A Review of Explicit Vocabulary Instructions for ESL Learners during COVID-19 Pandemic

Mohd Haniff Mohd Tahir¹, Intan Safinas Mohd Ariff Albakri¹, Puteri Zarina Megat Khalid¹, Mazlin Mohamed Mokhtar¹, Muhamad Fadzllah Zaini², Md Zahril Nizam Md Yusoff²

¹Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Languages and Communication, Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI), 35900 Tanjong Malim, Perak, Malaysia
²Department of Malay Language and Literature, Faculty of Languages and Communication, Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI), 35900 Tanjong Malim, Perak, Malaysia

Correspondence: Mohd Haniff Mohd Tahir (haniff.tahir@fbk.upsi.edu.my)

Abstract

_____

During COVID-19 pandemic, alternative learning arrangements have been applied and used, so that it is possible to perform distance learning. Teachers have typically changed their teaching practises from conventional classroom meetings to distance learning by using electronic equipment, either online or offline. Internet networks have been the cornerstone during this time, with the use of social media apps such as Whatsapp and Telegram, social networking sites such as Facebook Live and Instagram Live, and platforms for video conferencing such as Google Meet and Zoom. In order to deal with the COVID-19 period for the better, English language teaching has also improved. The learning of English vocabulary also tailored to accommodate for distance learning as the use of vocabulary for good communication in one's life is crucial, regardless of whether or not one is in the midst of COVID-19 pandemic. This paper systematically reviews previous research undertaken on explicit instructions for vocabulary and suggests a structure for discussing English vocabulary teaching strategies. In learning, teaching, and undertaking vocabulary studies, this analysis may have some theoretical consequences for learners, educators, and researchers.

Keywords: explicit vocabulary instructions, secondary ESL learners, COVID-19 pandemic

_____

Introduction

The Covid-19 pandemic has eternally altered the way people are living from all walks of life. It is necessary to adjust and to establish and adhere to new norms. This includes how to deliver education. For example, in line with the nation's first phase of the Movement Control Order (MCO) on March 18, 2020, schools in Malaysia were closed to disrupt learning for nearly 5 million students.

Learning should never stop, for as long as we live. Alternative learning arrangements have been sought and used, so learning activities can be carried out as usual. By using electronic equipment, teachers have generally shifted their teaching activities from traditional classroom meetings to distance learning either online or offline (Hawati & Jarud, 2020). During this period, online platforms have become the pillar, including the use of social messaging applications such as Whatsapp and Telegram, comprehensive social networking sites such as Facebook Live and Instagram Live, and video conferencing platforms such as Google Meet and Zoom. English language instruction has also changed

to cope with the COVID-19 era for the better as regards its delivery. Student vocabulary learning has also been adapted to cater for the distance learning. This is important, as Wilkins (1972) claimed that very little can be expressed without grammar; that without a vocabulary nothing can be communicated. It shows how important the use of vocabulary is for successful communication in one's life regardless of whether one is in the COVID-19 era or not. (Content ('Time New Roman", saiz 11)

Literature Review

Major Components of Vocabulary Instructions

Students will acquire vocabulary directly when teachers concentrate on individual words and put forward techniques for word-learning (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001). Graves (2006) notes that there are four basic components of vocabulary instruction. The following is a list of the components:
1. Providing rich and varied language experiences.
2. Teaching individual words explicitly.
3. Teaching word-learning strategies.
4. Fostering word consciousness.

Figure 1: Four critical components of vocabulary instruction. Adapted from
Graves (2006)
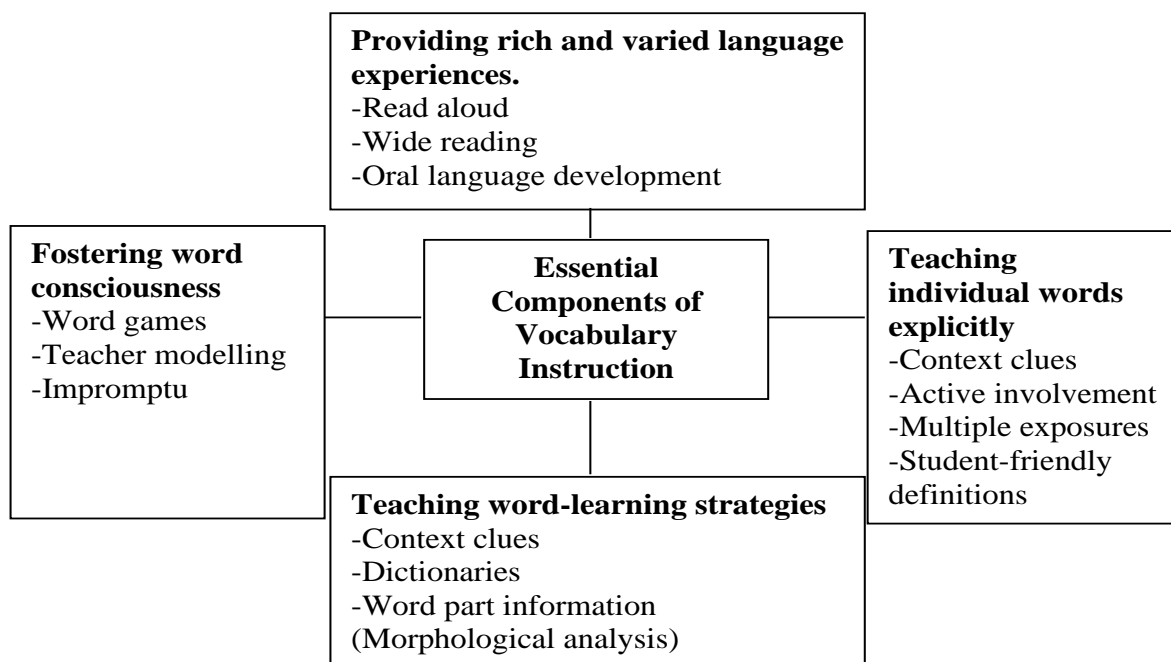
Steps for Teaching Individual Words Explicitly

There are three phases and four approaches to specifically teach individual words, according to Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002), Graves (2006), NICHD (2000), and Pacific Resources for Education and Learning [PREL] (2008). The strategies and steps are as follows:
1. Identify the potential list of words to be taught.
2. Determine which of these words to teach.
3. Plan how to teach words using the following strategies:
    a. Provide a student-friendly definition.
    b. Use the word in context and give contextual information.
    c. Provide multiple exposures.
    d. Offer opportunities for active involvement.

Step 1: Identify the potential list of words to be taught

In one lesson, it is suggested that one should teach about three to five words (Hanson & Padua, 2011). The reason to keep the number of words to a minimum is to ensure enough time is available for in-depth vocabulary instruction. Additionally, Armbruster et al. (2001) stated a few reasons to focus on just a few words at a time. One of the reasons for this is that the text might have too many words which require direct instruction. Second, a longer period of student reading should be spent than intensive direct vocabulary instruction. Third, students are usually able to understand much of the text without all the words being understood and finally, students can practice using word-learning techniques themselves.

Step 2: Determine which of these words to teach

PREL (2008) suggested that there are few requirements to help teachers determine which terms are suitable for specific teaching. Firstly, the word is too difficult to understand without any contextual awareness. Second, the word is important to the interpretation of the text. Third, the word is a language for information or method that describes a concept or subject matter. Fourthly, the context clues do not help to understand the meaning of the word and, eventually, the word is likely to be encountered in future reading.

Step 3: Plan how to teach words using specific strategies

According to Graves (2006), after specifically choosing words to teach, there are four main techniques that the teachers should use to teach the words. The four primary strategies are as follows:
1. Provide a student-friendly definition.
2. Use the word in context and give contextual information.
3. Provide multiple exposures.
4. Provide opportunities for active involvement.

Strategy 1: Provide a student-friendly definition

Teachers should include the student-friendly definition using a detailed and thorough interpretation of the target vocabulary and linking the definition to the prior awareness of the students (Hanson & Padua, 2011). It's also recommended that teachers use everyday language to help the students understand the meaning of a word. Students may use concise descriptions to clarify the concepts (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Graves, 2006; PREL, 2008). Students were introduced to the target words within this study using pictorial vocabulary that provided them with the student-friendly meaning.

Strategy 2: Use the word in context and give contextual information

The students are displayed on how the words are used in context to show that teaching vocabulary is important. Hanson and Padua (2011) reported that if students are asked to look for the meaning of a word in the dictionary, they seem to choose an incorrect definition. Students can connect with the word's actual meaning as a result of seeing how the word is used in context (Armbruster, et al., 2001; Graves, 2006; PREL, 2008; Stahl, 1999). Also, Hanson and Padua (2011) have added that teachers will do this by asking students to trace the word in practice activities and then explore how to define its meaning with them.

Strategy 3: Provide multiple exposures

NICHD (2000) stated that it is crucial for students to frequently hear the word definition and to expose students to a variety of contexts where the word can be used through examples that include pictures or sentences using words in different contexts. This will contribute to a deeper understanding of the word, and how it is used in a versatile manner. This is further achieved by choosing suitable practice tasks to help the students learn the target words.

Strategy 4: Offer opportunities for active involvement

By encouraging students to process the knowledge through one or two simple exercises or games, the instructor helps to improve their comprehension of words (Beck, et al., 2002). Each day, as Hanson and Padua (2011) say, teachers should provide opportunities for students to read the continuous text without interruption.

Connecting Vocabulary to Writing

Hanson and Padua (2011) suggest that if students can apply learned vocabulary from reading to writing, this will improve students' ability to fully understand the meaning of the word. According to Graham and Hebert (2010), when students are given extended time to engage in writing activities, teaching the writing skills and processes to build sentences as well as having opportunities to write about what they are reading will enhance their understanding of reading. For example, students can write responses, make personal comparisons, or use their recently learned vocabulary to summarize the text (Graham & Hebert, 2010). This is because, when students receive rich and comprehensive instruction along with many chances to learn words, vocabulary will enhance comprehension (Stahl, 1999).

Hanson and Padua (2011) support this, in which writing activities will increase opportunities for students to receive rich and extensive encounters with words to learn. Students can also learn vocabulary more deeply by integrating writing into other areas of content. Therefore, by providing students with the ability to compose, the meaning of the specifically learned vocabulary will be reinforced, and as a result, students will think deeply about the information (Hanson & Padua, 2011). Teachers will also evaluate the students on their comprehension of the vocabulary they have learned in the way they use it in writing.

Developing Lesson Plan to Teach Vocabulary Explicitly

Teachers need to concentrate on three key components when teaching vocabulary: the form, meaning, and use (Jiang, 2004). The form is related to the teaching of pronunciation, spelling, inflexions, and derivations while the use is based on subcategorization, collocation, sociolinguistic and stylistic, slangs and idioms, and restrictions. On the other hand, the meaning is related to the basic and literal meanings of a word; derived and figurative meanings; all semantic relationships and connotations. There are three phases involved in the teaching of vocabulary: introduction, practice and compilation, and development of lexicon or semantic. The phases under consideration are as follows:

1. Presentation

The outcome for the presentation stage is to create an entry in the episodic memory with the right form and basic meaning of the target words (Jiang, 2004). There are a few ways to explain the definition of new items in vocabulary. According to Ur (1996), the first strategy is to provide students with the descriptive description, e.g., the description taken from the dictionary where credentials are always superordinate. Second, in terms of the meaning or characteristics of the new words, teachers should provide a detailed explanation and add examples like hyponyms. Next, students may also be provided with an example in the form of a target word image or object. Students are usually drawn to the display because it is one of the ways in which the target vocabulary can be expressed meaningfully by acting up or mimicking. Teachers are also advised by showing the students the story or sentence in which the item occurs to indicate the context of the target words. Besides, students may be exposed to new vocabulary elements by combining them with synonyms (words with the same meaning) and antonyms (words with the opposite meaning). Finally, teachers should provide the translation of the new vocabulary items to students, as well as share ideas or collocations to explain the new words to the students.

2. Practice and Consolidation

At this point, the goal is for the students to learn the ability to translate the passive vocabulary into the active vocabulary and store the item in their long-term memory (Jiang, 2004). There are some suggestions that Ur (1996) points out for the stage of preparation and restructuring, such as using songs and games to learn the new vocabulary. The students may also engage in activities involving the semantic field and target word mapping. In addition, teachers should introduce students using the keyword process, require students to complete vocabulary exercises, and implement the daily analysis of the target vocabulary items (Ur, 1996). These practices are carried out so that the students can learn new words and refine them.

3. Lexical or Semantic Development

Lexical or semantic development is the final stage of the lesson plan. The result for this stage is for the students to incorporate lexical or semantic knowledge into the entries and transfer the words from episodic memory to the lexicon (Jiang, 2004). According to Jiang (2004), the suggested ideas for this stage are for the students to participate in comprehensive reading and communication activities pertaining to the target words. These are the actual task students must complete to learn the vocabulary. These activities will also lead to the acquisition of incidental vocabulary.

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition (IVA)

Incidental learning of vocabulary is important despite the drawbacks of explicit vocabulary instruction. According to Jiang (2004), explicit vocabulary teaching has its drawback as much of the lexical and semantic information are not defined as explicit knowledge. Huckin and Coady (1999) define IVA as the learning of new words as a byproduct of a meaning-focused communicative activity such as reading, listening, and interaction. Learners are believed to be able to learn vocabulary through intensive reading, communicative experiences, and access to natural information such as film, television, radio, or the Internet (Jiang, 2004).

Figure 2: Lexical Competence
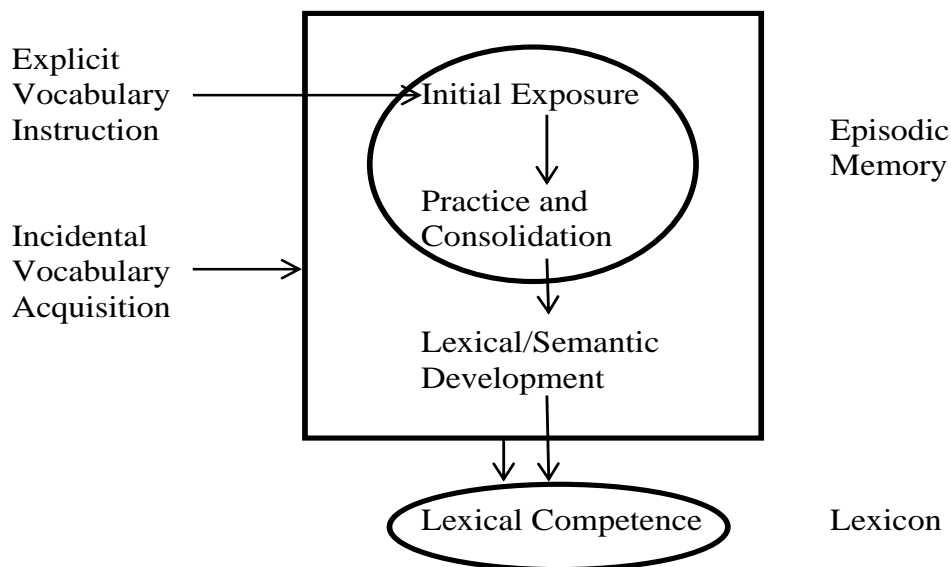
Source: Adapted from Jiang (2004)

There are a few requirements for good IVA. The learners should have a sight vocabulary of 2000 to 3000 items and the feedback should be understandable and meaningful for the learners where the number of foreign words does not exceed 2 per cent (Jiang, 2004). Laufer and Hill (2000) added another condition which could be useful for IVA input enhancement. In addition, guessing techniques should be practiced, and guessing during classroom teaching and learning should be encouraged.

There are few benefits for learners who participate in IVA. Jiang (2004) claimed that IVA is contextualized as it gives learners a better understanding of the usage and meaning of a word compared with conventional paired-associate exercises. This is also pedagogically successful, as it allows for two activities: simultaneous vocabulary learning and reading. Jiang (2004) added that it is more individualized as well as learner-based since vocabulary learning relies on the personal collection of reading materials by the learner. Moreover, the stages of presentation, restructuring, and lexical/semantic development also occur simultaneously. This would inevitably contribute to lexical competency where lexical information embedded into the mental lexicon can be automatically extracted for and in natural communication.

On the other hand, IVA's few disadvantages do exist. According to Jiang (2004), when it comes to learning the basic core vocabulary IVA does not work. There is also no influence on what to learn, which means that unintentional vocabulary learning does not always occur, and mistakes can result in a misunderstanding of vocabulary.

Also stated by Huckin and Coady (1999), few strategies may emerge naturally, but others should be taught. In general, students can benefit from explicit instruction in vocabulary along with thorough reading. Interesting reading materials are often the kinds where there is going to be something conducive to indirect learning. In addition, modification of inputs, as well as glossing of specific words in general, is successful, especially when it involves interaction between the learners. Finally, incidental learning relies on informed guesswork that can cause imprecision, misrecognition, and conflict with the process of reading. To solve these issues, it is recommended that the learners have a well-developed basic vocabulary, enough successful reading strategies and some background knowledge of the subject matter.

Using Various Techniques in the Explicit Method of Vocabulary Instructions

According to Graves and Prenn (1986), various approaches cater to different teaching word techniques. This is because few readers (Beck & McKeown, 1983; Johnson, Toms-Bronowski & Pittelman, 1982; Pearson, 1985) acknowledged this understanding the meaning of words is important, and much of the time the process is difficult and time-consuming. Everything depends on the learners' knowledge of the words and their connotations, however, as well as the extent to which learners want to know about the words. Additionally, the amount of time it takes for teachers to manage specific words often varies.

Graves (1985) listed different word learning activities concerning the learner's understanding of the vocabulary and notions being studied. The first learning challenge that the learners face is learning to read words in their verbal vocabulary and the second word learning task is learning to read words that they understand, but not in their vocabulary of language and comprehension. Finally, the third word learning task is to learn words from reading which have no background concept.

In addition to classify word learning activities, there are also various levels of information about words. There are three categories listed by Beck et al. (1979); unknown, familiar, and established. Words at the unknown level are essentially unknown to the learners, while words are recognized at the familiar level in terms of their meaning, but only to some degree. Also, vocabulary is the ones that will be understood easily, instantly, and automatically at the established level. Learning a word systematically requires plenty of experiences in various environments (Beck & McKeown 1983). It also involves multiple skills and a series of experiences that will lead to learners mastering a phrase.

In the case of learning to read the word in the oral vocabulary of the learners, the less familiar written word must be paired with the more familiar spoken word (Graves & Prenn, 1986). A teacher can teach these words to the learners by writing them on the whiteboard or by showing them on the screen projector and pronouncing them. Consequently, instructions which allow learners to see and hear the word are enough.

In terms of learning to read words for learners with words concept, according to Graves and Prenn (1986), the teacher will ask them to look for the words in a dictionary, as well as to write the meanings and use them in sentences. Before being able to use the dictionary, the learners must be guided to do so. The teacher must also be able to teach the words directly in a quick way, even though it may cost the time for the learners to look up the meaning of the words in the dictionary. Besides, the sentence plus definition method can also be used by learners to learn to read words of which the learners have a concept of those words (Graves & Prenn, 1986). The learners will be shown on a handout or PowerPoint slide with sentences as well as meanings and asked to learn the words. As compared to the dictionary approach, it won't be time-consuming. The third approach to teach new words while the learners are aware of the definitions is through the application of the context-relationship procedure (Graves, 1985). A text that involves the use of the target word three times is addressed to the learners and is answered by a multiple-choice question. This approach entails an overall and more precise meaning with greater learners' ability to memorize the target words.

Therefore, in terms of learner and teacher time, teaching new or challenging concepts is also costly (Graves & Prenn, 1986). The first procedure is called the teaching method, which is inclined to teach individual words. The approach to teaching was introduced by Frayer, Frederick and Klausmeier (1969, as cited in Graves & Prenn, 1986) which included six steps; defines the new concept, distinguishes between the new concept and similar but different concepts, provides examples of the concept and explains why, provides non-examples of the concept and explains why, gives examples and non-examples and asks them to explain why, ask them to show their own examples of the concept and non-examples and provide feedback on the results. The learners should learn a new concept and begin with a rich and varied presentation (Graves & Prenn, 1986).

The second procedure is intensive instruction by Beck and McKeown (1983), which involves a series of increasingly demanding activities created within a week to teach a collection of 8 to 10 semantically similar words. The activities' examples are matching vocabulary with meanings, comparing new words in various ways, creating frameworks for words and so on. Through this procedure, Graves and Prenn (1986) explained that learners would learn the meanings of the words widely, have fast access to the meaning of the words, and are able to better understand the material which contains the words.

The third procedure developed by Johnson and Pearson (1984) to inform a series of linked concepts is called semantic mapping. The teacher places a word on the whiteboard that represents a core idea and asks the learners to list as many terms related to that word. The students then asked to categorize the mentioned words and explore their interrelationships. Graves and Prenn (1986) added that rather than studying it through intense guidance, learners should learn about the interrelationship of the notions connected with the words.

Example of Explicit Vocabulary Activities

1. Pictorial Vocabulary

The worksheet consists of the target words, space for drawing images, and target word annotations. This is underpinned by Nassaji's (2003) idea of the fallibility of inferring the meanings of unknown words from pictures, and by Plass et al.'s (1998) suggestion to use both pictorial and written annotations, target vocabulary items can be provided with their equivalent pictures and written annotations as cited in Jihyun (2010). They are asked to draw the images that they can associate with the target words in the Pictorial Vocabulary worksheet to promote active participation amongst the learners. This may enable them to learn more about the target words and to remember them better.

2. Crossword Puzzles

For each word to solve the puzzle, the learners are given hints in the form of the meaning of the words and a few letters of the words.

3. Frayer Model

Each learner receives a word written on the task sheet, different from each other. The learners are instructed to use their own words to write down the definition of the given word, if possible. Then, the learners are asked to list the synonym and antonym of the given word in the task sheet. Lastly, the learners are asked to complete the task sheet by writing a sentence of at least 10 to 15 words using the given word

4. K.I.M. Strategy

The learners are instructed in pairs to write ten words down in the task sheet. The learners will also be asked to talk about the words with their partner. The learners are given the example of sentences to describe the words (e.g. this word is used to describe the location of an item, etc.). Then, in the information column, the learners are asked to write down descriptive sentences related to every word. The learners are also informed to refer to the dictionary or pictorial vocabulary worksheet to write down the definition and other relevant information about each word. Finally, to complete the task sheet, the learners must list memory clues in the memory cue column for every word.

5. Making Meaning

The learners are instructed, in pairs, to write down the ten new words on the task sheet. They are asked to converse with their partner about the words. It also gives the learners the example of sentences that can be used to describe the words (e.g. this word is used to describe a person 's feeling, etc.). In the column prior to reading, the learners are then asked to write down descriptive sentences related to each word. Finally, by writing the definition and other relevant information about each word, they will complete the task sheet with reference to the dictionary or pictorial vocabulary worksheet. This information is reproduced in the after reading column.

6. Wordsplash

The learners are asked in the task sheet 1 to identify and select one of the biggest words (main topic) in the Wordsplash. The learners are asked to select three words (supporting details) relating to the main topic. Finally, the learners are instructed to write three sentences describing how the main topic relates to each of the supporting details. The learners are given the example of the sentences to describe the words (e.g. this word is used to describe the location of an item, etc.). The learners are requested to write down descriptive sentences. They are also asked to look through the dictionary or Pictorial Vocabulary worksheet for the definition and other relevant information about each word. The learners should repeat the same procedures for task sheet 2.

7. Vocabulary Anchors

The learners are instructed to list unique features of the word that they are assigned to. They are then asked to write down the word synonym given in the task sheet. The learners must then complete the task sheet by listing similar traits between the given word and the word synonym.

8. Vocabulary Cartoons

The learners are instructed to search for the meaning of the written word on the task sheet. Then, on the task sheet, they are asked to write down word definition. Also, the learners are asked to draw a picture that represents the word they are given. Finally, the learners will use the word given in the correct context to write a sentence of at least ten words.

9. Vocabulary Frames

To create their flashcards, the learners are asked to follow a specific format and use their own creativity. By referring to the dictionary or Pictorial Vocabulary worksheet while creating their flashcards, they need to look for the definition and other relevant information about each word.

10. Spelling

The learners are asked to listen carefully and spell the list of words spoken by the teacher properly on their own. The teacher will read the word's definition and the contextual usage of the word.

Conclusion and Recommendation

It is necessary to apply the various activities to specifically promote the learning of individual words and to encourage active participation among students in the processing of their learning (Hanson & Padua, 2011). This is also assumed that some of the exercises introduced will serve as fast 'sponge' tasks where it can be performed during transitions between lessons or at the end of the day for a limited time. These activities aimed to encourage students to examine their vocabulary. Students will need some time to read a linked text in every reading lesson as described by Duffy (2003), a linked text is a text that contains a clear message such as a novel, a chapter of a book on social studies and an article in the newspaper. The activities explicitly listed for learning single words are supposed to be a supplement to the connected reading that the students do every day.

'Glossary Bookmark' is one of the types of practices that can be added. The students are asked to create bookmarks for words that are commonly used. The activity aims to provide students with a guide to key words of vocabulary to use while reading (Hanson & Padua, 2011). Throughout the class, the next activity that can be done is 'Vocabulary Checks.' This activity is suited to help the students understand words in context and serve as formative evaluation. They submitted that this activity will enable students to assess their understanding of vocabulary items before, during and after explicit vocabulary item instruction.

For students, the third task that can be introduced is 'Vocabulary Record.' The 'Vocabulary Record' offers the students a strong scaffold to show their comprehension during each phase of explicit vocabulary instruction (Hanson & Padua, 2011) which can reinforce the word awareness of students during the class. In addition, the teachers will carry out exercises such as 'Identifying Tricksters' to help students understand which words have a prefix and which do not. They added that tricksters are words which have a similar group of letters to a prefix. Identification of the tricksters is important when teaching word-learning techniques. Finally, the 'Which Prefix? Word Wall' activity can also be used to teach word-learning strategies. This activity will provide students with a reference tool to identify different prefixes that have the same meanings.

References

Armbruster, B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2001). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read.* Jessup, MD: National Institute for Literacy.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1983). Learning words well: A program to enhance vocabulary and comprehension. *The Reading Teacher, 36*, 622-625.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., McCaslin, E. C., & Burkes, A. M. (1979). *Instructional dimensions that may affect reading comprehension: Examples from two commercial reading programs.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Learning Research and Development Centre.

Beck, I., McKeown, M., & Kucan, L. (2002). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction.* New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Duffy, G. (2003). *Explaining reading: A resource for teaching concepts, skills, and strategies.* New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Graham, S., & Hebert, M. A. (2010). *Writing to read: Evidence for how writing can improve reading. A Carnegie corporation time to act report.* Washington, DC: Alliance for Excellent Education.

Graves, M. F. (1985). *A word is a word…Or is it?* New York: Scholastic.

Graves, M. F. (2006). *The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Graves, M. F., & Prenn, M. C. (1986). Costs and benefits of various methods of teaching vocabulary. *Journal of Reading, 29* (7), 596-602.

Hanson, S., & Padua, J. F. M. (2011). *Teaching vocabulary explicitly.* Hawai'i: Pacific Resources for Education and Learning.

Hawati Abdul Hamid & Jarud Romadan Khalidi. (2020). *Covid-19 and unequal learning.* Kuala Lumpur: Khazanah Research Institute.

Huckin, T., & Coady, J. (1999). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language: A review. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21,* 190-191.

Jiang, N. (2004). Semantic transfer and its implications for vocabulary teaching in a second language. *The Modern Language Journal, 88* (3), 416-432.

Jihyun, N. (2010). Linking research and practice: Effective stratagies for teaching vocabulary in the ESL classroom. *TESL Canada Journal, 28* (1), 127-135.

Johnson, D. D., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). *Teaching reading vocabulary* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Johnson, D. D., Toms-Bronowski, S., & Pittelman, S. D. (1982). *An investigation of the effectiveness of semantic mapping and semantic feature analysis with intermediate grade level children.* Madison, WI: Wisconsin Centre for Education Research.

Laufer, B., & Hill, M. (2000). What lexical information do L2 learners select in a CALL dictionary and how does it affect word retention? *Language Learning and Technology, 3* (2), 58-76.

Mohd Tahir, M. H., & Tunku Mohtar, T. M. (2016). The effectiveness of using vocabulary exercises to teach vocabulary to ESL/EFL learners. *Pertanika Journal of Social Science and Humanities, 24* (4), 1651-1669.

Nassaji, H. (2003). L2 vocabulary learning from context: Strategies, knowledge sources and their relationship with success in L2 lexical inferencing. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*, 645-670.

National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. Retrieved March 15, 2015, from http://www.nichd.nih.gov/publications/nrp/smallbook.htm

Pacific Resources for Education and Learning [PREL]. (2008). *Pacific CHILD teachers' manual.* Honolulu: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Pearson, P. D. (1985). Increasing students' awareness of sources of information for answering questions. *American Educational Research Journal, 22,* 217-236.

Plass, J. L., Chun, D. M., Mayer, R. E., & Leutner, D. (1998). Supporting visual and verbal learning preferences in a second language multimedia learning environment. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 90,* 25-36.

Stahl, S. (1999). *Vocabulary development.* Newton Upper Falls, MA: Brookline Books.

Tahir, M. H. M. (2017). Research and trends in the studies of explicit vocabulary instructions and vocabulary acquisition. *Research and Reviews: Journal of Educational Studies, 3* (2), 1-7.

Tahir, M. H. M. (2017). The effectiveness of using pictorial vocabulary to teach vocabulary to ESL/EFL learners. *Journal of Teaching and Education, 6* (2), 247-256.

Tahir, M. H. M., Albakri, I. S. M. A., Adnan, A. H. M., & Karim, R. A. (2020). The effects of explicit vocabulary instructions on secondary ESL students' vocabulary learning. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature. The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 26* (2), 158-172.

Tahir, M. H. M., Albakri, I. S. M. A., Adnan, A. H. M., Shah, D. S. M., & Shaq, M. S. Y. (2020). The application of Visual Vocabulary for ESL students' vocabulary learning. *Arab World English Journal, 11* (2), 323-338.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Linguistics and language teaching.* London: Edward Arnold.