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Effective Vocabulary Teaching Strategies For The English For Academic Purposes Esl Classroom

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EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR THE ENGLISH

FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES ESL CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

Vocabulary learning is an important and indispensable part of any language learning process. The author of this thesis focuses on effective vocabulary teaching strategies in the English for Academic Purposes ESL classroom. Drawing on findings obtained from observing three English for Academic Purposes ESL classrooms across the U.S.A, several current databases and his personal experience as a teacher and learner, the author discusses various effective vocabulary teaching strategies in the English for Academic Purposes classroom which could greatly assist English language learners in their journey of language acquisition and therefore expedite the language learning process.

ERIC Descriptors:

Vocabulary development

English (Second Language)

Teaching Methods

English for Academic Purpose

Creative Teaching

Educational Media

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

" The more one considers the matter, the more reasonable it seems to suppose that lexis is where we need to start from, the syntax needs to be put to the service of words and not the other way round." (Widdowson in Lewis, 1993: 115)

Vocabulary teaching and learning is a constant challenge for teachers as well as students because historically there has been minimal focus on vocabulary instruction in the ESL classroom. Due to this, an increased emphasis on vocabulary development is crucial for the English language learner in the process of language learning. According to Colorado (2007, as cited in Adger, 2002) the average native English speaker enters nursery school knowing at least 5,000 words while the average English language learner may know 5,000 words in his/ her native language but only a few words in English. The reality is that native speakers continue to learn new words while English language learners face the double challenge of building that foundation and closing that language gap. The following table indicates how many words are needed for effective communication in an L2.

LEVEL	NUMBER OF WORDS	TEXT COVERAGE, %
HIGH-FREQUENCY WORDS	2,000	87
ACADEMIC VOCABULARY	800	8
TECHNICAL VOCABUALRY	2,000	3
TOTAL TO BE LEARNED	4,800	98

LOW – FREQUENCY WORDS	123,200	2
TOTAL	128,000	100

(Nation and New man, 1997:239)

Technical vocabulary is words or phrases that are primarily used in a specific line of work or profession. For example, an electrician needs to know technical words such as capacitor and surge capacity, words that people outside that industry never use. Academic vocabulary on the other hand is the vocabulary critical to understanding the concepts of the content taught in schools (Stahl and Fairbanks, 1986 as cited in Zwiers, 2008).

Another crucial point to consider is the amount of time it takes for English language learners (ELLs) to learn English and be ready for school. While it takes one to three years for ELLs to develop Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), they need seven years to develop Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Collier, 1999; Cummins, 2000, as cited in Adger, 2002). From my personal experience of attending English for Academic Purposes class in Ohio University, I have an understanding why ELLs would be struggling with the academic content.

Firstly, the English language learners are doing two jobs at the same time; they are learning a new language (English) while learning new academic concepts. They are literally moving between two different worlds.

Secondly, ELLs have to work harder and need more scaffolding than the average native English-speaking student who has an age- and level-appropriate command of the English language. Scaffolding is providing support for students as they learn new skills or information (Cummins, 2000, as cited in Taylor, 1990).

Thirdly, academic vocabulary is often very technical and less frequently used than conversational English used in the English language classroom and students are constantly required to use higher level language function such as analyzing, predicting, explaining and justification.

Due to the enormous and alarming gap between the acquisition of basic conversation English and academic English, it is therefore important for teachers in the English for Academic Purposes ESL classroom to be knowledgeable about the most effective and current teaching strategies in vocabulary instruction and provide constant academic scaffolding to ELLs.

The English for Academic Purposes classroom focuses mostly on academic language. Academic language is the language used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge (Stahl and Fairbanks, 1992, as cited in Zwiers, 2008). Cummins (2001, as cited in Herrel, 2004) defines academic English as the English needed for reading, writing, speaking and listening in the content areas. Hence, if students in the English for Academic Purposes classroom need a language proficiency that will enable them to comprehend academic content and participate in activities and assignments, then it is even more important for the teacher to employ effective and dynamic teaching strategies that will empower the students to master the required tasks.

Since the focus of this study is on effective vocabulary teaching strategies employed by teachers in the English for Academic Purposes classroom, it is crucial to highlight the importance of academic vocabulary instruction in the English for academic Purposes ESL classroom. Stahl (1992, as cited in Taylor, 1990) found that vocabulary instruction directly improves comprehension. He points out that, as the difficulty of words in a text increases, understanding of the text decreases; therefore it is critical for students to have a deep understanding of academic vocabulary in order to understand new concepts. He also states that we use academic vocabulary to communicate to the world what we know. Individuals who can express themselves precisely with appropriate language are more likely to make a positive impression on their employers, colleagues and clients (Cummins, 2002, as cited in Herrel, 2004). McKeon (2002, as cited in Zwiers, 2008) argues that academic vocabulary enables us to communicate our needs, increases our chances that our needs are fulfilled and enables us to understand the needs of others. Furthermore, vocabulary is positively related to higher–status occupations (Marzano, 2004, as cited in Zwiers, 2008). I agree with Marzano; from personal experience, I discovered that vocabulary acquisition is essential to academic, social and professional success. Once again the teacher's role in ensuring this success is critical.

The language demands of academic learning are enormous. The more diverse, creative and effective teaching strategies the teacher in the English for Academic Purposes classroom employs, the richer the student's academic language becomes and the more likely will they experience success with the content and will be able to communicate with various registers.

In this paper I will discuss the various teaching strategies currently employed by teachers in the English for Academic Purposes classroom and their implications for effective vocabulary acquisition. In chapter 2, I am going to define the concept "vocabulary" from a broader

perspective. Chapter 3 outlines how vocabulary is learned while chapter 4 explores best practices in vocabulary teaching practiced in three educational institutions in the U.S.A. Chapter 5 discusses the new insights that I learned, challenges experienced within the English for Academic Purposes class room and possible solutions to these problems. In my conclusion I provide suggestions on how ESOL teachers can assist the ELLs in their academic language development more effectively and how this study has impacted my current and future teaching career.

CHAPTER 2

WHAT IS VOCABULARY?

Graves (2000, as cited in Taylor, 1990) defines vocabulary as the entire stock of words belonging to a branch of knowledge or known by an individual. He also states that the lexicon of a language is its vocabulary, which includes words and expressions. Krashen (1998, as cited in Herrel, 2004) extends Graves' definition further by stating that lexicon organizes the mental vocabulary in a speaker's mind. An individual's mental lexicon is that person's knowledge of vocabulary (Krashen, 1998, as cited in Herrel, 2004). Miller (1999, as cited in Zimmerman, 2007) states that vocabulary is a set of words that are the basic building blocks used in the generation and understanding of sentences.

According to Gardener (2009, as cited in Adger, 2002) vocabulary is not only confined to the meaning of words but also includes how vocabulary in a language is structured: how people use and store words and how they learn words and the relationship between words, phrases, categories of words and phrases (Graves, 2000, as cited in Taylor, 1990)

Cummins (1999, as cited in Herrel, 2004) states that there are different types of vocabulary:

Reading vocabulary

This refers to all the words an individual can recognize when reading a text.

Listening vocabulary

It refers to all the words an individual can recognize when listening to speech.

Writing vocabulary

This includes all the words an individual can employ in writing.

Speaking vocabulary

This refers to all the words an individual can use in speech.

Lexicon also refers to a reference book containing an alphabetical list of words with information about them and can also refer to the mental faculty or power of vocal communication (McCarthy, 1990, as cited in Taylor, 1990). According to McCarthy (1990, as cited in Taylor, 1990) the role that mental lexicon plays in speech perception and production is a major topic in the field of psycholinguistics and neurolinguistics.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman (1999) define lexicon as a mental inventory of words and a productive word derivational process. They also state that lexicon does not only comprise of single words but also of word compounds and multi-word phrases (Celce- Murcia and Larsen Freeman, 1999). According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman (1999) lexical units function at three levels: the level of the individual word, word compounds and co-occurrences and conventional multi-word phrases. Nations and Waring (2000, as cited in Adger, 2002) on the other hand, classify vocabulary into three categories: high frequency words, general academic words and technical or specialized words.

Academic comprehension improves when students know the meaning of words. Words are the building blocks of communication. When students have a great vocabulary, the latter can improve all areas of communication, namely speaking, listening, reading and writing. Current models of reading in the English for Academic Purposes ESL class room consider vocabulary knowledge an important source of variation in reading comprehension, because it affects higher-level language processes such as grammatical processing, construction of schemata and text

models (Adams and Collins, 1977 as cited in Zimmerman, 2007). When students have a higher academic vocabulary development, they can tolerate a small proportion of unknown words in a text without disruption of comprehension and can even infer the meaning of those words from rich contexts.

English language learners who experience slow vocabulary development are less able to comprehend text at grade level. Such students are likely to perform poorly when assessed in various areas and are at risk of being diagnosed as learning disabled. I am cognizant of the fact that vocabulary acquisition, semantic development and growth of word knowledge are currently being studied in several interesting ways, hence the research that is presented here is to complement and augment these studies by introducing effective vocabulary teaching strategies in the English for academic purposes ESL classroom that will expedite the vocabulary development in ELLs.

Without some knowledge of vocabulary, neither language production nor language comprehension would be possible. Thus the growth of vocabulary knowledge is one of the essential pre-requisites for language acquisition and this growth of vocabulary knowledge can only be possible when teachers employ effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies which are the objectives of this research thesis.

With the large deficits in second -language vocabulary of ELLs, it is crucial that students in the English for academic purposes classroom to first have a semantic understanding of what academic vocabulary is before they even learn it.

What is Academic Vocabulary?

" Academic vocabulary is the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills which includes learning new information, describing abstract ideas and developing student's conceptual understanding '' (Chamot and O'Malley, 2007 as cited in Herrel, 2004).

Academic vocabulary is used across all academic disciplines to teach about the content of the discipline; e.g. Students who study chemistry are required to know the chemistry concepts. According to Marzano (2004, as cited in Adger, 2002) academic vocabulary includes general academic terms such as analyze, infer and conclusion. It enables students to understand the concepts and content taught in schools; it is critical for students to have a deep understanding of the content vocabulary in order to understand the concepts expected throughout the content standards (Schmidt, 2005, as cited in Zwiers, 2008).

Academic vocabulary helps students to convey arguments and facilitate the presentation of ideas in a sophisticated manner. It prepares students for academic success by helping them preview, learn and practice vocabulary from Academic Word Lists (Cummins, 2002, as cited in Zwiers, 2008).

According to Cummins (2002, as cited in Zwiers, 2008) the main barrier to student comprehension of texts and lectures is low academic vocabulary knowledge, due to the sub-technicality of the academic language. He points out that academic vocabulary is based on more Latin and Greek roots than the daily spoken English vocabulary. Cummins (2000, as cited in Zwiers, 2008) also states those academic lectures and texts use longer and more complex sentences than are used in spoken English. Cummins (2002, as cited in Zwiers, 2008) suggests

that academic vocabulary contributes to the development of Cognitive Academic Language

Proficiency (CALP) in ELLs which enables them to apply the language, using abstractions in a

sophisticated manner. It also enables them to think and use language as a tool for learning.

CHAPTER 3

HOW WE LEARN VOCABULARY

"The limits of my language are the limits of my mind. All I know is what I have words for"

– Ludwig Wittgenstein

3.1 My personal journey of vocabulary learning

I was in eighth grade, when I first encountered the word "sincere". Ms. Brown, my English teacher, wrote the word on the board and talked about what it meant to be sincere. She called on us to think of people we knew who were sincere and what they did that made them sincere. To me "sincere" was a good word and I strongly desired to make it my own. I was excited to think about sincere behavior and sincere people. I wanted to be sincere myself. Soon after that, I started noticing the word in newspapers, in overheard conversations and on television. It was amazing to me that I knew a word even used by actors. That experience was the beginning of my fascination with vocabulary. The fact that I knew the meaning of "sincere" and could use it was a milestone in my English language learning journey.   I believe Decarrico is right in stating that efficient vocabulary learning is a productive, incremental and continuous process that requires meaningful recurring encounters with a word over a long period of time (Decarrico, 2001, as cited in Adger, 2002).

3.2 My journey of vocabulary learning at the SIT Graduate Institute

My vocabulary learning journey at SIT has been a profound and academically enriching experience. During my studies at SIT, I was privileged to be part of a dynamic study group. The majority of the members were native English speakers with a high level of vocabulary and

fluency. During our study sessions, I was constantly challenged by the range of registers and vocabulary used by the native English speaking members of my study group. During study sessions I would constantly ask for clarifications of words I did not understand. I would write down the words in my vocabulary journal and study these words every time I was alone. I felt at liberty to ask my peers the meaning of all the words and concepts I struggled with in class. My study group sessions became a vital learning component in my academic experience, to such an extent that I dared not miss any of our meetings. I constantly tested out my hypotheses of the vocabulary I had obtained in my other academic classes. I aspired to speak English like a native English speaker and this highly motivated me to study new words which I could use during my group study sessions. Constant interaction with native English speakers and keeping a vocabulary journal has contributed immensely to my vocabulary development.

3.3 What does it mean to know a word?

Knowing a word is not an all or nothing situation; it is a complex concept. According to Dale (1989, as cited in Taylor, 1990) the extent of knowledge a person has about individual words can range from a little to a lot and it also includes qualitative connotations about words. Dale (1989, as cited in Taylor, 1990) provides a description of the extent of word knowledge in terms of 5 stages:

3.3.1   The student has no knowledge about the word.

3.3.2   The student has a general sense of the word.

3.3.3   The student has a narrow, context-bound knowledge about the word.

3.3.4 The student has a basic knowledge of the word and is able to use it in many appropriate situations.

3.3.5The student has a rich, de-contextualized knowledge of the word and can use it in various appropriate situations.

Knowing a word implies knowing many things about the word: its literal meaning, its various connotations, its spelling, derivations, collocations, frequency, pronunciation, the sort of syntactic constructions into which it enters, the morphological options it offers and a rich variety of semantic associates such as synonyms, antonyms, homonyms (Nagy and Scott, 2000, as cited in Taylor, 1990).

For example, a learner who knows the word "write" will know that its past tense is "wrote " and it past participle is "written." The learner would know that "written" is spelled with double "t". The learner will also know when and how to use the various auxiliary verbs appropriately. The learner would know that "writing" is a verb that is used in the present continuous tense and that "writing" can also serve as a noun: e.g. the writing is on the wall. The learner would be aware of the various synonyms of writing such as compose, drop a line, record, scribe and draft and also know that its collocations are subject to syntactic modifications such as write effectively and effective writing. The learner will also be able to use the word within various registers. These various aspects are related to the depth of word knowledge, which is as important as learning many words (breadth of word knowledge). English learners have been shown to be lacking in depth of word knowledge, even for frequently occurring words (Verhallen and Schoonen, 1993, as cited in Taylor, 1990).

Carter (2000, as cited in Adger, 2002) mentions a number of factors involved in knowing a word: recall difficulty and interlanguage factors such as storage of these lexical items in appropriate context and the ability to recall vocabulary for active usage in speaking and writing. The ability to recognize the appropriate syntactic frames of the word, to discriminate a basic from a peripheral lexical item and the comprehension of fixed expressions.

A crucial distinction is often made between knowing a word and using it. Knowing a word does not necessarily entail using the word automatically in a wide range of contexts (McCarthy, 1984, as cited in Adger, 2002) since for every vocabulary dimension there is a knowledge dimension and a skill dimension. Evidence suggests that the knowledge aspect requires conscious and explicit learning mechanisms whereas the skill aspect involves mostly implicit learning and memory (Ellis, 1994, as cited in Herrel, 2004). Vocabulary learning strategies therefore, should include strategies for using as well as for knowing a word.

Bybee (1985, as cited in Taylor, 1990) states that words are stored in a network of items linked by shared phonological, morpho-syntactic and semantic properties and that the relative strength of any given item and its relationship to other items in the network are directly determined by the speaker's experience both using and perceiving the word. Bonvillian (1997, as cited in Taylor, 1990) states that all associative models view vocabulary acquisition as a result of the continuous interaction between the learner's current level of cognitive functioning and the linguistic and non-linguistic environment.

Bonvillian (1997, as cited in Taylor, 1990) also emphasizes that learners need a deeper and more complete knowledge of syntactic information and, in particular, the sub- categorization of words—that is, the syntactic frames that words fit into. Bonvillian (1997, as cited in Taylor,

1990) points out that there are many different facets of vocabulary knowledge. If one takes as an example two synonyms , *fetch* and *carry*, it is not enough to know that both refer to the transporting of something from place to place. One must additionally have knowledge of the syntactic frame within which they are used (Bonvillian, 1997, as cited in Taylor, 1990). Frase (1997, as cited in Zimmerman, 2007) used the five-point Vocabulary Knowledge Scale developed earlier by Paribakht and Wesche (1993, as cited in Adger, 2002). In order to gain syntactic information, subjects are asked to write a sentence using the specific vocabulary item, e.g. the words *fetch* and *carry*. If a learner writes *John is fetching the bucket* and *John is carrying the bucket*, one has no way of knowing if the learner has knowledge of the subtle differences between *John is fetching the bucket for Jim*, *John is carrying the bucket for Jim*, and *John is carrying the bucket to Jim*, and, further, that *John is fetching the bucket to Jim* is not possible. According to Frase (1997, as cited in Zwiers, 2008) production information may provide us with at best partial information about linguistic knowledge, but it does not inform us about a learner's knowledge of what is not possible—clearly an important part of the entire picture of what a learner knows.

   Moreover, it is important to concentrate on grammatical information that is hidden in vocabulary because grammatical information is useful in inferencing, according to information provided by the Paribakht and Wesche study. The results of the study underlined the fact that syntactic and lexical knowledge are related. Therefore, research should endeavor to understand this specific relationship in line with the vocabulary acquisition process (Wode, 1989, as cited in Adger, 2002). Gass and Ard (1987, as cited in Taylor, 1990) further investigated the relationship between syntactic and lexical knowledge by observing ELLs over a specific period of time. The investigation revealed that low –level learners lacked the ability to differentiate sentences such as

"The teacher demonstrated the students the new machine and The teacher showed the students the new machine ".

However, Gass and Ard (2007, as cited in Herrel, 2004) also stated that learners with a high proficiency did differentiate the two sentences. According to Gass and Ard (2007, as cited in Zimmerman, 2007) learning happens in the following manner:

1. Learners learn a particular syntactic pattern to account for all cases of what appears to them to be a particular structural type.

2. A second step occurs when a second pattern becomes available to learners; they can then either alternate these patterns or replace the first with the second until the correct pattern is established. Thus, when additional information becomes available to learners as a function of proficiency, destabilization occurs. Destabilization of initial syntactic patterns is observed in the greater sensitivity of the more advanced learners to the relationships that exist between and among lexical items. In fact, learners acquire syntactic information through the lexicon. They may first learn lexical items as unique bits of language information with syntactic generalizations as a result, not a cause (Gas and Ard, 2007, as cited in Zimmerman, 2007). As an initial approach to a particular lexical item, learners conceivably have a general idea of the meaning of the word and a general idea of the kinds of syntactic structures in which words occur. Increased proficiency means refinement in both of these areas.

The point to be made here is that lexical acquisition needs to be considered broadly and needs to include the semantics of lexical items as well as syntactic information. A version of this point is made by Paribakht and How (2009, as cited in Taylor, 1990).

Additionally, as Henriksen (1990) points out, one needs to acquire the packaging of lexical items (i.e., the range of meaning or the appropriate references) and one needs to learn to build

appropriate networks (i.e., which words are related to other words, and how, including antonyms and synonyms, semantic intensity, etc.). These are dynamic processes that continue as vocabulary learning continues and one's lexicon matures.

These dynamic processes are outlined by Henriksen (1999) through the three vocabulary development dimensions.

3.4 The Partial-Precise Knowledge Dimension

A number of quantative studies such as vocabulary size or breadth and different types of achievements tests define vocabulary knowledge as precise understanding (Hazenburg and Hulstin, 1996)). To know a vocabulary item is defined as the ability to translate the vocabulary item into the first language, to discover the correct definition in a multiple-choice task, or to paraphrase it in the target language (Hulstin, 1996). In a study of teaching methods Merry (1980) asked the informants to match L1 words with L2 words.

For measuring vocabulary size in the L2 word recognition tasks and check lists were effectively used (Palmberg, 1989). These measuring instruments were also used to make comparisons between individuals vocabulary knowledge (Beauvillan and Grainger, 1987). Herman and Anderson ,1985) argue that these lexical decision tasks could only show whether a specific vocabulary item is recognized as being part of the learner's vocabulary, since learners are only required to recognize formal features of words and may not know the meaning.

In addition lexical-decision tasks do not differentiate between what the learner precisely or Vaguely knows. Neuman and Koskinen (1992) used different tasks in order to measure differences in acquisition outcomes.

Read (1988) suggests a method where learners be requested to pronounce words, explain the meaning and provide various word associations. This method has shown that there are definite levels of knowledge along the partial to precise knowledge dimension.

3.5 The Depth of Knowledge Dimension

The depth of the learner's vocabulary knowledge is defined as the learner's ability to apply syntactic and morphological meaning to words that they know. Richards (1993:357) emphasizes that vocabulary knowledge consist of various dimensions which define the meaning of words. According to Cronbach (1992) learners should not only know the general relationship between words but also the different sense relations such as antonyms, synonyms, hyponyms, and collocations.

Dolch and Leeds (1992:189) stress that knowing the meaning of a word is "growth." They argue that current vocabulary tests are limited and should include a section on testing word meaning and synonyms.

Wesche and Paribakht (1996) suggest the use of a vocabulary knowledge scale to measure levels of lexical knowledge such as meaning, use and accuracy. However, according to Read (1998) a learner's lexical competence can only be measured by a combination of test formats that measure the various word knowledge dimensions.

3.6 The Receptive-Productive Dimension

Most researchers agree that there is a difference between word mastering and word use. Melka (1997) stresses that there is a need to define the concepts "reception" and "production" since most vocabulary tests such as TOEFL mainly concentrate on receptive and productive vocabulary. Although it is important that test instruments include productive and receptive tasks that focus on the same vocabulary items, Melka (1997) states that it is difficult to find tasks that test production and reception. Joe (1997) advocates for the use of a variety of tests that could measure inter-language development more accurately.

3.7 Focus on both mapping meaning onto form and network building

The relationship between dimension one and two and the learning of word meaning plays an important role in vocabulary semantization (Beyeydt, 1987). Beyeydt (1987) considers vocabulary learning a mere rote learning task.   According to Hatch and Brown (1995) the process of mapping meaning onto form should not be considered more important than the learner's ongoing struggle to construct and reorganize his/her interlanguage because it is a complex process that also involves network building.

Aitchison (1997) states that English language learners find it difficult to acquire word meaning through the process of labeling, packaging and network building. The first term, *labeling,* refers to a brief description given for the purpose of identification or an identifying or descriptive marker that is attached to an object.

Packaging refers to the process of learning in which items can be grouped together under a head topic. According to Ellis (1995) the learner learns to use the same word for too many different situations (overextension) or too few (under extension). He provides an example of the adjective *hot.* In this case, the learner will have to learn that the word has its limitations when used in a figurative manner such as hot news or hot date.

The third term, *network building,* refers to the process of learning the relationship or direct links between words. It entails linking words together according to meaning (Verhallen and Schoonen (1993). Verhallen and Schoonen (1993) point out that learning meaning involves working out the relationship between the meanings of words. Learning word meaning also involves working out the relationship between words through the process of labeling and packaging (Aitchinson, 1993). Aitchinson (1993) state that mapping form onto meaning is crucial since it appears in the early stage in the vocabulary development process while net work

building only comes later in the learning process. Hazenberg and Hulstjin (1996) conclude that it is difficult to determine, test and evaluate the progress of the learner's interlanguage semantic development.

   3.8 Development from partial to precise comprehension

   Researchers state that English language learners should be allowed to have a vague understanding of word meaning before developing accuracy. Harley (1995) suggests that learners go through various stages of partial word knowledge. Johnson and Lard (1987) argue that complete comprehension of words is not needed for successful communication, since learners learn to infer meaning when communicating. Learner's knowledge of a specific vocabulary item moves from partial to precise knowledge as they expand their communication world (Brown, 1994). Miller and Fellbaum (1991) point out that knowledge of how verbs, adjectives and nouns function in relation to another is important in acquiring word meaning.

3.9 Development from Receptive to Productive Control

   Harley (1995) points out that various levels of receptive tasks and productive vocabulary require learners to access and apply their word knowledge. Nation (1990) states that vocabulary items in the learners receptive vocabulary, might not become readily available for productive purposes, since vocabulary reception does not guarantee production. He states that it is difficult to draw a line between reception and production, since it is not clear at what point receptive word knowledge becomes productive.

 Maera (1997) suggests that vocabulary learning is to be viewed as the learning of items and changing of systems when teachers employ the following vocabulary learning strategy:

 (The above references on the three dimensions were all cited in Henricksen (1999).

Guessing meaning from context

  The teacher assists the students in learning to recognize clues to guessing word meaning from context. This vocabulary learning skill is effective for learning low-frequency vocabulary (Herrel, 2008, as cited in Henriksen, 1999).

Herrel (2008, as cited in Henrikson, 1999) suggests the following method in assisting students guessing meaning from context:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teaching lexical chunks

Peters (1992:34) suggests that the memorization of chunks of language might be productive and powerful. She states that the learning of lexical chunks can serve two objectives: it enables the student to have chunks of language available for immediate use and it also provides the student with information that can be analyzed at a later stage. The main advantage of the use of lexical chunks is that they build on the fluency of the English language learner. They can also be associated with certain communication rituals such as "To whom am I speaking? Lexical chunks are related to typical functional language use. For example- "Have you heard about….." is reserved for starting gossip or talking about an event. Lexical chunks like these are institutionalized as the most efficient and most familiar linguistic means to carry out language function (Bollinger, 1997).

Lexical chunks facilitate clear, relevant and concise language use and are stored as individual whole units. These units can be easily retrieved and used without the need to compose on-line through word selection and grammatical sequencing. This means there is a less demand on

cognitive capacity because the lexical chunks are "ready to go "and require little or no additional processing. Bollinger (1997) states that once a chunk is known it can be analyzed and broken down into constituent words. This can occur when some variability is noticed in a lexical chunk. For example- after having heard the phrase "How are you today?" several times, it may be acquired as a chunk with the meaning of a greeting.

However the learner may later notice the phrase "How are you this evening?" At that point the learner realizes that the main structure is actually "How are you…………..? Where the gap can be filled with a time reference. The learner is then aware that what fits in the gap is a separate unit from the rest of the phrase, which opens the door to learning that lexical unit (Bollinger, 1997).

Teaching collocations

Vocabulary knowledge doesn't only involve just knowing the meaning of a word in isolation, but includes knowing the word that usually co-occurs with it. These words that co-occur with high frequency are called collocations, e.g. heavy rain, strong coffee but not powerful coffee, a brief discussion but a short man. Collocations help students to define the semantic area of a word such as: Synonyms- words with identical meaning; however (Nattinger, 1989:99) warns that absolute substitutability is not possible, since factors such as register and style determines the usage of synonymous words. Examples of synonyms include commence/begin, end/ terminate. Antonyms - antonyms refers to a notion of semantic opposition or unrelatedness (Carter, 2000). Examples of antonyms include married/ single, buy/ sell, big/ small. Hyponymy refers to a relationship existing between a specific and general lexical item e.g. (a) super ordinate grouping (vehicle- car) (b) co-ordinate grouping (car-sedan). Word formation refers to the recognition and

production (speaking and writing) of word formation processes (Carter, 2000). Below is an example of a word form chart.

WORD   FORM   CHART

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
OBSESSION	OBSESS	OBSESSIVE	OBSESSIVELY
QUALIFICATION	QUALIFY	QUALIFIED	
COMPETITION	COMPETE	COMPETITIVE	COMPETITIVELY
ION, - TION	-E, -ATE, EY	IV, -ED	LY

(Carter, 2000)

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition (IVA)

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition is a vocabulary learning strategy, defined as the learning of new words as a by-product of a meaning-focused communicative activity, such as reading, listening and interaction. It occurs through multiple exposures to a word in different contexts. Learners are able to acquire vocabulary through extensive reading, communicative interactions and exposure to natural input such as movies and television. This strategy entails extensive comprehensible input and independent learning (Huckin and Coady, 1999:185).

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition has many advantages:

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

time. It is individualized and learner–centered because the vocabulary to be learned depends on the learner's own selection of reading materials. Presentation, consolidation and lexical development occur at the same time. On the other hand; Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition also has a few disadvantages: It does not work for learning core vocabulary, since it is individualized and the vocabulary that is acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading material. There is no control over what learners learn, so learning might not even take place. Incorrect guessing might lead to incorrect understanding of vocabulary (Huckin and Coady, 1999: 186).

Teaching word family

Development in lexical semantics and the mental lexicon have prompted the development of the semantic field theory, semantic networks or semantic grid strategies, which present and organize words in terms of interrelated lexical meanings (Gus and Johnson, 1996:64). The semantic field theory suggests that the lexical content of a language is best treated not as a mere aggregation of independent words or unstructured list of words but as a collection of interrelating networks of relations between words (Stubbs, 2001). The meaning of most words is governed, in part, by the presence in the language of other words whose semantic functions are related in one or more ways to the same area of situational environment or culture (Robins, 1980).

A simple example of a semantic field is the set of kinship terms: father, mother, brother, sister, son, daughter, uncle, aunt or the various body parts learned as a subset. Words may be grouped together (related to each other) according to different criteria. Animals for example may be grouped in terms of physical or perceptual features such as pet, wild, food etc. According to How (1999) individual word meanings exist within systems of related meaning (kinship) and

knowledge of the meaning relations among a set of words would seem to follow from knowledge of the constituent meaning. There is ample psychological evidence that supports this assumption (How, 1999). Adults are better at remembering words from a list that contain semantically related subsets than words from lists of unrelated words. Semantic interrelationships among words cannot be acquired incidentally through reading. They need direct systematic instruction, which enables the learner to recognize the semantic relatedness between words. This strategy also enhances retention of vocabulary learned in this manner (How, 1999).

Recycling content

Linguists have contrasting views on how many times learners need to be exposed to a lexical item before they can commit it to memory. According to Whorf (2002) it is not only the amount of times but also how well learners encounter a lexical item that determines how well they retain it. If learners encounter a lexical item many times but do not do much with it (incidental learning), the learners are likely not to retain it. If the learners are actively involved in processing the lexical item (intentional learning), they are likely to remember it. It is therefore the teachers' responsibility to create meaningful contexts in which learners have the opportunity to recycle and reuse the vocabulary they have learned (Whorf, 2002).

Keeping a vocabulary journal

It is important for language learners to record the words they learn or encounter. Vocabulary journals can serve as a reference source in and out of the class room. Once learners record the target vocabulary, it becomes easy for them to remember or use it (Gruber, 2002:199).

Eliciting

The learner calls out or writes the target word. This can be in the form of definition, antonyms or synonyms. This activity enables the learner to express meaning and explore knowledge of the target vocabulary deeply (Herrel, 2004:110).

Contextualization

The learners learn to use the word in sentences through gap filling activity, story–building or role-play activity (McCarthy, 2002:33).

Labeling

Learners label various parts or objects in class. This activity can be extended at home or immediate environment (Morgan and Rinvolcri, 1986:56).

Personalization

This process is also known as deep-processing. The learners visualize themselves doing a specific activity relating to the target vocabulary, e.g. learners imagine themselves rowing a boat. Target vocabulary = row.

Students can also be asked to think and express what freedom means to them individually (Morgan, 1986: 55).

Learning vocabulary by identifying productive pre-fixes and post-fixes

Learning the most common productive pre-fixes and post-fixes can enable learners to understand a thousand other academic words, which uses one or more of those word parts. Word part clues are highly memorable because they are simple to understand e.g. bi- means 2, anti- means

against. Once learners have mastered the word part, they can create their own words (Schmidt and McCarthy, 1989:22).

Association

Learners learn to associate the new vocabulary or target word with something they already know or something that is meaningful to them (Schmidt and Schmidt, 1995:45).

Semantic mapping

This method is used to motivate and involve students in thinking, reading and writing. It enhances vocabulary development by helping students to link new information with previous experience. This is done by making an arrangement of words into a picture, which has a key concept at the centre and related words and concepts linked with the key concept. Below is an example of a semantic map.
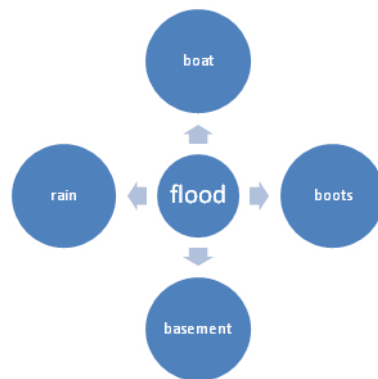
(McCarthy, 2009)

Character trait vocabulary chart

After reading a story students are asked to describe what each of the characters was "really like""" and the teacher creates a chart of the students' responses (Manyak, 2007). The brain storming process prompts students to analyze the characters and provide the teacher with a rich context in which to teach new vocabulary.

Learning vocabulary via analogy

An analogy is an implied (unstated) relationship between two pairs of objects (Gardner, 1993). Analogies require students to identify a similar relationship between dissimilar objects. Understanding analogies requires the use of higher thinking skills. The major forms of vocabulary via analogy are: synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, word and word structure, part to whole, whole to part and characterization. An example of an analogy is: which one does not belong to the group:

1. flood
2. debris
3. facility
4. rain
5. current   (answer: facility) (Gardner, 1993:55)

Using Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling (TPRS) to teach vocabulary

This teaching strategy is used to build language proficiency in the use of grammatical structures and vocabulary. This is done by the presentation of target vocabulary structures. Gestures can

also be taught and practiced with the new vocabulary to help students remember the target

vocabulary. Three steps are involved in TPRS:

Step1 – Teacher establishes meaning by presentation of target vocabulary.

 Step2- Teacher asks students to tell a story with a general outline by using the target vocabulary.

The teacher then asks students to provide specific details.

Step3 – Teacher discusses story with students and ask questions about the story and how it

relates to students' lives (Brown, 1999).

Learning vocabulary through story innovation

The learning vocabulary through story innovation strategy was introduced by Martin and

Brogan. It is a procedure for innovating sentence patterns by using the structure of a sentence to

create a semantically new one through word substitutions. Story innovation is a way for learners

to enjoy writing and reading and learn vocabulary in a scaffolded format. The finished product is

a new text that is easy for learners to read because they are familiar with the patterns in the

original story and with the new vocabulary used to create the innovation.

Categorizing words

Students are asked to categorize words. Categories can include action verbs - to run, run on

gasoline; nouns - knight, night; auxiliary verbs- will –future tense, a will, be, bee; adjectives -

round, round of applause; prepositions -in, to, two, too (McCarthy, 2008).

Vocabulary finder

These are problem-solving activities that involve a list of words that the learners try to locate in a

square or rectangular maze of letters (Garner, 1989).The difficulty of these puzzles is determined

by the number of lexical items to be located and the quantity of the unrelated alphabetic

distracters (random letters). Below is an example of a vocabulary finder.

Animal Word Search: (Garner, 1989)

```
L  N  E  W  T  W  F  T  S  D  J  E
W  W  F  L  A  J  A  R  R  D  K  S
O  R  F  L  E  R  A  A  O  H  A  U
E  K  A  N  S  P  P  G  O  G  Y  O
X  O  R  B  W  O  H  R  U  X  P  M
K  T  I  F  E  A  S  A  C  A  A  Z
Q  S  G  L  B  E  R  A  N  N  R  E
V  O  L  E  L  E  T  T  H  T  R  B
I  G  U  A  N  A  A  P  H  U  O  R
E  U  R  C  H  I  N  R  W  O  T  A
C  A  N  T  E  L  O  P  E  L  G  Z
Q  U  O  L  L  Y  U  T  I  G  E  R
```

Tic-tac-toe

This is a structure that features three rows with three columns each. Students are asked to discover a relationship in three lexical items in a diagonal, vertical or horizontal row (Summer, 1994).

Scrambled format

Students are asked to unscramble the letters which belong to the domain of kingship terminology (Schmidt, 2005).

Use of bilingual dictionaries

According to Baxter (2009:44) the continuous and extended use of bilingual dictionaries slows down a student's vocabulary development. However, Summer (1993:116) argues that dictionaries can be valuable tools in vocabulary acquisition when properly used.

Garner (2009) suggested the following ways of helping learners to remember previously learned words. Spend time on a word by dealing with two or three aspects of the word, such as its spelling, pronunciation, parts, related derived forms, its meaning, its collocations, its grammar, or restrictions on its use. Get learners to do graded reading and listening to stories at the appropriate level.

Get learners to do speaking and writing activities based on written input that contain the words.

Let learners do prepared activities that involve testing and teaching vocabulary such as;

Same or different? Find the difference, word and picture matching. Set aside time each week for word by word revision of the vocabulary that occurred previously. List the words on the board. Break the words into parts and label the meanings of the parts and suggests collocations for the words.

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

It is important for teachers in the English for Academic Purposes ESL classroom to focus on the complexity and quality of the semantization process in order to enhance the organizational structure of the learners' lexicon. Effective vocabulary teaching strategies enhance word retention, broaden the depth and breadth of word knowledge and therefore expedite the vocabulary development of the English language learner.

(The above references on various vocabulary teaching methods were all cited in Herrel (2004).

CHAPTER 4

HOW DIFFERENT INSTITUTIONS FACILITATE VOCABULARY LEARNING IN THE ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES ESL CLASSROOM.

For the purpose of this study, I visited three well established educational institutions across the U.S.A. The aim was to investigate and observe effective and current methods and strategies used by the respective professors in the English for Academic Purpose, ESL classroom. The following methods and strategies were successfully employed by the Professors at Riverside language Program (New York), Ohio University (Ohio) and Loyola University (Chicago).

4.1 Vocabulary teaching strategies used by Tim Brendell at Riverside Language Program**.**

Brendell, a teacher at Riverside Language Program, focuses on **form**, **meaning** and **use** of words when teaching vocabulary in his ESL classroom.
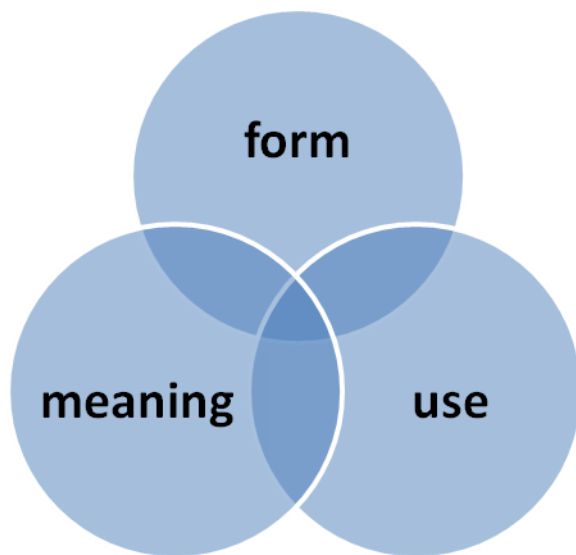
Form- pronunciation, spelling, inflections, and derivations of the word

Meaning- basic and literal meaning, figurative meanings, semantic relation and the connotation of the word

Use- sub-categorization, collocation, socio-linguistic and stylistic meaning of the word

Brendell mainly uses the Presentation, Practice and solidation and lexical and semantic development teaching strategy as outlined below.

Presentation

The teacher provides a description, explanation or example of a new term. Students are asked to restate the description, explanation or example of the new term. Students then construct a picture, symbol or graphic design of the term. The teacher engages students in activities that will help in mastering the new concepts. Students are asked to discuss the new terms often in class.

Practice and Consolidation

Teacher uses songs and games when teaching vocabulary and employ semantic field and semantic mapping strategies. Teacher uses the key word method to reinforce important concepts and provide sufficient practice. Regular review of important concepts and vocabulary is done in class.

Lexical and Semantic Development

Teacher employs extensive reading activities in and out of the classroom and facilitates communicative activities such as role-play and debates to enhance fluency and confidence in speech.

4.2 Vocabulary teaching strategies used by Aaron Hill Ohio University (Ohio).

Hill uses the criteria below to select vocabulary items:

Range - the extent to which a word occurs in different types of texts.

Coverage - the capacity of a word to replace other words.

Frequency - the number of occurrences of a word in the target language.

Learnability - the extent to which a word can be learned without difficulty.

Language needs - the extent to which a word is regarded as essential for the specific outcomes of the course or communication purposes.

 Academic vocabulary journal

Hill recommends a vocabulary journal in which students write word pairs and semantic maps which help students to understand the relationship between words. The main idea here is *input flooding,* he states. The more the learners are exposed to a specific word, the higher the retention and usage of the word. Hill requires students to have an ongoing collection of the academic vocabulary words that they study in class and sets short reviews (tests) on the lexical items covered in the journal.

 Academic vocabulary word lists

Hill uses a master academic word list to teach specific lexical items (see appendix). Although he advocates for the use of wordlists, I perceive word lists to be ineffective in teaching academic vocabulary, due to the following reasons:

Wordlists do not contain all the words that students need to know because students must still learn many words from oral language and from extensive reading in order to be academically successful. Moreover, the definitions on many wordlists are not learner-friendly and some of the students might already know the words and thus become bored in class.

Through my personal teaching experience, I discovered that teaching vocabulary in context is more meaningful than just teaching with wordlists because students have a better understanding of a word when they see and hear how the word is used in daily life or how its meaning is related to their own reality. However, should teachers use academic wordlists, Graves (2000) suggest the following teaching methods for using a word list: introduce ten focus academic words each week, and have short test on the words at the end of each week. Encourage students to use the focus academic words in sentences through class presentations and essays. Create flash cards with the focus words, adding definitions, synonyms and antonyms, pictures and "clues" to help students learn the words. Play games so that students become accustomed to the focus words.

Scaffolding

Hill uses the following methods for scaffolding academic vocabulary learning:

Graphic organizers are used to explain concepts and related words. New vocabulary is posted on a word wall and reviewed daily. Drawings and pictures are labeled to help students make the connection between oral and written English. He constantly refers to the visuals to clarify meaning when he uses the target lexical items.

Focus on cognates

According to Hill the identification and use of cognates can be a building block in vocabulary learning. Students look at the words and discuss how they are alike and different by focusing on word roots, endings and affixes. He states that it is crucial for students to be aware of false cognates - words that have similar spelling and pronunciation but don't share the same meaning.

Hill uses the following strategy to facilitate mastery of more complex words and concepts in academic English. He pre-selects words from an upcoming text or conversation and explains meaning with student-friendly definitions. He provides examples of how the word is used and asks students to repeat the word, in order to model correct pronunciation. He constantly engages students in activities to develop mastery of the words.

Teaching word maps

Hill uses word maps to teach the definition of key academic vocabulary concepts by focusing on the key components of a concept, such as characteristics, examples, corpus and category.

Teaching productive prefixes and suffixes

This strategy is aimed at teaching the definition of key vocabulary concepts by focusing on the parts of words such as roots, prefixes and suffixes.

Semantic feature analysis

This strategy helps students to define characteristics of a concept by comparing its features to those of other concepts that fall into the same category.

Word sorts activities

This strategy helps students to enforce new vocabulary by allowing students to sort words into categories.

Oral presentations and academic discussions

These activities allow students to use (produce) the words they have learned in class and grant them the opportunity to negotiate for meaning with each other and the teacher. They also allow them to test their hypothesis of the target language.

Model correct usage of language

Hill states that when students listen to the teacher talking in class, they automatically learn how to pronounce words; therefore it is important that the teacher reaffirms the student's ideas and pronounces words correctly in context. He pronounces the target vocabulary a few times in class, in order to provide the students with the confidence to also pronounce the target vocabulary in their daily interaction correctly.

4.3 Vocabulary teaching strategies implemented by Michael Brown at Loyola University (Chicago)

Word awareness

Brown puts the target vocabulary on posters on the wall and constantly refers to the vocabulary for reinforcement. He asks students to create a weekly vocabulary poster as the lesson progresses.

Use of audio visual equipment and computers

Students are requested to watch and listen to news on CNN, discuss content and make a list of new vocabulary learned. They also watch movies and discuss content, re-enact scenes and write essays on issues covered in the movies. Students are requested to use the internet to "Google" information for research purposes.

Use of corpus linguistics

According to Brown, the main aim and focus of Corpus Linguistics is to discover patterns of authentic language use trough analysis of actual usage. Brown suggests that a corpus and concordance can be used in the English classroom to:

- Compare language use - Standard English/ Scientific English, written/spoken English and analyze the language in books, novels and textbooks.

- Compile exercises and student activities.

- Analyze usage - when is it appropriate to use "obtain" rather than "get". Examine word order and compare similar words – "ask" versus "request".

However, Brown warns that teachers should be aware of the following problems when using corpus and concordances:

Usefulness - the teacher must make sure that the corpus is useful for the particular teaching context and that it covers the target register and lesson objectives.

Corpus bias- some data can be misleading when the teacher uses a large general corpus.

Comprehensibility - it might be difficult for both teacher and learner to understand the data provided when using concordance.

Learning differences - discovery learning might not be exciting for some learners, which might lead to a lack of interest in the activity.

It is evident that there are many vocabulary teaching strategies. However, it is the teacher's responsibility to employ the most effective strategies that will enhance and expedite the vocabulary learning process of the English language learner.

CHAPTER 5

INSIGHTS, CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

During this research I discovered new insights, challenges and possible solutions to the problems experienced by the ESL teacher in the English for academic purposes classroom. Firstly, most ELLs have a deficit in second language vocabulary and teachers have a limited time for direct instruction. In this regard, it is important for teachers to develop creative methods to expose ELLs to vocabulary in many ways that develop and reinforce word meaning throughout the school day as well as in and out-of school settings. This can be done by using technology, additional reading texts and games for students that provide incentives for students to listen for new words or previously taught words outside the vocabulary lesson; one can also use word walls to display the target vocabulary.

Secondly, some ESL teachers have a difficulty in choosing whether to concentrate on developing vocabulary or promoting extensive reading. ELLs need sufficient vocabulary to read effectively, while at the same time extensive reading is a necessary component for acquiring a sufficient vocabulary. One should support and complement the other rather than contrast each other.

Thirdly, I discovered that there was a lack of formative assessment in one of the ESL classes that I attended during my research. It is important that lexicon is a part of the evaluation component of the English for academic purposes classroom. Standard assessment tools such as

quizzes, tests, vocabulary finders and crosswords should be included in the formative and summative assessment process. When students see comparable, but not identical materials included in the evaluation instruments, their significance as a learning tool is sustained.

Finally, I have come to realize the importance for English language learners to have an extensive knowledge of the breadth and depth of words. When ELLs have an understanding and a foundation of both, they will be able to use various registers, as circumstances require. This will also immensely increase their lexical competence. For ESL teachers, it is important to use multiple modes for creating comprehensible input and output. ESL teachers should constantly remember that their students have not yet developed their English language proficiency to a level where they can understand all the oral and written information they encounter in English for academic purposes classroom, hence the importance of effective vocabulary teaching strategies.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

The ESL teacher can assist the academic language development of ELLs more effectively by providing them with the main topics of the curriculum, the content specific vocabulary and sentence structures related to what they learn in class. When teachers provide content specific vocabulary, ELLs have the opportunity to practice the new academic language through reading, writing and listening to it. Through personal experience during my internship at Riverside Language Program, I discovered that many of my students became discouraged because they believed that they were not making progress in their vocabulary learning journey due to the fact that they constantly compared themselves to native speakers of the English language. It is in this regard that I suggest that ESOL teachers keep portfolios of the ELLs work over the school year and help assess their students at regular intervals. Periodic assessment of Ell's progress will show the learners their current progress and thus encourage them to work harder.

As much as I am aware of the fact that academic English vocabulary is generally difficult to understand for the average ELL, I would advise the teachers not to simplify the curriculum. Instead, ESOL teachers should focus on determining the major concepts and processes in the English for Academic Purposes curriculum that students must know. When teachers help students to focus on the most important vocabulary, the content in the English for Academic Purposes classroom becomes manageable and the workload less overwhelming. This makes the

learning and teaching process productive for both teachers and learners because valuable time is spent on what is most important.

This research assignment has contributed immensely to my academic knowledge, skills and awareness. As an ESOL teacher, I have become profoundly aware of the various effective teaching strategies, not only in the English for Academic Purposes classroom but in the TESOL world in general. These teaching strategies have their advantages and disadvantages and it is my responsibility as an English teacher to implement vocabulary teaching strategies that will expedite the learning process of my learners. I am aware that the level proficiency of the class determines how the teacher will implement specific teaching strategies. I have learned that in order for ELLs to communicate more effectively within their immediate communities they must have a certain level of vocabulary. I consider it my responsibility as an English teacher to provide my learners with the necessary vocabulary that will enable my learners to become independent and productive members within their own communities. Kinsella (2005, as cited in Herrel 2004) states that vocabulary is the single, strongest predictor of academic success of ELLs. Also, I have become aware of the fact that language is an organic entity, which constantly changes. As an English teacher I must be abreast of the latest developments within my field in order to stay relevant and effective in the English classroom.

My future career, as an ESOL lecturer at the University of Namibia, will be immensely influenced by the skills, knowledge and awareness that I have gained through this research assignment. I will have to reconsider the way I had taught English in the past, evaluate my past teaching strategies and implement more effective new strategies that I have learned and observed in various English for Academic Purposes classrooms. I will share my skills and knowledge with my new colleagues and staff members. I am excited to go back and implement these new skills

and knowledge in my classroom and observe the results. With the assistance of the Ministry of Education, I intend to have workshops for primary school English teachers on vocabulary teaching strategies. This research work on vocabulary learning and teaching has laid the foundation for my future academic endeavors.

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APPENDIX

Academic Vocabulary List

An English Professor at Ohio University, Aaron Hill stated that the Academic Vocabulary List used by Ohio University was compiled through a survey of various texts books, assignments, content area standards and examinations. According to Aaron Hill ELLs cannot expect to succeed in the English for Academic Purpose classroom if they did not understand the directions provided in class. The words on the Academic Vocabulary List fall into several categories, which are not identified on this sheet: nouns (what the student reads or create); verbs (what the assignment asks the student to do); adjectives (specific details about what the student must do); and adverbs (words that provide important information about how the student must do the assignment)**.**

1. abbreviate	9. analogy
2. abstract	10. analysis
3. according	11. analyze
4. acronym	12. annotate
5. address	13. anticipate
6. affect	14. application
7. alter	15. apply
8. always	16. approach
17. appropriate	40. character
18. approximate	41. characteristic
19. argue	42. characterize

20. argument	43. chart
21. arrange	44. chronology
22. articulate	45. citation
23. aspects	46. cite
24. assemble	47. claim
25. assert	4.8. clarify
26. assess	49. class
27. associate	50. clue
28. assume	51. code
29. assumption	52. coherent
30. audience	53. common
31. authentic	54. compare
32. background	55. compile
33. body	56. complement
34. brainstorm	57. compete
35. brief	58. compose
36. calculate	59. composition
37. caption	60. conceive
38. category	61. concise
39. cause	62. conclude
6.3 conclusion	86. credible
64. concrete	87. credit
65. conditions	88. criteria

66. conduct

67. confirm

68. consequence

69. consider

70. consist

71. consistent

72. consistently

73. constant

74. constitutes

75. consult

76. contend

77. context

78. continuum

79. contradict

80. control

81. convert

82. convey

83. copy

84. correlate

85. correspond

89. critique

90. crucial

91. cumulative

92. debate

93. deduce

94. defend

95. define

96. demand

97. demonstrate

98. depict

99. derive

100. describe

101. detail

102. detect

103. determine

104. develop

105. devise

106. diction

107. differentiate

108. dimension

109. diminish

110. direct

111. discipline

132. evidence

133. exaggerate

134. examine

112. discover

113. discriminate

114. discuss

115. distinguish

116. domain

117. draft

118. draw

119. edit

120. effect

121. elements

122. emphasize

123. employ

124. equal

125. equivalent

126. essay

127. essential

128. establish

129. estimate

130. evaluate

131. event

135. example

136. excerpt

137. exclude

138. exercise

139. exhibit

140. explain

141. explore

142. expository

143. extract

144. fact

145. factor

146. feature

147. figurative

148. figure

149. focus

150. footer

151. foreshadow

152. form

153. format

154. former

155. formulate

156. fragment

157. frame

178. instructions

179. integrate

180. intent

158. frequently

159. general

160. genre

161. graph

162. graphic

163. highlight

164. hypothesize

165. identify

166. illustrate

167. imitate

168. imply

169. inclined

170. include

171. incorporate

172. indicate

173. indirect

174. infer

175. influence

176. inform

177. inquire

181. intention

182. interact

183. intermittent

184. interpret

185. introduce

186. introduction

187. invariably

188. investigate

189. involve

190. irony

191. irrelevant

192. isolate

193. italics

194. judge

195. key

196. label

197. likely

198. list

199. literal

200. locate

201. logical

202. main

203. margin

224. perspective

225. persuade

226. place

204. mean

205. measure

206. metaphor

207. method

208. model

209. observe

210. occur

211. opinion

212. oppose

213. optional

214. order

215. organize

216. origins

217. outline

218. pace

219. paraphrase

220. participation

221. passage

222. pattern

223. perform

227. plagiarism

228. plan

229. plausible

230. plot

231. point

232. point of view

233. portray

234. possible

235. preclude

236. predict

237. prefix

238. prepare

239. presume

240. preview

241. previous

242. primary

243. prior

244. probably

245. procedure

246. process

247. produce

248. profile

249. project

250. prompt

251. proofread

252. property

253. propose

254. prose   (Ohio University, 2010)