

VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING IN THE FIRST-YEAR STUDENTS OF
ELECTRO MECHANICS AND NURSING OF THE ESCUELA NAVAL DE SUBOFICIALES
ARC BARRANQUILLA (ENSB): A CASE STUDY

BY

NIXON OLIVIER ESCOBAR HERNÁNDEZ

RESEARCH STUDY

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of MASTER OF ARTS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING of Universidad
del Norte, 2018

Barranquilla, Atlántico

Colombia

Master's Supervisor

Kathleen Anne Corrales, M.A., MEd..

AFFIDAVIT

I, Nixon Escobar Hernández, hereby declare that this master's thesis has not been previously presented as a degree requirement, either in the same style or with variations, in this or any other university.

NIXON OLIVIER ESCOBAR HERNÁNDEZ

Abstract

The current case study has as the objective of investigating how vocabulary is taught and learned in two English classes at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales A.R.C Barranquilla (ENSB) since students at this institution have not been progressing as expected in their English level. The participants were 42 first-year military students and two English teachers in the second and third modules of studies in the academic year of 2016. Using a mixed method approach, classroom observations, student questionnaires, and a pre- and post-test for each group were used to collect the data for this study. The findings reveal that student progress in regards to their vocabulary word knowledge. Also, it was seen that both teachers and students use some vocabulary teaching-learning strategies; however, the ones used are limited, repeated, and focus mainly on improving students' vocabulary breadth. Students' vocabulary depth progress is very limited. Other factors such as an insufficient use of vocabulary for communication in English seem to affect student progress negatively. The findings of this investigation guided the researcher to offer some recommendations, including using a variety of vocabulary strategies that focus on both depth and breadth vocabulary knowledge and developing both receptive and productive vocabulary. Also, students should be directly taught how to use a variety of vocabulary strategies in order to enhance their development.

Keywords: vocabulary, vocabulary strategies, English teaching/learning, breadth, depth, communication, military English.

This work is dedicated to all my family for all their patience, support and love. You always trusted in me.

Nixon Olivier Escobar Hernández.

Acknowledgments

There are a lot of people whom I would like to express all my gratitude. Without them this could not have been possible.

First of all, to God Almighty, the owner of the Universe who always guides us. God's time is always the perfect one.

Second, to my wonderful and irreplaceable tutor, Kathleen Corrales, for all her cooperation, guidance and support that kept me working in this project.

To my teachers, who gave their best to enrich my knowledge.

And last but not least important, to my lovely family and friends who were always with me; especially in those stressing moments. Grandpa Lázaro and Uncle Lee. I know you are in heaven smiling down, watching us.

Thank you.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1- Introduction.....	11
Research Question and Objectives.....	13
Setting of the Study.....	14
Organization of the thesis.....	17
Chapter 2 -The Conceptual Framework	18
What is Vocabulary?.....	18
Why is Vocabulary Important?.....	22
What does it Mean to Know a Word?.....	24
How is Vocabulary Learned?.....	26
Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Learning Strategies	30
Vocabulary Learning Strategies	31
How is Vocabulary Taught?.....	35
Literature Review.....	47
Chapter 3 - Research Methods and Design.....	52
Epistemological Perspective.....	52
Methodology.....	54
Design of the Study.....	61
Description of Participants.....	64
Data Collection Techniques and Procedures.....	66
Classroom Observation.....	67
Pre- and Post-Tests.....	69
Questionnaire.....	70

Analysis of the Data.....	72
Ethical Considerations.....	76
Chapter 4 – Results.....	78
Classroom Observations.....	78
Description of María’s First Classroom Observation.....	78
Description of María’s Second Classroom Observation.....	82
Description of María’s Third Classroom Observation.....	86
Description of José’s First Classroom Observation.....	90
Description of José’s Second Classroom Observation.....	94
Description of José’s Third Classroom Observation.....	98
Description of Pre- and Post-Test Results.....	101
Questionnaire (Survey) of Students.....	106
Chapter 5 – Discussion.....	116
What Progress Did Students Make after Receiving Instruction?.....	117
What Vocabulary Strategies Do ENSB Military Students Use to Learn English Vocabulary?.....	118
What Vocabulary Strategies Do Instructors Use to Teach English Vocabulary?..	122
How is Vocabulary Taught and Learned at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla?	126
Chapter 6 – Conclusions.....	130
Implications for Teaching.....	132
Limitations of the Study.....	132
Suggestions for Further Research	133

References.....	134
Appendices.....	156
Appendix A: Classroom Observation Format.....	156
Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire.....	158
Appendix C: Sample of María's Classroom Observation Format	161
Appendix D: Sample of José's Classroom Observation Format.....	163
Appendix E: Sample of a Student's Questionnaire – Group A.....	165
Appendix F: Sample of a Student's Questionnaire – Group B	168

List of Tables

Table

1	Summary of English Language Teaching Methods and Approaches and the Role of Vocabulary.....	35
2	The Four Strands and their Applications with a Focus on Vocabulary.....	38
3	Types of Case Studies.....	61
4	Stages in the Data Analysis Process	73
5	Group A, Pre- and Post-Test Results	102
6	Group B, Pre- and Post- Test Results	104
7	Students' Perceptions on Materials and Resources Important for the Teaching and Learning of Vocabulary in Class.....	106
8	Students' Perceptions on Strategies that Help them to Learn Vocabulary during Class.....	107
9	Students' Perceptions on How Teachers Teach them English Vocabulary.....	110
10	Time Students Dedicate to Studying Vocabulary outside of Class.....	112

List of Figures

Figure

- 1 What is Involved in Knowing a Word ?.....24
- 2 Historical Summary of Vocabulary Learning Strategies from 1975 to 2008.....32

Chapter 1: Introduction

English language has become the worldwide *lingua franca*, and the Colombian context is not the exception. The Colombian government has identified English as a priority for its citizens in order to improve their communicative competence in English in their different levels of study, in their social life, in their job performance, etc. To accomplish this, the National Bilingual Program 2014-2019 has established a series of language goals for the different levels of education with high school students finishing at a B1 (according to the Common European Framework of References, CEFR) and university students at a B2 (Corrales, Ferrer, & Rey, 2015).

In the military schools, while nothing is officially established, it is expected that students know English to carry out their functions. For this reason, changes are beginning to be made in all of these institutions. In 2011, the National Navy Command in Bogota established a new mission and vision to improve its personnel skills and become updated with local, national, and international requirements. The new mission and vision require military schools around the nation to revise and update their syllabi. Further, learning English became a priority for the Colombian petty officers and officers.

In the particular context of this study, the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla (ENSB) several changes were made to comply with these requirements. First, students now receive more instruction in English. For example, module one students receive an average of four hours per week of English classes with a total of forty-eight hours per module whereas in the past these students did not have English. Also, the students of other modules increased the number of hours dedicated to English from two to four hours per week

in their twelve-week modules, thus having a total of forty-eight hours per module.

Second, the school adopted an English textbook series for levels A1 and A2 and updated the teaching methodology. Before 2011, students had no English books; professors were autonomous to decide which materials they used with their students, which sometimes created a challenge because of the lack of continuity in materials and topics for the students. Also, professors try to use the Communicative Approach with their students although other methods and approaches are welcome.

Third, the focus of the modules was adjusted. It was decided that students would cover general English in modules 1 to 5, with an emphasis on general vocabulary. In their last module, they would receive basic technical English. To teach this technical language, depending on the particular area that the students are studying, other English for Specific Purposes textbooks have been implemented. It is important to clarify that students' technical English may be taught at any module under the professors' autonomy, but this type of vocabulary is deepened in learners' sixth module, depending on their studies.

Another change that has been made since 2011 relates to the number of teachers available for English teaching. This has passed from two to three teachers plus a petty officer who sometimes helps teaching some classes since he is in charge of other administrative and military duties.

In spite of all of the improvements mentioned above, students' results have not reached the level expected in English. In my research context, students' lowest results has been in vocabulary, even though internally, this aspect is one that has been highlighted since both general and technical vocabulary is necessary for students to accomplish successfully

their naval functions. This internal importance is supported by Nation (2001) who asserts that a coverage threshold of 95% of vocabulary is needed by a learner to feel him/herself confident to do any English task. Due to low results in vocabulary and the fact that vocabulary development is paramount for English language learners (Calderon et al., 2005), this project focuses on analyzing the teaching-learning process with regards to vocabulary in the ENSB (Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla).

There have been different research projects which report on factors that affect English vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1996; Meara, 1987; Meara and Buxton, 1987; Na & Nation, 1985; Pavici Taka, 2008; Wu, 2013). However, little research focuses on this topic in Colombia and none have been found to study vocabulary teaching and learning in the Colombian military setting.

With this research, I hope to cover this existing gap in the Colombian context and specifically in the military setting. Consequently, this case study may give EFL teachers, military EFL teachers, managers and executives some idea of how to face vocabulary teaching and learning and its implications in a naval institution.

Research Questions and Objectives

In order to understand the teaching and learning process of vocabulary at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla, the primary research question was created, as well as the corresponding sub-questions. They are the following:

How is vocabulary taught and learned at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla?

- What vocabulary strategies do instructors use to teach English vocabulary?

- What vocabulary strategies do ENSB military students use to learn English vocabulary?
- What vocabulary progress do students make after receiving instruction?

Thus, the general objective of this research was to see the treatment of vocabulary in the classroom, including both what teachers and students did to enhance student vocabulary learning. Because this is a broad topic, I focused especially on the vocabulary strategies used to teach vocabulary and the learning of vocabulary of two groups of ENSB students. Besides seeing what teachers and students did in the classroom related to vocabulary (sub-question one), I felt it important to get the students' perspectives on how they learned vocabulary (sub-question two). Furthermore, in order to validate both what the teachers and students did when learning vocabulary, it seemed necessary to assure that students actually did learn vocabulary. For this reason, the third question was included in this study.

Therefore, the study was carried out by:

- Analyzing the strategies teachers use to support the vocabulary learning process in two groups.
- Identifying the vocabulary strategies that students consider are effective for learning vocabulary.
- Measuring student vocabulary learning by applying a pre- and post-test.

Setting of the Study

The present research project has been carried out in one of the military training schools for the Colombian Navy. The Colombian Navy has some academic institutions in different sites of Colombia which have the academic goal of training their military students

according to the specialty they choose. This study specifically takes place at the Petty Officers Naval School ARC Barranquilla, or Non-Commissioned Officers Naval Academy ARC Barranquilla (Escuela Naval de Suboficiales A.R.C Barranquilla), located in Barranquilla, a city on the Caribbean coast of Colombia. In this thesis, this institution is referred as ENSB.

The Escuela Naval de Suboficiales offers undergraduate and graduate studies to an average of 600 undergraduate and 30 graduate learners per year and prepares them both militarily and academically. Students' average ages are between 16 to 23 years old, and they come from different parts of Colombia. Very few of them may come from other Latin-American countries. These Latin-American students have already graduated from their military academies in their countries of origin and come to the naval school in Barranquilla to improve their skills in the military and academic field since the school in Barranquilla is recognized as one of the best naval academies in South America. The majority of these undergraduate students come from schools with a weak English teaching-learning process.

In the academic area, students take six modules of study and have the opportunity to choose the technological area they are interested in. The specialties they can choose from are the following: Shipping, Electronics, Electro mechanics, Oceanography/Hydrography, Nursing, and Maritime Administration. With regards to their military training, Candidates, in their first module, have a 12-week-BCT course (Basic Combat Training) to learn and practice as many military drills as they can and get used to their new military life. The Physical Training (PT) component is a very important aspect and trainees are involved from 12 to 16 hours per day. During this time they have no classes. Then, when Cabin boys are in their second module, they attend to classes from Monday to Saturday in the mornings, and

continue with their military training in the afternoons and part of the evenings. Cabin boys often do not have enough time to do their academic homework since they are busy developing their military skills and several duties related to this type of training. It is supposed that students should have some time in the afternoons to do their homework, but this is often not the case.

The English program is divided into 6 levels of 48 hours of classes having a total of 288 hours in two years. Candidates take an online placement test, and in 95 per cent of the cases, their results place them in A1 level, according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference). A great deal of them has a very weak English knowledge. That is the reason why, learners are divided by their area of study and professors attempt to cover A1 level English topics, leveling the weakest students' knowledge.

There are some constraints that the English program deals with. First, there is no specific language level goal for the military institutions. Therefore, both teachers and the students make decisions based on their own ideas, but there is no standardized curriculum. This lack of standardization is combined with the fact that the whole program contains only 288 hours. Second, there are too few teachers for all the classes. That is the reason why part-time teachers are occasionally hired. This can be challenging because these part-time teachers sometimes do not understand the context and the program, do not have experience dealing with military students, and/or do not have the technical English necessary. Also, sometimes there are budgetary constraints and these teachers do not finish the module they have been hired to teach. Furthermore, students do not have sufficient time to do homework or to improve their English communicative skills with extra activities since they are busy complying with their other military duties. Another constraint relates to the lack of resources,

although recently some resources (a language lab, a tape recorder, some TVs in the classrooms) have been acquired. Finally, students' English skills have not shown much improvement, so it is possible that changes will need to be implemented in the near future.

Organization of the Thesis

This research report is divided into 6 sections. This chapter introduced the topic of vocabulary and highlighted its importance in learning a foreign language. Also, it described the rationale of this study, listed the research questions, and portrayed the context where the study took place. The second chapter presents the conceptual framework and literature review where I put together some key concepts, theories, and earlier studies related to this research project. In the third chapter, I present the method, which includes a description of the main research paradigm, the data collection tool and procedures, including an explanation of the data collection instruments used and the importance of each of them in this investigation, and how the data was analyzed. A short description of the number, age, gender, and criteria to choose the participants of this work is included.

The fourth part focuses on the results. The interpretation and description of the significance of these results and their relationship to the research that has been carried out previously in this area is found in chapter five titled discussion. The sixth and last section is the conclusion of this research paper which includes not only the synthesis of the main results found, but also the implications of the research, the limitations, and possible future investigations in this area.

Chapter 2: Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this study was to analyze the ways teachers teach vocabulary at the ENSB to support student vocabulary learning. In this chapter, the relevant concepts related to vocabulary teaching and learning are presented in order to have a better understanding of theories that support the vocabulary teaching and learning process. First, several definitions of vocabulary by some authors are discussed. Second, the importance of vocabulary is explained taking into account the literature on the topic. Third, the meaning of knowing a word and how to learn a word are found. Then, this chapter presents an explanation of learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies. Next, the process of how vocabulary is taught and its strategies are reported here. Finally, a few relevant recent studies on vocabulary teaching and learning will be described.

What is Vocabulary?

This first section explores some different concepts of vocabulary and other important notions related to this topic. Vocabulary is one of the sub-skills of language and is essential to building a high communicative competence in that language. It has been defined by several authors. On the one hand, Lessard-Clouston (2013) defines vocabulary “as the words of a language, including single items and phrases or chunks of several words which convey a particular meaning, the way individual words do” (p. 2). Neuman and Dwyer (2009) assert that vocabulary is “the words we must know to communicate effectively: words in speaking and words in listening” (p.385). The former definition has a straight connection with Wilkins (1972) who highlighted the importance of vocabulary

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

Furthermore, Foley and Thompson (2003) have an amplified explanation of several terms related to vocabulary. They write that “all languages have words, a vocabulary or lexicon” (p. 10). It can be inferred that these authors include three important items: vocabulary, word, and lexicon. Jackson and Amvela (2000) declare that if “vocabulary,” “lexis,” and “lexicon” are compared, these three may be contemplated more or less synonymous, taking into account that the first one is more colloquial, the third one more technical, and the second one is in-between. They define lexicon, in short, as the words used in a language by a person or a group. Sheeler and Markley (2000) define a word as “a unit formed of sounds or letters that have a meaning” (p. 2); meanwhile, other scholars struggle to make a clear definition of a “word.” Jackson and Amvela (2000) state that a “word” might be easy to be perceived, but difficult to be conceptualized. They point out that the source of this difficulty comes from the fact that a “word may be defined differently depending on whether we focus on its representation, the thought which it expresses, or purely formal criteria” (p. 57). Trask (1995) also alleges that the possible difficulties in the conceptualization of a word occur since “words do not have meanings in isolation, but they are related to the meaning of other words in ways that may be simple or complex” (p. 53).

Furthering this idea, Crystal (2006) explains that “vocabulary never stands still. New words continually arrive in a language, and old words disappear” (p. 224). This clearly corroborates the importance of understanding the concepts of vocabulary, word and knowing a word. The next section, will explain in detail what “knowing” a word means.

In addition, dealing with the division of types of vocabulary, some other investigators have emphasized that vocabulary may be divided into different types that are related to the language skills. According to Cummings (as cited in Herrel, 2004) these types of vocabularies can be classified as “listening vocabulary” (words recognized by a person when listening), “speaking vocabulary” (words used in an oral speech by a person), “reading vocabulary” (words recognized by a person when reading), and “writing vocabulary” (words an individual may use when writing). This division is based on a person’s communicative skills in a language, and the first two are spoken or productive vocabulary and the last two written or receptive vocabulary. According to Nation (2001), spoken vocabulary is learnt first.

In addition, Nation (2001) and Waring and Nation (2004) categorize vocabulary in a different way. For them, vocabulary may be classified as: (1) high frequency, (2) academic, (3) technical or specialized, and (4) low frequency. Several word lists have been created to specify these different types of words. First, they describe high frequency words as the most frequent 2,000 words in English. West (1953) created the General Service List (GSL) of these high frequency words. These were the words that were “of service” or use for any purpose the individual has with the language. According to West (1953), this list has about 80% of the running words or tokens (i.e., every word in any text is counted, and if the same word is found in the text more than once, each repetition will be counted) in newspapers and academic texts, and about 90% of the words used in novels and conversations. Nation (2001) affirms that the majority of this type of words can be called the “content words” of a text. Besides West’s work, updated versions of this type of list have emerged such as the New General Service List (new-GSL) by Brezina and Gablasova (2013) with a total

number of 12 billion words, resulting from an analysis performed on four language corpora and the New General Service List (NGSL) by Browne, Culligan, and Phillips (2013), based on a 273-million-word-subsection taken from the 2-billion-word Cambridge English Corpus (CEC). The latter list has a more ample degree of coverage with fewer words than the one by Brezina and Gablasova (2013) and depicts the most important high frequency words in the learning of English as a second language.

In relation to the second categorization, Coxhead (2000) and Nation (2001) explain that academic words are a specialized extension or enlargement of the high frequency words. Coxhead (2000) created the Academic Word List (AWL) and it continues to be used today. It contains 570-word-families, having coverage of an 8.5% in academic texts, about 4% in newspapers, and less than 2% of the novels' running words (Coxhead, 2000). The name "academic vocabulary" was coined by Martin (1976), and it has also been denominated as "sub-technical vocabulary" by Cowan (1974) and "semi-technical vocabulary" by Farrell (1990). The words found in this category belong to a wide variety of academic fields, but they are not high frequency or technical words, which are usually linked to only one field. According to Martin (1976), the academic words are nearer to the high frequency words than to technical words. Some authors such as Nation (2001) and Martin (1976) consider that "academic vocabulary" and "sub-technical vocabulary" are the same, while some others like Baker (1988), Farrell (1990), and Sutarsyah, Nation, and Kennedy (1994) argue there is a clear distinction between these terms.

In the third categorization, technical vocabulary are those words or phrases which occur or are used in a subject area, specialized texts, or specific line of work, but they are not often found or used in texts of other domains. They are approximately the 5% of the

running words in specialized texts and are commonly used by people working in very specific areas (Nation, 2001).

In the last categorization, low frequency vocabulary, is found. They are around the 5% of the running words in any sort of texts, occurring infrequently. According to Nation (2001), there are thousands of them including archaic words, proper names, and words that a language user will very rarely employ, for example: eponymous, gibbous, bifurcate, plummet, ploy. This sort of word may have one, some, or all the following traits: it depicts an unusually expressed idea; it is similar in the meaning aspect to a much more frequent word; it is considered an old-fashioned word; it is considered a very formal word; it belongs to a particular variety of English or dialect; it is a vulgar word; or it is a foreign word (Nation, 2001).

Why is Vocabulary Important?

Recognizing the importance of vocabulary learning and teaching in any English educational context has been a topic developed in two ways. Some scholars have unintentionally denied or underestimated the importance of vocabulary, while others have placed significance on this issue and turned their attention to it. Hedge (2000, p.110) says that “vocabulary has long been neglected in the language classroom,” but Tellier (2008) and Nation (2011) have identified that the process of acquiring vocabulary is indispensable for using a second language successfully and that vocabulary plays a decisive function in the construction of meaningful spoken and written texts.

The importance of vocabulary learning has been highlighted by learners and researchers in an extensive manner. With regards to students, they identify vocabulary learning as an important process in order to be successful in the language acquisition stage,

even more than grammar, as Wilkins (1972) and Davies and Pearse (2000) have written. They maintain that students clearly recognize that there are no strict rules for learning vocabulary or the order to teach vocabulary in. Also, learners know they have to overcome these possible constraints since if they want to be successful developing tasks in the classroom or in their real life, it is mandatory for them to store a series of words that they will use in order to produce language. Putting into practice their vocabulary knowledge in real-life situations is demanding if they do not master an appropriate vocabulary level. Furthermore, learners often need to demonstrate vocabulary proficiency because vocabulary is generally one of the obligatory components on many English tests or exams. Mofareh (2015) concludes that “vocabulary knowledge is often viewed as a critical tool for second language learners because a limited vocabulary in a second language impedes successful communication” (p. 22). Thus, the importance of vocabulary for communication cannot be highlighted enough.

Researchers have also highlighted the value of vocabulary in the English teaching process. Krashen (as cited in Maximo, 2000) states that “when students travel, they don’t carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries” (p. 25); therefore, it is clear that he considers vocabulary an important part of language. Also, Mofareh (2015) manifests that vocabulary learning is a necessary aspect in foreign language learning since the new word meanings are always emphasized, in any type of texts or in any scenario useful for developing teaching-learning processes. Consequently, this vocabulary learning process becomes pivotal to language teaching and of paramount importance to a language learner.

What Does It Mean to Know a Word?

This section discusses what “knowing a word” entails. Crystal (2006) assures that understanding the concepts of vocabulary, word, and knowing a word are important in the vocabulary teaching-learning process. Nation (2001) has highlighted the importance of knowing a word which he defined in three main categories: form, meaning, and use. These are subdivided into “receptive” and “productive” knowledge. Figure 1 below details this division.

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

Figure 1. What is involved in knowing a word (Nation, 2001, p. 27).

He explains that, first, the form of any word involves its pronunciation or spoken form; second, the spelling of any word relates to the written form, and third, the word parts relate to its prefixes, roots, and suffixes. He also mentions that the meaning of any word

includes the connection between form and meaning, its concept and referents, and whether a word has a range of different meanings and associations, or semantic relationships between English words. Furthermore, he expresses that the use of any word is divided into its grammatical functions or the role of any word in a context, collocations or what word relates to other to create a specific meaning and constraints on use or word usage limitations by sociolinguistic factors. Therefore, Nation (2001) emphasizes that knowing words means much more than just knowing “isolated units of language” (p.23), but rather, because they have the capacity of fitting “into many interlocking systems and levels” (p.23), this knowledge is necessary in order to actually “know” a word.

Similarly to Nation, Thornbury (2002) believes that knowing a word, at the most elementary level, implies knowing its “form” and its “meaning.” However, there are many other aspects that can be taken into account to have a complete knowledge of a word, although it is possible that not all of these are necessary to “know” a word. These are:

- The meaning
- The spoken form or knowledge of the pronunciation of the word
- The written form or knowledge of the correct spelling of the word
- The grammatical behavior or grammatical function
- The word’s derivations or word changes from a noun to a verb as an example
- The collocations of the word, or word combination sounding correct
- The register of the word – spoken and written
- The connotations or associations of the word
- The word’s frequency, or occurrence

Thornbury (2002) concludes that knowing the first of the traits above is not only knowing the meaning(s) of the word in a dictionary, but also knowing the words' collocations and connotations, register, and cultural additions or accretions. He, as well, emphasizes on the need for distinction between the "receptive" and "productive" knowledge at the moment of knowing a word, taking into account that the receptive knowledge surpasses productive knowledge and, generally, comes first. In other words, people comprehend more words than they can use, and people ordinarily understand these words before they are able to say them.

Besides the receptive and productive knowledge of a word, authors also discuss the terms breadth and depth. To Milton (2009), breadth of knowledge refers to "the number of words a learner knows," (p. 14) regardless of how well these are known and depth of knowledge is "what the learner knows about these words" (p.14). This means that the depth of knowledge of a word relates to the aspects mentioned before such as knowing a word's form, meaning, and use (see Figure 1) which include the way it is written and spoken, its grammatical behaviour, collocations, level of register, associations, and frequency, among others (Nation, 2005). In contrast, as Milton (2009) explains, breadth can be known also as vocabulary size since it "may also be used to reflect a learner's ability to recognise a word and link it to meaning or to a translation in the first language" (p. 4).

How is Vocabulary Learned?

Another important topic linked to this research is the way people learn vocabulary. The learning of vocabulary is a complicated process because words "are an open set, constantly being added to and lost, (as archaic words gradually go out of use)" (Ur, 2012, p.3). Pavičić (2008) supports the idea that learning vocabulary is complex when he states

that “vocabulary acquisition is not merely a mental collection of individual lexical items” (p. 16). Crystal (2006) agrees with this idea when he states that acquiring a new lexical item is not only “tacking this new lexical item on to the end of a list of already-learnt items,” but rather it “has to find its place within the lexicon we have already acquired” (p. 198). Crystal (2006) explains this process by saying that when a new word enters into a person’s brain, it first looks for a space to occupy, and, second, it looks for a gap to fit into the vocabulary previously learned, becoming part of the relevant word sets and modifying a person’s ideas about the sense of other elements which are already positioned there. The learning of a new lexeme or word requires fitting it into a semantic field, and if this procedure is performed properly, vocabulary learning is successful.

In the same way, Pavičić (2008) and Crystal (2006) explain the vocabulary learning process more in depth. The former professes that “vocabulary learning is the acquisition of memorized sequences of lexical items” (p. 16) while the latter believes that “learning vocabulary is learning to make the best lexical choice for the needs of the moment” (p. 199) since a learner really needs to have a variety of tools (lexemes available), so he or she can see the similarities and differences and can contrast between lexemes in order to find the needed definition. For instance, when a student is learning a foreign word that does not have many definitions, the learning of this word is easy. However, when a word has many possible definitions, even if people have some previous knowledge, some problems may arise, so using a dictionary might be a helpful tool, turning into “the most important intermediary between the developing lexical intuition of the student and the target lexical world of the language” (Crystal, 2006, p. 199). Carter and McCarthy (2014) also defend the importance of using dictionaries for learners’ vocabulary development and suggest that

teachers should encourage learners to use them because of the richness of information that dictionaries contain.

Moreover, Papathanasiou (2009) suggests a methodology of learning words. She believes that related words should be presented together with an explanation of their meanings in order to allow learners to make distinctions between them. Thus, that is the reason why learning a set of lexical items implies differentiating traits and then associating them with items that are related to them, by way of creating, first, primary definitions. For example, a boy can explain the meaning of a word, for example scissors, in a very basic way: "It is a thing that cuts." Second, he can identify the name of the semantic field and conclude that is part of other groups of words (e.g., classroom objects, utensils, etc.). According to Crystal (2006), he can then learn how to define this word, step by step, with the following formula: "an X is a Y which has the features A, B, C" (p. 199). It is imperative to clarify that this is not concurrently done; it is a long process that may take years to happen in a method of trial and error in which the learner is involved in the production of mistakes and refinement of definitions. This can be seen, for example, in the difference between the explanation of a word from a boy and an adult.

As well, Crystal (2006) states that learning a word also requires people to make the correct lexical choice. He suggests that when one item from a semantic field is selected, the learner immediately tries to find the best option to fit with the message to be communicated. In order to reach to the best choice, the learner should understand the similarities and differences of the word in question. When the learner is able to comprehend these aspects, one could say that the learner has defined the word. To support this vocabulary learning, he recognizes that people may work with the four "sense relations" or

“word logical relationships.” They are: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and incompatibility.

While many people use the first two sense relations of synonymy and antonymy, Crystal (2006) states that they are often not very useful for vocabulary learning and development since true synonyms often do not exist. He asserts that instead of true synonyms, some differences can be found, for example, regional use (apartment vs. flat) and stylistic level (domicile vs. house). He also believes that there are no true antonyms for most lexical items. This is exemplified with words such as trumpet, piano, work, Sunday, etc. which have no antonyms. Also, Crystal describes several types of oppositeness; for instance, gradable antonyms (big/small, tall/short) which allow the expression of degrees with words such as very, quite, etc. Non-gradable antonyms or complementary terms (man/woman, boy/girl) are those that do not allow words expressing degrees (e.g., very, quite, etc.). Another type of opposite words is converse terms or words which are interdependent which means that one of them presupposes the existence of the other one (mother/son, buy/sell).

The last two sense relations, hyponymy and incompatibility, are considered by Crystal (2006) as useful for students at the moment of introducing a new lexical item, learning, and developing new vocabulary. Hyponymy means that a word is a hyponym (i.e., a word that is an example of a general word called “superordinate”). This characteristic is related to the notion of inclusion; in other words, this principal word can be seen when any lexis or new vocabulary is defined like this: “an X is a kind of Y,” a cat is (a kind of) animal. The next type, incompatibility, is defined by Crystal (2006) as a “grouped set of lexemes that are mutually exclusive members of the same superordinate category” (p. 197).

Examples of this sense relation would be colors, musical instruments, fruits, and days of the week. The words in these groups, in their basic and most common meaning, only belong to these groups. In short, they are particular; they present an exact feature, a uniqueness.

To summarize this section, words are not learned all at once, but rather, the definition is built little by little, adding different features each time the word is seen or heard (Crystal, 2006). Also, the person does not learn this word with total accuracy the first time a word is encountered (Crystal, 2006). Nation (2001) supports this idea when he states that vocabulary learning has its own “learning burden” (i.e., the amount of effort required to learn) and “is best regarded as a cumulative process with subsequent meetings building on previous meetings, even though previous meetings only resulted in very small amount of learning” (p. 240). When learning words, hyponymy and incompatibility seem to be more helpful than synonymy and antonymy. In order to learn vocabulary, students also need to apply some learning strategies and especially some vocabulary learning strategies, which will be discussed in the next section.

Learning Strategies and Vocabulary Learning Strategies

According to Schmeck (2013), the terms strategy and tactics have their roots in the military field. Strategy refers “to procedures for implementing the plan of a large-scale military operation” and tactics are “the more specific steps in implementation of the plan” (p. 5). Building on these ideas, the word strategy in the educational context has come to mean “the implementation of a set of procedures (tactics) for accomplishing something” (Schmeck, 2013, p. 5). Applying these concepts to learning, it can be stated that a learning strategy is a series of procedures used to reach the objective of learning something.

Taking into account the aforementioned, several different definitions for language learning strategies can be found in the literature. Chamot (2004) defines this concept as “the thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a learning goal” (p. 14) while Nunan (1999) describes them as “particular approaches or techniques that learners employ to try to learn a second language” (p. 171). Cohen (2011), however, has widened this concept. He states that language learning strategies are “thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance” (p. 7). This definition bears in mind two ultimate current educational aspects: developing multiple tasks by learners and teachers and checking the learning process from an initial to an advanced level.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Another important issue directly related to this study is vocabulary learning strategies, which have been studied throughout several decades. Nation (2001) has extensively written about strategies and alleges that although it is difficult to have a precise definition of what a strategy is, they are essential to effective vocabulary learning. He claims that learners should realize that there are various types of strategies (often involving several steps) and that they can be trained to use them well and to choose the best strategy for the particular vocabulary word to be learned.

Vocabulary learning strategies generally are divided into two main areas: knowledge-oriented strategies (word recognition and understanding), which are often related to receptive skills, and skill-oriented strategies (word use), which relate to the productive skills. Additionally, a certain number of scholars have emphasized the use of a

keyword method efficacy and mnemonic techniques as a necessary strategy for vocabulary learning. Also, memory (plus cognitive determination), metacognitive and social categories, have been considered as a required step for English vocabulary learning. Some authors use the words “strategies” or “categories” to illustrate the topic of vocabulary learning strategies; however, this diversity in the name does not seem to be important. What matters is that if learners want to be successful at any vocabulary learning stage or level, they ought to use a wide variety of vocabulary strategies, not only in class or at the moment of learning vocabulary but also when vocabulary learning is away from the instructor, thereby becoming self-directed learners.

Researchers have also put effort into classifying vocabulary learning strategies and elaborating various taxonomies with them. The following figure is a chronological table of these taxonomies, which begins with Atkinson (1975) and finishes with Pavičić (2008). In this figure, the most important characteristic related to vocabulary learning strategies in each one is also presented.



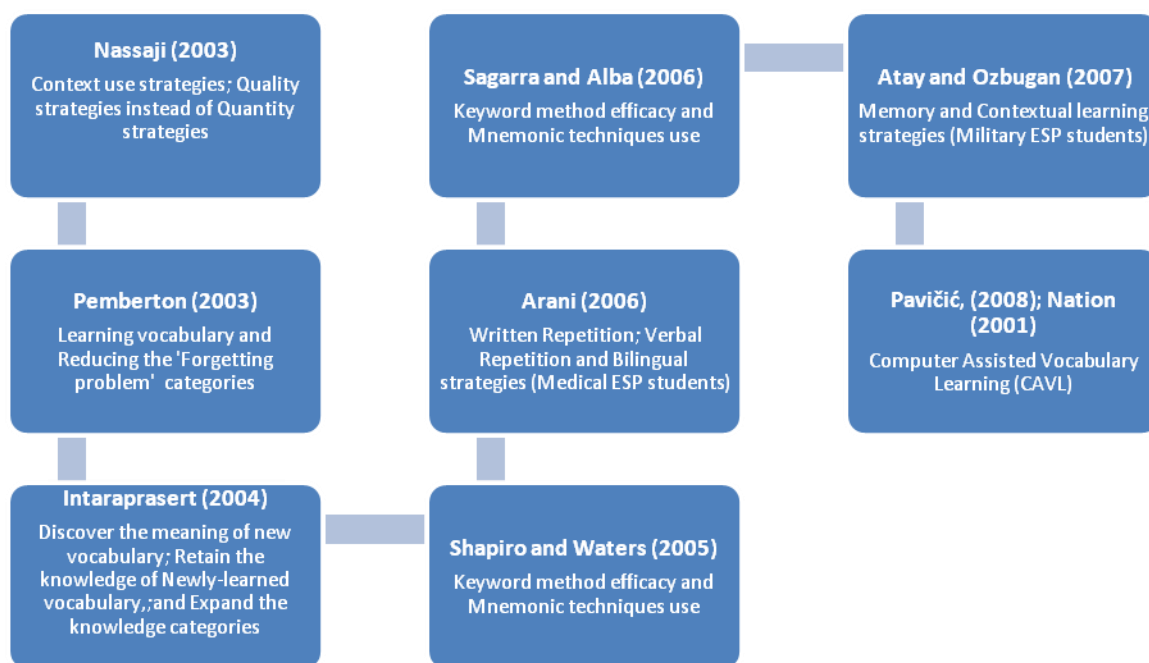


Figure 2. Historical summary of vocabulary learning strategies from 1975 to 2008.

With this graphic representation, it is intended to highlight three aspects related to vocabulary learning strategies. The first one is that this topic has been explored by a great deal of authors, validating the importance this theme has for the English language teaching and learning process. Researchers have attempted to analyze what vocabulary learning strategies a student uses at the moment of learning a new word. To organize this information, they have classified the strategies using some similarities and differences between each. Some of these classifications have been questioned and ignored while others have been widely used. Secondly, many contain a different number of strategies while others have listed the same strategies with different names. But all of them have the same intention: to understand and analyze how a person learns vocabulary and what vocabulary strategy(-ies) is (are) used. Finally, a common aspect is that some other strategies have been included depending on the development of technology; for example, learning vocabulary by

using a cassette was most likely employed in the past, but now it has been changed to other types of technology such as CDs, MP3s, software, the Internet, etc. This technological development can also be seen in the change from the use of paper to online-dictionaries and from the study of word parts to the study of word collocations.

How is Vocabulary Taught?

This section of the conceptual framework focuses on what the literature suggests for the teaching of vocabulary. Throughout the years, the teaching of vocabulary has been dealt with in different ways in the methodology of English Teaching; specifically, in its language teaching methods and approaches, which according to Brown (2007, p. 17), “have waxed and waned in popularity” throughout the last century and the current one. To illustrate the former statement, a historical sketch of the form vocabulary has been viewed by English teaching methods and approaches is presented here and has been adapted from Brown (2007).

Table 1

Summary of English Language Teaching Methods and Approaches and the Role of Vocabulary

English Teaching Method and/or Approach	How Vocabulary is Faced
The Classical Method	Word memorization for gaining reading proficiency.
The Grammar Translation Method	Word memorization of lists of isolated words.
Gouin’s Series Method	Large number of vocabulary items through series of sentences.
The Direct Method (Berlitz)	Goal= “spontaneous use of language.” Just “everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught” (Brown, 2007, p. 21.); Demonstrations, objects, and pictures for teaching “concrete vocabulary;”

	Association of ideas for “abstract vocabulary”
The Audiolingual Method	Vocabulary is strictly limited and learnt in context.
Cognitive Code Learning (Approach)	It follows The Grammar Translation Method principles mentioned above.
Community Language Learning	Vocabulary is learned in an inductive way, including learners’ affective nature and developing their autonomy.
Suggestopedia	“Maximum retention of vocabulary” or memorization (Brown, 2007, p. 27) using learners’ relaxation through music.
The Silent Way	Discovery vocabulary learning in an inductive way using “Cuisenaire rods”
Total Physical Response	Using series of simple actions, especially in the imperative mood, learners act out the vocabulary (actions) they hear
The Natural Approach	Learned to “build the basic personal communication skills necessary for everyday language situations.” (Brown, 2007, p.31)
Notional-Functional Syllabus (Approach)	Learned for pragmatic purposes
Communicative Language Teaching	Seen as “negotiated word meaning” for the interactive participants in order to communicate
Task-Based Language Teaching	Development of meanings of words is crucial
Learner-Centered Instruction	Word meaning is essential for fostering learners’ intrinsic motivation. Pupils learn key vocabulary and then engage high-level thinking skills
Cooperative/Collaborative Learning	It follows the Learner-Centered Instruction; vocabulary principles promoting learners’ help from peers and teachers
Interactive Learning	“Negotiated word meaning,” highlighting the semantic senses
Whole Language Education	Meaning emphasis; it is the “wholeness” of language through the “Interrelationship of the four skills” (Brown, 2007, p. 54-55)
Content-Based Instruction; Theme-Based Instruction and Sheltered-Content Instruction	Meaning emphasis through language and subject matter using learners’ intrinsic motivation and empowerment; word meaning is primary relevant to “themes;”

	word meaning is first and vocabulary is modified “to help L2 learners process the content.” (Brown, 2007, p.56)
Sustained-Content Language Teaching	Word meaning is highlighted and “focused on a single content area” (Brown, 2007, p. 56)
The Lexical Approach	Paramount importance. Words and word combinations are the “building blocks of language”
Multiple Intelligences	Developed through the particular intelligences of the learner

From the previous table, it is clear that the way vocabulary has been dealt with through history by the various methods/approached is varied. In other words, vocabulary teaching has been neglected or secondary in some methods and approaches since the emphasis was on other skills, and in other periods, vocabulary teaching has been acknowledged as primary or essential since it is identified as important for the methods’ purposes. Another important aspect to note is that during the past 40 years, with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching, vocabulary teaching has regained its importance.

Besides the previous information, there are several aspects that can affect the teaching of vocabulary. First, teaching vocabulary may be difficult for some teachers because they do not know what the best vocabulary teaching practices are and how to create an instructional emphasis on learning words (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). Coady (as cited in Jamil, Majoka, & Khan, 2014) explains that a great deal of English teachers were not taught with a high vocabulary emphasis in their elementary, secondary, and undergraduate studies. This is important because as Hofer and Pintrich (as cited in Jamil, Majoka, & Khan, 2014) express, teachers’ epistemological beliefs highly influence their classroom teaching since their processes of making decisions are based on their knowledge and also on their experiences as learners. Furthermore, Ferrell and Ives (2015) argue that

“language teachers hold complex beliefs about teaching and learning, and...these beliefs have a strong impact on classroom practices (p. 594). Another constraint has been pointed out by Borg (2003) who states that the lack of available resources for teachers influences their classroom teaching. Other aspects that can affect the way instructors teach vocabulary are the learner’s age, language, and study level, number of learners, English communicative skill(s), etc. (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008).

In the literature on the topic of vocabulary instructions, many authors have made recommendations on how best to teach this aspect. Manyak and Bauer (2009) argue that educational institutions must be ready to implement a consistent, intensive, well-articulated, multi-year English vocabulary instruction approach. This approach should aim at satisfying English vocabulary learners’ needs and their long-term academic achievement. They also feel that teachers must help learners by providing explicit instruction of basic English vocabulary and less familiar high frequency words, especially in reading. In order to do this, teachers should create and use materials that focus on increasing learners’ fluency with high frequency word phrases; having learner-friendly definitions and examples of use; paying attention to multiple meanings and discussing the chosen word meanings in context; and trying to master the 3,000 most common English words. Additionally, the authors propose that higher-level vocabulary must be taught using a blend of content-oriented terminology and useful and popular general words. This must be done in a balanced way since it has been proven that learners may be successful with this blending if it is carried out in a symmetrical form.

Another aspect that Manyak and Bauer (2009) suggest is that since students should learn more words than may ever be taught, vocabulary instruction must be multisided. This

means that it should comprise the teaching of specific words and appropriate word meanings strategies in order to build word consciousness in learners. This sort of multisided approach has been vigorously supported by Carlo et al. (2004). Related to this idea is their suggestion for teachers to use some specific proven successful approaches, techniques, and strategies in order to support learners' mastery of the meanings of unfamiliar words. These include the use of graphic organizers, drama, real objects, visual images, adjusted delivery (slowing down speech, using multiple synonyms, and simplifying grammar), and drawing parallels between the learners' first language and English cognates. These ideas are supported by the research of Blachowitz, Fisher, Ogle, and Watts-Taffe, (2006), who conclude that "individual teachers may be successful in using a variety of strategies for vocabulary instruction" (p. 526) and that there is a need to use an inclusive, unified, school-wide approach.

Although it is recommended the use of as many strategies as possible for vocabulary instruction by teachers, Sedita (2005) admits that "there is no one best method" (p. 34) and that vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly. Sedita (2005) defines, on the one hand, direct instruction as explicitly teaching specific words such as pre-teaching vocabulary before reading a text and/or carrying out word roots and affixes analysis with the students. This author firmly believes that teachers cannot deal with all the words learners need and that is the reason why indirect instructions methods are required. Sedita (2005) defines indirect instruction as the teaching of words, phrases, expressions, or any lexical sets as they come up in the class and were not planned for the class. This also includes answering a learner's on-the-spot inquiry. This author suggests that teachers, in order to work with the aforementioned methods, must expose learners to a large amount of

unknown words, often through having them read a lot. Baumann, Kame'enui, and Ash (2003) assure that aiding learners to develop word appreciation and have delightful and satisfactory experiences in their vocabulary growth and development are to be included in the indirect instruction methods.

Planning is another aspect that is important to vocabulary instruction. Nation (2011) argues that “the most important job of the vocabulary teacher is to plan” (p. 530). Nation (2008) proposes that vocabulary learning time should be equally distributed in the four strands: (1) meaning-focused input (learning through listening and reading), (2) meaning-focused output (learning through speaking and writing), (3) language-focused learning (deliberate study), and (4) fluency development (in listening, speaking, reading and writing). Specifications related to the four strands and their applications with a focus on vocabulary are demonstrated in the following table that was adapted from Nation (2001).

Table 2

The Four Strands and Their Applications with a Focus on Vocabulary

Strand	General conditions	Vocabulary requirements	Activities and techniques
Meaning-focused input	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the message • Some unfamiliar items • Understanding • Noticing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 95% + coverage (preferably 98%) • Skill at guessing from context • Opportunity to negotiate • Incidental defining and attention drawing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading graded readers • Listening to stories • Communication activities
Language-focused learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on language items 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skill in vocabulary learning strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct teaching of vocabulary • Direct learning • Intensive Reading

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate teacher focus on high-frequency words, and strategies for low-frequency words. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training to vocabulary strategies
Meaning-focused output	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the message • Some unfamiliar items • Understanding • Noticing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 95% + coverage (preferably 98%) • Encouragement to use unfamiliar items • Supportive input 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication activities with written input • Prepared writing • Linked skills
Fluency development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the message • Little or no unfamiliar language • Pressure to perform faster 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 99% + coverage • Repetition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading easy graded readers • Repeated Reading • Speed Reading • Listening to easy input • 4/3/2 • Rehearsed tasks • 10 minute writing • Linked skills

The previous table has valuable input for understanding how to plan a class or course when vocabulary teaching topics are essential, and the following paragraphs will explain aspects found in the language-focused learning section of table 2 above: teaching high and low frequency words and the noticing, retrieving and generating steps for leading to a word being remembered.

McCarten (2007) declares that the choice of how much vocabulary to teach pupils is influenced by some factors such as word frequency, word “learnability” (how easy the word is to learn and teach), and word usefulness for learners and the class. Therefore, there

should be a clear distinction between the teaching of high and low frequency words since teachers and learners should face these words in a different way. First, high-frequency vocabulary needs to be presented and exercised in natural contexts through materials appropriate to the learners' needs. Also, according to McCarten (2007), students should start training in the strategies for dealing with vocabulary when they are learning the high-frequency words. With regards to high-frequency words, Nation (2001) advises the use of "direct teaching" (suggested activities: teacher explanation, peer teaching), "direct learning" (suggested activities: study from word cards, dictionary use), "incidental learning" (suggested activities: guessing from context in extensive reading, use in communication activities) and "planned encounters" (suggested activities: graded reading, vocabulary exercises) as ways of teaching and learning this type of words. Conversely, with regards to low-frequency words, Nation (2001) recommends that they be learned in a rough order of importance once students know the high-frequency ones, and teachers should not spend large amounts of class time explaining and practicing this type of vocabulary. While teaching both high- and low-frequency words, teachers should focused on "expanding and refining the learners' control of vocabulary learning and coping strategies" (Nation, 2001, p. 21), using strategies such as: "context clues, using word cards deliberate learning, keyword technique, using word parts to help remember words, and using dictionaries" (2011, p. 531). The aim of this strategy training is that students will at long last be able to put them into practice without the guidance of their teacher, increase their vocabulary size and continue to learn new words.

In addition to the manner in which high and low-vocabulary is taught, it is significant to explain Nation's (2001) the steps for a word being remembered and how

teachers might help learners through these steps. This author bases his vocabulary acquisition theory on “noticing,” “retrieving,” and “generating” steps. First, teachers should help learners to get used to the habit of noticing which means to give attention to the word. This can be done in the class by stating the following three points for the class: clarity in classroom instructions and homework assignments, vocabulary item selection, and the purpose and use of each word. Having structured vocabulary notebook exercises is highly recommended for noticing purposes. As a second step in the vocabulary teaching process, Nation (2001) recommends “retrieving” (word recovery). During this step, teachers should use repeating and recycling activities. Gu (2003) explains that forgetting a word mostly happens after students first learn a word. In order to solve this problem, Ghadirian (2002) suggests teachers and learners have repeated contact (from 5 to 20 times) with the word in study if learning is to take place. Strategies like bringing lists of paired items (word in English and its translation, although there is some criticism of this idea) and repeating words out loud instead of repeating them silently foster this process of repeating and recycling. The third step of this process includes generating. This step happens when a word that has been seen before is used in ways that are different from the use before. Nation (2001) suggests some strategies for using a word generatively: brainstorming, retelling without the input text, role play based on written input and instead of reading the same story more than one time, reading a longer story and introducing it section by section may help learners in this step. McCarten (2007), supporting Nation’s ideas, maintains that learners must use and practice “word knowledge” as much as possible, and teachers must be promoters of this.

Another important aspect related to the teaching of vocabulary deals with raising the awareness of the vocabulary learning process in general. McCarten (2007) believes that teachers should help learners to know that vocabulary learning is a gradual, incremental process. They should guide students through this gradual learning process, demonstrating to them how they may return to a previously “learned” word in order to expand information about it (prefixes, suffixes, other meanings, etc.). Also, teachers must help learners comprehend that they may have more receptive vocabulary than productive vocabulary; that is, students are able to recognize and understand more vocabulary than they might be able to produce. Additionally, teachers should help learners to become better vocabulary students. This could be done by teaching various strategies and techniques that can be put into practice in order for students to continue vocabulary learning outside the classroom and/or independently. Finally, according to this author, teachers must help learners, in vocabulary growth, to work not only with single words but also with larger “chunks” (collocations, expressions, phrases, even whole sentences), placing great importance on strategic vocabulary. This will help learners to communicate in a more fluent manner.

Notions of difficulty and learning burden must be considered when teaching vocabulary, too. How much vocabulary is suggested for a learner to study in one class is a question treated by some researchers. Nation (2001), who does not specify an exact number of words per class, answers this inquiry by stating that teachers must plan the vocabulary goals of a course bearing in mind three sorts of information to have a decision about how much vocabulary needs to be learnt: First, “the number of words in the language,” second “the number of words known by native speakers,” and third “the number of words needed to use the language” (p. 6). McCarten (2007), who does not specify an amount of words per

class either, asserts that learners who comprehend, in the written language, the most frequent 2,000 words (i.e., high-frequency words) are able to understand approximately 80% of the words in a text, and in the spoken language, learners with a 1800-word mastery may cover the 80% of the spoken corpus. To this end, McCarten (2007) concludes that instead of attempting to cover the huge number of words or vocabulary items, a teacher should help students with “what” and “how” to learn vocabulary.

Another necessary aspect to be mentioned in this section is the strong connection that vocabulary and reading currently has. This connection was acknowledged as secondary in relation to the teaching of other L2 skills in the 1970s and early 1980s, according to Hinkel (2006); however, this idea has shifted in the present day. Chall (1987) states that vocabulary knowledge may aid reading and reading may aid to vocabulary growth. Stahl (1990) asserts that reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge are very linked to each other. Eskey (2005) considers that the kinship between vocabulary and reading is “well documented and reciprocal” (p. 567). Blachowitz, Fisher, Ogle, and Watts-Taffe (2006) assert that vocabulary knowledge is one of the most meaningful predictors at the moment of reading comprehension. Manyak and Bauer (2009) claim that one of the teachers obligations is to assist their students by supplying, mainly in reading, explicit instruction of basic English vocabulary and less common high frequency words.

Having explained the close connection between vocabulary and reading, it is essential to conceptualize the sorts of reading and the role of vocabulary in each one of them. The first one is “intensive reading” which is defined by Brown (2007) as a classroom-oriented activity in which the main target is on the semantic or linguistic details of the piece to be read. Nation (2001) remarks that intensive reading is the close study of

short texts, having the objective of understanding the text and paying attention to discourse, grammar, and vocabulary of the text. Nation (2001) assures that vocabulary in intensive reading activities is the most time class consuming but also the principal access for learners to reach the English knowledge. He suggests that pre-teaching key vocabulary prior to facing the text is important. He advises teachers to help learners to master the vocabulary and its usage and grammar. He believes that teaching an intensive reading activity is not shallow; it is a profound study, analysis, and understanding through context and helps learners in the language-focused learning strand (see Table 2).

The second type of reading is “extensive reading” which Brown (2007) affirms is performed to accomplish a general understanding of a generally longer text. He also asserts that most of the extensive reading is carried out outside of class time and that reading for pleasure should be included in this sort of reading. Coady (1997), Nation (2001), and Eskey (2005) all maintain that extensive reading may supply students with the opportunity to meet new and old vocabulary and raise the development of reading fluency. Nation (2001) contemplates that extensive reading helps learners in the meaning-focused input and fluency development strands (as shown in Table 2). For extensive reading, besides other possibilities, Nation (2005) recognizes “graded readers” as a very important option when he states that “without graded readers, reading for a second language learner would be one continuous struggle against an overwhelming vocabulary” (p. 588).

To finish, Mothé (2013) asserts that “today, it has become mandatory for the academicians to rethink and revamp their teaching strategies with the changing times...[and] vocabulary teaching methods and techniques need desirable and radical

changes in a view (sic) of the demanding job market in the globalized world” (p. 377).

These beliefs have helped him to make a list of ideas for vocabulary teaching, bearing in mind that teaching vocabulary is not only teaching specific words but also providing students with necessary strategies for vocabulary knowledge expansion. He advises that teachers use the following vocabulary teaching strategies:

- Teaching vocabulary in context
- Combining vocabulary with reading and writing activities
- Supplying the learners with different lexical information of the word in study
- Showing actual objects and showing models
- Using demonstrations and showing pictures
- Dealing with word etymology
- Using morphological word analysis
- Drawing pictures
- Associating vocabulary
- Using a dictionary
- Word collocations, synonyms, antonyms, etc
- Dealing with words often confused

Literature Review

The present literature review describes in a summarized manner the findings of previous studies developed abroad and in Colombia related to vocabulary teaching and learning strategies.

The academic study of vocabulary is one of the English language components which were neglected for some decades. Nevertheless, this has changed in the last 20 years. The interest for studying different aspects of vocabulary has dramatically increased in the international and national scenarios, especially when the focus of study is the strategies used for vocabulary teaching and learning.

Internationally, Gu (2002) conducted a study with adult Chinese EFL learners and their vocabulary learning strategies and reported significant differences in gender, academic major, learning strategies and learning outcomes. Mayuree (2007) in his research examined and described the vocabulary learning strategies of 1,481 undergraduate students of Rajabhat University, the frequency in the strategies reported by the students, and the relationship between five independent variables and the frequency of the strategies reported. He found that seven factors (self-directed vocabulary learning through English-language media utilization, vocabulary expansion through conversation, vocabulary learning through productive skill, vocabulary practice for improvement, vocabulary retention through verbal rehearsal, meaning discovery through guessing, vocabulary learning through the use of dictionary, and vocabulary learning through other sources' reliance) were strongly related to the variables in study. Noor and Amir (2009) explored the use of strategies in vocabulary learning in a group of 35 EFL learners related to reading and found that there were different vocabulary uses to vocabulary learning depending on students' needs. Mukoroli (2011) based his thesis on the effective vocabulary strategies in three English for Academic Purposes classrooms and discussed which ones could help the language learners. Some of these were: guessing meaning from context, teaching lexical chunks, teaching collocations, teaching word family, incidental vocabulary acquisition,

recycling content, keeping a vocabulary journal, eliciting, contextualization, and labeling. Llamosas (2011) carried out an action research study which aimed to supply the lack of appropriate vocabulary teaching and learning strategies in EFL beginner students at a higher level institution in Peru. The researcher identified diverse strategies which were applied and were useful for teachers whose objective was to aid their learners to improve their vocabulary learning. These strategies were the use of additional visual and tactile material (for example, picture vocabulary and exercise vocabulary cards), the use of an English dictionary in their reading practices, and the use of different material in the VIP program to stimulate the students' participation. Easterbrook (2013), in a mixed method research, investigated about the possible influence between two components beliefs about language and language learning (BALLL) and vocabulary learning strategy use (VLSU) in connection with the vocabulary learning process in a Chinese university, discovering that there is consistency between the VLSU and BALLL and no important correlation between VLSU/BALLL and vocabulary size tests. Nayan and Krishnasamy (2015) studied how useful vocabulary learning strategies are for 52 students from the Accountancy faculty in a Malaysian university, concluding that students preferred to acquire vocabulary through listening to English songs, reading books, and communicating. From their results, they also support of the emphasis on the use of explicit vocabulary teaching in an English class. Asyiah (2017) examined, through a mixed method design, the perceptions of teachers and students in the vocabulary teaching and learning processes and the influence of the vocabulary learning strategies chosen by the students in order to develop their vocabulary. It was found that on the teachers' side, they preferred contextual strategies, for example, using context clues (definition, examples, inferences, synonyms, antonyms, contrast,

general), to teach English. The students had determination and cognitive strategies as their favorite ones. The determination strategies they used were highlighting the use of dictionaries (picture, bilingual, and monolingual), using word lists given by the teacher, and guessing from textual context. The cognitive ones included the use of the vocabulary section from the textbook, doing a verbal/written repetition, and taking notes in class.

In Colombia, it is found that some authors have also studied the vocabulary teaching and learning strategies as the main topic. Diaz (2015), in a qualitative study, and Trujillo, Álvarez, Zamudio, and Morales (2015), in a mixed method action research study, examined the effects that metacognitive strategies have in young students at a beginners level of English and how these strategies helped the students who have some constraints when increasing and retaining vocabulary. At the end of these studies, the researchers reported that metacognitive strategy training favorably affected the students' vocabulary acquisition skills since they could raise awareness on the use of metacognitive strategies and some other learning strategies that helped them to learn vocabulary using learning journals. Furthermore, critical thinking and self-directed attitudes of the participants improved and eased the transference of metacognitive strategies to other areas of knowledge. Pérez and Alvira (2017), in an action research study, deepened on the implications resulting from the application of three vocabulary strategies in a group of students in a public school in Tolima; they applied association with a topic through fables, association with pictures, and use of word cards. They were able to conclude that the aforementioned vocabulary strategies were effective in the process of expansion of a range of words and the ability to recall these words and that they have relation with affective and cognitive factors. The authors argue for the training of teachers and students in developing more vocabulary

strategies in the English classes. Guapacha and Benavidez (2017) studied, through an action research, the language learning strategies in a Colombian university. They reported that using the Task-Based Language Teaching and the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach helped students to improve in their communicative skills and their language learning strategies.

In general, the previous information has shown recent studies which may help to understand the issue of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies at both the local and international context. It is essential to notice that although all the investigations noted in this section were focused on the same topic, some of them reported similar results, and some others had differences in aspects such as the research methodology and instruments, results, and conclusions. Additionally, it is important to mention that no research was found related to the topic of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies in the Colombian military field, or specifically in the Colombian Navy, the place of my case study. That is the reason why I considered necessary, first, to start investigating and analyzing about what vocabulary teaching and learning strategies are identified as helpful in a naval school with its possible implications and, second, motivate future research under this topic.

This conceptual framework covered aspects such as the different concepts of vocabulary, the importance of vocabulary in the English language teaching and learning field, the implications of knowing and learning a word, the process of learning vocabulary with its strategies, the process of teaching vocabulary, and recent studies in the area. These points help to have a better understanding of the necessary theory and guides the method used in this research study that will be described in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Method and Design

This research project aimed to describe the way vocabulary is taught and learned at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla. In particular, it focused on analyzing the strategies teachers and student use to support the vocabulary learning process.

Burns (2000) defines the word “research” as a systematic inquiry or investigation in which data collection, analysis, and interpretation processes are essential. This process is developed in an attempt to “understand, describe, predict or control an educational or psychological phenomenon or to empower individuals in such contexts” (Mertens, 2005, p. 2). Thus, in order to meet the objective of the research project, it is necessary to base the project on philosophical ideas which are “combined with broad approaches to research (strategies) and implemented with specific procedures” (Creswell, 2003, p. 4). In this way, this chapter describes the research method used in this project, including the epistemological perspective; the methodology; the design of the study; a description of the participants; the data collection instruments; and the procedures and techniques used for data collection and analysis. Finally, it will end with the ethical considerations taken into account during the research process.

Epistemological Perspective

In order to choose the best method to reach the objectives proposed in this research project, it is crucial to clarify the research epistemologies or theoretical perspectives underpinning the process. These are named differently, depending on the author. For instance, Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), on the one hand, consider as research epistemologies the following ones: Postpositivist (and positivist), Interpretivist/Constructivist, Transformative, and Pragmatic epistemologies; Creswell

(2003), on the other hand, does not use the name of research epistemologies but “alternative knowledge claims” which are Postpositivism, Constructivism, Advocacy/Participatory, and Pragmatism. Creswell (2013) defines that research epistemologies, or alternative knowledge claims as “philosophical worldviews” since he considers worldviews as “a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to study” (Creswell, 2013, p. 35). Creswell (2013) agrees with Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) in the names of the four research epistemologies. For this research, I will use a combination of Mackenzie and Knipe’s (2006) and Creswell’s (2013) terminology.

For the purpose of this research, I will explain about the last philosophical stance which is called Pragmatism, having its foundations in actions and outcomes instead of conditions. Here, the problem is very important; therefore, pragmatist researchers focus on the “what” and the “how” of the research matter (Creswell, 2003). They highlight the research problem and utilize all the possible approaches to comprehend the problem and reach a feasible solution. Researchers here have freedom and flexibility to select the research methods, procedures, and techniques that help them to fulfill their needs and objectives. Thus, they search for many approaches for data collection and analysis rather than using only one. For this reason, this approach is often tied to mixed methods studies because researchers use qualitative and quantitative data to study the proposed research problem. To summarize, the characteristics of this theoretical perspective already named are: consequences of actions, problem-centered, pluralistic data collection tools and methods, and real-world oriented (Creswell, 2003; Creswell, 2013).

For this particular study, I will be using the pragmatism epistemological perspective since its emphasis goes straight to “the research problem” and there is an interest in the

applications and solutions to the stated problem (Patton, 1990). In my case, my research project has as a goal of explaining the link between the way professors teach vocabulary and students' vocabulary learning in a particular context by analyzing the strategies professors apply and their effectiveness. That is the reason why the pragmatism perspective matches my research reality since it gives me all the tools to understand the specified problem: the vocabulary teaching-learning process of English at ENSB. Another reason to use this epistemological perspective in my study is that, according to Creswell (2013), researchers using pragmatism have a "freedom of choice," which means I may use quantitative and qualitative information for supporting my investigation; and consequently, I might use a mixed method approach to guide my research.

Methodology

Having dealt with the different research epistemologies or theoretical perspectives and their generalities, this section will focus on the three most important research methodologies: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method.

The quantitative research methodology can be simply defined as an approach that "uses numbers as data and analyzes them using statistical techniques" (Braun & Clark, 2013, p. 3-4, emphasis in original). Thus, it answers questions related to "how much" and "how many" and is often associated with experimental, empirical, or statistical-type research. Another important characteristic is its objective of verifying theories by scrutinizing the relationship among possible variables, which often are measured through instruments and procedures with statistics for analyzing numbered data collected (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Quantitative research designs often incorporate “true experiments” and some less formal type of experiments named “quasi-experiments” (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Some non-experimental forms of quantitative research may be found, too, such as causal-comparative research, which has as a main point the comparison of two or more groups using an independent variable or cause that has previously occurred, and correlational design, which, according to Creswell (2012), uses correlational statistics in order to measure or describe the relationships between two or more variables. In addition to these, survey research and experimental research are linked to quantitative designs. This type of research is formal and generalizable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006) and uses methods related to the natural sciences with the goal of making certain the features of objectivity, generalizability and reliability (Weinreich, 2010).

Since some researchers believe that research cannot only be based and measured on numbers, a response to the previous research method appeared. That is the reason why some interest for qualitative research methods was aroused during the latter half of the 20th century, especially from the fields of anthropology, sociology, evaluation, and humanities (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Again, Braun and Clark (2013) explain that “the most basic definition of qualitative research is that it uses words and data...collected and analyzed in all sorts of ways” (p. 3-4). As a result, it focuses on the “quality” or nature and essence of something to gain understanding, describe, discover, and/or make meaning of a phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). People who apply this type of research use an inductive style, based on individual meaning and emphasizing the depiction of the intricacy of a given situation. Words associated with the characteristics of the design include flexible, evolving, and emergent (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) because the research

process includes arising inquiries and procedures, the data is usually collected in the environment of the participant, the analysis of the data is built in an inductive way from particular topics to general ones, and the researcher's role is to make interpretations of the data significance (Creswell, 2013).

Some common qualitative research designs include case studies, ethnography, grounded theory, narrative inquiry, and phenomenological research. Kemmis and McTaggart (2000) and Cheek (2004) propose that discourse analysis and participatory action research are other types of qualitative research.

During the last 60 years the line between qualitative and quantitative methods has begun to blur. Newman and Benz (1998) consider that quantitative and qualitative research methods depict ends of a continuum that cannot be seen as polar opposites, but may be used taking some parts of both of them. Therefore, a third option began to emerge that included the concept of mixing different methods (called a "multimethod mix" by Campbell and Fiske in 1959) in both the data collection and the analysis of the data. This method began as a way to ameliorate biases inherent to particular methods; thus, the idea of triangulating with both qualitative and quantitative methods could allow one method to "help develop or inform the other method" (Creswell, 2003, p. 16). Creswell (2015) defines mixed methods as a research approach, emerging from the middle to late 1980s, as an approach to research...in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems. (p. 2)

This method joins the two ways of data; for example, traditional surveys (quantitative data) with observation and interviews (qualitative data), and uses diverse theoretical frameworks, philosophical assumptions and research designs. Researchers of this kind believe that the mixture of quantitative and qualitative research methods gives a more profound understanding of a research matter than when they work with only one research method. Tashakkori and Teddlie (as cited in Creswell, 2013) assert that mixed method research methods contain some characteristics including:

- Form to blend the quantitative and qualitative data in one database in order to verify the validity from one database to the other.
- One database may help explain the other database, may explore diverse sorts of inquiries, may guide to better instruments if they do not properly fit into a sample, may construct on other databases, and one database may interact with another database through a longitudinal study.
- One database may guide the researcher to find better instruments when these are not appropriate for a specific group of participants or sample population.
- Databases may aid constructing on each other databases through the intended research.

Additional to the mixed method research method features, there are models which are currently located in the social sciences and may be employed as strategies. These are: convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods, and exploratory sequential mixed methods; considered primary models, and transformative mixed methods, embedded mixed methods, and multiphase mixed methods.

Creswell (2013) conceptualizes these mixed-method strategies in the following manner: a convergent parallel mixed method is a design in which the investigator converges or uses both sorts of data (quantitative and qualitative) to analyze the research problem. An explanatory sequential mixed method is a design in which the investigator first leads some quantitative research, analyzes the data and then uses some qualitative research to explain the results or findings. An exploratory sequential mixed method is one opposite to the explanatory sequential design. First, a qualitative research step is employed, some data is analyzed; and then, a quantitative one is developed. A transformative mixed method is the one which uses information taken from power or social justice as an “overarching perspective” (Creswell, 2013, p. 44) in a design that implicates both quantitative and qualitative data. An embedded mixed method is the one in which either the sequential or the convergent use of data is put into practice. However, the quantitative data or the qualitative one is set inside a bigger design. A multiphase mixed method is a design widely used in evaluation and program interventions, having as a trait the application of sequential or concurrent strategies together with another in order to grasp a long-term program objective.

Before making my decision about what research method should be selected for my thesis, it is important to mention that all research methods have their advantages and disadvantages (Ayiro, 2012). This author affirms that they “have different strengths, weaknesses and requirements that affect researcher’s project accuracy” (Ayiro, 2012, p. 490-491).

I will mention some disadvantages that research methods have since their strengths have already been discussed in the previous paragraphs. To start, the first option, a

quantitative research method, includes only working with closed-ended information using checklists or public documents and predetermined approaches to respond to some research inquiries or to prove any hypotheses. It only deals with numbers or statistics (Ayiro, 2012; Creswell, 2013); therefore, this may not be sufficient to have a complete view of the research situation since a quantitative research method does not include some aspects that a qualitative research method takes into consideration. Levitt (2015) identifies that quantitative research, due to its focus on numbers, applies a “procedure-driven” way of working, but it lacks of the “interpretation” that a qualitative study has.

Next, the second option, a qualitative research method, comprises only open-ended information using participants’ observation, interviews, etc. and emerging approaches to answer to the proposed research questions. Its analysis is based only on words or texts (Creswell, 2013; Ayiro, 2012). Similarly, this may is not enough to get the complete picture of the research problem since a qualitative research method does not incorporate some traits that a quantitative research method bears in mind. Levitt (2015) points out that a qualitative research, due to its focus on words, uses an “interpretation” way of working, but it lacks of the “procedure-driven” focus that a qualitative one has. Therefore, this type of research is relative and “ungeneralizable” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). Also, Weinreich (2010) states that a disadvantage of a quantitative research method when data collection is the topic is that it is labor intensive and time consuming.

Finally, the third option, a mixed-method research method, while uniting both quantitative and qualitative aspects, presents some limitations too. According to Ayiro (2012), it is not simple to develop and can be time-consuming to carry out, requiring “expertise in both methods and extensive data collection and resources” (p. 496) because

both quantitative and qualitative data must be collected and analyzed. Consequently, the procedures for this sort of research can be complex and the presentation of the information must be clear since a reader will have to deal with both quantitative and qualitative type of information. Furthermore, Ayiro (2012) considers that researchers are often only able to handle one sort of research method (quantitative or qualitative), and a mixed method research method demands that they are in contact with both types of data, making it very difficult.

Based on the previous information, I conclude that the most appropriate research method for my investigation is the mixed method approach using a “convergent parallel strategy” due to the subsequent reasons:

- A mixed method approach works based on the pragmatic worldview and collects both types of data (quantitative and qualitative).
- A convergent parallel mixed method strategy, as was stated earlier, is a plan of action in which the researcher converges or uses both kinds of data (quantitative and qualitative) to scrutinize the research matter.
- The collection of diverse sorts of data leads the researcher to a deeper and more complete comprehension of the intended research question.
- A study in this type of approach may initiate, according to Creswell (2013) with “a broad survey in order to generalize results to a population” (p. 48) (quantitative data), and, later, may continue with open-ended interviews or any other qualitative data collection instruments that aid to explain the former quantitative data.

After having reviewed the reasons of my choices for this research related to the most adequate research method and strategy, the next section will explain the type of study I used for this investigation.

Design of the Study

One important design used in research which has become more and more important is the case study. A case study is a type of research design defined by Stake (1995) and Yin (2009, 2012) as an investigation and profound analysis of a case which can be developed in many fields, especially evaluation. This case may be about an activity, an event, a process, or a program of one or more people. Case studies are linked by activity and time, and the data collection process is done by having detailed information coming from diverse procedures through an uninterrupted period of time. Furthermore, Robson (as cited in Cohen, Marion, & Morrison, 2007) remarks that a case study focuses on the “analytic aspect” rather than “statistical generalization,” having as its aim to develop a theory which may aid researchers to comprehend other “cases, phenomena or situations” (p. 253) with similar features. In this regard, Mackey and Gass (2005) state that case studies have the tendency to supply particularized information of specific pupils or classes in their learning atmosphere.

Several authors, as described in Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), have divided case studies into different types. This information is summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Types of Case Studies

Author	Year	Classification
--------	------	----------------

Yin, R. K	1984	-Exploratory, - Descriptive, and - Explanatory.
Merriam, S.B.	1998	-Descriptive, - Interpretative, and - Evaluative.
Merriam, S.B.	1988	Case study domains: - Ethnographic, - Historical, - Psychological, and - Sociological.
Sturman, A.; Stenhouse, L.	1999; 1985	-Ethnographic, - Single in-depth, - Action research, - Evaluative, and – Educational.
Stake, R. E.	1994	-Intrinsic, - Instrumental, and - Collective.
Robson, C.	2002	-Individual case study, - Social group study, - Studies of organizations and institutions, and - Studies of events, roles and relationships.

In addition to the types of case study, it is important to mention that they have advantages and disadvantages or “caveats” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 72). Mackey and Gass (2005) report that the principal advantage of any case study is that it allows the investigator to concentrate on the individual in a manner that is not often possible in a group investigation. Likewise, in case studies researchers may study more than one learner or more than one group of learners for the objective of comparing and contrasting their manner of conducting themselves within a particular context. Additionally, Nisbel and Watt (as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) state that results may be more easily comprehended by the readers, including non-academics, since a case study is often written using language that is not technical. Further, a case study focuses on certain unique traits which might be lost if using larger scale data collection tools, for instance, surveys. These unique traits may allow the researcher to understand important aspects of the phenomena. A case study,

according to Nisbel and Watt (as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007), is acknowledged as “strong on reality” (p. 256) and can supply insight into other case studies with like features; therefore, it may shed insight into cases with similar properties. They also state that a case study may be developed by a one researcher without requiring a complete research staff and can be used even when unexpected events and variables arise.

Besides the possible advantages of a case study, Mackey and Gass (2005) acknowledge the disadvantages this type of research may have. They report that when dealing with a case study, “a researcher must be careful about the generalizations drawn from the study” (p. 172). This means that generalizations from an individual or a group of individuals in a case study must be dealt with extreme caution if one does not want to be misinterpreted. In short, a single case study often cannot be taken as a rule; therefore, while they may supply worthy input on certain issues, single case studies are not easily generalizable (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Nisbel & Watt, 1984). Also, according to Nisbel and Watt, a case study might be “selective, biased, personal and subjective” (as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 256) because it tends to have some problems or biases from its observer, although effort is made to make it as objective as possible.

I have selected the case study as the type of study to use for this project since it centers on the analytic aspect rather than statistical generalization (Robson as cited in Cohen, Marion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 253). This idea directly matches with my research objective which is to analyze the vocabulary learning/teaching processes in my current work site. Besides, I chose case study since it can be related to a program, a process, an event, or an activity of one or more people; this also matches with my current reality. Another reason this research design was chosen relates to Mackey and Gass’s (2005) definition in which

they comment that case studies provide particularized information of particularized classes or students. This means that with a case study one might research about more than one student or group of students for the goal of comparing and contrasting their way of conducting themselves in a particularized state of affairs.

Furthermore, collecting data for my research will be done by having many details deriving from several procedures in a certain period of time, and that is what is proposed for this project. Specifically, I picked the case study possibility for my research since case studies let the researcher focus more on the individual in a way that is not commonly possible in a group research. Also, as Adelman et al. (as cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) explain, insight gained from a case study can be put directly into use, and since the research context is my workplace; I hope to be able to do this.

Description of Participants

After writing about the type of study I selected for my research, it is necessary to have a description of the participants of this study. The participants of this case study are two English teachers who teach at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla and two groups of students, one for each teacher. Both of these teachers showed interest in participating in the study because they feel concerned about the lack of progress of their students when vocabulary learning is the issue.

In order to obtain background information about these teachers, I performed an informal interview with each and took notes on the information they provided. In this interview, they were asked to give information about their undergraduate degrees and their years of experience teaching English. Also, both of these teachers took a proficiency exam in 2016 and their score was provided to me by the Petty Officer in charge of the English

Department. When reporting the findings, in order to protect the identity of these teachers, I have changed their names. One will be referred to in this study as “María” and the other as “José.”

María has a B1 level of English, according to the Common European Framework of References (CEFR). With regard to education, María finished her undergraduate studies in language teaching and has taught general English for more than 25 years in the private and public sector. She has worked for the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla since 2011.

José has a B2 level according to the proficiency exam. He finished his undergraduate studies in 1993 in language teaching and has been teaching general English for more than 20 years for some local public and private institutions at both the school and university levels. He also has some experience teaching technical English since he has worked at SENA from 2002. He has worked at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales from 2011.

Another group of participants are the students who are members of the classes that María and José teach. All students are 1st year Cabin Boys from the classes of Electro mechanics and Nursing. In this study, the Electro mechanics learners will be called Group A from teacher María and the Nursing students, Group B from teacher José. They are from different parts of Colombia and study at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla. Group A is comprised of 19 Cabin boys, and Group B is comprised of 24. All of these students are male and their ages range from 16 to 20 years old. Although they have studied English in their high schools in Colombia, their proficiency level according to

the CEFR is A1 since, when they enrolled into this institution, an online Cambridge placement Test (General English Test) was given to them.

The choice of these two groups was based on the decision of the two English teachers who considered these classes as the appropriate ones for the objectives of this research project. According to the teachers, most students come to this school showing an interest in learning English and feel attracted to learning English vocabulary, especially Maritime English (MarEng) vocabulary. According to María and José, nonetheless, most of the learners are passive during the learning process, only participating if the teacher asks them to. In fact, most of the talking is done by the teacher and the pupils only contribute with minimal interventions in the class. It seems that students' motivation for learning English, including its vocabulary, is gradually reduced, most likely because their military duties grow continually. Therefore, according to the teacher's perspectives, they have little time to devote to their English studies.

Data Collection Techniques and Procedures

In order to respond to the research questions, I will be applying data collection techniques which will permit me to compile information related to the objects of study. According to Chaleunvong (2009), these may be objects, phenomena, or people, and related to the scenario in which the study may happen, and they must be collected in a systematic way in order to answer the proposed research questions in an objective form. Therefore, since my decision was to use a mixed method approach, I collected data through a vocabulary pre- and post-test, classroom observations, and a questionnaire for the students.

Classroom Observation. According to Reed and Bergemann (2005), classroom observations is one effective way of understanding how certain teaching methods are used in educative institutions, how classrooms are arranged or sorted out, and how pupils answer to the classroom milieu. Also, they state that “school-based observation and teaching experiences are the bridge between the worlds of theory and practice” (p. 11).

Additionally, Griffe (2012) considers that classroom observation may be conceptualized as the intentional, principled, and systematic looking, recording, and analyzing of the outcomes of the observation for the research objectives.

In addition, different types of observation may be distinguished according to their degree of structure (Mackey & Gass, 2005): highly structured observations and less structured observations. In the former ones, the researcher almost always makes use of an itemized rating scale or checklist; in the latter ones, the researcher can trust on using field notes with the goal of having particularized descriptions of the events, processes or phenomena being observed or can trust on using transcripts of tapes recorded on the observation spot. For the purposes of my research, I used a combination of both kinds of observations since I used a checklist to identify the vocabulary teaching and learning strategies handled by teachers and pupils and I wrote some field notes which helped me to have more details of what was observed.

Furthermore, classroom observations have their own advantages and/or disadvantages. With regards to the advantages, they are helpful because they supply the investigator with the chance of collecting a considerable quantity of useful data on the behavior of the people who are involved on the research and the actions in a peculiar context (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Classroom observations are a form of collecting

information about the processes related to teaching and learning in the classroom (Richards & Farrel, 2005).

With regard to the disadvantages, it is possible that the usual behavior in the participants in a classroom observation may be affected by an outsider observer. This is called the “observer’s paradox” (Labov in Mackey & Gass, 2005); this means that when an observer is in the classroom, the students’ linguistic behavior and performance may be altered. This alteration may be observed in the teacher since he/she is now “on show” (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 94; Wragg, Wikely, Wragg, & Haynes, 2002). Additionally, Richards and Farrell (2005) acknowledge as a disadvantage that an observer may only observe events and processes that are visible such as classroom activities and language, learners’ participation, questioning techniques, timing, etc. Likewise, Fradd and McGee (1994) conclude that observation alone is not sufficient and requires other data collection instruments, such as tests.

In this particular project, classroom observations matched my research aims because I needed to analyze and understand how certain teaching and learning processes were carried out, and I wanted to unite the worlds of theory and practice.

In order to gather needed information, I observed two different courses that the participants in this research, María and José, taught. The classes I observed were with military students (1st year Cabin Boys) from the classes of Electro mechanics and Nursing. As mentioned earlier, the Electro mechanics learners were named Group A and the Nursing students, Group B. I carried out my observations in both classes bearing in mind the same research objectives: to observe what vocabulary teaching and learning strategies were used in the development of one unit from the established ENSB English syllabus. To do this, I

performed observations of one unit of each teacher. Therefore, I observed six classes with a total of eight hours per teacher participant.

Following what is suggested from Richards and Farrell (2005), when implementing classroom observation, I started this process with each teacher separately, with a pre-observation discussion in which I collected some information about the teachers and selected classes. I also explained to them what my data collection activity was. While observing, I took field notes and used a Classroom Observation Format (see Appendix A) which was a checklist of the possible vocabulary teaching strategies used by English ENSB teachers and a blank space for additional comments. The proposed checklist for this activity was a combination of the vocabulary teaching strategies suggested by Nation (1990) and Schmidt (1997). After I finished my class observations of each teachers' classes, I followed what Richards and Farrell (2005) recommend at the moment of implementing a classroom observation, a post-observation discussion, which in my case was to informally report what I had observed in their classes to my colleagues.

Pre- and post-tests. Along with classroom observations, following the advice of Fradd and McGee (1994), to complement this information, I used a pre- and post-test. A pre- and post-test design, also named classic control experimental design, is, according to Mackey and Gass (2005) a measurement of the learning developed in a class with the goal of comparing what the pupil knew before (pre-test), or prior to the treatment, and after (post-test) the class or session. They assert that with this sort of design a researcher ensures comparability of the participant groups and may calculate the treatment effects in an instantaneous manner. Similarly, Morris (2008) states that using a pre-/post-test design is a

beneficial tool for research. He affirms that in a pre-/post-test design, research participants are involved in control conditions or treatment and are measured in two moments: before and after the treatment administration; and, because of this, this sort of design has a number of advantages over those that only measure the participant in only one moment such as the post-test design. Hunter and Schmidt (2004) explain that the use of more than one time measurement in the pre-/post-test design permits each participant to be used as her or his own control, significantly helping in the tests based on statistics because of its power and precision. Bearing in mind the previous information, I selected the pre-test and post-test design for my research in order to “determine the immediate effect of treatment” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 149). As mentioned in the introduction, I decided to include this as a way to see if what the teachers and students were doing in the class related to vocabulary had an impact on students’ vocabulary learning.

In the design of the pre-/post-tests, the teacher participants gave input on the vocabulary that would be covered during the units. From this, I created a pre-test for each unit for each course. This pre-test contained a list of words in English, and students were asked to write the translation in Spanish, according to what they knew (i.e., they could not use dictionaries or any help). After the teachers concluded the eight hours of the unit, I applied the same test (post-test), using the same methodology of the pre-test. The reason I applied this was to see if there was any change in the vocabulary words that students knew after receiving the lessons from the teachers.

Questionnaire. In order to triangulate the collected information for this case study, it was decided to use a questionnaire with the students who participated in the courses.

Brown (as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005) defines questionnaires as a subset of survey research in which participants respond to a series of pre-established statements or queries in written form. Responses may be in closed (participants must check an option or several options from a list) or open format (participants write their answer to the question). Mackey and Gass (2005) and Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) consider that the survey, which commonly has the form of a questionnaire, has some advantages: it allows for gathering data from a group of people, and it is often used to get data on preferences, opinions, and attitudes. Therefore, it is one of the most frequent data collection methods. Furthermore, these authors recognize that questionnaires or surveys have been widely used for research related to second language and permit investigators to collect information that participants may inform about themselves, especially their attitudes, beliefs, reactions and motivations about and to learning. In this respect, Dornyei (2003) wrote a list of second language research topics that habitually use questionnaires or surveys, among them: language attitudes, preferences for instructional activities, L2 learning strategies and styles. This last choice was my case in this research project.

Additionally, Mackey and Gass (2005) state that surveys or questionnaires may have open ended questions or closed ended ones. The first ones permit the participants to express their opinions without any limits; the second ones allow participants to respond to some questions previously established by the researcher. In my research, I selected to use a questionnaire with both types of questions. The closed questions have the advantage, according to Mackey and Gass (2005), of "...involv[ing] a greater uniformity of measurement and therefore greater reliability" (p. 93). The open questions allow for richer

data since participants can write aspects that maybe the researcher had no considered beforehand.

The questionnaire for this research had six questions. The first four questions were closed questions and were related to students' perception about the vocabulary learning and teaching strategies used by themselves and teachers at the ENSB, the materials and resources used when teaching and learning vocabulary at ENSB is the topic, and the number of hours students dedicate to vocabulary learning besides the English class. The last two questions were open and asked the participants what aspects or factors help or make difficult the pupils' vocabulary learning process (see Appendix B for the complete questionnaire). All the previous questions were with the purpose of collecting as much data as possible from the students which enrich my data collection process.

Analysis of the Data

After collecting all the data, it was considered essential to move to the next step in a research: data analysis. Data analysis is defined by Seliger and Shohamy (1989) as "sifting, organizing, summarizing and synthesizing the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research" (p. 201). Similarly, Marshall, and Rossman (1999) conclude that data analysis is the process of putting meaning, order and structure to the amount of data collected. Data analysis is considered as an "activity of making sense of, interpreting and theorizing data that signifies a search for general statements among categories of data" (Schwandt, 2007, p. 6). Since this study uses a mixed method research, data analysis was developed following the guidelines given for this sort of method research. To illustrate this, Onwuegbuzie and Combs (2010) acknowledge that a mixed analysis, when research

implementation is the topic, is needed for a mixed method research, and this requires the use of analytical techniques in qualitative and quantitative manners. They inform that a mixed analysis is conducted by either three kinds of decisions: a priori, a posteriori, or iteratively. In my case, I led my data analysis in an iterative form since my decision was a combination of a priori and those that arose during the development of this study.

Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003) note that investigators go through at least seven stages when using a mixed analysis, which is the procedure that I used in this case study. The following table depicts the seven suggested stages in this type of data analysis process.

Table 4

Stages in the Data Analysis Process (adapted from Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003, p. 360)

Stages in the mixed methods data analysis process	Description of each stage	Application in quantitative data analysis	Application in qualitative data analysis
1. Data Reduction	Reducing the dimensionality of the qualitative and quantitative data.	Via descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis and cluster analysis.	Via exploratory thematic analysis.
2. Data Display	Pictorially describing both the qualitative and quantitative data.	Using tables and graphs.	Using matrices, charts, graphs, networks, lists, rubrics, and Venn diagrams.
3. Data Transformation		Quantitative data are converted into narrative data that can be analyzed qualitatively.	Qualitative data are converted into numerical codes that can be represented statistically.
4. Data Correlation		Quantitative data is correlated with qualitative data.	Qualitative data is correlated with quantitative data.
5. Data Consolidation	Both qualitative and quantitative data are combined to create		

	new or consolidated variables.		
6. Data Comparison	Involves comparing data from both the qualitative and quantitative data sources.		
7. Data Integration	This is a final stage, wherein both qualitative and quantitative data are integrated into either a coherent whole or two separate sets of coherent wholes		

For this project, I carried out the analysis process according to the previous data collection tool. I considered it necessary to “triangulate” all the collected information from classroom observations, pre- and post-tests and students’ questionnaire in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the collected data from the aforementioned instruments. Triangulation is conceptualized by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) as “the use of two or more methods of data collection to study a particular phenomenon“(p. 112). Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (as cited in Onwuegbuzie & Combs, 2011) highlight triangulation as one of the suggested strategies for conducting a mixed analysis. The other four options are: complementary, development, initiation, and expansion. From the sorts of triangulation indicated by Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Miles and Huberman (1994) which are triangulation by the researcher, by theory, by data, and by method, I used the last two. On the one hand, data triangulation since it is linked to the use of several sources, and in my case study, I conducted classroom observations, applied pre- and post-tests, and had students complete a questionnaire. On the other hand, I also used method triangulation because it is related to the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study, and in my study, being a mixed method research, both methods are of great importance.

In the analysis of the observation I reviewed the classroom observation form and the field notes to find the common strategies used by both teachers and both groups of students. I also reviewed those that were used more often by tabulating the information of the observation forms to organize them by frequency of use. Finally, I reviewed the strategies that were different among the teachers and students of Group A and Group B.

In order to analyze the pre- and post- tests, I assigned each student a number and created a table for each group in order to be able to compare the results. In this table I included the number and percentage of words that students were able to correctly translate from English to Spanish on both the pre-test and the post-test. Finally, I reviewed the percentage of progress per student and group. On this table I also included the class average. In the analysis, I paid special attention to the ones who had the most and least progress, those that maintained the same score, or the students who decreased in their result on the post-test. Finally, I divided the students into groups based on their ranges of progress (0-5%, 5.1 to 10%, and so on) in order to identify the range that contained the largest number of students with regards to their progress.

The questionnaire analysis process involved two types of analysis. With the closed-questions, I reviewed the questionnaires to tabulate the responses most frequently identified by the student participants. These related to the materials and resources preferred, the vocabulary strategies that students believe are effective for learning vocabulary, the common vocabulary teaching strategies used by teachers, and the time that students dedicate to studying vocabulary outside of classes (see Appendix B for the exact questions). With the open-ended questions, I categorized the responses and noted those that were repeated most frequently by the students.

Ethical Considerations

In order to have a credible research project it is necessary to consider ethics in the research process. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016) the ethics of the researcher reflect directly on the validity and reliability of a project. Patton (2015) argues that the “trustworthiness of the data is tied directly to the trustworthiness of those who collect and analyze the data” (p. 706) because “methods do not ensure rigor. A research design does not ensure rigor. Analytical techniques and procedures do not ensure rigor. Rigor resides in, depends on, and is manifest in rigorous thinking—about everything, including methods and analysis” (p. 703). Thus, as Creswell (2014) stresses, the researcher has the “obligation to respect the rights, needs, values, and desires of the informant(s)” (p. 258) since most qualitative research, especially where there is an observer, affects the participant in some way.

In order to maintain high ethics in the research process, several aspects should be taken into account. Creswell (2014) lists several important aspects to consider: (1) stating clearly the objectives of the study, the data collection tools, and activities, (2) getting written permission or consent from participants, (3) having transcriptions and written interpretations available to the participants, and (4) taking into account participants’ wishes regarding reporting data and anonymity. Patton (2015) adds several more including establishing data collection boundaries, performing risk assessment, having reciprocity (what’s in it for the interviewee and the issues of compensation), and making ethical methodological choices, among others.

For this study, in order to carry out an ethical study, first, I clearly stated this case study objectives, its data collection tools, and possible activities. Then, I explained this

research project to the participants, including the objective of this study and the activities in order to obtain their written permission to conduct this investigation through an informed consent. In the informed consent document, participants were explained that they were invited to voluntarily participate in the case study and that they may opt out at any instance of this project and that all the collected information (pre- and post-tests, questionnaire, etc.) would be treated with high standards of confidentiality and privacy at all moments. It was also said to the participants that the information collected would be kept at the language laboratory at ENSB. Participants accepted being involved in this investigation and signed the informed consent. Therefore, I proceeded to collect and analyze the data. Finally, I kept the participants identities anonymous. The teachers were given pseudo-names and the students were assigned a number and referred to in that manner.

In the next chapter, I will present the information related to the results obtained from the data collection instruments applied in this case study with its corresponding analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

Following the methodology and analysis processes described in the previous chapter, this section presents the results derived from the data. The aim of this study was to answer the following main research question: How is vocabulary taught and learned by teachers and students at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla?

To facilitate the presentation of this chapter, I have organized it into three segments: (1) the description of the classroom observations of two English teachers at ENSB, focusing especially on both the vocabulary teaching and learning strategies; (2) the results of the vocabulary pre- and post-tests carried out by the ENSB learners chosen for this case study; and (3) the results on the students' questionnaires or surveys.

Classroom Observations

As mentioned previously, I observed two English teachers at ENSB. For these observations, I used a classroom observation format (see Appendix A) and took field notes. Below, I provide a description of both the teachers and students during each observation, with a summary of the specific vocabulary strategies and vocabulary teaching-learning techniques that I observed during each observation.

Description of María's first class observation. The first observation of María took place in the institution's Language Laboratory, which is a place that offers a better environment than those students' classroom since at that time it was a small classroom for the 19 students. The class was arranged into two columns of two students each with computers available for each of them. Also, this place has a TV screen and a blackboard.

The class topic was the present continuous and María used unit 5 from the book *Interchange Intro 3rd ed.* (Richards, 2005) as a guide. She initiated the class by greeting her pupils and asking questions to elicit information that was covered in the previous class. Students showed little engagement in the class, chatting and complaining that they were sleepy and hungry. Not many students gave answers, so the teacher decided to write a list of words (routine actions) on the board and pronounced them. Next, students were asked to repeat the pronunciation of the words chorally and individually. Students started being involved in the class. The teacher corrected some pronunciation mistakes and asked students if they knew the meaning in Spanish (L1) of the words she wrote. Some correct answers were given and the teacher corrected students' mistakes related to the meaning of the words. The students had some vocabulary questions related to the words spelling and form and their teacher clarified their doubts by writing two example sentences, underlining the pupils' required words and explaining the spelling and form differences in them. All the interaction related to vocabulary meaning was done in Spanish. After answering the students' questions, they were asked to jot down the list of words in their notebooks and some of them used their computers to check the meaning of some words; this is a possible indicator that not all of the meaning of the words was clear to them.

Then, the teacher wrote a model conversation related to the class topic and included most of the words previously encountered and asked the students to write this dialogue in their notebooks. She underlined the -ING part from the verbs and asked them if they understood the conversation. Some grammar and vocabulary questions arose and, again, during that time the teacher-student interaction was in L1. Some students, instead of paying attention to their teacher, typed the conversation in an online translator in their computers.

Next, María pronounced the conversation out loud and asked students to practice the conversation in pairs. Not all of them practiced it; instead they were talking about their military obligations and some physical punishment they had the previous night. Some students voluntarily read the conversation out loud and María corrected pronunciation. The teacher praised a pair of students because of their correct pronunciation.

After this paired practice, María introduced the grammar point, eliciting some information related to the verb *to be* and wrote its affirmative conjugation on the board. She asked the students if they knew how to change the verb *to be* affirmative conjugation into the negative and interrogative ones. Students' answers were split; some of them said yes and some others no. A student explained to the class in Spanish and the teacher agreed with the student's explanation.

Having clarified pupils' questions, the teacher wrote some other sentences and explained the spelling change done in affirmative form of the present continuous in verbs that finish in -e. Students' vocabulary and grammar questions were answered in L1. The teacher used an example connected to her life to clarify one of the students' questions.

To recap the given information, the teacher asked the students about the present continuous structure and to jot it down in their notebooks. Then, students were required to do some vocabulary and grammar exercises on a photocopy that was given to them. The class finished with the students' out loud participation and correction of the photocopy exercises. As homework, pupils were requested to bring some examples using the present continuous with the list of words (routine actions) used at the beginning of the class.

To summarize, María used the following 13 vocabulary teaching strategies, although there were a few that were the most prevalent (translation, verbal repetition, and use of word in a sentence):

- presented word lists or group of words
- pronounced the selected words
- asked her students for verbal repetition
- translated the word into L1
- elicited students for meaning
- explained the parts of speech of some words
- explained the spelling of some words
- underlined the initial letter of the word or any other part of the word
- used a sentence or a conversation including the new word
- used word practice since her students completed some vocabulary exercises
- motivated her students to use a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- motivated her students to take notes from the vocabulary
- connected the words to a personal experience

With regard to the student's vocabulary learning strategies, Group A used the following eight:

- used a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- wrote the word lists María used for that class
- requested the word translation
- requested a model sentence

- analyzed the part of speech of the word with the teachers' help
- practiced the word spelling and pronunciation
- underlined the initial letter of the word or another part from it
- took notes or jotted down the key vocabulary from that class

Description of María's second classroom observation. María started her class greeting her pupils and asked them for their homework. Some students responded that they did not have time to do the homework because of their military duties. The teacher told them there was no excuse for not doing it and that a change in that day class activities was necessary because they did not do their homework. I believe that this was the reason why she decided to write the same routine actions (word list) from the previous class and said that the topic class was the present continuous.

She asked the students to pronounce and translate the words. First, she used group choral repetition and then individually selected students to read the words. Students were actively participating in this activity. As in the previous observation, when María's pupils and María worked reviewing the meanings of the words on the list, their interaction was in L2; therefore, when she explained or answered questions and when students answered or had questions, all of the interaction was only in L1. Once, María requested her group to say: *What's the meaning of _____?* instead of the equivalent sentence in Spanish. One student said they never used that expression.

María continued her class eliciting some information about the present continuous structure affirmative form. The right answer was not given immediately; pupils said some answers until they could figure out the complete correct structure. María asked the students

to say some examples using the words on the board if possible. There was no immediate response and students chatted in Spanish. Then, students gave some examples and one of them was corrected by the teacher due to the omission of the verb *to be* (from *I get hungry* to *I am getting hungry*).

At this point, some students were distracted by their computers while some others were sleeping. María took advantage of this situation, pointing to one student and saying: “I’m sleeping.” She scolded them and asked if they were ready for the next activity.

She cleaned the board and introduced the present continuous negative form, using some of the same verbs from the word list and some new verbs for the students. Some of the pupils asked María for the meaning of the new verbs and she translated them or used images from the internet. The class appeared to be engaged and told their teacher they understood the meanings of the words.

María asked her pupils to do the photocopy exercises in pairs, and they used an online translator for vocabulary questions. Then, the teacher corrected the exercise and clarified some questions, explaining in L1 and warning the students about the possible mistakes that could occur when using an online translator and not paying attention to the sentence context. María praised her students for their correct answers and she introduced the present continuous interrogative form and short and long answers by reading out loud the information from the book.

A student confused the term “short and long answers” with “short and long questions.” María clarified his doubt in L1. Students were asked to change sentences into the interrogative form. María emphasized that the key was in the verb *to be*. Students were

confused and helped each other or translated the sentences using an online translator. The teacher required pupils' answers and corrections were done when mistakes occurred.

In the next class step, María wrote a list of *Wh-* question words on the board and questioned the students in L1 if they knew how to make a question in present continuous using those words. Two students asked for the meaning of one of the *Wh-* question words, and María immediately translated all of them. Some students jotted down the meaning in their notebooks, some others looked for the meaning in the internet or their paper dictionary. A student asked a question about the difference in meaning between *What* and *Which*. María explained using L1.

María illustrated the grammar point writing some examples with *What* on the board and asking the students what would the *Wh-* question word be; there was no answer by the students. She jotted down a list of verbs previously developed in this class and told the students that if they had doubts about their meanings, to check in the internet and write them in their notebooks. Some pupils used the internet, some others wrote the information in their notebooks, and some others said present continuous examples using *What*. The teacher corrected a student mistake asking the rest of the class for the correct interrogative form: *She's driving, or is she driving?* Only one pupil answered correctly.

To finish that class, the group answered an exercise in their photocopies and responded orally when they were picked up by María. She called two students' attention because one of them was sleeping in the classroom and the other was watching a video on the computer. Because of this, she could not finish all the exercise, and ended the class by reminding them about their next class homework: to review the present continuous forms.

In short, María's vocabulary teaching strategies used in that class were very similar to the ones she used in the first class I observed; she especially used word lists, translation, verbal repetition, and word in a sentence. The repeated vocabulary teaching strategies were:

- presented word lists or group of words to review or introduce new vocabulary
- pronounced the selected words
- asked her students for verbal repetition
- translated the word into L1
- elicited students for meaning
- used a sentence or a conversation including the new word
- used word practice since her students completed some vocabulary exercises
- motivated her students to use a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- motivated her students to take notes from the vocabulary

Some new vocabulary teaching strategies used by María in that class were:

- used pictures or images to illustrate word's meaning
- motivated her students to guess the word meaning from the context

Based on the previous information, María used about 11 vocabulary teaching strategies in that class, less than in the first class I observed. This may be due to the emphasis on grammar during the second class and the fact that the explanation of the new vocabulary was mostly covered in the first class.

María's pupils used the seven vocabulary learning strategies below, repeating most of them. It seems students felt comfortable or are used to these strategies. They were:

- used a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- wrote the word lists or word groups María used for that class

- requested the word translation
- requested a model sentence
- practiced the word spelling and pronunciation
- underlined the initial letter of the word or another part from it
- took notes or jotted down the key vocabulary from that class

Description of María's third classroom observation. In that class, pupils arrived late because they were grounded by a senior petty officer during their break and they were complaining about this. María tried to organize the class, but students showed little cooperation. Some of them started using the computers without their teacher's permission and were doing things not related to the class. María handed over a new set of photocopies and explained in Spanish the class objectives: To review the present continuous form in affirmative, negative, and interrogative sentences. She asked the students to check the information from the photocopy which was a dialogue using the present continuous, especially in the interrogative form. It included some images representing different actions.

María read the conversation out loud and asked a pair of students to read it out loud, too. She asked about the meaning of some words. Her students reported that there were some unknown words for them. María divided the class in groups of four students and asked them in L1 to guess the meaning of the unknown words using the context and the images in the photocopy. It seemed that these pupils and María have previously worked this sort of activity since they immediately made their groups, started doing the activity, and did not have any questions related to the activity methodology. Some students complained about the photocopy quality, they said that for this activity it was important to analyze the

photos and María gave them a new copy. Students worked in their groups and had some vocabulary questions since they could not guess or answer all the words and exercises. María told them she was not going to help. Some students looked confused, some others started falling asleep.

Then the teacher asked questions about an image: *What's mowing the lawn?*, some pupils replied in L1 that they didn't know the meaning of "mowing" and "lawn." María, pointing to the photocopy picture, answered the question in L1. After this, she read some photocopy instructions in English and asked for the meaning of *Who*. A student said in L1 that *Who* was a question word and another one confused "who" with "where." The teacher explained in L1 and corrected the mistake.

Pupils orally responded to the exercises with some pronunciation errors that María corrected right away. She, then, asked some questions using *-ing*, her *key* question was: Who is doing the action? Students answered at the same time and did not wait for the teacher to choose them.

The next activity in this class was the genitive case. María explained it in L1 and clarified some doubts. The teacher read the instructions of the activity and her pupils started doing it. A student went to talk to her and showed her his notebook. After five minutes, María asked for volunteers, students gave the exercises answers, and María corrected some pronunciation errors.

Afterwards, the next exercise was a guide conversation in which pupils were requested to repeat the conversation out loud. One of them was using an online translator looking for some words. Students repeated the conversation, and María corrected some pronunciation mistakes. Some students did not listen to their teacher; they were distracted.

A student asked in L1 to a classmate for the meaning of a word, but there was no answer, neither from his classmate nor from the teacher. That student decided to use a bilingual dictionary.

María asked two students to read the conversation again and checked some pronunciation mistakes and grammar problems with the verb *to be*. Then, María wrote some example sentences on the board and explained the grammar rule. She asked the pupils to copy the information on the board in their notebooks because these examples were related to a video they were about to watch.

María wrote the video instructions on the board, but students were distracted watching music videos in the internet or talking amongst themselves. María warned them that she was not going to explain again and most of the students stopped being distracted and listened to her. Most of them watched the videos that María had assigned while two of them watched soccer videos and two other pupils complained they had no internet connection. María told them to share computers with their classmates.

When the students ended watching the videos, María asked the students to do the video activity on the photocopies and told them that they could watch the video again in case of doubts. Students seemed involved and enthusiastic doing the activity since María proposed to grade the video activity as a ten (the top grade) to the first group who finished the activity and had the correct answers. They worked for ten minutes but could not finish the activity since the class time was over. Pupils told María not to forget about the proposal (the first group with the correct answer would be graded with a ten).

To sum up, in the third class, I identified 12 vocabulary teaching strategies María used in her class. Although she used some new strategies, she repeated most of them;

especially, answering to students' questions with an L1 translation, verbal repetition, use of a bilingual dictionary or the Internet, elicitation, and use of a word in a sentence. Her repeated strategies were:

- translated the word into L1
- elicited students for meaning
- verbal repetition
- used a sentence or a conversation including the new word
- used word practice since her students completed some vocabulary exercises
- motivated her students to use a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- motivated her students to take notes from the vocabulary
- motivated her students to guess the word meaning from the context
- used pictures or images to illustrate word's meaning

It is important to remark that the first six strategies mentioned above were used in all the classes I observed to María. The last two strategies, she used them in the last two classes and some new vocabulary teaching strategies used by María in the third class were:

- used the vocabulary section in students' textbook or photocopies
- asked students to discover/study/practice new meaning through group work activity
- used English language media resources (videos, songs, etc.)

I could see that María's students were more enthusiastic doing those class activities. I think this could be due to the use of English language media resources (videos and video activities) that she did not use before. In that class, her students used nine vocabulary

learning strategies. Most of them were the same and less than the previous classes. This could be due to the fact that most of the class was grammar-based and pupils worked more on their vocabulary skills when they worked on the video activity María proposed. They were:

- used a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- requested the word translation
- requested a model sentence
- practiced the word spelling and pronunciation
- discovered/guessed the word using the context
- discovered/practiced new meaning through group work activity
- used the vocabulary section in the textbook or photocopy
- took notes or jotted down the key vocabulary from that class
- used English language media resources (videos, songs, news, etc)

Description of José's first classroom observation. In this section, the most predominant features I discovered in each of the observations of José's classes are described here. These took place in group B's classroom, which had some limitations for developing teaching-learning processes since at that time it was a small classroom for the 23 students from this class. In that classroom, students were arranged into two rows of two students each and the back row with five students. Most of the pupils had bilingual dictionaries and their personal computers. For these observations, José's pupils and José used the English textbook, *New Let's Speed Up 1* (Mitchell, 2011). They were working on chapter two.

José started his class by greeting his pupils and complaining that the classroom was too hot because of the air conditioner problem and that was the reason why the class was going to be short. The students agreed on José's proposal. He explained in L1 that that day they were going to start a new unit which had new different vocabulary and grammar topics and quizzes could be done at any time. The group did not like the idea of having pop quizzes. José asked his pupils to look for their English books and check the information on the first page of the new unit. After checking the requested page, the class had some vocabulary questions, but he told them to wait. Some students decided to look for the meaning of the unknown vocabulary in their dictionaries or PC's.

José asked them to open the books on the next two pages which were named "Meet the Addams Family" and had the family members as a vocabulary topic and personal pronouns, possessive adjectives and the possessive case as grammar aspects. He wrote a list of five family members and asked the students if they knew more family members in English. Some students participated and another one jotted down on the board, under José's command, what their classmates were saying: some other family members. This student made some spelling mistakes and José and some students corrected them in L1. To a pupil's question, José explained the difference between "uncle" and "ankle" in L1.

After this, José asked his pupils to chorally repeat the selected vocabulary, correcting some pronunciation errors. A student asked about the meaning of "aunt" and José explained in English the definition of the word by saying: "your mother's sister or father's sister." He also wrote this explanation on the board and asked the student who his mother's sister was. The student did not understand the question and another student helped him by partially translating it into L1.

José asked his pupils to do some book exercises individually, but they answered the exercises in groups, helping each other and mostly solving any questions on their own. Some students checked in their paper dictionaries, some others used an internet translator, and two of them asked vocabulary questions in Spanish to José. A student complained he could not translate some words and José clarified that they were “proper nouns” and that they could be identified because they start with a capital letter. Another pupil asked that what a capital letter was and José explained, first in English and then in Spanish. Another student translated “capital letter” incorrectly and José gave the correct translation in L1.

José chose five pupils to say the exercise answers and asked the rest of the class to pay attention if there were mistakes. There was only one error and a student corrected it in L1. José asked the class if they remembered the “personal pronouns” in English. He reminded that this topic was already developed in their last module.

The students completed the personal pronouns list and José wrote an example using the personal pronoun “I” and requested the students to change this sentence to “he.” There were some incorrect answers until a student said the correct one. José praised this student. Then, José asked the class to change this sentence to “they.” There were some incorrect answers, and José reminded them about singular and plural. With José’s explanation in Spanish, some pupils could say the correct answer.

After this, José asked them if they remembered any information about “possessive adjectives;” their answer was negative. José decided to write an example sentence using “I” and “my.” Then, he wrote the list of possessive adjectives, with students’ help. José asked them to repeat the word list and to pay attention to the translation into L1. A student asked José to explain the difference between “his,” “her,” and “its.” José explained in English, but

the pupils seemed confused. A student could only explain the difference between “his” and “her,” reporting he did not know about “its.” José explained it in L1 and asked them to repeat one more time the pronunciation of the possessive adjectives.

To finish that class, José asked them to write five example sentences using the possessive adjectives in their notebooks and when they ended, they had to compare their answers with some other classmates. The pupils began the activity using their paper dictionaries, online dictionaries, or classmates’ help. After five minutes, José commented that the classroom was too hot and the class was over, assigning the activity for homework. The class agreed on José’s statement, one pupil requested José to change the classroom for their next class.

To sum up, José used the following eight vocabulary teaching strategies in that class. In comparison to María’s class, José was also attached to use word translation, word lists, and verbal repetition. However, he used some different vocabulary teaching strategies that gave variety to his class when teaching vocabulary is the topic. They were:

- elicited students for meaning
- explained the spelling of some words
- pronounced the selected words
- paraphrased the new word
- used a sentence or conversation including the new word
- answered students an L1 translation
- used a L1 cognate (word)
- presented word lists or group of words

With reference to the student's vocabulary learning strategies, Group B used the next six:

- used a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- took notes or jotted down the key vocabulary from that class
- requested the word translation from the teacher
- requested the word translation from a peer
- practiced the word meaning through group work
- practiced the word pronunciation through verbal repetition

Description of José's second classroom observation. In the same classroom, José began this class by greeting his pupils and reminding them that there was a possibility of having a quiz. He asked them for their homework and most of them participated and checked some mistakes. He also scolded two students for not doing the homework.

José asked the pupils about the topic of the last class. He randomly chose students and some answers were incorrect. José clarified all doubts related to “personal pronouns” and “possessive adjectives” in L1 and wrote a grammar-filling-out exercise from a different book to reinforce the last class topic: personal pronouns and possessive adjectives. The class did the exercise in groups and solved their vocabulary queries by asking José in Spanish. José asked them to jot down the new vocabulary words and their translation in their notebooks because they were going to use them in a later stage of the class. He selected a student from each group to say the correct answers. He emphasized on the difference between “his” and “her.”

After this, the next exercise was to unscramble the letters of some words (family members) José wrote on the board; he explained the exercise in L2. Some pupils got confused. José explained the exercise again in L1 and asked for the answers. They had no problem answering, and José wrote the right answers on the board and asked the students to repeat the pronunciation of these words. A student, in L1, asked José how he could say “cousin” in L2. José asked the rest of the class if they knew the answer. There was no immediate answer and since the class could not respond correctly this question, José answered the question.

In the next class stage, the teacher told the students that the class topic was “the possessive case” and elicited information from them. Some of them reported they did not know anything about this topic. José wrote an example sentence and explained what the “possessive case” was. He highlighted the difference between (‘s) from the possessive case and (‘s) from the verb to be. His explanation was first in L2 and then in L1. After emphasizing on the word order on the possessor and the possession, he wrote some examples in Spanish and asked the students to translate them. At the beginning, pupils translated them incorrectly, but José explained it again in L1 and they seemed to understand the topic and did the proposed exercise. Then, José asked them to do an exercise in their books, listened to the students’ responses, and made some grammar corrections in L1. José played the CD book to check the exercise answers. Students seemed engaged listened to the CD track.

In the next stage, José played a video about the possessive case to clarify any possible doubts and asked questions related to the video to his students. Some students asked about some new words that appeared in the video in L1 and José inquired why they

did not ask the question in English. A pupil said the requested expression in English, and José said the English definition of the word. After he repeated the definition three times in L2, he decided to say it in L1. The class finally understood.

Then, José asked the class if they wanted to listen to a short English song related to the topic and they happily agreed on this. Some of them were enthusiastic; some others complained and asked the professor in L1 if the song was old. It was not a song; it was a video related to the topic and the class complained about it. José objected the class's complaint letting them know that English was not only songs and made some questions related to the video. Some pupils answered José's questions correctly. He told them that in compensation for not playing a song, they would play a game.

José handed out to the students a photocopy named: "Whose is this? Whose are these?" The photocopy was a guessing game with the Wh-question word *Whose* on top of the page, a list of 44 words, mostly objects, and a few time expressions in the middle of the page and the phrases: ... is this?, ...are these? at the bottom of the page. Some pupils reported to José that they did not understand some words and he asked them to translate the words. The class used their paper and online dictionaries, helping each other, and occasionally asking José for the pronunciation of some words.

When the students finished the translation, José asked them to pronounce and translate them. He corrected some pronunciation slips and told them the game instructions. At first, students were confused, but after some examples, they were divided into four groups and played the game. Mostly, they could say the answers correctly. The corrections of any student's mistake were mostly performed by José and sometimes by the students. José explained the homework which was a written composition describing their families

and putting into practice the vocabulary and grammar points developed earlier and using photos if possible. Some pupils complained asking José for no more homework.

In summary, José used the following 11 vocabulary teaching strategies in the class. Some of his strategies were repeated such as: use word translation, word lists, and verbal repetition. However, he used some different vocabulary teaching strategies that gave variety to his class when teaching vocabulary is the topic. José's repeated strategies were:

- elicited students for meaning
- pronounced the selected words
- explained, paraphrased or used a synonym/antonym of the new word
- used a sentence or conversation including the new word
- answered students an L1 translation
- presented word lists or group of words

The new vocabulary teaching strategies José used in the second class I observed were:

- used word practice since his students completed some vocabulary exercises
- asked the students to take notes or jot down the key vocabulary from that class
- used English language media resources (CD book, videos, etc)
- asked pupils to listen to tape of wordlists
- motivated students to use a bilingual dictionary or the Internet

In that class, Group B used the next nine vocabulary learning strategies. The first 4 strategies were used by José's pupils for the second time. The last five were used by José's students for the first time. Their strategies were:

- used a bilingual dictionary or the Internet
- took notes or jotted down the key vocabulary from that class
- requested the word translation from the teacher
- practiced the word pronunciation through verbal repetition
- asked the teacher for the word in L2
- used a wordlist
- listened to a recording of the wordlist
- asked the teacher for an explanation or synonym/antonym of the word
- used a bilingual dictionary or the Internet

Description of José's third classroom observation. In that day, José greeted his pupils and told them that he needed to leave earlier and that the class was going to be shorter. He ordered them to have a piece of paper for a pop quiz which was divided into two parts using the words developed in the previous class. Some words were in English and others in Spanish, and they had to translate them into L1 or L2 depending on the case. Most of the pupils complained about the second part of the quiz, to translate some words from Spanish to English, letting José know that those words had not been studied. He remarked on that those words were the ones they wrote in their notebooks last class, and it was not his fault if they did not study them. The students looked stressed because of the pop quiz and reminded José about his last class promise, the 0.5 points from the former class. José clarified that the extra points were only for group two and that he had the names of the people from this group.

The quiz was over five minutes and later, José continued the class asking for homework from the last class: the written description of students' families using the vocabulary and grammar covered last class. José chose them randomly and praised the pupils who read their descriptions and used family photos, grading them with a ten and lectured the students who did not do homework, grading them with a zero. Those students considered José's decision unfair because they did not have time because they were on duty. Homework revision was for ten minutes and José asked the class to be ready for next activity.

The following activity was José's elicitation about vocabulary related to animals and body parts. The class was active participating and José wrote a list of about twenty words from students' responses. They practiced the word pronunciation, and José used TPR (Total Physical Response) to practice vocabulary: Body parts. He touched the body part and pronounced them simultaneously. Then, he ordered his pupils to touch the part of the body he said.

After this, José asked his group to open his books and looked for the page called *Pet Corner* because that was the topic for that class. He played the CD for checking again the pronunciation of some words: animals and body parts. A student asked for pronunciation clarification for "her" and "hair." José told him in L1 that these words were homophones. The student commented that he did not know what homophones were, but José kept on with the class flow.

José asked them to do the reading activity which comprised of reading a text named: *Pet Corner* and a True/False exercise. The teacher asked them to research for unknown vocabulary and they needed to support their true or false answers and correct the false

answer. He asked some pupils to read the text out loud and asked in L1 about the meaning of some key words. The students orally answered that exercise. This exercise seemed easy for them.

The teacher scolded some students and they said that they were sleeping because it was hot and the air conditioner was too noisy. José did not accept that excuse and ordered the course monitor to write that incident in the daily class report. Then, José presented the grammar point of this class: the verb *to have* in present simple, affirmative, and negative form in the simple present tense. This was done in Spanish. He wrote the conjugation on the board and emphasized on the subject pronouns that are used with “have” and the ones with “has.” He also highlighted the difference between using “don’t” and “doesn’t” warning the students that this should be easy for them because they had previously worked with the present simple. Pupils disagreed, but José asked them to do the book exercises and told them that he would answer their questions in the next class since time was over. He also warned them that another quiz could be done. The students did not like this idea. They said that that week they were going to be quite busy.

In brief, José used the following ten vocabulary teaching strategies in the third class I observed. He continued to use word translation, word lists, verbal repetition, and meaning elicitation. However, he used a different vocabulary teaching strategy which was the use of physical actions or gestures when explaining a new word. His strategies were:

- elicited students for meaning
- pronounced the selected words
- asked students for verbal repetition
- asked students to listen to tape of wordlists

- used English language media resources (CD book, videos, songs, etc)
- explained, paraphrased or used a synonym/antonym of the new word
- answered students an L1 translation
- presented or used word lists or group of words
- used word practice since his students completed some vocabulary exercises
- used physical action or gestures

In that class, Group B used the following eight vocabulary learning strategies. The first four strategies were used by José's pupils again. The last four were used by José's students for the first time due to the activities José proposed for that class. Their strategies were:

- practiced the word pronunciation through verbal repetition
- used a wordlist
- listened to a recording of the wordlist
- completed exercises using word practice
- completed word tests
- answered the word meaning using L1 or L2
- used any available pictures or images to identify word meaning
- used physical action to learn a word

Description of Pre- and Post-test Results

As mentioned in method section, on the first day I observed María and José's classes, the teachers started a new unit with their students. Before María and José began those new units, I asked their students to complete a pretest which included a list of words

that were going to be covered in the new units. Then, at the end of these units after teachers' instructions, the students filled out the same test as a post-test. This was to see if there was any change with regards to vocabulary after the development of the new units. In both tests, the pupils needed to translate the selected vocabulary from the units into Spanish according to their knowledge. It is important to note that the pre- and post-tests were different for each group since they were based on the words that they would study and these groups were studying different units. The researcher explained to the students that these tests had no grade and asked them to answer the tests honestly. Group A, María's students, contained 62 words.

The following table (see Table 5) shows the results obtained from Group A in their pre- and post-test. From left to right, the table is organized into 6 columns which display: the number of students who submitted the tests, the number of correct answers in the pretest out of 62 responses, its corresponding percentage, the number of correct answers in the post-test out of 62 responses, its corresponding percentage and the percentage of the progress made from the first to the second test. The "Progress" column shows if the students had more, the same, or less number of correct answers when comparing both tests. At the bottom of the table, the average of the whole course in each of the sections above mentioned is found.

Table 5. *Group A Pre- and Post-test Results*

Students	Pretest Result	Percentage	Post-test Result	Percentage	Percentage - progress
S1	9	14.5	24	38.7	+ 24.2
S2	25	40.3	25	40.3	= 0.0
S3	14	22.5	18	29.0	+ 6.5
S4	38	61.2	42	67.7	+ 6.5
S5	30	48.3	39	62.9	+ 14.6

S6	22	35.4	28	45.1	+ 9.7
S7	18	29	45	72.5	+ 43.5
S8	24	38.7	30	48.3	+ 9.6
S9	29	46.7	35	56.4	+ 9.7
S10	11	17.7	28	45.1	+ 27.4
S11	10	16.1	16	25.8	+ 9.7
S12	19	30.6	19	30.6	= 0.0
S13	11	17.7	19	30.6	+ 12.9
S14	10	16.1	18	29.0	+ 12.9
S15	13	20.9	15	24.1	+ 3.2
S16	35	56.4	37	59.6	+ 3.2
<i>COURSE AVERAGE</i>	<i>19.875</i>	<i>32.05</i>	<i>27.375</i>	<i>44.15</i>	<i>+ 12.1</i>

The table summarizes the results of the 16 pupils took the tests. In the 62-word-pretest, S1 had 9 (14.5%) correct answers being the one with the lowest score, and S4 was the one with the highest score with 38 (61.2%) correct responses. As a group, they had an average of 19.875 correct answers with a percentage of 32.05 which, according to this pre-test demonstrates that students' vocabulary knowledge of the chosen words was less than 50%. Comparing all this to the post-test results, it may be found that, S15 was the one with the lowest result, having 15 (24.1%) correct answers and S7 got the highest result with 45 (72.5%) correct responses, being the one who progressed the most, having an increase of 43.5%, based on his pre- and post-test results. As a group, they had an average of 27.375 correct answers with a percentage of 44.15, increasing their 12.1%, showing that students widened their vocabulary knowledge of the chosen words.

Another important aspect found when comparing the tests is that two students showed no difference in their results; two students showed from 0.1 to 5% progress in their results; six students progressed from 5.1 to 10% (which is sub-group with the most number of learners); and three students showed progress from 10.1 to 15%. There was no student

progressing from 15.1 to 20%; one pupil progressed from 20.1 to 25% and another one from 25.1 to 30%. Zero pupils demonstrated progress from 30.1 to 40% and a student's progress was from 40.1 to 45%. In summary, it can be found that the students' progress ranged from 0% to 43.5% with the group average increase of 12.1%.

It can be seen from Table 5 that Group A had some vocabulary progress increasing the number of right responses if the pre- and post-test results are compared, although the teacher and students mostly used the same vocabulary strategies. They seemed to be effective.

Following the same procedure as mentioned earlier, the results of Group B's (José's class) are detailed below. The main differences related to the number of students taking the test, in this case 23, and the number of words selected for the tests was 80 words.

Table 6

Group B Pre- and Post-test Results

Students	Pretest Result	Percentage	Post-test Result	Percentage	Percentage - progress
S1	72	90.0	73	91.2	+ 1.2
S2	19	23.7	25	31.2	+ 7.5
S3	34	42.5	33	41.2	- 1.3
S4	32	40.0	44	55.0	+ 1.5
S5	20	25.0	37	46.2	+ 21.2
S6	45	56.2	49	61.2	+ 5.0
S7	19	23.7	19	23.7	= 0.0
S8	25	31.2	26	32.5	+ 1.3
S9	30	37.5	30	37.5	= 0.0
S10	16	20.0	19	23.7	+ 3.7
S11	11	1.37	22	27.5	+ 13.8
S12	42	52.5	44	55.0	+ 2.5
S13	37	46.2	35	43.7	- 2.5
S14	15	1.87	17	21.2	+ 2.5
S15	65	81.2	75	93.7	+ 12.5
S16	42	52.5	51	63.7	+ 11.2
S17	46	57.5	47	58.7	+ 1.2

S18	36	45.0	71	88.7	+ 43.7
S19	23	28.7	31	38.7	+ 10.0
S20	68	85.0	72	90.0	+ 5.0
S21	63	78.7	68	85.0	+ 6.3
S22	65	81.2	74	92.5	+ 11.3
S23	35	43.7	39	48.7	+ 5.0
COURSE AVERAGE	37.4	50.8	43.5	71.3	+ 20.5

In the 80-word-pretest, S11 had 11 (1.37%) correct answers having the lowest score, and S1 was the one with the highest score with 72 (90%) correct responses. As a group, they had an average of 37.391 correct answers with a percentage of 50.8 which may demonstrate that students' vocabulary knowledge of the chosen words was about the 50%. This is some different to what was found in the Group A. Comparing the post-test results, it was found that S14 was the learner with the lowest result, having 17 (21.2%) correct answers and S15 obtained the highest result with 75 (93.7%) correct responses. Also, S18 was the student who progressed the most, having an increase of 43.7%, based on his pretest (36 correct answers with a 45%) and post-test (71 correct answers with a percentage of 88.7) results. As a group, students had an average of 43.5 correct answers with a percentage of 71.3, increasing their percentage to 20.5, showing that pupils raised their vocabulary knowledge of the chosen words.

Another important trait found in the former table when comparing the tests is: two students showed a decrease of -0.1 to 5% since they had a better result in their pretest. This may be because those two pupils could have looked at another students' paper, believing that it was going to be graded or they did not write some answers in their post-tests because they were not sure about them. Two learners showed no difference in their results since they had the same number of right responses; nine students showed from 0.1 to 5% of

progress in their results (the section with the most number of pupils); three students progressed from 5.1 to 10%; five students showed progress from 10.1 to 15%, being the second section with the most number of pupils. There was no student progressing from 15.1 to 20%; one pupil progressed from 20.1 to 25%. Zero learners demonstrated progress from 25.1 to 40% and one student's progress was from 40.1 to 45%. In summary, it can be found that the students' progress was from -0.1 up to 43.7%, and the group had an increase of 20.5%.

When comparing both groups, the second one had a better performance. It could be concluded that the use of more vocabulary strategies by the teacher and students in this particular group may have aided in this process.

Questionnaire of Students

As mentioned in the method section, students were asked to complete a questionnaire about the way both their teacher teaches vocabulary and they themselves learn vocabulary. This section details the results from the survey applied to both María's (Group A) and José's group (Group B).

Table 7

Students' Perceptions on Materials and Resources Important for the Teaching/Learning of Vocabulary in Class

Materials/resources	Group A	Group B	Total	Percentage
Guide Textbook	12 (70.5%)	17 (73.9%)	29	72.5
Extra Texts/Books	0	3 (13%)	3	7.5
Monolingual Dictionary	1 (5.8%)	0	1	2.5
Bilingual Dictionary	6 (35.2%)	9 (39.1%)	15	37.5
Online Dictionary/Translator Internet	<u>8 (47%)</u>	10 (43.4%)	18	45

Videos/documentaries/movies	2 (11.7%)	15 (65.2%)	26	65
Technological Aids (CDs, DVDs, Software, etc.)	10 (58.8%)	14 (60.8%)	24	60
Others (Which ones?)	0	1 (4.3 %) communication practice	1	2.5

Table 7 above shows the findings related to the students' perceptions on the materials and resources that they consider to be important for the teaching/learning of vocabulary in class. The large percentage (72.5%) of the students responded that the textbook is the most important resource for teaching and learning vocabulary. They also valued videos/documentaries/movies (65%) and other technological help like CDs, DVDs and software (60%). An online dictionary or translator seemed to be another important resource for learning English words (45) and a bilingual print dictionary (37.5%) while extra texts and print monolingual dictionaries were not highly valued. This finding seems to indicate that, as was seen in the observation, the textbook and other audiovisual sources are an important input of vocabulary. Also, translation of words is an essential resource for the teachers and students.

Table 8

Students' Perceptions on Strategies that Help Them to Learn Vocabulary During Class

Strategies	Group A	Group B	Total	Percentage
Identifico y/o analizo las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc).	6 (35.2)	12 (52.1)	18	45
Identifico y/o analizo los afijos y raíces de la palabra.	4 (23.5)	4 (17.3)	8	20
Busco/uso una palabra afín o similar en español.	5 (29.4)	13 (56.5)	18	45
Identifico, estudio, analizo y/o uso alguna foto o imagen que represente la palabra.	6 (35.2)	14 (60.8)	20	50

Descifro la palabra usando el contexto (textual).	3 (17.6)	6 (26)	9	22.5
Uso un diccionario.	14 (82.3)	15 (65.2)	29	72.5
- Bilingüe (Español – Inglés)	5	7	12	30
- Monolingüe (Inglés – Inglés).	(29.4)	(30.4)	0	0
- En internet.	0	0	17	42.5
	9	8		
	(52.9)	(34.7)		
Uso y/o escribo listas de palabras.	6 (35.2)	9 (39.1)	15	37.5
Uso y/o escribo tarjetas de palabras (Flashcards).	2 (11.7)	5 (21.7)	7	17.5
Le pido al profesor la traducción al español.	6 (35.2)	<u>13 (56.5)</u>	19	47.5
Le pido al profesor que me explique la palabra o me dé un sinónimo/antónimo de ella.	7 (41.1)	<i>14 (60.8)</i>	21	52.5
Le pido al profesor una oración que incluya la palabra.	6 (35.2)	6 (26)	12	30
Le pido el significado a mis compañeros de clase.	7 (41.1)	4 (17.3)	11	27.5
Identifico/estudio/practico el significado a través del trabajo en grupo.	11	15 (65.2)	26	65
Relaciono la palabra con una experiencia personal.	6 (35.2)	4 (17.3)	10	25
Organizo/agrupa/estudio/uso las palabras nuevas en un “mapa mental.”	6 (35.2)	7 (30.4)	13	32.5
Uso grupos de palabras para estudiarlas.	8 (47.0)	8 (34.7)	16	40
Uso la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas.	8 (47.0)	10 (43.4)	18	45
Estudio/practico la ortografía de la palabra.	8 (47.0)	10 (43.4)	18	45
Estudio/practico el sonido/pronunciación de la palabra.	<u>12 (52.1)</u>	<u>13 (56.5)</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>62.5</u>
Subrayo la letra inicial de la palabra u otra parte de ella.	1 (5.8)	5 (21.7)	6	15
Uso la palabra afín o similar a la palabra nueva para estudiarla.	3 (17.6)	6 (26)	9	22.5
Uso acción física al aprender una palabra.	1 (5.8)	4 (17.3)	5	12.5
Repito la palabra verbalmente o de manera escrita varias veces.	10 (58.8)	15 (65.2)	<u>25</u>	<u>62.5</u>
Tomo apuntes o escribo el vocabulario de la clase.	10 (58.8)	<u>13 (56.5)</u>	23	57.5

Uso la sección de vocabulario del texto guía.	2 (11.7)	14 (60.8)	16	40
Escucho una grabación de las listas de palabras.	6 (35.2)	9 (39.1)	15	37.5
Etiqueto en inglés los objetos físicos.	1 (5.8)	5 (21.7)	6	15
Escribo un cuaderno con el vocabulario.	9 (52.9)	15 (65.2)	24	60
Uso medios de comunicación en inglés (canciones, películas, noticieros, etc).	13 (76.4)	11 (47.8)	24	60
Me evaluó realizando tests de palabras.	2 (11.7)	6 (26)	8	20
Continuo estudiando/ usando las palabras estudiadas no importando que ya no la practique en clase.	5 (29.4)	9 (39.1)	14	35

Table 8 above displays the findings related to the students' perceptions on the strategies that helped them to learn vocabulary in class. The large percentage (72.5%) of the students answered that using a dictionary is the most helpful strategy when learning vocabulary. Both groups agreed on using the Internet as their first option and using a bilingual dictionary as a second. Using a monolingual dictionary was not chosen by any pupil. Group work to identify or practice the word meaning was also highly valued by both groups' students (65%) and practicing the word pronunciation and word spelling (62.5%) was considered important as well. To have a notebook with the key vocabulary and use English media resources (songs, videos, news, etc) (60%) seemed to be another meaningful strategy for vocabulary learning. Taking notes in class (57.5%) had some value for the students while using physical action to learn a word, labeling in English the physical objects and underlining the initial letter of the word were not highly appreciated although their teachers used some of these strategies to teach vocabulary. In general, this finding seems to point out that as was seen in the observation, the Internet or dictionary use, group work, and practicing the pronunciation of words are considered important when learning vocabulary. Also, taking

notes and using some extra resources (videos, songs, movies, etc) are appreciated by the students.

Table 9

Students' Perceptions on How Teachers Teach Them English Vocabulary

Strategies	Group A	Group B	Total	Percentage
Presenta y/o analiza las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc).	9 (52.9)	19 (82.6)	28	70
Presenta y/o analiza los afijos y raíces de la palabra.	5 (29.4)	9 (39.1)	14	35
Usa una palabra afín o similar en español.	6 (35.2)	10 (43.4)	16	40
Usa alguna foto o imagen que represente la palabra.	7 (41.1)	10 (43.4)	17	42.5
Motiva a descifrar la palabra usando el contexto (textual).	10 (58.8)	15 (65.2)	25	62.5
Motiva a usar un diccionario.	15 (88.2)	23 (100)	38	95
- Bilingüe (Español – Inglés)	6 (35.2)	15 (65.2)	21	52.5
- Monolingüe (Inglés – Inglés).	2 (11.7)	3 (13)	5	12.5
- En internet.	7 (41.1)	5 (12.5)	12	30
Usa y/o escribe listas de palabras.	14 (82.3)	15 (65.2)	29	72.5
Usa tarjetas de palabras (Flashcards).	2 (11.7)	6 (26)	8	20
Usa objetos reales.	6 (35.2)	9 (39.1)	15	37.5
Traduce al español la palabra desconocida.	13 (76.4)	18 (78.2)	31	77.5
Parafrasea/relaciona o da un sinónimo/antónimo de la palabra desconocida.	3 (13)	5 (12.5)	8	20
Escribe una oración que incluya la palabra.	11 (64.7)	10 (43.4)	21	52.5
Le pregunta a mis compañeros de clase el significado.	7 (41.1)	13 (56.5)	20	50
Nos pide descubrir/estudiar/practicar el significado a través del trabajo en grupo.	7 (41.1)	12 (52.1)	19	47.5
Revisa que mis tarjetas (flashcards) o listas de palabras estén correctas.	3 (13)	4 (17.3)	7	17.5

Relaciona la palabra con una experiencia personal.	6 (35.2)	9 (39.1)	15	37.5
Presenta/usa las palabras nuevas en un “mapa mental.”	1 (5,8)	5 (12.5)	6	15
Presenta/usa “scales (very, too, etc)” en los adjetivos calificativos.	5 (29.4)	7 (30.4)	12	30
Presenta/usa grupos de palabras para su futuro estudio.	6 (35.2)	4 (17.3)	10	25
Usa la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas.	11 (64.7)	13 (56.5)	24	60
Presenta/analiza/explica la ortografía de la palabra.	10 (58.8)	14 (60.8)	24	60
Presenta/analiza/pronuncia la palabra.	12 (70.5)	14 (60.8)	27	67.5
Subraya/resalta la letra inicial de la palabra y/o otra parte de la palabra.	6 (35.2)	6 (26)	12	30
Usa acción física o gestos para explicar la palabra.	5 (29.4)	11 (47.8)	16	40
Me pide repetir la palabra de forma oral y/o escrita.	<u>13 (76.4)</u>	17 (73.9)	<u>30</u>	<u>75</u>
Me motiva a tomar apuntes del vocabulario nuevo.	<u>13 (76.4)</u>	17 (73.9)	<u>30</u>	<u>75</u>
Usa la sección del vocabulario del texto guía.	5 (29.4)	8 (34.7)	13	32.5
Reproduce una grabación de las listas de palabras.	7 (41.1)	2 (8.6)	9	22.5
Etiqueta en inglés los objetos físicos.	4 (23.5)	4 (17.3)	8	20
Usa recursos tales como canciones, películas, noticieros, etc.	11 (64.7)	7 (30.4)	18	45
Usa ejercicios de práctica (Completar, relacionar, etc).	8 (47)	8 (34.7)	16	40
Me motiva a continuar estudiando el vocabulario con el paso del tiempo.	9 (52.9)	8 (34.7)	17	42.5

It is shown in the previous table the findings related to the students’ perceptions on the strategies that their teachers use when teaching vocabulary in class. The majority of pupils (95%) selected that their teachers encouraged them to use a bilingual dictionary or the Internet. Also, they mentioned that translation of an unknown word into the L1 was widely used (77.5%). Teachers asked students to verbally repeat the words and to take notes, according to the responses of the surveys of both groups (75%), and the use of wordlists

(72.5%) and the study of the parts of a word (70%) were used as well. Students stated that teachers explained the pronunciation rules (67.5%) and used the sentence context (62.5%), while using a mind map or labeling in English the physical objects were not used often by the teachers according to the students. In summary, the responses of the students on this survey supported the observations. They indicated that the teachers primarily motivated the use of the Internet or dictionary and note-taking, translation, and verbal repetition or word pronunciation when teaching vocabulary.

Table 10

Time Students Dedicate to Studying Vocabulary Outside of Class

Time per week	Group A	Group B	Total	Percentage
Media hora	11 (64.7)	5 (21.7)	16	40
Una hora	4 (23.5)	11 (47.8)	15	37.5
2 horas	<u>1 (5.8)</u>	1 (4.3)	2	5
Más de dos horas	0	5 (21.7)	<u>5</u>	<u>12.5</u>
Sin respuesta	<u>1 (5.8)</u>	<u>2 (8.6)</u>	3	7.5

Table 10 is related to the time students say they dedicate to studying vocabulary outside of class per week. According to the previous table, a considerable amount of students dedicate an average of half an hour a week to studying vocabulary when they are not in the English class (40%). An average of an hour per week was also identified as important for the students (37.5). Two hours (5%) or more than two hours (12.5%) were selected less by students in this survey. The time dedicated to studying may be because the ENSB students' time for studying is quite limited due to their other academic and military duties in their daily schedule, and shows that they study vocabulary outside their English classes from half an hour to an hour per week.

Questions five and six were both open-ended questions where students needed to write their answers. In the question related to what factors or aspects helped students learn vocabulary, Group A commented on the following factors:

- the use of English media resources such as videos, audios, movies, songs, etc.
- the use of Internet or bilingual dictionaries for word translation
- the listening and pronunciation of the key words or verbal repetition
- the visual part of the word. It means, to see the word on the board or on a text
- a good teacher or a teacher with a good teaching methodology
- the use of conversations or reading comprehension exercises

The former aspects were considered as important in the other data collection tools used for this research. This seems to indicate that students have some clear preferences when vocabulary learning.

When review the responses from Group B, they stated the following as important factors that aided them to learn vocabulary:

- the use of English media resources such as videos, audios, movies, songs, etc
- the use of Internet or bilingual dictionaries for word translation
- the listening and pronunciation of the key words or verbal repetition and meaning
- a good teacher or a teacher with a good teaching methodology and appropriate activities
- the use of conversations or reading comprehension exercises
- the relationship between the new word and their personal experiences
- the use of images that depict the words
- note taking, use of glossaries and wordlists

- the study of the new words for one more hour

It is significant to mention that Group B offered a more ample range of comments. The first five of them were also mentioned by Group A and the last four were only chosen by Group B. The previous aspects were remarked as meaningful in the other data collection tools I used for this case study, showing that pupils may have some predilections or favorite choices when vocabulary learning. This could be influenced by the techniques that their teacher used; as was mentioned earlier, I observed that José, the teacher of Group B, used more strategies than María. Also, the students employed more strategies, as observed in the classes.

When asked what factors make vocabulary learning difficult, students responded in the subsequent manner. On the one hand, Group A had various comments, stating as the most important that:

- The English number of hours (four) per week is not enough
- The class time (45 minutes) is not enough
- Lack of time for studying due to their other duties
- Lack of rest after completing their military duties during day and nighttime makes them feel exhausted in class
- Lack of attention and concentration in class
- Word features such as verbal, auditory and word spelling

On the other hand, Group B responded to this question with some similar comments when comparing them to group A. For instance, lack of attention and concentration in class, the lack of class time, and word features such as verbal, auditory, and word spelling were in both groups' answers. However, Group B had different contributions in this question. They

considered that the pupils' level is not homogeneous causing the students with a lower level to be an obstacle to the ones with a higher level. Moreover, students noted that when the English methodology offered is not "the best one," it may cause some problems when learning. With regards to these "unfavorable" methodologies, students mentioned quick explanations, general poor teaching, and poor pronunciation. They also cited the lack of vocabulary or many unknown words and forgetting the word meaning as negative factors, too. This information, which was also reflected in the other data collection instruments used in this case study, highlights that students were able to clearly identify factors that affect their vocabulary learning performance.

The next chapter discusses the findings in relation to the research questions and the literature on the topic to draw conclusions about the teaching and learning of vocabulary at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla.

Chapter 5: Discussion

After describing the results from this case study data collection instruments, which were classroom observations, a student survey, and pre- and post-tests, this chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the results. This thematic discussion is based on responding to the primary and secondary research questions from this investigation. The main research question was: How is vocabulary taught and learned at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla? This question was answered by the following sub-questions:

- What vocabulary strategies do instructors use to teach English vocabulary?
- What vocabulary strategies do ENSB military students use to learn English vocabulary?
- What vocabulary progress do students make after receiving instruction?

In this discussion of the results, the information will be organized by answering the three sub-questions in reverse order, although they are interrelated and overlapping in many aspects. As mentioned in the introduction and the method, besides describing what teachers and students did in the classroom related to the teaching/learning of vocabulary and explaining the vocabulary strategies that students perceived were effective and why, I felt it was important to assure that students actually were developing vocabulary before affirming the actions of the participants in the study. So, for this reason, in this first section, I will discuss about the progress made by the students with regards to their vocabulary learning.

What Progress Did Students Make after Receiving Instruction?

As mentioned earlier, both groups that I observed took a pre- and post-test to see what changes were presented after the vocabulary development of new units. Based on the results of each group, both showed some vocabulary learning related to breadth and a basic receptive knowledge. Group B, with a 20.1% of progress, had better results than Group A, with a 12.1% of progress. The notion of vocabulary breadth and receptive skills was explained in the conceptual framework of this case study by authors such as Milton (2009), Crystal (2006), Thornbury (2002) and Nation (2001) who remark that there are knowledge-oriented skills (word recognition and understanding) that foster the students' receptive skills or vocabulary breadth.

One of the reasons of Group B's better results seemed to be the more varied use of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies in their classes. This was also supported by Group B's answers to the survey since they selected more vocabulary teaching and learning strategies than Group A. This previous idea corroborates the information described in the conceptual framework of this research which states that if a student wants to be successful at vocabulary learning, implementing the use of an ample variety of vocabulary strategies is essential, not only in the class but outside of it (Chamot, 2004; Cohen, 2011; Nation 2001; Nunan 1999; and Schmeck, 2013).

The next reason I would take into account for the better results in Group B was the help or collaboration that each student had with each other when learning vocabulary. This means, although both groups aided each other to learn vocabulary, basically using as a strategy, translating the new word into L1 or using a dictionary, Group B's students were

more collaborative and willing than Group A. In the observation, it was seen that Group A's students occasionally did not help each other and preferred to learn vocabulary individually and not to collaborate with their peers in spite of knowing the answer. The notion of collaborative learning of vocabulary was noted by Brown (2007) as being one strategy that was important.

What Vocabulary Strategies Do ENSB Military Students Use to Learn English Vocabulary?

With regards to students' perceptions of effective vocabulary learning strategies, when analyzing this research data, the two groups used a variety of vocabulary strategies in the classes observed. These were also mentioned as important in the survey that the students took. Those that were common among the groups were:

- using a bilingual or Internet dictionary for solving vocabulary doubts
- working in groups in order to discover or practice the word meaning
- pronouncing or verbally repeat the word
- using English-language media resources (songs, movies, videos, etc.)
- taking notes of the key vocabulary or to write a vocabulary notebook

According to the student survey, and confirmed in the class observations, the use of a dictionary was selected as the most important vocabulary learning strategy in both groups. ENSB students clearly preferred to use an online or a bilingual paper dictionary. Monolingual dictionaries were not an option for them since they noted that reading a definition in English was quite complex. Also, students often translated the new word into the L1 by using a dictionary, even though this sometimes led to an incorrect translation

because of the context in the sentence or text. To solve this issue, they often asked for the teacher's translation. The use of a dictionary in an English class is included by Nation (2001) as one of the suggested tasks for direct learning.

Similar to Schmitt's (1997) study which found that that using a bilingual dictionary was the preferred Determination strategy by the students in his investigation, the results of this project clearly showed that students felt that a dictionary aided them in learning vocabulary, especially when they used an online dictionary. The fact that they needed to type the required word after being introduced to it allowed them to have what may be considered a second encounter with the word. This second encounter may have allowed the students to learn the word since, as Crystal (2006) and Nation (2001) argue, the more word encounters, the more feasible the vocabulary learning is because vocabulary learning with total accuracy is not possible the first time a word is met, and it is a cumulative process of several meetings. Furthermore, the idea of using a dictionary as a tool for vocabulary learning is supported by some authors mentioned in the conceptual framework (i.e., Crystal, 2006; Mothé, 2013; and Carter & McCarthy, 2014) who believe it may be the most important intermediary between a student's lexical intuition and the target word. They suggest that teachers motivate their students to take advantage of the rich information that a dictionary may contain.

Besides using a dictionary, ENSB students also characterized group work as an important strategy for learning vocabulary. Both groups put this strategy into practice to discover, study, or practice new meaning, especially since students' vocabulary level was not homogeneous. Brown (2007) mentions that this strategy was helpful especially since

one student may know the meaning of a word that others do not while another student may know other word features. The teachers also fostered the implementation of group work and collaborative learning, as seen during the observations. The practicality of using group work as a vocabulary learning strategy is also highlighted by Mothé (2013), Nation (2001), and Schmitt (1997). This last author, in his detailed taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies, establishes the use of group work for discovering new meaning as a social strategy, essential for vocabulary learning.

Another strategy that ENSB military students preferred, and their teachers implemented often, was the word pronunciation or verbal repetition as a pillar for learning the necessary vocabulary. During the observations, when students were required by their teachers to pronounce the word chorally or individually, their level of engagement or enthusiasm in the class was high. During these activities, they actively participated in the classroom observations, and then often they were able to correct their peers when pronunciation slips occurred. Regarding this aspect, Mothé (2013) and Schmitt (1997) include verbal repetition as one of the suggested word strategies; Thornbury (2002) and Nation (2001) point out that the spoken form or knowledge of the pronunciation of the word is one crucial aspect of “knowing a word” in both the receptive and productive divisions.

Another topic that positively affected the ENSB vocabulary teaching-learning process and was chosen as key for students’ vocabulary learning was the use of English-language media instruments like songs, videos, documentaries, among others. Again, based on the classroom observations, students’ level of engagement rose when teachers used these

resources, demonstrating that ENSB students are clearly fond of using audiovisual materials instead of teachers' lectures in their classes, although what happened in the classes was the opposite. Most of the classes were teacher-centered and teachers spoke more than they used audiovisual tools, especially in María's classes. Perhaps, this is one of the reasons that her students showed less progress than Group B whose teacher used audiovisual resources more frequently and took advantage of this strategy through the development of activities that enriched the class.

As a fifth aspect to be discussed as an effective vocabulary learning strategy for ENSB students was to take notes of key vocabulary in class. This strategy was marked by Schmitt (1997) as a Cognitive strategy and both groups of students put it into practice in two ways. They took notes, either under teachers' instructions or they voluntarily took notes of the vocabulary offered by their teachers or selected some words to jot down in their notebooks. This strategy, again, supports Crystal (2006) and Nation's (2001) theory of vocabulary learning through multiple encounters. Ghadirian (2002) points out that it is necessary to be in contact from five to 20 times with the new word if learning is to take place. Writing the new word in a notebook is one more meeting with the word and seems to have contributed to student vocabulary learning.

Additionally to the previous five vocabulary learning strategies considered helpful and of the preference of the groups in study of this case study, they also identified some other strategies as necessary in their vocabulary learning processes. They were:

- asking their teachers to explain the new word or to give a synonym or antonym
- using an image that depicts the word

- asking their teachers for an L1 translation
- asking their teachers for a cognate, word function, word spelling, or to use the new word in context.

It can be seen that most of the previous options are linked to the times that students need teachers' help in different aspects such as a word explanation, synonym or antonym, L1 translation, cognate, word spelling, etc. All of them are also important at the moment of learning vocabulary. That is the reason why they are pointed out as crucial in "knowing a word" by Crystal (2006), Thornbury (2002) and Nation (2001). Nevertheless, Crystal (2006) criticizes the use of synonyms and antonyms (sense relations) for vocabulary learning because he proclaims that many words do not have true synonyms or antonyms. He prefers two other sense relations – hyponymy and incompatibility. Interestingly, these last two sense relations were rarely used in the vocabulary teaching learning process at my current working spot.

What Vocabulary Strategies Do Instructors Use to Teach English Vocabulary?

Having discussed the strategies determined as helpful for the student participants in their vocabulary learning process, I will present the answers to the sub-question related to the strategies teachers use to support the vocabulary learning process in the two groups. Triangulating the data collected for this study, it can be found that there are some similar strategies both participant parties, students and teachers, use for vocabulary development at ENSB. Although Sedita (2005) acknowledges that "there is no best method for teaching vocabulary" (p. 34), I will discuss the strategies that were most often used by the two English teachers in their classes and enhanced this process.

First, teachers at ENSB used elicitation as a vocabulary teaching strategy not only for reviewing what prior vocabulary students brought to the class but also for presenting new vocabulary. This strategy was used in all the classes that I observed, indicating that teachers acknowledged the importance of elicitation in an English class, even though students ranked it in the tenth place in their survey when they were asked about the strategies their teachers used and were helpful in teaching vocabulary. After elicitation, teachers presented word lists as a vocabulary teaching strategy in their classes, and then used some other strategies which will be discussed later, such as verbal repetition, word spelling, note taking, and L1 translation. This presentation of lists of words was sometimes done in L2 and other times in L1 and L2. When the presentation was done in L2, students were required to translate them; however, when the students did not understand the word, the teacher did the translation. When the presentation was in English and in Spanish, teachers did not review the words but rather had students complete an exercise related to the vocabulary. What was observed coincides with what Ghadirian (2002) advises, although others criticize this idea. He suggests that teachers bring lists of paired items (L1-L2), and the teacher participants in this study seem to agree with this idea, using this strategy in their classes.

As was noted before, verbal repetition or word pronunciation was another preferred teaching strategy in the English classes at ENSB. Teachers always asked their students to repeat the new word through choral or individual activities. This sort of task was also one of the students' favorite ones, and it was mentioned before that anytime teachers used this strategy, the students' class engagement level rose. This strategy seemed to be effective in the vocabulary development of the English classes at ENSB since students improved in this

feature and were even able to correct their peers. It is important to note that word pronunciation is one of the fundamental aspects of “knowing a word” (Crystal, 2006; Nation, 2001; Mothé, 2013; and Thornbury, 2002). Additionally to verbal repetition, teachers also preferred to motivate their students to take notes or jot down the new vocabulary. Again, the literature on the topic suggested that this strategy may contribute to the students’ learning process since, as it was already explained, writing a new word is another meeting with this word, thereby facilitating its learning.

Another feature related to the English methodology from the two English teachers was at the moment that students had vocabulary questions and they had to answer those inquiries. These particular teacher participants, when answering students’ questions, tended to use the strategies of translating to L1, motivating the use of a bilingual dictionary or the Internet and using the new word in a sentence.

Often English teachers at ENSB answered students’ questions about word meaning with an L1 translation. This strategy was the most common used by teachers at the moment of helping their students with doubts about word meaning. As it was written in the description of the classroom observations, teacher-student interaction for vocabulary questions and answers was almost always done in Spanish. Even though teachers sometimes asked their students to use L2 for vocabulary purposes, there was no consistency, and L1 was the method used to solve vocabulary inquiries. I think teachers need to be more consistent in the use of L2 in the English class in order to raise English awareness level and not to base their classes mainly on L1 explanations. As Blachowitz, Fisher, Ogle, and Watts-Taffe (2006) state using a variety of vocabulary teaching strategies

most likely will contribute to the strengthening of the vocabulary teaching-learning processes at ENSB. While Ghadirian (2002) recommends the use of L1 in vocabulary teaching, this does not mean that this should be the only or most common teaching strategy. However, in this particular setting, it seems that teachers and students are used to this strategy and find it fundamental in the vocabulary learning process.

The teachers also encouraged their students to use bilingual dictionaries or an Internet dictionary for solving vocabulary questions. Teachers placed a lot of importance on using this and were attentive to correct their students when they used a dictionary and had an incorrect translation. While using a dictionary is an important strategy, the fact that this was a bilingual dictionary again shows the reliance of both the students and the teachers on the L1. Using more of a variety of vocabulary teaching/learning strategies could motivate their students to guess the word meaning through the context (which is an important vocabulary strategy that was barely used in this study) to answer students' questions and force them to think more and not to depend on a dictionary.

Besides the previous information related to the manner teachers answered word meaning students' questions, teachers also used some other strategies to help the students in their vocabulary learning, although these were used very rarely. They were:

- using word practice
- using English language media resources (songs, videos, documentaries, etc.)
- paraphrasing or using a synonym/antonym of new word
- motivating the students to guess from textual context.

First, teachers used vocabulary word practice from two sources, the English textbook and photocopies selected under their criteria. When using this strategy, teachers almost always explained the instructions of the exercises in L1 and asked their students to complete the exercises individually or in groups in order to correct possible mistakes. When correcting students after doing the exercises, they emphasized on the grammar, pronunciation, and word translation mistakes. Second, teachers, especially José used English-language media resources to reinforce the students' vocabulary skills. As it was noted before, students agreed with the use of this kind of resources and were more active in their classes. Unfortunately, María almost never used them and this could be one of the factors that affected her group in the post-test results. Third, occasionally teachers paraphrased or used a synonym or antonym to explain word meaning. When used, most of the times it was done in L1. Finally, not very frequently, teachers encouraged their students to guess the word meaning from the context; however, teachers were used to explain, or answer students' questions in L1, and students were used to using a bilingual dictionary or an Internet translation. Again, I think consistency from the teachers' side was an issue since they did not practice this strategy with the required frequency to fulfill the class objectives.

How Is Vocabulary Taught and Learned at The Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla?

In summary, and in response to the main research question related to how vocabulary is taught and learned at the ENSB, on the whole, it can be concluded that the teachers and students in this study used a limited number of strategies to develop vocabulary. They were attached to the same ones, mainly word translation and

pronunciation, dictionary use, and asking for an L1 translation. However, teachers did not include other possibilities which could support and enrich the vocabulary teaching-learning process in their classes. They did not follow what authors propose about the necessity of using a variety of vocabulary strategies in and outside the class (Chamot, 2004; Cohen, 2011; Nation, 2001; Nunan, 1999; & Schmeck, 2013).

Secondly, between the vocabulary components of breadth and depth, the former was the one most developed in the two teachers' classes since teachers dedicated most of their class time covering superficial word knowledge such as basic word meaning, often by translated the word into the first language. Depth of word knowledge seemed to be very little developed since teacher instruction rarely highlighted grammatical behaviour, collocations, level of register, associations, and frequency of the vocabulary studied.

Third, and based on the previous idea, teachers paid more attention to developing receptive vocabulary instead of productive vocabulary since teachers and students were attached to translating, pronouncing, and memorizing the word instead of actually using the words in real communicative activities. Students almost never produced oral or written texts and teachers did not ask them to do it, instead having them complete some basic exercises.

Another aspect that was seen was the lack of consistency in the use of English. Teachers almost always used L1 for explaining the instructions of the exercises, the meaning of the words, even the grammar points from the class, and when they used English, students felt uncomfortable or complained.

Furthermore, the classes had two characteristics that seemed to affect the classes negatively with regards to vocabulary learning: they were mostly grammar-focused and teacher-centred. Teachers spent a great deal of the class time explaining grammar rules in L1 with little student participation. This was commented by the students in their questionnaires, and it was also mentioned before that any time teachers used different resources, especially technological ones (videos, songs, movies, etc), the students' attitude to the class changed favourably.

To finish this section, although the focus was on vocabulary strategies, while observing the classes, I noticed two aspects that I feel are important to mention since they are related to the teaching and learning of vocabulary in the context. The first one is that although technical vocabulary is supposed to be included in the English classes under their autonomy, it was not developed in the classes I observed. Perhaps, teachers did not want to deal with it due to the students' low level of language. The second aspect relates to using reading to develop vocabulary. In the literature on the subject, many authors reflect on the connection between vocabulary development and reading and the importance of using reading texts as a way to further develop this subskill (see Chall, 1987; Coady, 1997; Eskey, 2005; Manyak & Bauer, 2009; and Nation, 2001). However, when reading texts were used in the classes that I observed, teachers did not seem to take advantage of them to develop vocabulary; any focus on vocabulary during these times was in an incidental manner since it only occurred when students asked their teachers for the meaning of a word. To these questions, students were given the translation and the teacher continued with the other activities. Also, teachers did not motivate their students to do some extensive

reading. This was possibly due to students' language level or because students in this context have little time for study after classes since they are busy with military duties.

In the next chapter, I will draw some final conclusions about the way vocabulary is taught and learned in ENSB.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

The current chapter contains the conclusions reached after developing this case study with some possible implications for teaching. It also presents some limitations and suggestions for future research.

The introduction explained the problem of the lack of progress of students English learning during their time at the Escuela Naval de Suboficiales ARC Barranquilla. Therefore, the goal of this research study was to look at one particular area—vocabulary—and see what was happening in the classroom. To do this, it was necessary to analyze the vocabulary teaching and learning by both the teachers and the students, and that is the reason why this mixed-method research selected the most suitable method and instruments with the goal of having a broader understanding of the teaching-learning vocabulary process.

In the study it was found that the two groups of students progressed (although Group B more than A); they learned vocabulary or, at least, improved their vocabulary breadth with regards to receptive skills. The teachers and students were observed to use a number of vocabulary teaching-learning strategies, especially translation to L1, verbal repetition, use of a dictionary, taking notes, and word list presentation. These strategies helped students improve their vocabulary breadth. However, these strategies did not focus on developing students' vocabulary depth of words since teachers asked students to only recognize and understand one basic definition of the words and not to produce written or oral texts. This lack of emphasis on depth of vocabulary words could limit the students' productive skills and communication. To solve this, teachers should plan to use more

teaching strategies and/or train their students to use some other vocabulary learning strategies. A proof of the necessity of using other teaching strategies was the level of students' engagement and participation in the class, when teachers changed their methodology from lecturing to using technological resources or other activities and took advantage of this strategy. Students request for a more varied scope of strategies, according to the questionnaires they answered.

Besides, teacher-centered and grammar-based classes do not permit to develop in a better way the students' vocabulary learning since teachers spent most of the class time explaining grammar concepts and rules in L1 and did not take advantage of some situations in the classes that they could develop vocabulary learning. For example, when teachers worked on some reading exercises, they could have used some strategies as guessing the words from the context and using the new word in sentences, but instead they solved vocabulary questions in an incidental way.

Additionally, the lack of consistency in the use of English by the teachers may have affected negatively the students' vocabulary learning. Teachers seemed to pigeonhole themselves into using L1 in their classes. When they explained, clarified, answered questions in English, often the students' response was not the expected one, and they immediately switched to L1. Once, one of the teachers asked their students to say the question in English and their answer was that they had never said this question in English before. Due to this situation, students also used L1, even for basic questions or classroom expressions, and felt free to only use L1 in the class. Therefore, this is one area that can be improved to help students develop both their vocabulary in English and their communicative abilities in the language.

To finish, I consider important to mention that technical vocabulary was not developed at all although it is supposed that teachers must include this type of vocabulary in their classes since one of the English program's objectives is to put students in contact with the technical vocabulary they will need in their future working functions.

Implications for teaching

The findings of this case study pointed out that students' vocabulary progress was mostly and mainly on the breadth part due to the lack of a variety of vocabulary teaching strategies. That is the reason why an implication that arose from this research is the importance of using a variety of appropriate vocabulary teaching strategies according to the students' needs and the institution's program. Furthermore, it is necessary for teachers to start training their students to use more vocabulary learning strategies.

Another implication is related to the necessity of working on the students' productive skills by the teachers in order to promote a better communication in English. This means that teachers should plan their classes for developing both types of skills: receptive and productive.

Limitations of the Study

This case study used some specific data collection instruments, two English teachers and their two groups, making this case a very particular one. Because of the uniqueness of this case study, the transferability and generalization of this study to other contexts is quite limited. Also, because the main focus was on vocabulary strategies, other areas were not reported on in detail, which may not have given the complete picture of vocabulary

teaching and learning. Furthermore, it is impossible to draw conclusions on which vocabulary strategies help students develop their knowledge of words. It can only be said that students, in general, did develop vocabulary knowledge. Additionally, the pre- and post-test showed progress with regards to breadth but not depth because it was not designed to show the latter aspect. However, since the data showed that the strategies employed by the teachers and students focused on building depth and not breadth, I was able to infer that mainly breadth was developed.

Suggestions for Further Research

Bearing in mind the findings of this research, I would continue investigating more about the English vocabulary teaching-learning process. Further study of how could the vocabulary teaching-learning process be improved at ENSB is still required to establish the guidelines to be taken into account for developing and strengthening students' vocabulary skills in the general and technical vocabulary. Because of time constraints, this case study was developed with two groups from different technologies. Further research could be focused on analysing the English vocabulary teaching-learning process in all the classes from the same technology. A study could also delve into the effectiveness of the strategies chosen by teachers or students in students' vocabulary development.

References

- Adelman, C., Kemmis, S. & Jenkins, D. (1980) Rethinking case study: Notes from the Second Cambridge Conference. In H. Simons (Ed.) *Towards a Science of the Singular* (pp.45-61). Norwich: Centre for Applied Research in Education.
- Arani, J. A. (2006). *Learning strategies of English medical terminologies in the students of medicine*. Retrieved from http://www.espworld.info/Articles_13/DOC/Learning%20Strategies_JA.doc.
- Asyiah, D. (2017). The vocabulary teaching and vocabulary learning: Perception, strategies, and influences in students' vocabulary mastery. *Jurnal Bahasa Lingua Scientia*. 9(2). doi: 10.21274/lis.2017.9.2.
- Atay, D., & Ozbulgan, C. (2007). Memory strategy instruction, contextual learning and ESP vocabulary recall. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26, 39–51.
- Atkinson, R. C. (1975). Mnemotechnics in second-language learning. *American Psychologist*, 30, 821-828.
- Ayiro, L.P. (2012). *A functional approach to educational research methods and statistics: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Lewiston, N.Y.: Edwin Mellen Press.
- Baker, M. (1988). Sub-technical vocabulary and the ESP teacher: an analysis of some rhetorical items in medical journal articles. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 4, 91–105.

- Baumann, J.F., Kame'enui, E.J., & Ash, G. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In J. Flod, D. Lapp, J.R. Squire, & J. Jenson (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English Language Arts (2nd ed.)*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Berne, J. I., & Blachowich, C. L. Z. (2008). What reading teachers say about vocabulary instruction: Voices from the classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(4), 314–323.
- Bintz, W. Teaching vocabulary across the curriculum. *Middle School Journal*, 42(4), 44-53.
- Blachowitz, C.L.Z., & Obrochta, C. (2005). Vocabulary visits: Virtual field trips for content vocabulary development. *The Reading Teacher*, 59(3), 262-268.
- Blachowitz, C., Fisher, P. J. L., Ogle, D., & Watts-Taffe, S. (2006). Vocabulary: Questions from the classroom. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41(4), 524-539.
doi:10.1598/RRQ.41.4.5
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36, 81-109.
- Brezina, V., & Gablasova, D. (2013). Is there a core general vocabulary? Introducing the new general service list. *Applied Linguistics*. 1-23. Retrieved from:
<http://applied.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2013/08/25/applin.amt018.full?keytype=ref&ijkey=Fz0azHUdmASUjp5>
- Brown, H. Douglas. (2007). *Teaching by principles. An interactive approach to language pedagogy*, (3rd ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman.

- Brown, J. D. (2001). *Using surveys in language programs*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Browne, C., Culligan, B., & Phillips, J. (2013). The new general service list: A core vocabulary for EFL students and teachers. *JALT's The Language Teacher*, 34(7). 13-15.
- Burns, R.B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods*. (4th ed.) Australia: Longman.
- Calderón, M., August, D., Slavin, R., Duran, D., Madden, N., & Cheung, A. (2005). Bring words to life in classrooms with English-language learners. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice* (pp. 115-136). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Campbell, D., & Stanley, J. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Carlo, M.S., August, D., McLaughlin, B., Snow, C.E., Dressler, C., Lippman, D.N., et al. (2004). Closing the gap: Addressing the vocabulary needs of English-language learners in bilingual and mainstream classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 39(2), 188–215. doi:10.1598/RRQ.39.2.3.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (2014). *Vocabulary and language teaching*. New York: Routledge.
- Chaleunvong, K. (2009). *Data collection techniques*. Geneva Foundation for Medical Education and Research. Retrieved from

http://www.gfmer.ch/Activites_internationales_Fr/Laos/Data_collection_tecniques_C_haleunvong_Laos_2009.htm

Chaleunvong, K. (2009). *Data Collection Techniques*. Geneva Foundation For Medical

Education and Research. Retrieved from:

http://www.gfmer.ch/Activites_internationales_Fr/Laos/Data_collection_tecniques_C_haleunvong_Laos_2009.htm

Chall, J. S. (1987). Two vocabularies for reading: Recognition and meaning. In M.G.

McKeown & M. E. Curtis (Eds.), *The nature of vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 7-17).

Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Chamot, A.U. (2004). Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching.

Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching 1(1), 14-26.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cheek, J. (2004). At the margins? Discourse analysis and qualitative research. *Qualitative*

Health Research, 14, 1140–1150.

Cherryholmes, C. H. (1992). Notes on pragmatism and scientific realism. *Educational*

Researcher, 14, August – September, 13 – 17.

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in*

qualitative research. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Clarke, V. & Braun, V. (2013) *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for*

beginners. London: Sage. Retrieved from <http://eprints.uwe.ac.uk/21156>

- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition: A synthesis of the research. In J. Coady & T. Huckin, (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 273-290). Cambridge University Press.
- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 225–237). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, A.D. (1987a). Studying learner strategies: Feedback on compositions. *PASSA: A Journal of Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand*, 17(2), 29-38.
- Cohen, A.D (1987b). The use of verbal and imagery mnemonics in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 9(1), 43-61.
- Cohen, A. D. (1990). *Language learning: Insights for learners, teachers, and researchers*. NY: Newsbury House/Harper Collins.
- Cohen, A. D. (2011). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. Abingdon, England: Routledge/Pearson Education.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research methods in education*. (5th ed.). London: Routledge/Falmer.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. (6th ed.). London: Routledge/Falmer.
- Cook, V. (2001). *Second language learning and teaching* (3rd ed.). London: Arnold.

- Cooper, J. O., Heron, T. E., & Heward, W. L. (2008). *Applied behavior analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill-Prentice Hall.
- Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, J. M. (2007). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Corrales, K., Ferrer, E. & Rey, L. (2015). *Perspectives on teaching university-level English in Colombia*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL Press.
- Cowan, J. R. (1974). Lexical and syntactic research for the design of EFL reading materials. *TESOL Quarterly*, 8(4), 389-400.
- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 213-238.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design. Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. (2013). *Research design. Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Crystal, D. (2006). *How language works. How babies babble, words change meaning, and languages live or die*. New York: The Overlook Press.
- Davies, P. M., & Pearse, E. (2000). *Success in English teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Decarrico, J. S. (2001). Vocabulary learning and teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed.) (pp. 285-299). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Díaz, I. (2015). Training in metacognitive strategies for students' vocabulary improvement by using learning journals. *Profile: Issues in Teaching Professional Development*. Vol 17(1), 87-102.
- Dornyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: Constructing, administering, and processing*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Easterbrook, R.M. (2013). *The process of vocabulary learning strategies: Vocabulary learning strategies and beliefs about language and language learning*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://www.canberra.edu.au/researchrepository/file/33>
http://www.canberra.edu.au/researchrepository/file/3384527a-1649-4e50-b61f-32a9979276e6/1/full_text.pdf
- Eskey, D. (2005). Reading in a second language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research on second language teaching and learning* (pp. 563–580). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Farrell, P. (1990). Vocabulary in ESP: A lexical analysis of the English of electronics and a study of semi-technical vocabulary. *CLCS Occasional Paper, 25*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED332551).

- Ferrell, T.S.C & Ives, J. (2005). Exploring teacher beliefs and classroom practice: A case study. *Language Teaching Research*. Volume 19(5), 594-610.
- Fetterman, D. M. (2010). *Ethnography: Step by step* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Foley, J., & Thompson, L. (2003). *Language learning: A lifelong process*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Fowler, F. J. (2009). *Survey research methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fradd, H., and McGee, L. (1994). *Instructional assessment: An integrative approach to evaluating student performance*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Ghadirian, S. (2002). Providing controlled exposure to target vocabulary through the screening and arranging of texts. *Language Learning & Technology*. 6, 147-164.
- Giorgi, A. (2009). *The descriptive phenomenological method in psychology: A modified Husserlian approach*. Pittsburgh, PA: Duquesne University Press.
- Graves, M. (2009). *Essential readings on vocabulary instruction*. USA: International Reading Association.
- Graves, M. (2000). A vocabulary program to complement and bolster a middle-grade comprehension program. In B. Taylor, M. Graves, & P. van den Broek (Eds.), *Reading for meaning: Fostering comprehension in the middle grades* (pp.116-135). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

- Greene, J.C., Caracelli, V.J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11*, 255-274. doi: 10.2307/1163620.
- Griffe, D. (2012). *An Introduction to Second Language Research Methods*. California, CA: TESL-EJ Publications.
- Gu Yongki and Johnson, R.K. (1996). Vocabulary learning strategies and language learning outcomes. *Language Learning, 46*, 643-679.
- Gu, P. Y. (2002). Gender, academic major, and vocabulary learning strategies of Chinese EFL learners. *RELC Journal, 33*(1): 35-54.
- Gu, P.Y. (2003). Vocabulary learning in a second language: Person, task, context and strategies. *TESL-EJ, 7*(2). Retrieved from <http://tesl-ej.org/ej26/a4.html>
- Guapacha, M & Benavidez, L. (2017). Improving language learning strategies and performance of Pre-service language teachers through a CALLA-TBLT. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development. Vol 19*(2), 101-120.
- Hague, S. A. (1987). Vocabulary learning: The use of grids. *English Language Teaching Journal, 37* (3), 243-246.
- Harmon, J. M., Wood, K. D., & Keser, K. (2009). Promoting vocabulary learning with interactive word wall. *Middle School Journal, 40*(3), 58-63.
- Hatch, E., & Brown, C. (2000). *Vocabulary, semantics, and language education* (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Herrell, A. L. (2004). *Fifty strategies for teaching English language learners. An ESL teacher's tool kit* (2nd ed.). Winnipeg, Canada: Penguin Publishers.
- Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *TESOL Quarterly Special 40th Anniversary Issue*, 40(1), 109-132.
- Hofer, B. K., and Pintrich, P. R. (1997). The development of epistemological theories: Beliefs about knowledge and knowing and their relation to learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 67, 88–140.
- Hulstijn, J. H., Hollander, M., & Greidanus, T. (1996). Incidental vocabulary learning by advanced foreign language students. The influence of marginal glosses, dictionary use, and reoccurrence of unknown words. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(3), 327-339.
- Hunter, J. E., & Schmidt, F. L. (2004). *Method of meta-analysis: Correcting error and bias in research findings* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Intaraprasert, C. (2004). *EST students and vocabulary learning strategies: A preliminary investigation*. Unpublished research, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand.
- Jackson, H., & Amvela, E. (2000). *Words, meaning and vocabulary: An introduction to modern English lexicology*. Great Britain: Continuum.

- Jamil, S, Majoka, M.I., & Khan, M.S. (2014). A study of vocabulary building in English language curriculum at primary level in Pakistan. *Journal of Elementary Education*. 24(1) 31-45. Retrieved from http://pu.edu.pk/home/journal/36/V_24_No_1_%202014.html
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (2000). Participatory action research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 567–605). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Keppel, G. (1991). *Design and analysis: A researcher's handbook* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Labov, W. (1972). *Sociolinguistic Patterns*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Lagasabater, D., & Sierra, J. (2011). Classroom observation: desirable conditions established by teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education*. 34(4), 449-463.
- Lawson, M.J., & Hogben, D. (1996). The vocabulary learning Strategies of foreign-language students. *Language Learning*, 46, 101-135.
- Lessard-Clouston, M. (2013). *Teaching vocabulary*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL Press.
- Levitt, H. M. (2015). *Interpretation-driven guidelines for designing and evaluating grounded theory research: A constructivist-social justice approach*. In O. C. G. Gelo, A. Pritz, & B. Rieken (Eds.), *Psychotherapy research* (pp. 455e483). Vienna: Springer. Retrieved from http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-7091-1382-0_22

- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Llamosas, L. (2011). *Teaching vocabulary learning strategies: a Vocabulary Improvement Program (VIP) for EFL beginner students from Centro Cultural Peruano Norteamericano Arequipa CCPNA*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from https://pirhua.udep.edu.pe/bitstream/handle/11042/1797/MAE_EDUC_091.pdf?sequence=
- Mackenzie, N. & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, 16, 193-205. Retrieved from <http://www.iier.org.au/iier16/mackenzie.html> 2-2-17
- Mackey, A. & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research. Methodology and design*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Manyak, P. (2007). Character trait vocabulary: A schoolwide approach. *The Reading Teacher*, 60(6), 574-577. doi:10.1598/RT.60.6.8
- Martin, A. V. (1976). Teaching academic vocabulary to foreign graduate students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10(1), 91-97.
- Mayuree, S. (2007). *English vocabulary learning strategies employed by Rajabhat university students*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://sutir.sut.ac.th:8080/sutir/bitstream/123456789/284/1/mayu>
- Maximo, R. (2000). Effects of rote, context, keyword, and context/keyword method on retention of vocabulary in EFL classroom. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 385-412.

- McCarten, J. (2007). *Teaching vocabulary: Lessons from the corpus, lessons from the classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M. & Walsh, S. (2003). Discourse. In D. Nunan (Ed.) *Practical English language teaching* (pp. 173-195). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- McMillan, J., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in Education* (6th ed.) Boston: Pearson Education.
- Marshall, C. & Gretchen B. R. (1999). *Designing qualitative research* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Meara, P. (1987). *Vocabulary in a second language* (Vol. 2). London: Center for Information on Language Teaching and Research (CILT).
- Meara, P., & Buxton, B. (1987). An alternative to multiple choice vocabulary tests. *Language Testing*, 4, 142-154.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Mertens, D.M. (2005). *Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches* (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Miles, M. B., and Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Milton, J. (2009). *Measuring second language vocabulary acquisition*. Toronto: Channel View Publications.
- Mitchell, H.Q. (2011). *New let's speed up*. Argentina: MM publications.
- Mofareh, A. (2015). The importance of vocabulary in language learning and how to be taught. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, 3(3), 21-34.
doi:10.20472/TE.2015.3.3.002
- Morris, S. (2008). Estimating effect sizes from pretest-posttest-control group designs. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(2), 364–386.
- Mothé, P. S. (2013). *Innovative techniques of teaching vocabulary at the intermediate level in the second language classroom*. Retrieved from
<http://www.litu.tu.ac.th/journal/FLLTCP/Proceeding/377.pdf>
- Moustakas, C. (1994). *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mukoroli, J. (2011). Effective vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for Academic Purposes in an ESL classroom. Retrieved from
https://digitalcollections.sit.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1503&context=ipp_collection
- Murphy, J. P. (1990). *Pragmatism: From Peirce to Davidson*. Boulder, CO: Westview.
- Na, L., & Nation, I.S.P. (1985). Factors affecting vocabulary in context. *RELC Journal*, 16, 33-42.

- Nagy, W. (1988). *Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Nassaji, H. (2003). L2 vocabulary learning through context: Strategies, knowledge sources, and their relationship with success in L2 lexical inferencing. *TESOL Quarterly* 37(4), 645-70.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2005). Teaching and learning vocabulary. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook and research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 581-595). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2005). Teaching vocabulary. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 7(3), 47-54.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2005). Ten best ideas for teaching vocabulary. *The Language Teacher*, 29(7), 11-14.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2005). Vocabulary learning through extensive reading. In G. Poedjosoedarmo (Ed.), *Innovative Approaches to Reading and Writing* (pp. 10-21). Singapore: RELC.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2007). The four strands. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, (1), 1-12.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2008). *Teaching vocabulary: Strategies and techniques*. Boston: Heinle Cengage Learning.

- Nation, I.S.P. (2011). Research into practice: Vocabulary. *Language Teaching*, 44(4), 526-536.
- Nayan, S & Krishnasamy, H. (2015). A preliminary study on vocabulary learning strategies used by the students from the faculty of Accountancy. *International Journal of Languages. Literature and Linguistics*, (1)1, 10-14. doi: 10.7763/IJLLL.2015.V1.3.
- Neuman, S. B., & Dwyer, J. (2009). Missing in action: Vocabulary instruction in pre-K. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(5), 384–392.
- Neuman, S. B., & McCormick, S. (Eds.). (1995). *Single-subject experimental research: Applications for literacy*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Newman, I., & Benz, C. R. (1998). *Qualitative-quantitative research methodology: Exploring the interactive continuum*. Carbondale and Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Nisbet, J. & Watt, J. (1984) Case study. In J. Bell, T. Bush, A. Fox, J. Goodey & S. Goulding (eds) *Conducting Small-Scale Investigations in Educational Management*. London: Harper & Row, 79–92.
- Noor, N. M., & Amir, Z. (2009). *Exploring the vocabulary learning strategies of EFL learners*. Retrieved from <http://www.ukm.my/solls09/Proceeding/PDF/noorizah%20and%20zaini.pdf>
- Nunan, D (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- O'Leary, Z. (2004). *The essential guide to doing research*. London: Sage.

- Onwuegbuzie, A.J., & Combs, J. P. (2011). Data analysis in mixed research: A primer. *International Journal of Education*, 3(1). Retrieved from <http://www.macrothink.org/journal/index.php/ije/article/view/618/550>
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Combs, J. P. (2010). Emergent data analysis techniques in mixed methods research: a synthesis. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 397-430). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Teddlie, C. (2003). A framework for analyzing data in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 351-383). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies. What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle/Cengage.
- Oxford, R. & Scarcella, R. C. (1994). Second language vocabulary learning among adults: State of the art in vocabulary instruction. *System*, 22(2), 231-243.
- Pavičić Taka, V. (2008) *Vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Papathanasiou, E. (2009). *How do vocabulary presentation and word properties influence the learning of new English (L2) words by Greek adult beginners*. Selected papers from the 18th ISTAL (International Symposium on Theoretical and Applied Linguistics). Thessaloniki, Greece.

- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Pemberton, R. (2003). *Remembering vocabulary*. Retrieved from: <http://lc.ust.hk/~sac/advice/english/vocabulary/V4.htm>
- Pérez, L., & Alvira, R. (2017). The acquisition of vocabulary through three memory strategies. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 19(1), 103-116.
- Phillips, D.C., & Burbules, N.C. (2000). *Postpositivism and educational research*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Pressley, M. (2002). Comprehension instruction: What makes sense now, what might make sense soon. *Reading Online*, 5(2). Retrieved from http://www.readingonline.org/articles/art_index.asp?HREF=articles/handbook/pressley/index.htm
- Reed, A. J. S., & Bergemann, V. E. (2005). *A guide to observation, participation, and reflection in the classroom*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Richards, J. C. (2005) *Interchange intro*. (3rd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T.S.C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers. strategies for teacher learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Riessman, C. K. (2008). *Narrative methods for the human sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research* (2nd Edition). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Rodriguez, M. S. (1999). Efficacy of rote, context, keyword, and context/keyword learning strategies on retention of vocabulary in EFL classroom. (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation), Texas A & M University, USA.
- Rubin, J. & Thompson, I. (1994). *How to be a more successful language learner* (2nd ed.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Sagarra, N. & Alba, M. (2006). The key is in the keyword: L2 vocabulary learning methods with beginning learners of Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90 (ii), 228-243.
- Schmeck, R. (2013). *Learning strategies and learning styles*. Springer.
- Schmitt, N. (1997). Vocabulary learning strategies. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 199-227). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2007). *The Sage dictionary of qualitative inquiry* (3rd ed.), Thousand Oaks, California: sage Publication, Inc.
- Sedita, J. (2005). Effective Vocabulary Instruction: What the research says. *Insights on Learning Disabilities*, 2(1), 33-45.

- Seliger, H.W., & Shohamy, E. G. (1989). *Second language research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Shapiro, A. M., & Waters, D. L. (2005). An investigation of the cognitive processes underlying the keyword method of foreign vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 9(2), 129-146.
- Sheeler, W. D., & Markley, R. (2000). *Words around us an effective ways to use them*. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
- Stahl, S. A. (1990). Beyond the instrumentalist hypothesis: some relationships between word meaning and comprehension. *Technical report No. 505 of the Center for the Study of Reading*, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Stake, R. E. (1994) Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage, 236–47.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stenhouse, L. (1985) Case study methods. In T. Husen & T. N. Postlethwaite (Eds.) *International encyclopedia of education* (1st ed.) (pp. 640-646). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Stoffer, I. (1995). University foreign language students' choice of vocabulary learning strategies as related to individual difference variables. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Alabama.
- Sturman, A. (1999) Case Study Methods. In J. P. Keeves & G. Lakomski (Eds) *Issues in Educational Research* (pp. 103-112). Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Sutarsyah, C., Nation, P. & Kennedy, G. (1994). How useful is EAP vocabulary for ESP?

A corpus based study. *RELC Journal*, 25(2), 34-50.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2010). *SAGE handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tellier, M. (2008). The effect of gestures on second language memorisation by young children. *Gesture*, 8(2), 219-235.

Thompson, I. (1987). Memory in language learning. In Wenden, A. & Rubin, J. (Eds.) *Learner Strategies in Language Learning* (pp. 43-56). New York: Prentice Hall.

Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach vocabulary*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Trask, R. L. (1995). *Language: The basics*. London: Routledge.

Trujillo, C. L., Álvarez, C., Zamudio, M. N., & Morales, G. (2015). Facilitating vocabulary learning metacognitive strategy training and learning journals. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, (17)2, 246-256.

Ur, P. (1996). *Course in language teaching*. 2nd Edition. Cambridge University Press.

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. London: Routledge.

Waring, R., & Nation, I.S.P. (2004). Second language reading and incidental vocabulary learning. *Angles on the English Speaking World*, 4, 97-110.

Weaver, S. F., & Cohen, A. D. (1997). *Strategies-based instruction: A teacher training manual*. Retrieved from <http://www.seasite.niu.edu/Thai/LLF/LLS/>

- Weinreich, N.K. (2010). *Hands-On social marketing: A step-by-step guide to designing change for good (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Retrieved from <http://www.social-marketing.com/index.html>
- West, M. (1953). *General service list*. London: Longman.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Williams, R. (1985). Teaching vocabulary recognition strategies in ESP reading. *ESP Journal*, 4, 121-131.
- Wolcott, H. T. (2008). *Ethnography: A way of seeing (2nd ed.)*, Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira.
- Wragg, E.C., Wikely, F. J., Wragg, C. M. & Haynes, G.S. (2002). *Teacher appraisal observed*. London: Routledge.
- Wu, L. F. (2013). A study of factors affecting college students' use of ESL vocabulary learning strategies. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3(19), 202-208. Retrieved from http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_3_No_19_November_2013/25.pdf
- Yin, R. K. (1984) *Case study research: Design and methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods (4th ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of case study research (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

APPENDIX A
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORMAT
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORMAT

Professor's name: _____ Class: _____ Date: _____

Aspect to be observed	Presenting Meaning	Checking Meaning	Practice	Comments
T presents/analyses part of speech (word).				
T presents/ analyses affixes and roots (word).				
T checks for/uses L1 cognate (word)				
T uses any available pictures or image word's meaning.				
T motivates Ss to guess from textual context.				
T motivates Ss to use a monolingual dictionary.				
T motivates Ss to use a bilingual dictionary.				
T uses word lists.				
T uses flash cards.				
T uses real objects.				
T answers Ss an L1 translation.				
T paraphrases or uses a synonym/antonym of new word.				
T connects the word to its synonyms and antonyms				
T uses a sentence including the new word (written and / or orally).				
T asks/elicits Ss for meaning.				
T asks Ss to discover/study/practice new meaning through group work activity.				
T checks Ss flash card or word lists for accuracy.				
T connects word to a personal experience.				
T uses semantic maps.				
T uses 'scales' for gradable adjectives.				

T uses/presents group words together to study them.				
T uses/presents group words together spatially on a page.				
T uses/ presents group words together within a storyline.				
T analyses/presents/explains the spelling of a word.				
T analyses/presents/pronounces the sound of a word.				
T underlines/highlights initial letter of the word or any other part of the word.				
T presents/explains the words of an idiom together.				
T uses physical action or gestures.				
T asks Ss for verbal repetition.				
T asks Ss for written repetition.				
T asks Ss to take notes in class.				
T uses the vocabulary section in Ss' textbook.				
T asks Ss to listen to tape of word lists.				
T puts English labels on physical objects.				
T asks Ss to keep a vocabulary notebook.				
T uses English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts)				
T puts English labels on physical objects.				
T asks Ss to keep a vocabulary notebook.				
T promotes Ss to continue to study word over time.				
<p>Practice</p> <p>A. – Oral</p> <p>- Written</p> <p>B. Variety of practice techniques</p> <p>- Individual</p> <p>- Group work</p> <p>- Pair work</p> <p>- Teacher – Learner interaction</p> <p>- Learner – learner interaction</p>				

APPENDIX B

STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE

ESCUELA NAVAL DE SUBOFICIALES ARC BARRANQUILLA ENGLISH CLASS SURVEY

Nombre: _____ Clase: _____

Estimado estudiante, como fuente de información para el desarrollo de mi tesis de grado, necesito de su valioso aporte, el cual es, responder esta encuesta de manera honesta. ¡Gracias de antemano!

PROPÓSITO.

Identificar las percepciones que tienen los estudiantes con respecto al proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje del vocabulario en la clase de Inglés en la ENSB.

Marca con una X la respuesta que considere correcta. **(Puede marcar varias opciones).**

1. ¿Cuáles materiales y/o recursos usted considera importante para la enseñanza/aprendizaje del vocabulario en las clases de inglés?

Texto guía _____ Textos extras _____ Diccionario monolingüe _____

Diccionario bilingüe _____ Diccionario/ Traductor (Internet) _____

Videos/documentales/películas _____

Ayudas tecnológicas (CDs, DVDs, Software, etc) _____ Otros (¿Cuáles?) _____

2. ¿Cuáles estrategias te ayuda aprender vocabulario durante la clase de inglés?

Identifico y/o analizo las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc). _____

Identifico y/o analizo los afijos y raíces de la palabra. _____

Busco/uso una palabra afín o similar en español. _____

Identifico, estudio, analizo y/o uso alguna foto o imagen que represente la palabra. _____

Descifro la palabra usando el contexto (textual). _____

Uso un diccionario. _____

- Bilingüe (Español – Inglés) _____ - Monolingüe (Inglés – Inglés). _____ - En internet. _____

Uso y/o escribo listas de palabras. _____

Uso y/o escribo tarjetas (Flashcards). _____

Le pido al profesor la traducción al español. _____

Le pido al profesor que me explique la palabra o me dé un sinónimo/antónimo de ella.

- Le pido al profesor una oración que incluya la palabra. _____
- Le pido el significado a mis compañeros de clase. _____
- Identifico/estudio/ práctico el significado a través del trabajo en grupo. _____
- Relaciono la palabra con una experiencia personal. _____
- Organizo/agrupo/estudio/uso las palabras nuevas en un “mapa mental”. _____
- Uso grupos de palabras para estudiarlas. _____
- Uso la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas. _____
- Estudio/ practico la ortografía de la palabra. _____
- Estudio/ practico el sonido/pronunciación de la palabra. _____
- Subrayo la letra inicial de la palabra u otra parte de ella. _____
- Uso una palabra afín o similar a la palabra nueva para estudiarla. _____
- Uso acción física al aprender una palabra. _____
- Repito la palabra verbalmente o de manera escrita varias veces. _____
- Tomo apuntes o escribo el vocabulario de la clase. _____
- Uso la sección de vocabulario del texto guía. _____
- Escucho una grabación de las listas de las palabras. _____
- Etiqueto en inglés los objetos físicos. _____
- Escribo un cuaderno con el vocabulario. _____
- Uso medios de comunicación en inglés (canciones, películas, noticieros, etc.). _____
- Me evalúo realizando tests de palabras. _____
- Continuo estudiando/usando las palabras estudiadas no importando que ya no la practique en clase. _____

3. ¿De qué manera tu profesor te enseña el vocabulario del inglés?

- Presenta y/o analiza las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc). _____
- Presenta y/o analiza los afijos y raíces de la palabra. _____
- Usa una palabra afín o similar en español. _____
- Usa alguna foto disponible que represente la palabra. _____
- Te motiva a descifrar la palabra usando el contexto (textual). _____
- Te motiva a usar un diccionario: Bilingüe (Español – Inglés). _____
- Monolingüe (Inglés – Inglés). _____
- Diccionario en internet. _____
- Usa y/o escriba listas de palabras. _____
- Usa tarjetas (Flashcards). _____
- Usa objetos reales. _____
- Traduce al español la palabra desconocida. _____
- Parafrasea/relaciona o da un sinónimo o antónimo de la palabra desconocida. _____
- Escribe una oración que incluya la palabra. _____
- Le pregunta a mis compañeros de clase el significado. _____
- Nos pide descubrir/estudiar/practicar el significado a través del trabajo en grupo. _____
- Revisa que mis tarjetas (flashcards) o listas de palabras estén correctas. _____
- Relaciona la palabra con una experiencia personal. _____
- Presenta/usa las palabras nuevas en un “mapa mental.” _____
- Presenta/usa “scales (very, too, etc)” en los adjetivos calificativos. _____
- Presenta/usa grupos de palabras para su futuro estudio. _____

- Usa la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas. _____
- Presenta/analiza/explica la ortografía de la palabra. _____
- Presenta/analiza/pronuncia la palabra. _____
- Subraya/resalta la letra inicial de la palabra y/o otra parte de la palabra. _____
- Usa acción física o gestos para explicar la palabra. _____
- Me pide repetir la palabra de forma oral y/o escrita. _____
- Me motiva a tomar apuntes del vocabulario nuevo. _____
- Usa la sección de vocabulario del texto guía. _____
- Reproduce una grabación de las listas de las palabras. _____
- Etiqueta en inglés los objetos físicos. _____
- Usa recursos tales como canciones, películas, noticieros, etc. _____
- Usa ejercicios de práctica (Completar, relacionar, etc). _____
- Me motiva a continuar estudiando el vocabulario con el paso del tiempo. _____

4. ¿Cuánto tiempo le dedica al estudio del vocabulario por fuera de la clase (En una semana)?

1/2 hora. _____ 1 hora. _____ 2 horas. _____ Más de dos horas. _____

5. ¿Cuáles factores o aspectos le ayudan en el aprendizaje del vocabulario? ¿Por qué?

6. ¿Cuáles factores o aspectos le dificultan el aprendizaje del vocabulario? ¿Por qué?

¡Muchas gracias por su amable colaboración!

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE OF MARIA'S CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORMAT

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORMAT

Professor's name: María Class: Group A Date: May 2nd/17

Aspect to be observed	Presenting Meaning	Checking Meaning	Practice	Comments
T presents/analyses part of speech (word).				
T presents/ analyses affixes and roots (word).				
T checks for/uses L1 cognate (word)				
T uses any available pictures or image word's meaning.				
T motivates Ss to guess from textual context.				
T motivates Ss to use a monolingual dictionary.				
T motivates Ss to use a bilingual dictionary.		X	X	
T uses word lists.	X	X	X	
T uses flash cards.				
T uses real objects.				
T answers Ss an L1 translation.	X	X	X	
T paraphrases or uses a synonym/antonym of new word.	X			
T connects the word to its synonyms and antonyms				
T uses a sentence including the new word (written and / or orally).		X		
T asks/elicits Ss for meaning.	X		X	
T asks Ss to discover/study/practice new meaning through group work activity.			X	
T checks Ss flash card or word lists for accuracy.				
T connects word to a personal experience.				
T uses semantic maps.				
T uses 'scales' for gradable adjectives.				

T uses/presents group words together to study them.				
T uses/presents group words together spatially on a page.				
T uses/ presents group words together within a storyline.				
T analyses/presents/explains the spelling of a word.	X			
T analyses/presents/pronounces the sound of a word.	X	X	X	
T underlines/highlights initial letter of the word or any other part of the word.				
T presents/explains the words of an idiom together.				
T uses physical action or gestures.				
T asks Ss for verbal repetition.	X	X	X	
T asks Ss for written repetition.				
T asks Ss to take notes in class.	X	X	X	
T uses the vocabulary section in Ss' textbook.				
T asks Ss to listen to tape of word lists.				
T puts English labels on physical objects.				
T asks Ss to keep a vocabulary notebook.				
T uses English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts)				
T puts English labels on physical objects.				
T asks Ss to keep a vocabulary notebook.	X			
T promotes Ss to continue to study word over time.				
<p>Practice</p> <p>B. – Oral</p> <p>- Written</p> <p>B. Variety of practice techniques</p> <p>- Individual</p> <p>- Group work</p> <p>- Pair work</p> <p>- Teacher – Learner</p> <p>interaction</p> <p>- Learner – learner interaction</p>	<p>- T-Ss interaction was mostly in L1.</p> <p>- Ss used all the time the dictionary or internet translator to look for the word meaning.</p> <p>-Ss worked most of the time in pairs, and occasionally in groups.</p> <p>-T centered class, based on grammar.</p>			

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE OF JOSÉ'S CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORMAT

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORMAT

Professor's name: José Class: Group B Date: June 6th/17

Aspect to be observed	Presenting Meaning	Checking Meaning	Practice	Comments
T presents/analyses part of speech (word).				
T presents/ analyses affixes and roots (word).				
T checks for/uses L1 cognate (word)				
T uses any available pictures or image word's meaning.				
T motivates Ss to guess from textual context.		X		
T motivates Ss to use a monolingual dictionary.				
T motivates Ss to use a bilingual dictionary.	X	X	X	
T uses word lists.	X			
T uses flash cards.				
T uses real objects.				
T answers Ss an L1 translation.	X	X	X	
T paraphrases or uses a synonym/antonym of new word.				
T connects the word to its synonyms and antonyms				
T uses a sentence including the new word (written and / or orally).				
T asks/elicits Ss for meaning.	X	X		
T asks Ss to discover/study/practice new meaning through group work activity.		X	X	
T checks Ss flash card or word lists for accuracy.				
T connects word to a personal experience.				
T uses semantic maps.				
T uses 'scales' for gradable adjectives.				

T uses/presents group words together to study them.				
T uses/presents group words together spatially on a page.				
T uses/ presents group words together within a storyline.				
T analyses/presents/explains the spelling of a word.	X		X	
T analyses/presents/pronounces the sound of a word.	X	X	X	
T underlines/highlights initial letter of the word or any other part of the word.				
T presents/explains the words of an idiom together.				
T uses physical action or gestures.				
T asks Ss for verbal repetition.	X	X	X	
T asks Ss for written repetition.				
T asks Ss to take notes in class.	X	X	X	
T uses the vocabulary section in Ss' textbook.	X		X	
T asks Ss to listen to tape of word lists.	X		X	
T puts English labels on physical objects.				
T asks Ss to keep a vocabulary notebook.				
T uses English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts)		X	X	
T puts English labels on physical objects.				
T asks Ss to keep a vocabulary notebook.				
T promotes Ss to continue to study word over time.				
<p>Practice</p> <p>C. – Oral</p> <p>- Written</p> <p>B. Variety of practice techniques</p> <p>- Individual</p> <p>- Group work</p> <p>- Pair work</p> <p>- Teacher – Learner</p> <p>interaction</p> <p>- Learner – learner interaction</p>	<p>- T-Ss interaction was mostly in L1. Sometimes, T asked their Ss to use the L2 more.</p> <p>- T encouraged his Ss to use the dictionary or the Internet translator to look for the word meaning.</p> <p>-Ss worked in pairs, and in groups.</p> <p>-T centered class.</p> <p>- T used extra resources.</p>			

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE OF A STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE – GROUP A.

Nombre: Verónica Carolina Vandrey Gámez clase: Electromecánica Básica

Estimado estudiante, como fuente de información para el desarrollo de mi tesis de grado, necesito de su valioso aporte, el cual es, responder esta encuesta de manera honesta. ¡Gracias de antemano!

PROPÓSITO.

Identificar las percepciones que tienen los estudiantes con respecto al proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje del vocabulario en la clase de Inglés en la ENSB.

Marca con una X la respuesta que considere correcta. (Puede marcar varias opciones).

1. ¿Cuáles materiales y/o recursos usted considera importante para la enseñanza/aprendizaje del vocabulario en las clases de inglés?

Texto guía Textos extras Diccionario monolingüe Diccionario bilingüe

Diccionario/ Traductor (Internet) Videos/documentales/películas

Ayudas tecnológicas (CDs, DVDs, Software, etc) Otros (¿Cuáles?)

2. ¿Cuáles estrategias te ayuda aprender vocabulario durante la clase de inglés?

Identifico y/o analizo las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc).

Identifico y/o analizo los afixos y raíces de la palabra.

Busco/uso una palabra afín o similar en español.

Identifico, estudio, analizo y/o uso alguna foto o imagen que represente la palabra.

Descifro la palabra usando el contexto (textual).

Uso un diccionario.

Bilingüe (Español – Inglés) - Monolingüe (Inglés – Inglés). - En internet.

Uso y/o escribo listas de palabras.

Uso y/o escribo tarjetas (Flashcards).

Le pido al profesor la traducción al español.

Le pido al profesor que me explique la palabra o me dé un sinónimo/antónimo de ella.

Le pido al profesor una oración que incluya la palabra.

Le pido el significado a mis compañeros de clase.

Identifico/estudio/ práctico el significado a través del trabajo en grupo.

Relaciono la palabra con una experiencia personal.

Organizo/agrupó/estudio/uso las palabras nuevas en un "mapa mental".

Uso grupos de palabras para estudiarlas.

Uso la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas.

Estudio/ practico la ortografía de la palabra.

Estudio/ practico el sonido/pronunciación de la palabra.

Subrayo la letra inicial de la palabra y otra parte de ella.

Uso una palabra afín o similar a la palabra nueva para estudiarla.

Uso acción física al aprender una palabra.

Repito la palabra verbalmente o de manera escrita varias veces.

Tomo apuntes o escribo el vocabulario de la clase.

Uso la sección de vocabulario del texto guía.

Escucho una grabación de las listas de las palabras. _____
 Etiqueto en inglés los objetos físicos. _____
 Escribo un cuaderno con el vocabulario. _____
 Uso medios de comunicación en inglés (canciones, películas, noticieros, etc.).
 Me evalúo realizando tests de palabras. _____
 Continuo estudiando/usando las palabras estudiadas no importando que ya no la practique en clase. _____

3. ¿De qué manera tu profesor te enseña el vocabulario del inglés?

Presenta y/o analiza las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc). _____
 Presenta y/o analiza los afixos y raíces de la palabra.
 Usa una palabra afín o similar en español. _____
 Usa alguna foto disponible que represente la palabra. _____
 Te motiva a descifrar la palabra usando el contexto (textual).
 Te motiva a usar un diccionario: Bilingüe (Español - Inglés). _____
 Monolingüe (Inglés - Inglés). _____
 Diccionario en internet. _____
 Usa y/o escriba listas de palabras.
 Usa tarjetas (Flashcards). _____
 Usa objetos reales. _____
 Traduce al español la palabra desconocida.
 Parafrasea/relaciona o da un sinónimo o antónimo de la palabra desconocida. _____
 Escribe una oración que incluya la palabra. _____
 Le pregunta a mis compañeros de clase el significado. _____
 Nos pide descubrir/estudiar/practicar el significado a través del trabajo en grupo.
 Revisa que mis tarjetas (flashcards) o listas de palabras estén correctas.
 Relaciona la palabra con una experiencia personal. _____
 Presenta/usa las palabras nuevas en un "mapa mental." _____
 Presenta/usa "scales (very, too, etc)" en los adjetivos calificativos. _____
 Presenta/usa grupos de palabras para su futuro estudio. _____
 Usa la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas.
 Presenta/analiza/explica la ortografía de la palabra. _____
 Presenta/analiza/pronuncia la palabra.
 Subraya/resalta la letra inicial de la palabra y/o otra parte de la palabra. _____
 Usa acción física o gestos para explicar la palabra. _____
 Me pide repetir la palabra de forma oral y/o escrita.
 Me motiva a tomar apuntes del vocabulario nuevo.
 Usa la sección de vocabulario del texto guía. _____
 Reproduce una grabación de las listas de las palabras.
 Etiqueta en inglés los objetos físicos. _____
 Usa recursos tales como canciones, películas, noticieros, etc.
 Usa ejercicios de práctica (Completar, relacionar, etc).
 Me motiva a continuar estudiando el vocabulario con el paso del tiempo. _____

4. ¿Cuánto tiempo le dedica al estudio del vocabulario por fuera de la clase (En una semana)?

1/2 hora. 1 hora. _____ 2 horas. _____ Más de dos horas. _____

5. ¿Cuáles factores o aspectos le ayudan en el aprendizaje del vocabulario? ¿Por qué?
Los factores que ayudan en el aprendizaje del vocabulario son los recursos como películas, canciones y programas de televisión que se ven con frecuencia y repiten muchas veces.

6. ¿Cuáles factores o aspectos le dificultan el aprendizaje del vocabulario? ¿Por qué?
La dificultad es el tiempo porque falta el tiempo de estudiar y practicar la forma de comunicación.

¡Muchas gracias por su amable colaboración!

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE OF A STUDENT'S QUESTIONNAIRE – GROUP B.

Nombre: GTE1 Villanueva Perez Ronald Clase: Sanidad II

Estimado estudiante, como fuente de información para el desarrollo de mi tesis de grado, necesito de su valioso aporte, el cual es, responder esta encuesta de manera honesta. ¡Gracias de antemano!

PROPÓSITO.

Identificar las percepciones que tienen los estudiantes con respecto al proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje del vocabulario en la clase de Inglés en la ENSB.

Marca con una X la respuesta que considere correcta. (Puede marcar varias opciones).

1. ¿Cuáles materiales y/o recursos usted considera importante para la enseñanza/aprendizaje del vocabulario en las clases de inglés?

Texto guía Textos extras Diccionario monolingüe Diccionario bilingüe

Diccionario/ Traductor (Internet) Videos/documentales/películas

Ayudas tecnológicas (CDs, DVDs, Software, etc) Otros (¿Cuáles?)

2. ¿Cuáles estrategias te ayuda aprender vocabulario durante la clase de inglés?

Identifico y/o analizo las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc).

Identifico y/o analizo los afijos y raíces de la palabra.

Busco/uso una palabra afín o similar en español.

Identifico, estudio, analizo y/o uso alguna foto o imagen que represente la palabra.

Descifro la palabra usando el contexto (textual).

Uso un diccionario.

- Bilingüe (Español – Inglés) - Monolingüe (Inglés – Inglés). - En internet.

Uso y/o escribo listas de palabras.

Uso y/o escribo tarjetas (Flashcards).

Le pido al profesor la traducción al español.

Le pido al profesor que me explique la palabra o me dé un sinónimo/antónimo de ella.

Le pido al profesor una oración que incluya la palabra.

Le pido el significado a mis compañeros de clase.

Identifico/estudio/ práctico el significado a través del trabajo en grupo.

Relaciono la palabra con una experiencia personal.

Organizo/agrupa/estudio/uso las palabras nuevas en un "mapa mental".

Uso grupos de palabras para estudiarlas.

Uso la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas.

Estudio/ practico la ortografía de la palabra.

Estudio/ practico el sonido/pronunciación de la palabra.

Subrayo la letra inicial de la palabra u otra parte de ella.

Uso una palabra afín o similar a la palabra nueva para estudiarla.

Uso acción física al aprender una palabra.

Repito la palabra verbalmente o de manera escrita varias veces.

Tomo apuntes o escribo el vocabulario de la clase.

Uso la sección de vocabulario del texto guía.

- Escucho una grabación de las listas de las palabras. _____
- Etiqueto en inglés los objetos físicos.
- Escribo un cuaderno con el vocabulario.
- Uso medios de comunicación en inglés (canciones, películas, noticieros, etc.).
- Me evaluó realizando tests de palabras. _____
- Continuo estudiando/usando las palabras estudiadas no importando que ya no la practique en clase.

3. ¿De qué manera tu profesor te enseña el vocabulario del inglés?

- Presenta y/o analiza las partes del discurso (nombre, sustantivo, etc).
- Presenta y/o analiza los afijos y raíces de la palabra.
- Usa una palabra afín o similar en español. _____
- Usa alguna foto disponible que represente la palabra. _____
- Te motiva a descifrar la palabra usando el contexto (textual). _____
- Te motiva a usar un diccionario: Bilingüe (Español – Inglés).
- Mónolingüe (Inglés – Inglés). _____
- Diccionario en internet.
- Usa y/o escriba listas de palabras.
- Usa tarjetas (Flashcards). _____
- Usa objetos reales.
- Traduce al español la palabra desconocida.
- Parafrasea/relaciona o da un sinónimo o antónimo de la palabra desconocida. _____
- Escribe una oración que incluya la palabra. _____
- Le pregunta a mis compañeros de clase el significado.
- Nos pide descubrir/estudiar/practicar el significado a través del trabajo en grupo. _____
- Revisa que mis tarjetas (flashcards) o listas de palabras estén correctas. _____
- Relaciona la palabra con una experiencia personal.
- Presenta/usa las palabras nuevas en un "mapa mental."
- Presenta/usa "scales (very, too, etc)" en los adjetivos calificativos.
- Presenta/usa grupos de palabras para su futuro estudio. _____
- Usa la palabra nueva en oraciones orales y/o escritas.
- Presenta/analiza/explica la ortografía de la palabra.
- Presenta/analiza/pronuncia la palabra. _____
- Subraya/resalta la letra inicial de la palabra y/o otra parte de la palabra. _____
- Usa acción física o gestos para explicar la palabra.
- Me pide repetir la palabra de forma oral y/o escrita.
- Me motiva a tomar apuntes del vocabulario nuevo.
- Usa la sección de vocabulario del texto guía.
- Reproduce una grabación de las listas de las palabras. _____
- Etiqueta en inglés los objetos físicos.
- Usa recursos tales como canciones, películas, noticieros, etc. _____
- Usa ejercicios de práctica (Completar, relacionar, etc).
- Me motiva a continuar estudiando el vocabulario con el paso del tiempo.

4. ¿Cuánto tiempo le dedica al estudio del vocabulario por fuera de la clase (En una semana)?

- 1/2 hora. _____ 1 hora. 2 horas. _____ Más de dos horas. _____

5. ¿Cuáles factores o aspectos le ayudan en el aprendizaje del vocabulario? ¿Por qué?

La practica de lecturas, y la muestra en forma oral

6. ¿Cuáles factores o aspectos le dificultan el aprendizaje del vocabulario? ¿Por qué?

La dificultan quizas el desconocimiento, pero se realiza una afinidad y conocimiento y mejora

¡Muchas gracias por su amable colaboración!