-consciousness about accents causes people to speak softly; so the listener must contend with both volume and accent. Try to speak loudly enough to be heard without straining. Speak at a moderate rate of speed, with energy in your voice.

When you do not understand someone because of an accent, stop him or her and ask politely if they will please repeat what they said. It is better that either of you be a bit embarrassed, than for you to misunderstand his or her meaning. And yes, if you still do not understand after a second attempt, ask a third time, even more politely.

Now that you have become familiar with Standard English, let's look at the outlaw elements of our language that are not so predictable. Idioms, jargon and slang add interest and complexity to English. These words and phrases make our language unique.

2.8.2 Idioms

In English, we hear and use idioms often. Whenever you hear a phrase whose meaning you cannot understand, even if you know the meaning of each separate word, you have probably run into an idiom. Examples of idioms include: run into (encounter; meet); fly off the handle (become angry). We cannot ignore idioms because the English language contains thousands of them. Instead we should learn to understand them and use them easily.

Idioms, along with slang, are considered part of everyday informal speech that is understood by most Americans, regardless of their education. Twenty of the most common idioms and their definitions are listed below. Below is the most common types of idioms in English:

Idiom	Definition
Tighten your belt	Economize , spend less money
On pins and needles	Nervous or excited
An arm and a leg	A large amount of money
In a pinch	When nothing else is available
Nest egg	Money set aside or saved
Face up to	Accept something unpleasant or difficult
One for the books	Something unusual or unexpected
A drop in the bucket	A small amount
Bring home the bacon	Earn the family income
Under the weather	Not feeling well
Pitch in	Help
Eager beaver	Ambitious, hard worker
Well-heeled	Rich
Out of the blue	Unexpectedly
Shape up	Start to act or look right
In seventh heaven	Very happy
Means business	Is very serious about something
Keep your fingers crossed	Wish for good luck
Jump the gun	Start too soon
The cream of the cop	The best

2.8.3 Jargon

Jargon, also called shoptalk, is the specialized vocabulary within a profession. Workers in various occupations use words familiar to themselves but meaningless to anyone else. Jargon has value because it unites people in their professions by allowing them to share a common vocabulary. It creates a feeling of uniqueness and provides a sense of protection from the outside world. Newcomers must “break the code” and learn the jargon before they are accepted into the group. Following are examples of jargon from different professions.

JARGON	TRANSLATION
LAW	
Lien	Property held as security against debt
Perjury	Lying under oath
Deposition	Testimony taken down in writing under oath
Embezzle	To steal money entrusted to your care
Larceny	Theft
COMPUTERS	
Binary	number system on which computer operations are based, using only the numbers 0 and 1
Chip	small modules of silicon that are the building blocks of computers
Database	a collection of information manipulated by the computer
Hard disk	a permanent, rigid computer storage medium
Modem	a device that allows computers to communicate with each other
BUSINESS	
bottom line	final figures on a profit-and-loss statement
CEO	chief executive officer (top dog)
ROI	return on investment; what you get back for what you put in
Downsizing	reducing employees and inventory in an organization in order to reduce cost
Nonexempt	employees who are paid by the hour

2.8.4 Slang

Slang does not fill a void in our vocabulary, in fact, it often provides new terms even where none are needed. Slang is not a part of standard speech. It is entertainment, another way to say something, a shortcut to the mind. In any language slang is a proving ground for new words. New words are not brought by the stork. Rather, they enter a language because they are useful and expressive. “In-groups” and their code words merge with regular vocabulary, and over time, slang finds its way into our dictionaries. Slang can be the select speech of groups who wish to be different. Although slang creates group identity, it is not necessarily job related. Slang is a badge of membership among such

groups as teenagers, Hell's Angels, and jazz musicians, to name a few. Only those who belong to the group can make sense of its particular slang.

Much slang consists of clever or insulting nicknames for types of people: nerds, wimps, dweebs. Social taboos are targets for slang as well: barf, cow chips, blimp out. Slang is a part of all cultures. Most slang lasts only a few years, then disappears. However, some imaginative words that begin as slang eventually become respectable words in the language, such as joke, fad, boom, crank, slump. Probably 35,000 expressions have come and gone in American slang. Slang is as much a part of America as blue jeans and the local mall.

Should you use slang? By all means, yes. In fact, you would have a hard time avoiding it. As an experiment, hold a conversation with a friend and avoid all idioms (see previous section) and slang. It's the pits to converse without using slang. With your friends, at parties, and in casual conversations, slang adds color and energy to your communications. Be careful not to overuse it, however, and select your words carefully. Some slang is totally gross. Some is overused and boring. And sometimes we use slang as a poor substitute for deeper thinking. Nothing dates us faster than old slang. At various times, mercy, pshaw, heavy and movie were "in" slang.

Use slang on the job carefully. When you start a new job, listen more than you talk for the first few weeks. How much slang do co-workers use and what kind is it? Then "go native" and begin using their words, at least the ones you are comfortable with. You will find yourself fitting in faster and more easily when you take your cue from others.

Slang	Definition	Sentence
Crash and burn	To fail miserably at something	I crashed and burned at my accounting exam
Dude	A male friend, a guy	Hey dude. What's happenin'?
Flake out	Back out of, fall asleep	He flaked out of the meeting
Jock	An athlete	All of the jocks live in one dorm
Jazzed	Alert, excited, positive	Zena is jazzed about her vacation.
Schmooze	Chat or gossip	Lets schmooze during coffee break
Chill out	Calm down, be quiet	Everyone chill out so can discuss the problem rationally
Burbs	suburbs	Hallie commutes 40 miles from the burbs every day Ryan tried to catch some zs before exam
Catch some zs	Sleep	
El cheapo	The last expensive one	My second car is an el cheapo
Rad	Great, wonderful	What a rad suit
Steamed	Angry	Harry was steamed at his insurance company
Hit the bricks	Start walking	Agree to our demands we hit the bricks
Freak (out)	Shocked or disoriented	Everyone freaked when the earthquake hit
Freebie	Something given for free	The ski tickets were freebies from the manager
Maxed out	Exhausted; tired	Felix has been working too hard and he is maxed out
Shades	Dark glasses	I need my shades. The sun is too bright
Gofer	Someone who goes for things and brings them back, an underling	Harry was hired as a gofer to pick up documents from the headquarters

Nuts	Crazy	The noisy fan is driving me nuts
Quick fix	A fast, though temporary solution	We did a quick-fix on the circuit board assembler

2.8.4 Vocabulary for Fun

Vocabulary study should be fun. You can think of the English language either as a gallery of linguistic horrors or as a playground for the curious mind. If you enjoy the antics of semantics, this section provides a variety of odd words, puzzles, and games to increase your enthusiasm. The following poem by Richard Lederer, from his book *Crazy English*, is a good example of the curiosity of our language. He shows how verb tenses can make us tense.

The verbs in English are a fright.
How can we learn to read and write?
Today we speak, but first we spoke;
Some faucets leak, but never loke.
Today we write, but first we wrote;
We bite our tongues, but never bote.
Each day I teach, for years I taught,
And preachers preach, but never praught.
This tale I tell; this tale I told;
I smell the flowers, but never smold.
If knights still slay, as once they slew,
Then do we play, as once we plew?
If I still do as once I did,
Then do cows moo, as they once mid? ...
About these verbs I sit and think.
These verbs don't fit. They seem to wink
At me, who sat for years and thought
Of verbs that never fat or wought.

2.9 Controlling our Destiny

Primitive humans believed that if they knew the name of an object they could control it. Although we know that is not true, we do know that to possess a useful vocabulary is to control our own destiny. We relate to others with words. We express our thoughts and emotions with words.

We convince, amuse and build trust with words. Words, and the way we use them, show age, income, where we grew up and how much we know. Words are tools. Imagine trying to pound a nail into a fence without a hammer. Imagine asking for a raise with a second-grade vocabulary. The right words give us control of our lives.

We live in a world of words. School textbooks and lectures expose us to hundreds of new words. Entering the business world forces us constantly to absorb new vocabulary and special terms (jargon). Job changes, even from one department to another, require that you learn more new words. Today, a limited vocabulary equals a limited chance for success. Most people stop learning and using new words by the age of twenty-five. However, successful people have a common trait. They have an in-depth knowledge of word meanings. They know how to use words correctly, and they continue to learn new words throughout their lives.

2.9.1 Never be a Word Wimp

Word wimps stick to the words they know. They play it safe for fear of sounding foolish or risking ridicule by trying new words. Here's good news. **YOU DON'T NEED A BIG VOCABULARY!** You need the right vocabulary. You can speak and write powerfully by using small words effectively. Albert Einstein used very simple language to express even the most complex ideas.

Are you a word wimp? If you answer “yes” to any of the following, this book can help you overcome your distrust of

Unfamiliar words and learn to use them to your advantage.

Do you avoid?

- Big words
- People with big vocabularies
- Newspapers, magazines and books
- Writing memos and reports
- Dictionaries
- Public speaking
- Thinking about your vocabulary

First you must believe that you can learn new words. Then you must want to improve. You need goals, desire, interest and a little time. Let this book be your guide. Improving your vocabulary may be easier than you think.

Actually, most of the 20,000 words that we recognize and use come from hearing or reading them in context. Context is the surrounding words in a sentence that provide clues to meaning. We absorb most words without conscious effort. Therefore, the easiest way to a better vocabulary is to read a great deal and participate in a lot of good talk.

2.10 Measuring Productive Vocabulary

Measuring the productive vocabulary that learners possess poses methodological problems for the investigator in how best to capture this quality. The problem is not so much how to devise a test, but how to choose from the many approaches that researchers have used. A single, definitive method of measuring this quality of knowledge has yet to emerge. This chapter will examine various approaches to quantifying this kind of knowledge via:

- . **translation and elicitation methods;**
- . **statistical analysis of free production in speech or writing;**
- . **association test;**
- . **measures of automaticity.**

What emerges is that productive vocabulary knowledge is generally less than receptive; estimates usually suggest that it is generally of the order of 50_80% of receptive knowledge. The scale of this knowledge seems to be sensitive to teaching and the learners' foreign language experience; if learners learn and practice vocabulary use productively then a higher proportion of their vocabulary will be both receptive and productive. And there may be an effect on vocabulary size; it is harder to use infrequent words, only encountered occasionally, in production.

There is a general assumption that a learner's passive or receptive vocabulary knowledge will be different from his or her active or productive vocabulary knowledge. The number of words a learner can recognize in the context of speech or writing is likely to be different from the number of words the same learner can call to mind and use. As far back as 1921, Palmer (1921) was discussing exactly this division of knowledge and Dolch (1927) takes up the point in discussing the validity of vocabulary tests that concentrate solely on passive word recognition. As Waring (1997) points out, it is not immediately obvious why a learner's knowledge should vary in this way, but there are factors outside a learner's knowledge that might be at play. In making assessments of passive knowledge, it seems reasonable to assume that

the listener or reader of a text can often call on a variety of contextual and other information to reach meaning. However, in production, and speaking especially, when the learner is under pressure of time for communication, these cues will be missing and the learner will have to rely on the fewer words they have accessible in memory. This is not something that is restricted to foreign language learners. Even native speakers will know the phenomenon where you know that you know a word, but you cannot call it to mind at the precise moment you need it. And when someone else supplies the word, you know it is the one you wanted. In the opening chapter of this book, I drew attention to Nation's summary of what it means to know a word, and he separates every category of his chart into receptive and productive knowledge to codify this disparity in knowledge and skill. To language teachers and learners, this seems like an obvious and very clear distinction. But, in developing ways to measure this kind of knowledge, it has proved rather harder to produce a convincing characterization of this quality of knowledge, still less operationalise it so it can be successfully measured. Even the binary distinction of receptive and productive knowledge has been questioned and has been characterized as a continuum of knowledge (Meara, 1990).

2.10.1 Measuring Productive Vocabulary Using Translation and Elicitation

Translation and forced answer measures, such as gap-fill exercises, have the great virtue that the test designer can control, at least to some degree, the language that the subject will produce. It is possible; therefore, to take a controlled sample of the words a learner can produce from which to estimate the breadth of overall knowledge. Some of these methods have a very long history. The use of translation as a measure of productive knowledge extends far back into the last century. There are some real advantages to this form of measurement. Translation tests are relatively quick and easy to construct, for example, a list of words in the first language (L1) can be given to the learner who has to provide a foreign language equivalent. If the foreign language words in the test are selected from the same source as words for receptive testing, you have scores that are directly comparable (as in Burns, 1951). It is also quick and easy to mark since, where words have a direct L1 equivalent, there is little room for subjectivity or judgement in recognising the correct

answer, and this should make the test reliable. The use of translation as a teaching or testing tool is not always liked, however, and communicative approaches to language teaching, in particular, favour an approach that uses the foreign language exclusively. In these cases, vocabulary test writers have to find a way of eliciting the words they are interested in from the language learners.

C-test, or gap-fill tests are one way of doing this. Laufer and Nation (1995) construct a productive version of Nation's (1990) receptive vocabulary placement test and the structure of both tests draws test words from across a range of frequency bands. As with equivalently constructed translation tests, this has the advantage that receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge scores can be directly compared. The testing procedure presents the learner with a series of sentences, each with a missing word, which must be completed. Waring (1997) gives the examples the figure below:

They always seem to ag_____ about what to do at the weekend. Scientists are worried about the amount of co_____ in our food nowadays. He's not a very bright child, he'd about av_____.

The test words are primed with the first two letters to precipitate exactly the word for testing rather than an alternative, which might make sense to the learner but provides less information to the tester. As with the receptive version of the placement test, there is the potential for difficulty in testing, in that even though a single word is produced, knowledge of a wider range of words is required for success. Confusion or ignorance about the other words in the test may cause learners to misrepresent their knowledge. All the words are controlled for frequency level, therefore, in order to minimise this effect, but this does imply that a minimum level of knowledge is required before this form of measurement can be used and it would very likely give misleading information about elementary-level learners.

What can these tests tell us about the relationship between a learner's receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge? Eyckmans et al. (2007) use a translation method as a check on the receptive Yes/No vocabulary

size tests she investigates, in order to see how well these tests perform. They use the differences in scores between recognition and translation tests to question whether the results of recognition tests can always be reliable and note that learners may be able to translate only 50% of the words they claim to recognise (Eyckmans et al., 2007: 74). Normally, differences in receptive and productive knowledge can be at least partially explained by the differences of context. However, in singleword translation tests, the test removes words from context. Contextual factors cannot explain the difference between recognition and translation test scores. Nonetheless, it is a feature of tests of productive vocabulary knowledge that the figures that emerge are smaller than the figures for receptive knowledge.

If the effect of context cannot explain these differences, does this mean that vocabulary measurements are inherently unreliable or are there other factors at play? As Nation's table (Table 1.2) implies, one answer is that receptive and productive tests, including translation tests, will measure different kinds of knowledge. Passive receptive Yes/No tests require the learners to access only their second language (L2) orthographic or phonological receptive lexicons (possibly both if they subvocalise before arriving at a decision as to whether a written word exists). Learners only have to try to recognize a word in some form. By contrast, a productive test requires the learner to access the L2 productive lexicon and possibly also the L1 lexicon, via semantic, collocational, orthographic or phonological routes, or some combination of these. Learners may have to start with their L1 word and then search for the L2 equivalent that carries the right shade of meaning. They will have to make choices as to the correct form and not just spelling or pronunciation, and also whether it needs to be inflected. Additionally, the learner has to check whether the word selected will fit with the other words being used, for example, has the right combination of words been chosen in a collocation. Production seems to be a much more complex task than the receptive recognition of single words in isolation.

2.11 Previous Studies

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

Study (1) by: Muawia Mohammed Alhasan Gaily , (2001) .

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

The study investigated how programmed pedagogical sessions could lead to promoting The participants performance of the four target speech acts apology , request , compliant and refusal .

A group of 20 Male Sudanese university learner's studying at different five Sudanese universities participated in this study . Data were collected via two kinds of tools : Discourse completion Test and Multiple choice pragmatic comprehension test , which they were used both as pre – test and post . The results obtained revealed noticeable development in the participant's performance of the target four speech acts in the post test

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

The study carried out to investigate the effectiveness of implementing semantic mapping as strategy for improving student's reading comprehension also to find out whether the level of reading comprehension ability can be measured through semantic mapping and then to investigated whether semantic mapping strategy helps learners derive meaning of the new words from the context. The study main findings were:

- a. Comprehension passages were understandable if the text was organized according to semantic mapping.
- b. Semantic mapping comprehension passage facilitates understanding new lexical items.
- c. There is strong relationship between the text the reader if the text organized semantically.
- d. The material semantically designed enhances the student's reading skills.

The study main recommendations were:

- a. Texts of reading comprehension should be organized according to
- b. Material should be well organized semantically to encourage the student's reading comprehension skill.
- c. Teacher should encourage their student's to read through semantic mapping to facilitate reading process.
- d. Semantic mapping should be included during instructional design.

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

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

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

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

The results of the data analysis reveal that: (1) There were significant differences between the three different proficiency levels in

the semantic mapping accuracy of English verbs and the number of significant differences varied from word to word and from category to category; (2) as proficiency level increased, L2 learners knew significantly more semantic features.

The findings study suggested that: (1) L2 vocabulary acquisition involves a continuous process of semantic restructuring; (2) The intensity of the restructuring process varies from word to word and from one semantic mapping category to another; (3) The restructuring process tends to result in more refined semantic contents tends to be slow; (4) despite the semantic restructuring process, L2 word meanings are both under-represented and over-represented even at the advanced level; and (5) The under-representation and over-representation of word meanings result from a number difference sources, based on the results of the study a model of representation of L2 word meaning and the paths of possible semantic restructuring is proposed.

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

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

The study to investigated the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction via using semantic mapping against the established traditional vocabulary teaching techniques in Saudi Arabia, the purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of semantic mapping as instructional strategy for teaching vocabulary items to EFL learners at Alimam Mohammed Ibin Saud of the strategy on EFL students achievement of lexical items the sample of the study consisted of 50

male students enrolled in two sections, which were randomly selected from four sections and randomly assigned to both experimental and control group. Therefore aqua-experimental mode of inquiry was chosen internationally but its assignment on the groups was carried out randomly. The experimental group studied the lexical items via semantic mapping strategy, and the control group studied them in the traditional method. Vocabulary pre- test was given to both groups at the equivalent and homogenous. At the end of the experiment the same test was given to the experimental and control groups to investigate the effect of semantic mapping strategy on EFL student's achievement of lexical items. The researcher reached some recommended as follow:

- a. Teachers are advised to be committed to teaching new lexical items by preparing additional challenging and motivating vocabulary activities based on semantic mapping strategy.
- b. Teachers are advised to be eclectic in teaching new vocabulary by choosing the most appropriate strategy they should vary their strategies according to the difficulty of the word and the level of the class they can sometimes combine more than one strategy according to the nature of the new word.
- c. Teachers are encouraged to focus on international as well as accidental vocabulary learning.
- d. It is recommended that teachers avoid translation as much as possible in teaching new lexical items.
- e. It is worthwhile to replicate the study in another area in Saudi Arabia and to test the effectiveness of semantic mapping strategy on other EFL learner's levels as well as the student's attitudes towards such a strategy.
- f. Carried out further research concerning the effect of semantic mapping on other language skills such as writing and reading skills.

Study (5) by: Cargi Tugrul Mort 2012 ' Developing speaking skills through reading ' .

The study investigated the relationship between reading and speaking skills . The study focused on how printed words relat to

spoken . this study highlights vocabulary and grammar knowledge among these elements . The study came out with following : reading and vocabulary knowledge are two essential factors of foreigner language learning , and they influence learner's speaking performance .

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

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

designers, learning vocabulary through semantic mapping strategy would be more enjoyable and meaningful for the learners.

-The findings may encourage teachers who still believe in teaches

- Centeredness in language teaching to change their view points in favor of more learner-centered approaches. Syllabus designers to semantic maps in to the materials they develop the way they can introduce a lot of new words in a map and improve both memory and comprehension of the words.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

was a significant difference between the vocabulary mastery of the students who were taught by using semantic mapping strategy and that of those who were not.

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

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

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

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology of the study. It presents a brief description of what has been done by researcher about methodology. It describes the study methodology. Population of the study, instruments, validity and reliability.

3.1 The Study Methodology

The current research adopted a mixed method approach: the descriptive analytical and experimental method. This allows the research tools to match each other. Hence, an experiment questionnaires, and class observations were used to address the research questions and objectives.

The (SPSS) program was used for data analysis.

3.2 Study Population and Sample

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

3.2.1 The Test

The test is conducted to first year university students at college of languages, Sudan university of science and technology. The test used was a vocabulary test which included three parts: Part one was reading

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

The second part of the test was formed in a way as to focus on sentence construction .The third part was simply a translation test. A short passage was given to the students in English and were asked to render it into Arabic

3.2.2 Questionnaire sample

The samples of this study included English language teachers at Sudan university of science and technology . There are as many as 60 copies have distributed and only 50 were secured.

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

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

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

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

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

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

SEX	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
MALE	20	40.0%
FEMALE	30	60.0%
TOTAL	100	100%

3.3 Research instruments

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

3.3.1 The Test

The test is diagnostic one, the students were asked to response to the given questions. The questions are divided into three parts to cover the items required.

3.3.2 Teachers' Questionnaire

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

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

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

3.3.3 Validity and Reliability of the test

As long as they are aimed at assessing the students' achievement in reading comprehension, tests are always held to be content valid. The tasks required in the tests were comparable to those covered in the syllabus adopted at the university for general English and practiced in class. In addition, the test instructions were written clearly in English, and

the examinee's task required was defined. Furthermore, the tests were validated by a group of experts who suggested some valuable remarks including adding some challenging questions while deleting others that looked rather repetitive or a bit difficult to measure. The researcher took these suggestions into account when redesigning the tests. For the test reliability the study used the test-retest method: The test-retest method of estimating a test's reliability involves administering the test to the same group of people at least twice. Then the first set of scores is correlated with the second set of scores.

3.3.4 Validity of the questionnaire

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

- (i) The clarity of the items and instruction.
- (ii) The simplicity of items, and how far they related to the subject.
- (iii) The language used.

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

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter concerns with the methodology ,procedures, mapping out the blue print of the study methodology, conducting the stability and validity of the study to confirm its validity, the description of the population and sample of the study , and the methods of statistical processing with which it examines data analysis and test the study hypotheses as follows :-

4.1 Methodology of the Study.

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

The Questionnaire divided into two parts:-

- 1- The first part:- contains the data of the research sample members in particular, which is the descriptive personal information of research sample as follows:-
 - 1- Highest degree earned
 - 2- Numbers of years in teaching English
- 2- The second part:- the prime study items which is the axis through it we will have clear idea of the study hypotheses, this part included 3rd axis with rate of (6) items for the first axis, (3) items for the second section, and (6) items for the third section measuring the study hypotheses
- 3- Asinter-alia:-
 - 1- The first section, it has been measured by (6) items.
 - 2-The second section, it has been measured by (3) items.
 - 3-The third section, it has measured (6) items.
- 1- Study measurement.

The possibility inquiry rate was measured against the paragraphs, based on graded five fold in accordance with the Liker scale measurement distributed on the weight of the response of sample

members, that graded from the highest weight which is (5) represented in field (highly agree) leaning toward the lowest weight which is (1) represented in the field (categorically disagree) leveled with three weight in between. Purposely, so as to give the sample members a free hand to select the accurate answer as illustrated here in after; table (1)

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

Consequentially, hypothetical mean of the study could be explained as:

The overall grade of the measurement is the grand total of the sample for the items $(1+2+3+4+5)/5=(5/15)=3$ this represent the hypothetical mean of the study, consequentially, if the average sample increases compare to the hypothetical mean (3) this indicate the compatibility of the sample members to the item.

2- The description of society and study sample.

(A) Study society.

The study society composed of (30) the volume of the sample is (30)

(B)The characteristics of study sample.

The researcher allocated A sample from a society to acquire the required data.

The researcher distributed (31) questionnaires to the target group (30) were retrieved one questionnaire was impaired as follow

3- Evaluation of Methods' Study.

Trueness and validity method of measurement mean the ability of the method in measuring what it had been designed for, and based on the theory the accurate measurement indicate means the absolute validity and the avoidance of the method of the measurement mistakes whether random or systematic. On Initial stage, the study considered stability and trueness method in evaluating the suitability of applied measurements on measuring study items by eliminating inartificial items from the study measurements and verifying the validity of items employed to measure a particular conception compatible strictly against the conception.

Here in after the researcher displays the measurements analysis results which used in the study.

1- Trueness Substance Measurement Test.

The initial formula of study measurement had been presented to a panel of arbitrators and specialized experts of about (30). The panel members were requested to declare their opinions on the method of the study and to what extent the paragraph represent the study hypothesis as well as editing whatever element as long as it serve the ultimate purpose of the study.

After the retrieval of questionnaires from the panel of experts it was analyzed and their observations were put under considerations and the proposed changes implemented, then the final design is accomplished.

2- The compatibility, stability and internal trueness of measurements used in the study.

(A)- The compatibility and stability Test.

Stability mean (stability of the measurement and not contradicting itself, therefore the measurement gives the same results with the possibility equivalent to the value of the modulus if reapplied to the same sample) and eventually will lead to the same results or compatible results whenever reapplied. The more measurement rate increases and the stability of method the more it creates

confidence on it. There is many ways to verify the stability of the measurement one of it a Semi Partition Method, and Alfa Cronbach Method; through it he selects values varied from one to zero, if there is no stability on the data, the value of modulus will equalize zero and vice versa. That means any increase in Alfa Cronbach modulus mean the increase of credibility of the data in contrary to the result of the sample within the society of the study In addition to the fact that the reduction of the value below (%60) indicates the reduction of the internal stability.

Table (4/1) the Modulus's of Alfa Cronbach for testing the Items of the questionnaire.

Section	Number of items	Modulus of alpha cronbach	Validity
Total of items	15	%62	%79

Source: Data of field Study(2017)

4- The statistical techniques.

The following are the techniques currently applied to the study;

The Modulus of Alfa Cronbach for testing the validity and stability of the questionnaire.

- (A) The frequencies and the percentage for the description of the targeted members of the study and determining the percentage of their answers to the items of the questionnaire.
- (B) The statistical descriptive (Arithmetic Mean) so as to organize the answers of the targeted study members for the questionnaire items based on the grade of the agreement and (standard deviation) to know the denotation competence of the arithmetic mean in representing the center of data.
- (C) Chi-square test; for examining the fluctuating range within which the visible frequencies approach or distance itself from the potential frequencies.

Table (4/1)highest degree earned

	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	4	13.3%
Master's Degree	20	66.7%
PhD	6	20%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4/1) showing the distribution of sample members of highest degree earned

1

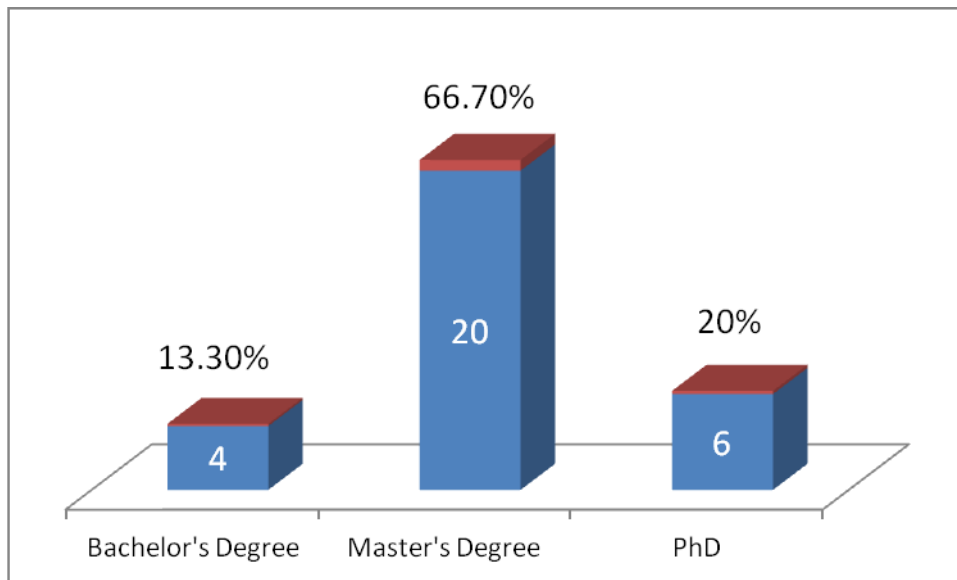
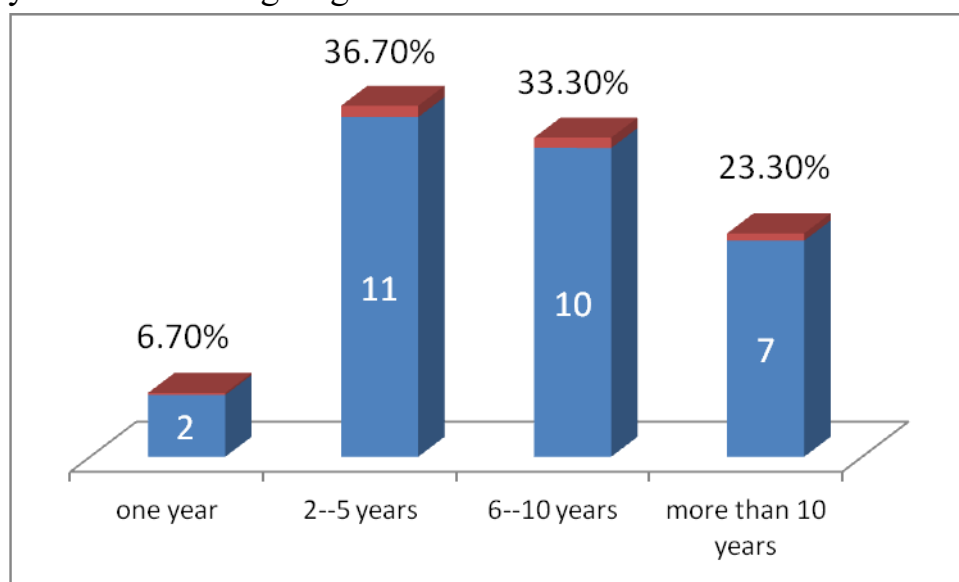


Table (4.1) and figure (4.1) above show that (4) of the study respondents with percentage (13.3%) hold bachelor degree, (20) with percentage (66.7%) hold master degree and (6) of them with percentage (20%) hold PhD. This indicates that most of participants are master degree holders.

Table (4/2) showing the distribution of sample members in years teaching English

Expertise years	Frequency	Percent
one year	2	6.7%
2--5 years	11	36.7%
6--10 years	10	33.3%
more than 10 years	7	23.3%
Total	30	100%

Chart (4/2) showing the distribution of sample members of years have you been teaching English



According to the results of the above table (4.2) and figure (4.1), it is noted that (2) participants with percentage (6.7%) have one year experience, (11) with percentage (36.7%) have experience between 2-5 years, (10) with percentage (33.3%) have experience between 6-10 and (7) of them with percentage (23.3%) have more than 10 years. This means that most of the participants are well experienced.

Table (4/2) percentages and frequencies for the first hypothesis
 The teaching and learning of the vocabulary strategies can help improve
 learners' oral communication.

Statements	Disagree	Neutral	agree	strongly agree	Trend
language learning is thought to profit from explicit presentation of rules and error correction	0	0	21	9	agree
	.0%	.0%	70.0%	30.0%	
A crucial distinction is often made between knowing a word and using it	0	0	21	9	agree
	.0%	.0%	70.0%	30.0%	
For every vocabulary dimensions there is a knowledge dimension and skill dimension	0	1	17	12	agree
	.0%	3.3%	56.7%	40.0%	
There is a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and general reading skills	1	0	21	8	agree
	3.3%	.0%	70.0%	26.7%	
In school Children develop additional word learning strategies	0	0	27	3	agree
	.0%	.0%	90.0%	10.0%	
When Children learn to read , their ability to derive word meanings form context extends from oral to written context	0	0	18	12	agree
	.0%	.0%	60.0%	40.0%	
Total	0.6%	0.6%	69.4%	29.4%	100%

Chart (4/3) showing the distribution of the first hypothesis

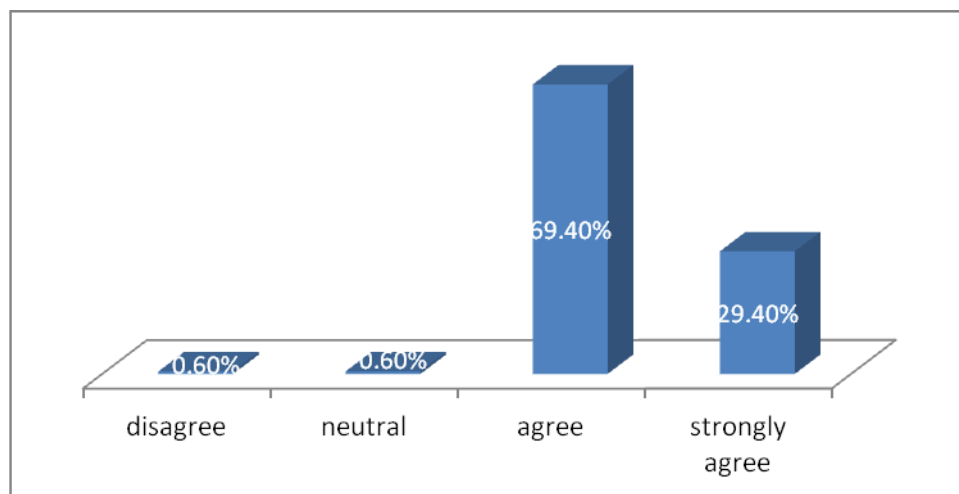


Table (4.2) and figure (4.2) show the descriptive statistics (percentages and frequencies) of the first hypothesis. It is found that (29.4%) of the

participants strongly agree, and (69.4%) of them agree. This indicates that all the respondents agree with the statements of the first hypothesis.

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

Table (4/2) descriptive statistics of the first Hypothesis.

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

Source: Data of field Study

Table (4/2) shows the descriptive statistics (**mean ,standard deviation and mode**) of the first hypothesis items the computational circles around the numbers (4and5) for all the statements and as indicated by the numbers(4), have average and homogeneous standard deviations for all the differences , not exceeding (0,305). According to Likert Scales which were previously explained figures (4&2) mean agree and strongly agree respectively

This confirms that the opinions of sample members of the first hypothesis are the strongly agree or agree and the column called the result shows this.

Table (4/2) Chi-square Test of the first Hypothesis Items

The teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies can help improve learners' oral communication,

Statements	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.	Decision
language learning is thought to profit from explicit presentation of rules and error correction	4.800	1	.028	Acceptance
A crucial distinction is often made between knowing a word and using it	4.800	1	.028	Acceptance
For every vocabulary dimensions there is a knowledge dimension and skill dimension	13.400	2	.001	Acceptance
There is a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and general reading skills	20.600	2	.000	Acceptance
In school Children develop additional word learning strategies	19.200	1	.000	Acceptance
When Children learn to read , their ability to derive word meanings form context extends from oral to written context	1.200	1	.273	Accepted descriptively

Source: Data of field Study

To test the first hypothesis, the researcher used the chi-square Test for the hypothesis. the calculated values Chi-square were between (20.600-1.200) and degrees of freedom (1or2) for all the items and at level of significance less than (0.05) which means that there are statistically significant differences in items hypothesis. The sixth items were categorically rejected (it is accepted descriptively). With reference to above tables of percentage and descriptive statistics and Chi-square test, it can be said that there is a statistically significant relationship in the items of the first hypothesis and this proves the significance of items of the hypothesis.

Table (4/3) percentages and frequencies for the 2nd hypothesis
The right aptitude can govern vocabulary learning success

Statements	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	Trend
Children acquire root word meaning through direct explanations from parents , educators and peers and with in texts	0	1	0	16	13	agree
	.0%	3.3%	.0%	53.3%	43.3%	
Words are stored in network of items linked by shared phonological , morpho - syntactic and semantic properties	1	0	1	23	5	agree
	3.3%	.0%	3.3%	76.7%	16.7%	
Acquiring an extensive vocabulary is one of the largest challenges in learning a second language	0	1	0	25	4	agree
	.0%	3.3%	.0%	83.3%	13.3%	
Total	1.1%	2.2%	1.1%	71.1%	24.4%	100%

Chart (4/4) showing the distribution of the 2nd hypothesis

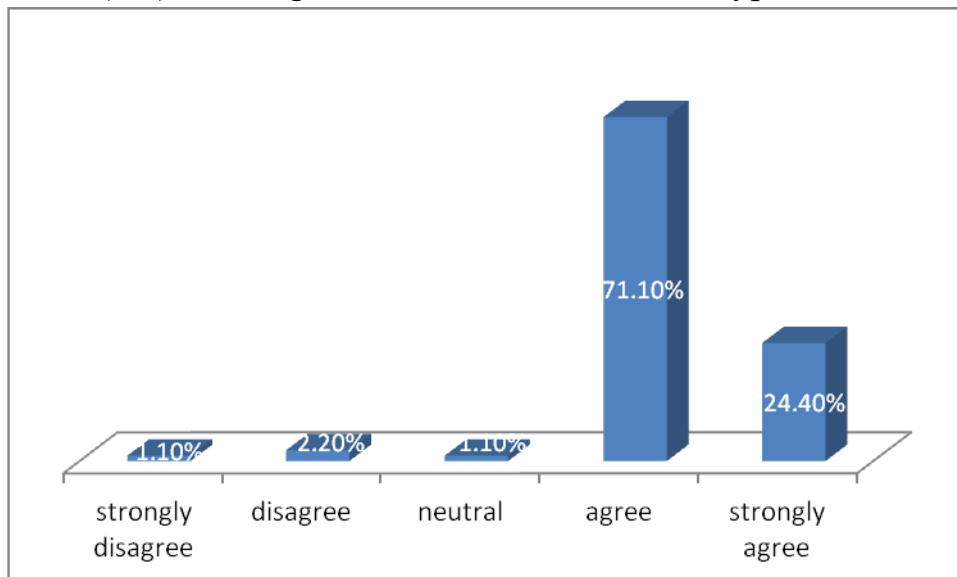


Table (4.3) and figure (4.3) show the descriptive statistics (percentages and frequencies) of the second hypothesis. (24.4%) of the study participants strongly agree and the general percentage who agree

(71.1%), (1.1%) neutral, (2.2%) disagree and (1.1%) strongly disagree. This shows that the majority of the respondents agree with given statements.

Chart (4/3) shows that the responses of the student indicate that most of them agree with percentage (71%) .

Table (4/3) descriptive statistics of the second Hypothesis

Statements	Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Result
Children acquire root word meaning through direct explanations from parents , educators and peers and with in texts	4.37	4	.669	strongly agree
Words are stored in network of items linked by shared phonological , morpho - syntactic and semantic properties	4.03	4	.718	Agree
Acquiring an extensive vocabulary is one of the largest challenges in learning a second language	4.07	4	.521	Agree

Source: Data of field Study

Table (4/3) this table shows the descriptive statistics (**mean & standard deviation and mode**) of the 2nd hypothesis items the computational circles around the numbers (4&4) for all the statements and as indicated by the numbers(4), have average and homogeneous standard deviations for all the differences , not exceeding (0,315). According to Likert Scales which were previously explained in figures (4&4) mean strongly agree Or agree. This confirms that the opinions of sample members of the 2nd hypothesis are the strongly agree or agree and the column called the result shows this.

Table (4/3)Chi-square Test of the second Hypothesis Items

Phrases	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.	Decision
Children acquire root word meaning through direct explanations from parents , educators and peers and within texts	12.600	2	.002	Acceptance
Words are stored in network of items linked by shared phonological , morpho - syntactic and semantic properties	44.133	3	.000	Acceptance
Acquiring an extensive vocabulary is one of the largest challenges in learning a second language	34.200	2	.000	Acceptance

Source: Data of field Study

To test the 2nd hypothesis, the researcher used the chi-square Test for the hypothesis. The calculated values Chi-square were between (44.133-12.600) and degrees of freedom (2or3) for all the items and at level of significance less than (0,05) which means that there are statistically significant differences in items hypothesis. with reference to above tables of percentage and descriptive statistics and Chi-square test, it can be said that there is a statistically significant relationship in the items of the 2nd hypothesis and this proves the significance of items of the hypothesis.

Table (4/4) percentages and frequencies for the 3rd hypothesis

The actions of learners affects their vocabulary acquisition.

Phrases	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	Trend
Children anywhere learn their first or early words parentally	0	0	0	6	24	strongly agree
	.0%	.0%	.0%	20.0%	80.0%	
Children language reflects parents vocabulary	0	0	0	13	17	strongly agree
	.0%	.0%	.0%	43.3%	56.7%	
Direct vocabulary instruction appears to contribute to vocabulary acquisition	0	2	0	20	8	Agree
	.0%	6.7%	.0%	66.7%	26.7%	
A large degree of	4	6	4	10	6	Agree

Children's exposure to and acquisition of vocabulary and other language's skills occurs through reading	13.3%	20.0%	13.3%	33.3%	20.0%	
To acquire the language learner need natural authentic communication, and not direct instruction	0	0	2	21	7	Agree
	.0%	.0%	6.7%	70.0%	23.3%	
Children acquire their native language for phonological system and produce the sound of their native language	0	0	0	26	4	Agree
	.0%	.0%	.0%	86.7%	13.3%	
Total	2.2%	4.5%	3.3%	53.3%	36.7%	100%

Chart (4/5) showing the distribution of the 3rd hypothesis

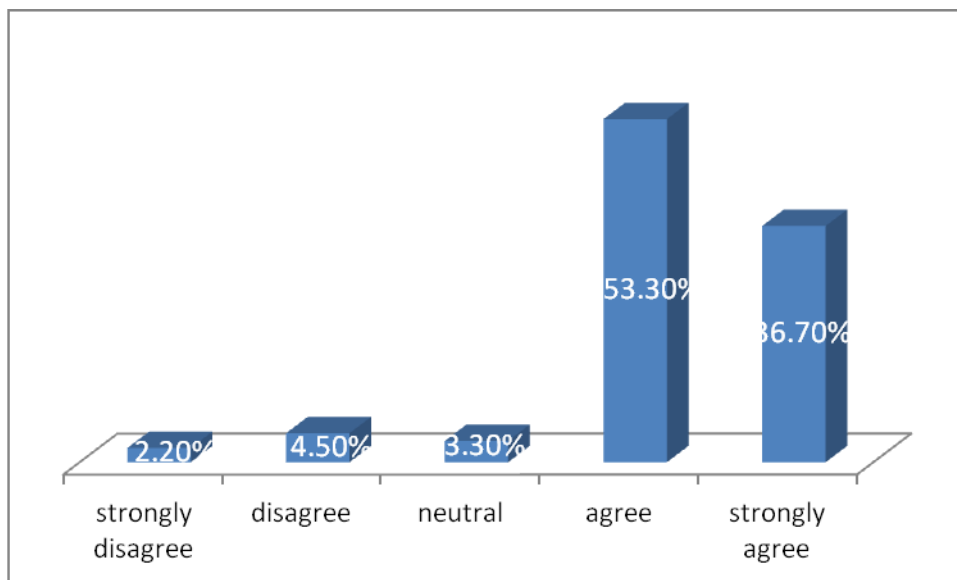


Table (4.4) and figure (4.4) show the descriptive statistics (percentages and frequencies) of the third hypothesis. The results are as follow: (36.7%) strongly agree, (53.3%) agree, (3.3%)(neutral, (4.3%) disagree

and (2.2%) strongly disagree. This indicates that the majority of the respondents agree with the third hypothesis statements.

According to the responses of chart (4/4) it is noted that most of the participants agree with percentage (53,3%) .

Table (4/5) descriptive statistics of the 3rd Hypothesis

Phrases	Mean	Mode	Std. Deviation	Result
Children anywhere learn their first or early words parentally	4.80	5	.407	strongly agree
Children language reflects parents vocabulary	4.57	5	.504	strongly agree
Direct vocabulary instruction appears to contribute to vocabulary acquisition	4.13	4	.730	agree
A large degree of Children's exposure to and acquisition of vocabulary and other language's skills occurs through reading	3.27	4	1.363	agree
To acquire the language learner need natural authentic communication, and not direct instruction	4.17	4	.531	agree
Children acquire their native language for phonological system and produce the sound of their native language	4.13	4	.346	agree

Source: Data of field Study

Table (4/4) shows the descriptive statistics (**mean & standard deviation and mode**) of the 3rd hypothesis items the computational circles around the numbers (4&7) for all the statements and as indicated by the numbers(4&7), and heterogeneous standard deviations for all the differences , not exceeding (0,315). According to Likert Scales which were previously explained in figures (4&7) respectively mean agree strongly agree

. This confirms that the opinions of sample members of the 3rd hypothesis are the strongly agree or agree and the column called the result shows this.

Table(4/6)Chi-square Test of the 3rd Hypothesis Items

Phrases	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.	Decision
Children anywhere learn their first or early words parentally	10.800	1	.001	Acceptance
Children language reflects parents vocabulary	.533	1	.465	Accepted descriptively
Direct vocabulary instruction appears to contribute to vocabulary acquisition	16.800	2	.000	Acceptance
A large degree of Children's exposure to and acquisition of vocabulary and other language's skills occurs through reading	4.000	4	.406	Accepted descriptively
To acquire the language learner need natural authentic communication, and not direct instruction	19.400	2	.000	Acceptance
Children acquire their native language for phonological system and produce the sound of their native language	16.133	1	.000	Acceptance

Source: Data of field Study

To test the **third** hypothesis,(the teaching and learning of vocabulary strategies can help improve learners' oral communication) the researcher used the chi-square Test for the hypothesis. The calculate values of Chi-square were between (19.400-0.533) and degrees of freedom arranged from (1to4) for all the items and at level of significance less than (0, 05) which means that there are statistically significant differences in items hypothesis. The 2nd and 4th items were categorically rejected. With reference to above table s of percentage and statistics descriptive and Chi-square test, it can be said that there is a statistically significant relationship in the items of the 3rd hypothesis and this proves the significance of items of the hypothesis.

Table (4/7) One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	30	4.2037	.20233	.03694

Source: Data of field Study

Table (4/8) One-Sample Test

Test Value = 3						
	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
All items	32.584	29	.000	1.2037	1.1282	1.2793

Source: Data of field Study

the test of statistical significance of differences between agreed members and disagreed members with hypothesis items through the test of differences between the mean for the items compared with hypothesis mean of the study and from the table(4/5) the researcher noted that the general mean for all items(4.2) with standard deviation0.20233) in the table (4/5) the calculated value (T) All items (32.58) with agrees of freedom (29) and significance level (0,000) . This value for level of significant is less than level significant (0.05). That means there is statistical significance differences and with regard to the previously mentioned tables (percentage and frequencies and Chi- square tables and (T). We can say that there is a highly agreement with the all items of the hypothesis

this table shows the degree of the students in the test given

Table (4/9) Degree of students test

Degree	Frequency	Percent
Excellent	0	0%
very good	7	14%
Good	12	24%
Pass	18	36%
Failed	13	26%
Total	50	100%

Source: Data of field Study

The table (4/6) shows the ratios and repetitions (Degree of students) in which we find that the strong agree reached (0) individual by (0%), there are (7) individuals by (14%) is very good, (12) individuals by (24%) good, (18) individuals by (36%) they pass exam, (13) individuals by (26%) they failed, The statement through the table shows that the ratio of pass is the highest, and there are no excellent in the grades and the following chart shows this.

4.3 Discussions :

From the results of the study questionnaire It is found that according to the first hypothesis most of the participants agree and strongly agree . This result support the idea of the first hypothesis . Concerning the second hypothesis it is also found that a great number of the study respondents positively support the second hypothesis this is due to their responses which are strongly agree and agree – That is to say the right aptitude can govern learners' success . As far as the third hypothesis is concerned , The result indicate that learners' responses are positive this clearly shown from the results of the sample members of the third hypothesis Which are strongly agree and agree So the action of learners ' affect their vocabulary acquisition.

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

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS , RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.0. Introduction

In this final chapter , the results of the study obtained from the questionnaire and diagnostic test are presented and conclusions regarding the result are deducted . the chapter is then followed by recommendation and suggestions for further studies .

5.1 Summary of the main Findings :

The present study come out with following findings .

It is noted from the response of the participants of the questionnaire that there is a strong relationship between Vocabulary Knowledge and reading skills . It is also found that when children learn to read , their ability to derive word meanings from context extends from oral to written context .

Children were found to acquire root word meaning through direct explanations from parents , educators and peers and with in texts .

Another finding concerning this study is that acquiring an extensive vocabulary is one of the largest challenges in learning second language - A further finding is that children any where learn their first or early words parentally . Also direct vocabulary instruction contributes to vocabulary acquisition . The finding of the study indicate that learners acquire language via natural authentic communication , not direct instruction that is to say grammar is not important .

Children were also found to acquire their native language for phonological system and produce the sound of their native language .

5.2. Conclusions:

- (1) L2 vocabulary acquisition involves a continuous process of semantic restructuring.
- (2) The intensity of the restructuring process varies from word to word and from one semantic mapping category to another.

(3) The restructuring process tends to result in more refined semantic contents tend to be slow.

(4) Despite the semantic restructuring process, L2 word meanings are both under-represented and over-represented even at the advanced level.

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

5.3. Recommendations

The researcher recommends the followings:

- 1.** The study discovered that most ELLs have a deficit in second language vocabulary and teachers have a limited time for direct instruction . In this regard , it is important for teachers to develop creative methods to expose ELLs to vocabulary in many ways that develop and reinforce word meaning throughout the school day as well as in and out-of school settings . This can be done by using technology , additional reading texts and games for students that provide incentives for students to listen for new words or previously taught words outside the vocabulary lesson , one can also use word walls to display the target vocabulary .
- 2.** And also some ESL teachers have a difficulty in choosing whether to concentrate on developing vocabulary or promoting extensive reading. so the study advised that ELLs need sufficient vocabulary to read effectively , while at the same time extensive reading is a necessary component for acquiring a sufficient vocabulary .
- 3.** Teachers are advised to use Standard assessment tools such as quizzes , tests , vocabulary finders and crosswords should be included in the formative and summative assessment process . When students see comparable , but not identical materials included in the evaluation instruments , their significance as a learning tool is sustained .
- 4.** Teachers are advised to be committed to teaching new lexical items by preparing additional challenging and motivating vocabulary activities based on semantic mapping strategy.

5. Teachers are advised to be eclectic in teaching new vocabulary by choosing the most appropriate strategy they should vary their strategies according to the difficulty of the word and the level of the class they can sometimes combine more than one strategy according to the nature of the new word.
6. Teachers are encouraged to focus on international as well as accidental vocabulary learning.
7. It is recommended that teachers should avoid translation as much as possible in teaching new lexical items.
8. Teachers are advised to develop an effective pedagogical method for teaching second language vocabulary .
9. It is the teachers responsibility to employ the most effective strategies that will enhance and expedite the vocabulary learning process of the English languages .
10. The study has come to realize the importance for English language learners to have an extensive knowledge of the breadth and depth of words . When Ells have an understanding and a foundation of both , they will be able to use various registers , as circumstances require . This will also immensely increase their lexical competence . for ESL teachers , it is important to use multiple modes for creating comprehensible input and output . ESL teachers should constantly remember that their students have not yet developed their English language proficiency to a level where they can understand all the oral and written information they encounter in English for academic purposes classroom , hence the importance of effective vocabulary teaching strategies .

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

Some of the areas that can still be investigated are:

1-In order to examine the effective of vocabulary learning on oral communication, there is a need for more research to focus on a detailed understanding of how academic vocabulary affects oral communication.

2-Astudy is recommended to explore the effect of vocabulary teaching on oral communication.

3-Reseachers are invited to conduct studies on the area of vocabulary and its effects on all language skills

4-Further study should also investigate the role of using semantic mapping strategy in developing learners' vocabulary for oral communication.

5- As I see it , much remains to be done particularly concerning the effective approach to vocabulary learning and teaching .

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

5.5. Summary of the Chapter :

This chapter drew the conclusions of the study by providing answers to three research questions and by verifying the three hypothesis . All three questions have been answered properly and all three hypothesis have been accepted . Based on this , the study made some recommendations and suggested areas for further study .

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