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1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to consider what kind of vocabulary study material will best help students prepare for academic study in English. Target students may already be taking English-medium classes in high school or college and need to develop their ability with academic language, or they may be preparing for such study by taking pre-sessional English classes or even a TOEFL or IELTS programme.

The paper first reviews recent work that has revealed the growing need for academic English skills, including academic vocabulary. It then proceeds, in sections 3 and 4, to justify the use of explicit vocabulary teaching by surveying research on form-focused instruction in general and planned lexical instruction in particular.

Finally, and on a more practical level, sections 5, 6 and 7 map out an approach to vocabulary teaching by: a) demonstrating the merits of the Academic Word List developed by Coxhead (2000), b) suggesting ways that vocabulary items can be sequenced into a series of coherent classroom lessons, and c) summarizing the findings of Schmitt (2008) and others with regard to appropriate teaching methodology.

2. The Growth of Academic English

2.1 "English Next"

In his widely-read survey of the future of global English language teaching, Graddol (2006:74) identifies a number of trends relating to academic English. As he points out, higher education has rapidly globalised,

creating a divide between global institutions which attract large numbers of international students and those which mainly serve local students. However, while many of these globalized universities are in English-speaking countries (see Table 1), other institutions in both ESL (e.g. India, Malaysia, Singapore) and EFL (the EU, Japan) countries are also using English-medium courses to attract international students and teachers in training.

Table 1: Countries with many international students

Number of International Students			
500,000 +	the United States	**100,000** +	Australia, China
300,000 +	the United Kingdom	**Others with large numbers**	Japan, Russia, Canada, Spain, New Zealand, Singapore
200,000 +	Germany, France		

Another trend that seems likely to increase demand for academic English is the growth in numbers of "transnational students" studying at branch campuses or joint ventures of British, American and Australian universities, especially in Asian countries. (Graddol 2006:77)

Outside the higher education sector, private ESL businesses are beginning to find that they can only survive by adding particular value in the form of EAP or ESP programmes.

2.2 ELF and EYL

Accompanying, indeed promoting, the growth of academic English at the top end of the educational ladder are two significant changes to school-age English language learning:

2.2.1 First, the ESL/EFL distinction is gradually disappearing and being replaced by the study of an "International" variety of English, or ELF - English as a Lingua Franca, which is the property of all, not just the residents of English-speaking countries. The key element in this change is a change of attitude, with language education in many countries aiming at the production of well-educated bilingual speakers. The products of such

an approach will view themselves not as “visitors” to the English language, but as “permanent residents” who act and think internationally as a natural part of their urban middle-class lifestyles. They are comfortable in multicultural/multilingual settings unlike their monolingual peers or monolingual English speakers. In practical terms, this ELF will increasingly take on certain features (Graddol 2006:87):

Its vocabulary will contain rather less culture-specific idiomatic native-speaker language than hitherto.
The aim of pronunciation teaching/learning will be intelligibility. Providing important distinctions are retained, a distinctive French, Japanese or Kenyan accent will be seen more as an expression of national identity and less as evidence of inadequate English learning.
A key ability will be the ability to negotiate meaning with other non-natives, i.e. to exhibit cross-cultural understanding and intercultural communication ability.

Evidence of this gradual adoption of ELF in Europe include the following (see Phillipson (2003), the Socrates-Erasmus website and the Bologna Process website):

Countries within the EU are using a Common European Framework to promote plurilingualism - at least two foreign languages - multiculturalism, a shared European identity, and student/labour mobility etc.
In 10 countries over 50 percent of people claim to speak English, in all countries over 20 percent. This is rising every year.

In Asia, to quote just a few examples, the spread of ELF and its associated attitudes is illustrated by the following:

English is now compulsory from the 3rd grade in China (from the 1st grade in big cities,) and the estimated 170 million English speakers in China is increasing by about 10% a year.
The positive attitude of China (e.g. setting targets for categories of

worker) is re-energizing other countries in the region to improve their English programmes, with Korea, Taiwan and several of the ASEAN nations adopting similarly ambitious English programmes.

Indian, Singaporean and other competent ELF users are finding employment as teachers outside their home countries or as online tutors within.

2.2.2 Secondly, as English teaching is introduced earlier and earlier in elementary school in the form of "English for Young Learners" or "EYL", (see Table 2 - data from Eurydice 2005), the English taught in the latter half of high school will take on a different character.

Table 2: Age pupils are first taught a foreign language (generally ELF) as a compulsory subject (2002-2003)

Starting Age	Countries/Regions/Language
5 or before	Spain, Malta, the Netherlands
6	Luxemburg, Austria, Norway
7	Estonia, Italy, Finland, Sweden
8	France, Germany, Belgium, Liechtenstein
9	Greece, Czech R., Cyprus, Lithuania, Latvia, Hungary, Slovenia, Romania
10	Denmark, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Iceland
11	England, Wales, Northern Ireland, Bulgaria

Basic English learning will end with elementary or junior high school, while above that (in high school in Europe, in high school and university in Asia), English will become a medium of instruction for several other subjects (though some remedial ELF teaching will still be required in high school).

This upper level English instruction is likely to take the form of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), which was pioneered in Finland in the upper part of comprehensive schools and is now spreading in Europe (Eurydice 2005). Within this framework, English is not taught as a separate subject once students have reached a high inter-

mediate level around age 15. Instead, English language and a variety of subject areas are developed simultaneously as content is taught through the medium of English. In a CLIL program, English teachers become advisors and assistants for bilingual content teachers, and translation/interpreting skills become important.

2.3 A New Orthodoxy

These changes will eventually give rise to a new orthodoxy which will look something like Table 3 (based on Graddol 2006:97)

Table 3: Target English levels

Age	6	8	10	12	14	16
English level	IELTS 2	IELTS 3	IELTS 4	IELTS 5.5	IELTS 6.5	IELTS 7
Note:		= TOEFL PBT 400	= TOEFL PBT 470	= TOEFL PBT 530	= TOEFL PBT 580	= TOEFL PBT 650
				Academic Study Level		

Thus, while Academic English will continue to be taught within the traditional framework of "study abroad" (TOEFL/IELTS preparation, university foundation/pre-matriculation English courses, and in-sessional English classes), in addition, there will be a great deal of Academic English support activity, in both high school and college, to permit and promote the study of content subjects through English.

3. Form Focused Instruction

The growth of EAP and CLIL (as well as ESP) will place considerable vocabulary learning demands on students as they learn academic subjects through the medium of English in high school and/or university. The contention of this paper is that these demands can only be met with some form of planned learning involving "Focus on Form" in addition to more naturalistic language learning opportunities.

Ellis (2001) has surveyed the development of FFI in classroom language learning with the following findings:

a) Groups who had received FFI were compared with those who had

not - reviewed by Long (1983). “The findings of these studies appeared to be contradictory. Thus, while the majority of the studies indicated that instructed learners generally learned more rapidly and achieved higher levels of proficiency than non-instructed learners (suggesting that FFI assisted acquisition), other studies indicated that instructed learners followed the same order and sequence of acquisition as non-instucted learners (suggesting that the process of acquisition was not influenced by instruction).” (Ellis 2001:4) The conclusion, perhaps, is that FFI works by promoting the processes involved in natural language acquisition, not by changing them.

b) Ethnographic observation studies of teaching/learning processes by, for example, Ellis (1984), Van Lier (1988) and Allen et al. (1990) seemed to support the need for a balance of classroom activities: “Correlational analyses revealed that both meaning-focused and form-focused aspects of classroom interaction were positively related to learning, leading to the conclusion that the analytic and experiential focus may be complementary” (Ellis 2001:5).

c) Studies by Schmidt (1990 and 1995) showed the importance of “noticing” - of learners having their attention consciously drawn to elements of language form, which contradicts the well-known views of Krashen. However, while noticing is “the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning”, that is, it enables learners to process forms in short-term memory ... (it) does not guarantee that they will be incorporated into their developing interlanguage. (Ellis 2001:8)

d) When explicit and implicit forms of FFI have been compared (Robinson 1996, de Graaff 1997), they have “generally (found) in favor of explicit learning.” (Ellis 2001:9)

Ellis concludes (2001:11-12), on the one hand, that “the results of theory-driven research have been largely inconclusive with no consensus

having been reached". On the other hand, he notes that "two findings are pervasive ... : (1) FFI, especially of the more explicit kind, is effective in promoting language learning, and (2) FFI does not alter the natural processes of acquisition."

4. Planned Lexical Instruction

The review of FFI presented above offers positive support for the idea that conscious learning can play an important role in language acquisition in classroom settings. But what about vocabulary acquisition? Here, too, there is strong evidence that focusing learners' attention in a planned and conscious way on important vocabulary items can bring dividends.

4.1 PLI and the Default Hypothesis

Laufer (2005:311-329) has summarized the evidence for Planned Lexical Instruction by investigating each of the following assumptions underlying the "default hypothesis" - that vocabulary is mostly acquired from extensive reading.

a) The noticing assumption - Since learners can often understand the overall message of a reading text without understanding some individual words, they may not pay attention to, or "notice", those words. There are also many cases where learners do not recognize a new word as such because it resembles a word they already know.

b) The guessing ability assumption - Studies, for example Hirsh and Nation (1992), have shown that EFL learners can only regularly infer the meaning of new words in a text if they are already familiar with at least 98% of the words. Teachers, of course, cannot guarantee that the readings in their textbooks will offer such familiarity.

c) The "guessing-retention link" assumption - Even when a word can

be guessed from context, as Mondria and Wit de Boer (1991) have shown, the word is not necessarily retained. Indeed, the easier a word can be guessed, the less likely it is to be retained because, paradoxically, its guessing will have required little processing effort.

d) The "repeated exposures-retention link" assumption - According to Nation and Wang (1999) the key factor contributing to retention through repeated encounters is the regularity of those encounters. Unfortunately, once students have progressed beyond the most common 2000 words of English, the frequency of encounter with a particular new word in extensive reading is not high enough to result in retention. Furthermore, Meara, Lightbown, and Halter (1997) have found that teachers using both audiolingual and communicative approaches used only about 2.75 new words per 500 words of classroom speech. Frequency may, however, be raised sufficiently in a programme of planned lexical instruction.

Laufer summarizes her discussion by proposing an alternative hypothesis - that "in view of the special conditions which obtain in instructed language learning contexts, the main source of L2 vocabulary knowledge is likely to be word-focused classroom instruction." (p.321) In support of this view, she quotes Nation (1982) who showed that "in fact, we know that words in isolation are retained very well indeed, both in large quantities and over long periods." Planned lexical instruction would seem to be able to compensate for the relative paucity of input and limited reoccurrence of words in instructed learning contexts. It can also ensure noticing, provide correct lexical information, and create opportunities for forming and expanding knowledge through a variety of word focused activities.

In promoting the use of PLI in second language classrooms, Laufer does not intend to discourage extensive reading. She points out (p.324) that "reading can sometimes be the source of initial knowledge of words,

it can help to expand the knowledge of already familiar words, or reinforce the memory of words not yet firmly established in the lexicon." However, she goes on to repeat her conclusion that "in instructed foreign language contexts, the main source of vocabulary knowledge is likely to be not reading, but Planned Lexical Instruction."

4.2 PLI and Incidental Learning

Additional support for Laufer's conclusion can be found in Schmitt (2008:341) who emphasizes the effectiveness of PLI - "although research has demonstrated that valuable learning can accrue from incidental exposure, intentional vocabulary learning almost always leads to greater and faster gains, with a better chance of retention and of reaching productive levels of mastery." The limitations on acquisition of vocabulary from extensive reading have been graphically illustrated by Hill and Laufer (2003) who have estimated that "at the rates of incidental learning reported in many studies, an L2 learner would have to read over 8 million words of text, or about 420 novels to increase their vocabulary size by 2000 words." Clearly, it is not possible to rely exclusively on incidental learning for the learning of new words. Rather, we should view incidental learning and PLI as reinforcing each other; either incidental learning can be used to enhance the knowledge of words met during classroom instruction, or intentional learning tasks can be used to deepen the learning of vocabulary encountered incidentally in reading. Thus, it seems reasonable to conclude with Schmitt (2008:353) that "intentional and incidental approaches are not only complementary, but positively require each other."

5. Corpus Studies

5.1 Identifying Academic Vocabulary

The expression "Planned Lexical Instruction" presupposes a target set of items for students to practice and learn, which, in turn, implies a

need to identify a syllabus of "academic vocabulary items" and order them in some principled way. Quoting Coxhead (2000:214), "an academic word list should play a crucial role in setting vocabulary goals for language courses, guiding learners in their independent study, and informing material designers in selecting texts and developing learning activities."

However, simply building up a corpus of representative samples of academic writing and then subjecting the corpus to word frequency analysis will not help in creating such a syllabus. This is because "academic words are not highly salient in academic texts ... they are supportive of but not central to the topics of the texts in which they occur." (Coxhead 2000:214) In other words, non-academic everyday vocabulary and highly-technical subject-specific vocabulary will tend to dominate, not the generic "academic vocabulary" that is common across all (or at least many) academic disciplines and that we would wish students to acquire before setting out on a course of English-medium study.

One widely-used solution to this problem is represented by the UWL (University Word List) which was compiled by Xue and Nation (1984) by amalgamating 4 previous (more partial) lists. However, its compilation lacked consistent selection principles and retained many of the weaknesses of the prior work. The corpora on which the studies were based were small and did not contain a wide and balanced range of topics.

5.2 The AWL

A much better solution is represented by the Academic Word List (AWL) drawn up by Averil Coxhead (1998-2004) at the Victoria University of Wellington. Her list exhibits a number of features that enhance its validity, as follows:

a) It is based on a broad range of subject areas (4 general areas: arts, commerce, law and science, with 7 specialist subject areas in each), making her corpus highly representative.

b) The corpus comprises a large number of short texts so as to avoid the peculiarities of individual style.

c) Her corpus is sufficiently large - 3.5 million words - to allow 100 occurrences of each word family (defined as a stem plus all closely related affixed forms).

d) The words in the AWL were chosen because they occur frequently and uniformly across the wide range of academic material but are not in the General Service List (GSL) compiled by West (1953). (Note: "frequently" means each word family occurs at least 100 times in the corpus, at least 10 times in each general area, and in at least 15 of the 28 subject areas.)

The AWL was not only put together in a principled way but its validity was also tested with respect to the following four questions:

1. What percentage of the corpus does the AWL cover?
2. Do the items also occur frequently in a separate independent set of academic texts?
3. How frequently do they occur in non-academic texts?
4. How does the AWL compare with the UWL?

Coxhead (2000:222) reported validation results as follows:

a) 570 word families covering 10% of the corpus met the criteria explained in (d) above, with 94% occurring in 20 or more subject areas.

b) The AWL and GSL together cover 86% of the corpus.

c) The AWL had similar coverage of an independent corpus.

d) It accounts for only 1.4% of a large fiction collection.

e) 500 of the AWL items occur more than twice as frequently in academic texts as in fiction texts.

f) The AWL has a 51% overlap with the UWL, but the UWL is larger and covers slightly less of the corpus (9.8%).

The AWL can thus be said to represent a highly-valid collection of academic vocabulary in that its relatively small number of word families cover a relatively large proportion of academic texts with relatively little

overlap with the general vocabulary of fiction texts. Clearly, such a list will be very useful for the setting of study goals and as the basis for textbook construction. Moreover, since its 570 word families are divided into 10 sublists according to frequency, it is possible to focus student attention efficiently on the most frequent lexical items, 120 of which (sublists 1 and 2) cover half of all occurrences, with sublists 3 and 4 covering an additional 25%.

6. Syllabus Considerations

Having outlined the justification for a programme of planned lexical instruction and identified the AWL as a sound basis for the teaching of academic vocabulary, it is possible to make key decisions about how an actual teaching syllabus can be elaborated.

6.1 Varieties of English

As might be expected given the international nature of the academic enterprise across the English-speaking world and beyond, with the exception of British-American spelling differences, there is relatively little variation amongst the academic Englishes used in North America, Europe, Africa or the Asia-Pacific region. Of more concern is the possible variation across modes of expression (spoken English v written English) or communicative context / genre (seminar discussion v formal lecture etc.), but in the absence of research in this area, it seems appropriate to assume that all academic communicative events share a common means of expression, that exhibited by the written form of academic English.

6.2 Size and Range

Given the scope of the vocabulary learning challenge - Schmitt (2008) quotes Nation as calculating that 8000-9000 word families are necessary to read a range of authentic texts with 98% coverage, it is clear that

learners need large vocabularies to successfully use a second language. Any teaching syllabus must therefore be ambitious and demand a great deal of learners. Making the leap from a good intermediate level of general English to the advanced level of academic English needed for university study is no easy task and should not be underestimated. This is especially true as the figures quoted by Nation do not include the large number of phrasal lexical items that also must be learned. Moreover, as research by Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) has shown, advanced learners of English know only some, but not all, of the noun/verb/adjective/adverb members of word families contained in the AWL - clearly, knowing one member of a word family does not guarantee that other members will be known or can be guessed from context.

6.3 Syllabus Sequencing

6.3.1 As mentioned in 5.2, vocabulary sequencing by frequency is made possible by the division of the AWL's 570 word families into 10 sublists according to how common each word occurs in academic texts. Thus, taking frequency as the most important sequencing criterion, and assuming study of, say, 15 words per lesson in each of 15 lessons, with time set aside for testing and recycling, it seems possible to cover approximately three of the AWL sublists in each of three vocabulary practice books (lists 1-3, 4-6, and 7-10). However, this does not mean that the words should be presented in strict frequency order. Other considerations will have to be taken into account to produce coherent lessons with, in most cases, a topical, notional or functional focus.

6.3.2 The grouping of target vocabulary in order to create coherent classroom lessons can be carried out by identifying common topics, functions and notions in academic language use. The present author has surveyed the following eight academic writing and IELTS/TOEFL textbooks and drawn up the list of categories given in Table 4 below for use in sequenc-

ing vocabulary exercises:

Oshima, A. and Hogue, A. (2006)
Blass, L., Friesen, H. and Block, K. (2008)
Hamp-Lyons, L. and Heasley, B. (2006)
Colonna, M.R. and Gilbert, J.E. (2006)
Cambridge ESOL (2007)
Bailey, S. (2006)
Jordan, R.R. (1999)
Phillips, D. (2006)

In addition, three types of general notion have been selected from the Council of Europe's "Vantage" specification (van Ek and Trim 2001) as offering categories for common academic lexical items not otherwise covered by other categories.

Table 4: Possible categories for grouping academic vocabulary items

General Notions		
Temporal	Spatial	Quantitative
General Functions		
Cause and Effect	Reason and Result	Purpose
Comparison and Contrast	Opinion and Evaluation	Agreement and Disagreement
Recommendation/Suggestion	Degrees of certainty	Problems
Specific Academic Functions		
Talking about meaning	Defining	Classification/Categorization
Analysis/Interpretation of data	Theory/Hypothesis	Generalization/Exemplification
Relationships and Change	Summarizing and Concluding	Process and Procedure
Objectives	Methodology	Surveys and Questionnaires
Quoting and Reporting	Referring to visuals/statistics	
Language Elements		
Academic metalanguage	Transitions	Affixes
Collocations	Phrasal vocabulary	Idioms
Abbreviations	Spelling variation	Numerical expressions
Topic - College life		
Education systems	Applications	Academic finance
Campus life	Study activities	Courses and Assignments
Examinations	Grades and Qualifications	Problems

7. Suggested Teaching Methods and Learning Strategies

Schmitt's (2008) excellent survey of the research into instructed vocabulary learning has identified a number of considerations, methods and strategies that might comprise an effective, proactive and principled approach to promoting learning. These are summarized in Table 5:

Table 5: Positive influences on vocabulary acquisition/learning from Schmitt (2008)

Element	pp.	Considerations, methods and strategies
Learner Attitude	333	Students need the willingness to be active learners over a long period of time. Without this, they are unlikely to achieve any substantial vocabulary size, regardless of the quality of instruction.
Productive v Receptive Vocabulary	345	Language-focused learning must involve both reception and production - "The implication is that it cannot be assumed that productive mastery will automatically follow from receptive mastery of words." (Numerous studies actually show great differences.)
Aspects of Word Knowledge	333	Some aspects of word knowledge such as word meaning and word form are relatively more amenable to intentional learning than more contextualized aspects which are much more difficult to teach explicitly.
	353	At the beginning, establishing the meaning-form link is essential, and intentional learning is best for this. Once this initial meaning-form link is established, it is crucial to consolidate it with repeated exposures.
	335	Though vocabulary teaching tends to focus on the form-meaning link, there is a large body of research indicating that L2 learners often have trouble with the word form itself.
	336	English speakers use mainly stress to parse words in the speech stream, while French speakers rely more on syllable cues. Since Japanese is basically syllable-timed like French, it would appear to make sense for learners of English to work on word stress. (Cutler et al. (1986) found that both French and English speakers used their L1 cue processing strategies when learning the other language as an L2.)
Use of L1	337	Although it is often viewed as inadvisable to use the L1 in second language learning, given the pervasive nature of L1 influence, it seems sensible to exploit it when it is useful. One case where there is a clear advantage is in establishing the initial form-meaning link.
	337	It has been hypothesized (Hall 2002) that the initial form-meaning link consists of the new L2 word being attached to a representation of the corresponding L1 word which already exists in memory, so an L1 translation is a natural vehicle for achieving this.
Repetition	343	It is necessary to maximize repeated exposures to target lexical items, from 5 to more than 20 repetitions (depending on the item).
	343	It is more important to consolidate previously studied words than teach new words, because of the time investment.
	343	From memory research, we know that most forgetting occurs soon after the learning session and then eventually slows down, so the first recyclings are particularly important and need to occur quickly.

Glossing	351	There are several reasons why glossing can be useful: more difficult texts can be read, glossing provides accurate meanings for words that might not be guessed correctly, it has minimal interruption to reading - especially compared to dictionary use, and it draws attention to words that should aid the acquisition process. Also, as learners seem to prefer marginal glosses, this is probably the best place for them.
Highlighting Phrasal Vocabulary	340	Boers et al. (2006) found that learners who were exposed to considerable reading and listening and made aware of the phrasal vocabulary in that input were later judged to be more orally proficient than learners who received the same input but were taught with a traditional grammar-lexis dichotomy.
	351	It helps to highlight phrasal vocabulary so that learners can recognize them as chunks.
Depth of Engagement	338, 342	In comparisons of vocabulary learning methods, effective methods seem to have "higher learner involvement" as explained in Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001) scheme. Examples include: # Receiving an L1 translation for a target word, and then using it in a sentence (This is better than reading three example sentences with L1 translation.) # Giving learners a few seconds to try to produce new word forms on their own before those forms are given to them by the teacher or materials # Seeing words in a reading text and then retelling the passage using those words or related ideas # Having learners record target words in a notebook, , and incorporating them in classroom activities
	339	Other research has shown the relative effectiveness of different learning methods: # Meaning selected from several options is better than explanation by synonym. # Consulting a dictionary is better than reading with/without guessing or using marginal gloss. # Using new vocabulary in original sentences is better than using in non-original sentences. # Using vocabulary in composition is better than simply encountering words in reading. # Reading with vocabulary exercises is better than reading with incidental learning. # Reading and looking up words is better than just reading.
	339	Overall, it seems that virtually anything that leads to more exposure, attention, manipulation, or time spent on lexical items adds to their learning.
Receptive & Productive Practice	343	All aspects of lexical knowledge need to be addressed. This requires meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development.

	346	Lee (2003) found that her secondary school ESL learners, after being given explicit productive vocabulary instruction, produced (in compositions) 63.62% of the words they knew receptively, compared to only 13.19% before the instruction. ... . This shows the value of structured productive practice.
	346	It seems that adding tasks that force students to engage with target words is an important supplement to meaning-focused output.

One aspect of vocabulary learning, and particularly the learning of academic vocabulary, that Schmitt does not mention but which seems of considerable significance is the need for learners to become familiar with Latin or Greek-based affixes. As Ellis (1990) points out, 82% of academic words are of Latin or Greek origin, and therefore work with affixes may be useful.

To summarize this review, we can list the following as of importance in the teaching of academic vocabulary:

Learners need to understand the size of the learning task and be willing to take on the requisite study load.
Both form and meaning need to be addressed, with more attention than hitherto on spelling, pronunciation and word stress.
The L1 not only can be used, but should be used, in vocabulary instruction.
Repetition is very important, especially soon after the first encounter to consolidate learning.
Glossing and highlighting can aid in focusing attention to promote acquisition.
It is very important to devise exercises that deepen learner engagement with lexis.
Not only does attention need to be paid to productive vocabulary because it is different from receptive vocabulary, but also because productive activities seem to enhance engagement.
Attention should be paid to those affixes and multi-word units that appear commonly in academic English.

8. Conclusion

The introduction to this paper gave as its aim the laying of the groundwork for the production of study material for academic vocabulary learning. The sections that followed explained the value of "Planned Lexical Instruction", identified the vocabulary contained in the AWL as an appropriate goal of study, and examined aspects of syllabus-sequencing and methodology to develop an approach to teaching. The next task is a creative one - the application of this thinking to the target vocabulary in order to produce an attractive and effective set of graded learning materials for students. Such materials, it is hoped, will help learners engage more successfully with their academic study through the medium of English.

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