| Title | Implementation of Vocabulary Learning Strategies in the Classroom |
|---|---|
| Author(s) | Mehran Sabet |
| Citation | 聖学院大学総合研究所紀要, No.18,2000.11 : 23-51 |
| URL | http://serve.seigakuin-univ.ac.jp/reps/modules/xoonips/detail.php?item_id=3570 |
| Rights | |

SERVE

聖学院学術情報発信システム ： SERVE

SEigakuin Repository for academic archiVE

# Implementation of Vocabulary Learning Strategies in the Classroom

## Mehran Sabet

## Introduction

"Words are perceived as the building blocks upon which a knowledge of the second language can be built" (Seal, 1991). Over the years the status of vocabulary and its importance have gone through many changes.

In the early decades of this century, where the "Grammar Teaching Method" and the "Reading Approach" were the leading language teaching methodologies, vocabulary teaching and learning were major parts of language acquisition. However, the focus on grammar, reading, and vocabulary often produced learners who could read and write, but were unable to engage in conversational speech. This lack of progress on productivity, along with the emergence of the "Audio-Lingual Method" in the '40s, created an atmosphere among language professionals that gave vocabulary a minimum role during 1940-1970 (Allen, 1983). The 1980s and 1990s once again saw a renewed interest in lexical matters. The emergence of the communicative approach, where the ability to communicate requires an increase in students' vocabulary, has been a pivotal factor.

Work in corpus analysis, a number of books on teaching and learning vocabulary by scholars such as Nation (1990), Taylor (1990), and Allen (1983) and numerous vocabulary friendly textbooks have revived the theory that teaching vocabulary actively in the classroom should be contained as a considerable portion of any teaching plan.

When planning their lessons, and specifically teaching new words, teachers must decide how they want to approach the vocabulary in any lesson. They should be asking themselves whether they need to teach it passively, actively, for partial or complete control and, therefore, how much

time should be spent on teaching the new vocabulary.

## What is involved in knowing a word?

Knowing a word ideally implies familiarity with all its features, as is often the case with an educated native speaker. However, in language learning, knowledge may be partial, i.e., the learner may have mastered some of the word's properties but not others (Laufer, 1997). Nation (1991) divides the knowledge of a word into two categories, receptive and productive. According to him, receptive knowledge of a word involves recognizing it when it is heard or when it is seen. Productive knowledge of a word includes knowing how to pronounce the word, how to write and spell it, and how to use it in correct grammatical patterns along with the words it usually collocates with. (See Table One).

These criteria can not be applied to every word that a native speaker of a language might know. Many native speakers of English language have difficulty spelling certain words such as "nickel," "receive" and "psychology." There is disagreement about the correct usage of words like "between," and "among," "all right," and "alright." In Japan, because of the complex nature of kanji characters, we can find people who recognize a word or a character, but have difficulty writing it correctly.

Richards (1976) sets the following criteria for knowing a word, and according to him this knowledge could vary at different levels of proficiency.

1. Knowledge of the frequency of the word in the language, i.e., knowing the degree of probability of encountering the word in speech or in print.
2. Knowledge of the register of the word, i.e., knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.
3. Knowledge of collocation, i.e., knowing the syntactic behavior associated with the word and also knowing the network of associations between that word and other words in the language.
4. Knowledge of morphology, i.e., knowing the underlying form of a word

Table One : Knowing a Word

## Form

| Spoken Form | R____ What does the word sound like ? |
| | P ____ How is the word pronounced ? |
| Written Form | R____ What does the word look like ? |
| | P ____ How is the word written and spelled ? |

## Position

| Grammatical Patterns | R____ In what patterns does the word occur ? |
| | P ____ In what patterns must one use the word ? |
| Collocations | R____ What words or types of words can be expected before the word ? |
| | P ____ What words or types of words must one use with this word ? |

## Function

| Frequency | R____ How common is the word ? |
| | P ____ How often should the word be used ? |
| Appropriateness | R____ Where would one expect to meet this word ? |
| | P ____ Where can this word be used ? |

## Meaning

| Concept | R____ What does the word mean ? |
| | P ____ What word should be used to express this meaning ? |
| Association | R____ What other words does this word make one think of ? |
| | P ____ What other words could one use instead of this one ? |

and the derivations that can be made from it.

5. Knowledge of semantics, i.e., knowing firstly what the word means.
6. Knowledge of polysemy, i.e., knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word.
7. Knowledge of the equivalent of the word in the mother tongue.

It would be unrealistic to expect L2 (second language) learners to completely satisfy the long list of requirements concerning knowing a word. Knowing that the first encounter with any new word is in the form of receptive knowledge, it would be reasonable to accept that as a starting point, and gradually expand on the productive aspect of it. Students could be introduced to the most common and frequent usage of a word and then, as knowledge and proficiency increase, teachers can introduce learner strategies such as guessing words in context, using mnemonic techniques, and using prefixes, suffixes and roots to encode unknown words. The multiplicity of features of a word that needs to be learned increases the probability of facing problems and the possibility of partial learning. Students may recognize some words, may know the meaning of them, and may use them in simple forms, but they may have difficulty using them productively in all their forms and in a range of appropriate contexts.

## Should We Teach Vocabulary?

When a teacher writes an unknown word on the board, some form of teaching and learning is taking place. There are certain objectives that need to be accomplished concerning the teaching and learning of the English language in any ESL or EFL classroom and at any given time. The objectives could be a grammatical rule, some new words or phrases, a new skill in reading or listening, learning how to write properly, or a combination of all of these and more. Giving a test or a quiz is usually a common way of finding out whether the students have understood and are able to produce in certain circumstances what they were taught during the course of a semester or a year. However, before testing, teachers need to assess whether they give enough explanation, emphasis and opportunity to the students to learn.

Vocabulary teaching could be divided into two parts, "unplanned teaching," and "planned vocabulary teaching" (Seal, 1991). The decision is usually made by the teacher, especially here in Japan, as to how to deal with a new word. The decision is based on whether it is a high-frequency word, a key word, or is a word that does not interfere with comprehension, is too specialized for students at certain levels, or of too low-frequency, in which cases students would generally be better off ignoring it.

Nation (1991) strongly supports a systematic and principled approach to vocabulary teaching and learning. He argues that because of the presence of considerable research on vocabulary, educators have good information about what to do about vocabulary and about what to focus on. Teachers' efforts can be directed toward useful words and they can give learners practice in useful skills.

Nation (1991) also points out that vocabulary teaching and learning strategies depend on the learners' proficiency level. He suggests that vocabulary learning strategies such as guessing words in context and mnemonic techniques work best for students with a knowledge of 2,000-3,000 words or higher. Students below this vocabulary level should be taught directly and with various exposures in different contexts. In an ideal situation students would be able to come into contact with the same words in their reading, writing, listening and oral classes. The more exposure the students have to the words, the more chances they will have at retaining and producing the same words effectively.

Judging from students' proficiency level here at Seigakuin University (Novice-Mid to Intermediate-Mid based on the ACTFL guidelines) and on their SLEP scores (average score for the incoming students in 1998 was 31.6) it is obvious that they are below the 2,000-3,000 word level suggested by Nation. Except for a few students with high English proficiency, the teaching of vocabulary to the majority of our students should focus on direct methods as suggested by various experts and explained in further detail in this paper.

## Vocabulary and the SEP

The Seigakuin English Program (SEP) was designed for first-year students, and its main goal was to improve students' oral and listening proficiency.

According to Thompson (1994), there are five major contributors to language for all learners at every level of ability. Table Two shows the relevance of each contributor at each level of proficiency.

After considering the chart and knowing the students' proficiency level, it became clear what the learners' needs were and in what areas teachers should focus on.

To meet the needs of the students and the SEP program, Osburn produced the SEP Vocabulary Master List, which contains the 3,000 highest frequency words needed for oral communication (Osburn, 1997). Assuming that most of the students already know the first 1,000 words, 500 words were assigned for each level, A, B, and C, with A being the highest and C the lowest level. (See Table Three.)

Table Two : Relative Contribution Model

|                          | Novice | Intermediate | Advanced | Superior |
| ------------------------ | ------ | ------------ | -------- | -------- |
| Vocabulary               | 44     | 37           | 27       | 23 (%)   |
| Grammar                  | 23     | 37           | 42       | 27       |
| Pronunciation            | 23     | 14           | 9        | 15       |
| Fluency                  | 5      | 7            | 14       | 18       |
| Socio-linguistic Factors | 5      | 5            | 8        | 17       |

Through testing or the SEP teachers' consensus, from this list of 500 words per sub-program, 300 words were selected to be taught during the course of the year (150 words per semester). In order to facilitate learning, 10 worksheets (15 words per worksheet) with a variety of exercises were developed and are given to the students throughout each semester (one worksheet per week). Every 3 or 4 weeks there is a vocabulary quiz and a final quiz on all 150 words at the end of the semester. Attempts were made to coordinate the vocabulary worksheets with the syllabus and its topics in order for students to see and use the new words in context. Choosing and matching the words and worksheets with the syllabus is intended to give students more exposure to the new words.

A number of research and studies by Kachroo (1962), Salling (1959), and Crothers and Suppes (1967), have found that between 5 to 7 repetitions are needed to ensure learning a new word. Saragi (1974), using a reading text where learners did not know that they had to learn the new vocabulary, found that 16 or more repetitions were necessary for a new word to be learned.

Although some of the words in the SEP vocabulary list for all the

Table Three : SEP Master Vocabulary List

| Levels | Words | |
|---|---|---|
| Level 1: | 857 | |
| Level 2.1: | 500 | Program C |
| Level 2.2: | 500 | Program B |
| Level 3.1: | 500 | Program A |
| Level 3.2: | 643 | |
| Total: | 3,000 | |

programs may appear in every textbook, since the words were not taken from a particular book, it is natural to find a large number of the words being taught in isolation and through the worksheets only. That in turn means the students come in contact with certain new words only two or three times, and it would be unrealistic to expect them to learn the new words with such a limited exposure. Efforts on the part of the teachers and students may fail if the teacher or the coursebook do not provide enough opportunities for sufficient redundancy and exposure to the vocabulary being taught. Attention to vocabulary can be utilized more efficiently and learning can take place more effectively if teachers plan their teaching and follow up by the recycling of words in a timely manner. Pimsleur (1967) suggests that repetition or redundancy should be spaced with increasing gaps between them. This means that the first review should occur quite soon after the introduction of a new word. The next one can be a day or more away, and the next, a week or more and so on. Other key factors in teaching a new word are setting strategies and utilizing techniques appropriate for the level of the learners.

The following is what some experts have written about vocabulary learning strategies:

"Previous learning of the mother tongue or earlier lessons in English should be considered when teaching vocabulary" (Nation, 1991).

"Weak pupils should be helped to master relevant vocabulary learning and reading strategies" (Schouten-van Parreren, 1992).

"Learning words through association, and particularly mnemonic techniques, should be emphasized in the classrooms since learners do not use such aid systematically and therefore need instruction" (Cohen, 1990).

"For most learners, direct vocabulary instruction is also beneficial and necessary. This is because students cannot usually acquire the mass of vocabulary they need just by meaningful reading, listening, speaking, and writing" (Oxford and Scarcella, 1994).

"Good learners not only use more vocabulary learning strategies but also rely more heavily on different strategies than  poor learners do" (Ahmed, 1989).

"A structured approach to vocabulary learning is more successful than an unstructured one regardless of the level of instruction and the type of instruction received" (Sanaoui, 1995)

It is important to note that most of the above-mentioned scholars have dealt with learners beyond elementary levels. Nevertheless, making the students aware of strategies and techniques in learning new words cannot be overlooked. Many experts encourage learning new vocabulary through contextualized texts, but Qian (1996) argues that there is not enough evidence and research to support the idea that teaching words in context is superior to words being taught in isolation. He points out that there are a number of studies showing that learning words in isolation or association is not inferior, and indeed may be superior, to learning through context. However, most experts seem to agree that in the early stages of language learning, the direct method is more effective than the indirect method, and students should have a concrete goal and plan to learn and be familiarized with appropriate strategies and techniques when confronting new words.

In light  of these assumptions, this writer attempted to introduce some familiar, new, and appropriate (for the students' level) techniques for dealing with unknown words in the classroom in order to make the learners more prepared and focused and learning more meaningful.

As it was mentioned earlier in this paper, students in the SEP classes are introduced to 15 new words every week through worksheets. Each worksheet contains a variety of exercises developed by the SEP teachers to introduce and enforce the new words in meaningful and contextualized sentences (see the Appendix for an example of a worksheet produced by this writer and Osburn). Following the suggestion of Pimsleuer (1967) that repetitions should be spaced with increasing gaps between them, the author divides each worksheet into two parts and asks his students to complete each part and bring them to the following class. Since the classes meet twice a week, we are able to finish one worksheet in two periods. The reason for wanting to complete the tasks in two sessions instead of one is more

exposure and contact with the new words. As a result, the students come in contact with the same words at least twice in a three-day period. (The classes meet either on Monday and Thursday, or Tuesday and Friday.) Some of the following techniques and strategies were introduced and practiced in the classroom after each worksheet was completed.


## Collocation

A very important part of learning a new word is learning what words it goes with (Nation, 1991). Through this approach, we can encourage students to make wider use of their vocabulary knowledge. When learning a new word, a student needs to learn at the same time the common collocates (Seal, 1991). Lewis (1997) also points out that recognition, generation and effective recording of collocations are essential elements of the "Lexical Approach." Collocation helps students to understand the new words better by relating them to already known words. It broadens the learners' knowledge and gives them a meaningful relationship to what the word means and how it can be used with other lexical items. Languages are full of collocation, and although some may be stronger than others, it can not be denied that the relationship of collocation is fundamental in the study of vocabulary (McCarthy, 1990). Teachers can help their students by showing the most frequent and common usage of a certain word in combination with other words. For example, when teaching the word "narrow," we can let our students know that this word is used very often in situations such as the following:

|        | road     |
|--------|----------|
|        | bridge   |
| narrow | -minded  |
|        | victory  |

It is easier and more practical for students to imagine a narrow bridge than the word "narrow" by itself. When learners are involved in their own learning, they put more effort into the task, analyze it personally and as a

result learning becomes deeper and more effective. To get the students to participate in this learning process, the teacher can write a few words on the board and ask the students to work collectively or individually and make a list of collocations of the words on the board. The following is a list of collocations produced by the learners in one of the writer's classes.

| | |
|---|---|
| **correct** | correct answer |
| **contact** | eye-contact, contact lens |
| **invitation** | wedding invitation, party invitation |
| **admission** | admission price, admission ticket, free admission |
| **reserve** | reserve a room, reserve a seat |
| **calm** | calm sea, calm person, calm weather |

## Key Word or Association

This technique enables the learners to form a mental image of a new word with a word from their mother tongue, which is usually done through sound. It is claimed that this method fixes words effectively in the memory. Kelly (1986) contends that making such formal and semantic links between words is superior to rote learning. Nation (1991) states that the associations attached to a word affect the way that it is stored in the brain, and this will in turn affect the availability of the word when it is needed. Association not only can be done through sound, it could also be done through personal, cultural or a variety of background experiences of individual learners. Many Americans associate the word "scandal" with Watergate; "blond" is usually associated with hair. In one of this writer's classes where students were asked to find a word that might associate with the word "weird," one of the students said "beard." His rationale was that since having a beard in Japan is not very common, people who grow beards might be considered weird by common Japanese. In a study by Atkinson and Raugh (1975), learners were presented with a Russian word and its English translation together with a word or phrase in English that sounded like the Russian word. They concluded that subjects who used the keyword method learned substantially more translations than a control group and this advantage was maintained up

to six weeks later. However, the keyword or association method has its limitations as well. It can not be used to memorize a large number of words in a short time, it is less effective in productive learning, and it does not help learners to have a good knowledge of spelling and pronunciation. Nevertheless, it is a technique used by many language learners, has proven to be effective, and should be utilized in the classroom while bearing the limitations in mind.

When introduced to this method, the students seemed very interested and amused by this strategy in the classroom. Associating can be a very personal experience, and it showed by the learners' responses. The most interesting part of this activity was the amount of information and learning tricks provided by the students themselves. Here is a sample of what some students produced in one of the author's classes.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **bored** | boo ぼー | |
| **lawyer** | rouya ろうや | (prison) |
| **female** | hime ひめ | (queen) |
| **task** | tasukete たすけて | (help) |
| **fee** | he ひ | (fee) |
| **worry** | warii わりい | (sorry) |

## Categorizing

This technique helps learners expand and establish the meanings of words that they already know with recently introduced words. Learners see the words not as isolated items but as meaningful elements that they can relate to. It gives them an opportunity to visualize and make sense of what they have learned up to that point. Grouping is an important way to aid recall, and people seem to organize words into groups naturally without prompting. Schmitt points out a free-recall study where L1 subjects were given lists of words to study and then recall in any order. Words belonging to each meaning category were recalled together, for example, all animals first, before moving on to another category like names (Schmitt, 1997). He argues that if grouping works for native speakers, it must also work for L2

learners. When doing this activity in the classroom, some previously learned words from the past worksheets were written on the board. The students were asked to form small groups and were instructed to categorize the words into whatever category they thought appropriate. In this activity, students had to discuss among themselves (in L1 or L2) how and why they should arrange the words in different groups. This allowed them to learn and share the process of analyzing and provided them with a new context of learning. It should be mentioned that the students were familiar with this type of activity since it is included in almost all the worksheets for all three program in the SEP. The author wrote four groups of words from Program A's worksheets on the board and asked the students to put the words in groups or categories that they saw fit. The students were also asked to add another word of their own to each group.

**Group One**: absent, accurate, cheat, confident, emphasize, examination, grade, interrupt, lecture, maximum, period, registration, regularly, seldom, task

**Group Two**: adopt, discipline, disturb, eager, female, greet, insist, introduce, maintain, male, previously, primary, relative, secondary, translation

**Group Three**: anxious, attach, basement, bookshelf, conclude, concrete, doorway, minor, moral, northern, postpone, regret, scenery, southern, staircase

**Group Four**: accuse, bored, convenience, extend, fee, fortunately, home-made, handmade, injure, insurance, lonely, pray, relax, relieve, relief, witness, worry

Here is what the students generated in about thirty minutes of team work (the last words in bold are what the students wrote on their own):

| greeting | introduce | **meet** | |
| disturb | postpone | interrupt | **stop** |
| doorway | staircase | basement | **house** |
| fee | registration | translation | **money** |
| cheat | examination | accuse | **test** |
| bored | relax | worry | **tired** |

| eager | anxious | worry | regret | **fear** |
| grade | lecture | period | absent | **classroom** |

## Visualizing

Pairing L2 words with pictures has been shown to be better than pairing them with their L1 equivalents in Russian and Indonesian (Schmitt, 1997). New words sometimes can be learned better by studying them with pictures of their meaning. "A picture is worth a thousand words" can be perfectly applied here. Students can create their own mental images of words and, since it gives them a view or picture of the word, the chances of it staying in their memory longer are better than simple, colorless words. Learners can personalize their experiences and associate them with certain words. One need not be an artist or have any special talent for drawing. Simple and sometimes clumsy pictures will amuse the students and will be as effective as well-drawn pictures.

Pictionary, a popular game in America in the '80s, was adopted to assist the students in this learning technique. This writer selected a few words to be reviewed in each class, and played the game using the following procedure. The students are divided into two, three or four groups depending on the size of the class (six or seven students per group works best). A student from each group comes to the teacher. The teacher shows the representatives of the groups a word. Each representative goes back to his/her group and with the command "start" draws a picture or pictures of the word. The first student in any group who guesses the word correctly gets a point for his/her group.

## Translation and Spelling

A survey of 100 Japanese EFL students showed that writing, repetition, spelling, making word lists, and use of bilingual dictionaries are the most common methods of memorizing new words. (See Table Four, Schmitt, 1997.) However, this study also shows that students' use of methods in

understanding or acquiring new vocabulary changes with their age and language proficiency. (See Table Five, Schmitt, 1997.) Any English teacher who has taught in Japan for any length of time knows that rote memorization is the most common way of memorizing new words in this country. Although this method may not be the most effective one in acquiring productive vocabulary, it is used by all second language learners, and they have had certain

Table Four : Trends in Vocabulary Strategy Use

| Strategy | JHS | HS | U | A |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (%) |
| Written repetition | 91 | 89 | 75 | 50 |
| Study spelling of word | 89 | 77 | 70 | 60 |
| Word lists | 67 | 67 | 50 | 33 |
| Use textbook vocabulary section | 66 | 57 | 42 | 39 |
| Flash cards | 51 | 29 | 12 | 10 |
| Bilingual dictionary | 77 | 73 | 95 | 97 |
| Guess from textual context | 47 | 69 | 93 | 89 |
| Imagine word's meaning | 37 | 47 | 57 | 58 |
| Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym | 25 | 37 | 46 | 61 |
| Skip or pass new word | 25 | 29 | 55 | 57 |
| Analyze part of speech | 20 | 29 | 37 | 43 |
| Connect word to personal experience | 17 | 33 | 45 | 53 |
| Part of speech (memorization) | 12 | 27 | 40 | 41 |

(Schmitt, 1997, p. 223)

JHS = Junior high school
HS = High school
U = University
A = Adult

success with it as well. One important factor to consider when teaching English to students here in Japan is to take into account students' feelings and background and make changes with input from and awareness on the students' part. Learners should be made aware of their learning styles, their merits and their deficiencies. They may also be willing to test some new methods. Most experts appear to believe that learners at lower proficiency levels use methods such as translation, repetition, and flash cards to

Table Five : Trends in Japanese Learners' Perceptions of Helpfulness

| Strategy | JHS | HS | U | A |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | (%) |
| Word list | 82 | 79 | 57 | 51 |
| Flash cards | 79 | 70 | 59 | 53 |
| Connect words with synonym and antonyms | 76 | 85 | 93 | 99 |
| Ask teacher to use new word in sentence | 64 | 71 | 85 | 91 |
| Analyze part of speech | 64 | 68 | 83 | 87 |
| Part of speech | 55 | 67 | 85 | 85 |
| Analyze affixes and roots | 52 | 63 | 80 | 79 |
| Guess from textual context | 49 | 68 | 89 | 87 |
| Use scales for gradable adjectives | 42 | 59 | 73 | 75 |
| Connect word to personal experience | 37 | 57 | 75 | 79 |
| Affixes and roots | 37 | 60 | 71 | 74 |
| Use semantic maps | 28 | 42 | 53 | 66 |
| Associate word with its coordinates | 27 | 49 | 65 | 74 |
| Use physical action when studying | 23 | 53 | 55 | 65 |

(Schmitt, 1997, p. 224)

memorize new words, whereas students with higher proficiency levels rely on strategies such as analyzing the part of speech, guessing from context, and the key word method. Knowing that most of our students in the SEP fall between the Novice-Mid to Intermediate-Low proficiency level, we can justify the use of the translation and spelling methods as a way of teaching or reviewing new words. When review activities were done in this writer's classes using the translation or spelling methods, they were done either as pair or group work.

In the translation method, students were divided into pairs. A worksheet was selected to be reviewed. One student read a word from the list, while his/her partner identified its Japanese equivalent. Translations were sometimes done from Japanese to English as well.

In the spelling method, students were also divided into pairs. Student A read a word from a list, and student B had to write the word with its correct spelling. This activity was sometimes made into team competition as follows: The class was divided into two groups; the teacher read a word from a list; the first student who said its Japanese equivalent and spelled the word correctly on the board got a point for his/her group. This was one of the students favorite activities since it encouraged team or individual competition.

## Conclusion

Vocabulary is an essential element in language learning. The question that faces language professionals is the selection of the best methods to teach and acquire new words. It seems obvious that the more meaningful contact the learners have with the targeted words, the better are the chances of students retaining them. However, some major factors to consider are applying the correct strategy suitable for each level of proficiency and taking note of the learners' interests in and purposes for the target language. Shallow activities such as rote memorization or written repetition maybe more appropriate for beginners since they contain less distracters for novice-level learners. On the other hand, intermediate or advanced learners can benefit more from the context usually included in deeper activities such as

remembering parts of speech, word association, or guessing from the context.

However, research on the effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies is inconclusive, and many argue that there is a limit as to what a person can do with each method when encountering a large bank of new words. On the other hand, people who have studied and acquired a second language can testify that they have used some or all of the above-mentioned techniques in acquiring new vocabulary. As to what degree each method can be used and how effective each technique is, most experts believe that it depends on the level of proficiency of the learner.

Learners from different cultures and backgrounds use certain strategies more or better than the others. Educational systems also influence learners' preferences or learning skills. Teachers who have worked with Japanese university students are all familiar with the gap between their productive and passive vocabulary. Strategies used in the classroom should focus more on the meaningful and productive use rather than memorization for a test. Strategies are also used in clusters rather than individually. Not all learners from the same background use the same method, and not all the methods produce the same results among the same group of learners. As educators we must first determine the level of proficiency of our students, and then expose them to different vocabulary learning strategies in order to insure productive use of their time, energy and learning efficiency. As to what technique or strategy works best for each student, the student himself/herself can be the best judge of that after s/he has been introduced to it.

Considering the fact that the greater the number of meaningful exposures a student has to each new word, the better are the chances of retaining it, teachers should seriously consider introducing and training their students in a variety of vocabulary learning strategies as part of their curriculum or lesson plans.

# References

Ahmed, M.O. (1989). Vocabulary learning techniques. In *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. pp, 273-290. Edited by: Coady, J. & Huckin, T. 1997. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Atkinson, R.C. & Raugh, M.R. (1975). An application of the mnemonic keyword method to the acquisition of a Russian vocabulary. In *Vocabulary, Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*, pp. 203-224. Edited by: Schmitt, N. & McCarthy, M. 1997. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cohen, A.D. (1990). Language learning: Insights for learners, teachers and researchers. In *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*, pp. 225-237. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crothers, E. & Suppes, P. (1967). Experiments in second-language learning. In *Teaching & Learning Vocabulary*, Nation I.S.P. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Kachroo, J.N. (1962). Report on an investigation into the teaching of vocabulary in the first year of English. Bulletin of the central institute of English. 2: 67-72. In *Teaching & Learning Vocabulary*, Nation I.S.P. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Kelly, P. (1986). Solving the vocabulary retention problem. ITL Review of Applied Linguistics. In *Vocabulary*, McCarthy, M. Oxford University Press.

Laufer, B. (1997). What's in a word that makes it hard or easy? In *Vocabulary, Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*, pp. 140-155. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lewis, M. Pedagogical implications of the lexical approach, in *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*, pp. 225-270. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy, M. 1990. *Vocabulary*, Oxford University Press.

Nation, P. (1991). *Teaching & Learning Vocabulary*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Osburn, E. (1997). In R*ationale for and Development of the SEP Master Vocabulary List.*, pp. 44-59. Ageo: Seigakuin University General Research Institute, vol. 10, 1997.

———— (1997). In *S.E.P. Master Vocabulary List*. Ageo: Seigakuin General Services.

Oxford, R.L., & Scarcella, R.C. (1994). Second language vocabulary learning among adults. In *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*, pp. 273-290. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pimsleur, P. (1967). A memory schedule. Modern Language Journal 51, 2: 73-75. In *Teaching & Learning vocabulary*, Nation I.S.P. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Qian, D.D. (1996). ESL Vocabulary Acquisition: Contextualization and Decontextualization. In *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, pp. 120-142 vol. 53, No. 1.

Richards, J.C. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching, TESOL Quarterly 1976, 1091: 77-90. In *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*, Linda Taylor, Prentice Hall.

Salling, A. (1959). What can frequency counts teach the language teachers? Contact 3: 24-29. In *Teaching & Learning Vocabulary*, Nation I.S.P. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Sanaoui, R. (1995). Adult learners' approaches to learning vocabulary in second languages. In *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*, pp. 273-290. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Saragi, T. (1974). A study of English suffixes. Unpublished MA thesis. Santa Dharma, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. In *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*, Linda Taylor. Prentice Hall.

Schmitt, N. (1997). Vocabulary learning strategies. In *Vocabulary, Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*, pp. 199-227. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schouten Van Parreren, C. (1992). Individual differences in vocabulary acquisition. In *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*, pp. 273-290. Cambridge University Press. 1997.

Seal, Bernard D. (1991). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, pp. 296-311. Newbury House.

Thompson, C. (1994). Hypothesized relative contribution model. In *Rationale for and Development of the SEP Master Vocabulary List.*, pp. 44-59. Seigakuin University General Research Institute, vol. 10, 1997.

Virginia, F.A. (1983). *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*. Oxford University Press.

# Appendix

Name _____

Student Number _____

Date _____

SEP Program B Spring Semester
Vocabulary Level 2.2

## Set B4 Worksheet
Seigakuin University

46. neighbor 隣人、近所の人 (n)
47. opportunity 機会 (n)
48. originally もとは、初めは (adv)
49. personal 個人の (adj)
50. personally 個人的に (adv)
51. qualification 資格 (n)
52. recent 最近の (adj)
53. related 関連した、親類の (adj)
54. science 科学、Bachelor of Science (n)
55. shame 恥ずかしい思い (n)
56. subject 科目、話題 (n)
57. temporary 一時の、仮の (adj)
58. unemployment 失業 (n)
59. used to: be/get used to ...に慣れている (adj)
60. youth 青年時代、若者

## Part 1  Fill in the blanks on the left with words from the above list.

1. _____ in the beginning

2. _____ not having a job

3. _____ happening a short time ago

4. _____ someone who lives near you

5. _____ of the same family; connected

6. _____ the time when a person is young

7. _____ a chance or time to do something

8. _____ lasting or meant to last for a short time

9. _____ concerning or belonging to a particular person

10. _____ something that you study; something that you talk or write about

11. _____ the feeling you have when you have done something wrong or silly

12. _____ the study of nature and the way things are made or behave

13. _____ a word you use when you are giving your own opinion about something

14. _____ proof that you have passed an examination, done special training, or learned a special skill

15. _____ knowing what something or someone is like, so that it does not seem strange, unusual or difficult

**Part 2**

**Complete the following dialog with words from the above list.**

Tanaka-san: Have you heard about our next-door  (1)_____ 's son?

Saito-san: No, I haven't heard anything. What happened?

Tanaka-san: Well, he had a  (2)_____ job, but he lost it.

Saito-san: Really? What a  (3)_____ !

Tanaka-san: Yes. And  (4)_____ seems to be O.K. with him. He doesn't mind not having a job.

Saito-san: Maybe he just wasn't  (5)_____ working. It was his first job, after all.

Tanaka-san: I think today's  (6)_____ just don't like to work. They're lazy.

Saito-san: (7)_____ , I think that's neither true nor fair.

Tanaka-san: Oh? Then how do you explain that young man's  (8)_____ problem?

Saito-san: Well, maybe it's  (9)_____ to something else besides laziness. Maybe he is having  (10)_____ problems that we don't know about.

Tanaka-san: (11)_____ , I thought so, too. But when the  (12)_____ for another job came up, he didn't take it. He turned it down.

Saito-san: Is that right? Still, I know he has good  (13)_____ s, because he graduated from college before his family moved into this area.

Tanaka-san: Really? I didn't hear about that.

Saito-san: Sure. He has a four-year degree from an American university. I think it's called a B.S. degree. B.S. stands for "Bachelor of  (14)  S_____ ." He studied computers.

Tanaka-san: Wow! He must be really smart.

Saito-san: Yeah, I think so. So maybe we shouldn't talk badly about him, since we don't really know why he isn't working now.

Tanaka-san: Maybe you're right. Let's change the  (15)_____ to something else. By the way, have you seen Junko's husband lately? He's ....

**Part 3**

**Cross out the word or phrase that does not belong in each group.**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. temporary | forever | part-time | short |
| 2. shame | happiness | peace | love |
| 3. in the beginning | originally | at first | finally |
| 4. later | future | recent | in a while |
| 5. far away | related | connected | in the same family |
| 6. science | opportunity | mathematics | literature |

**Part 4   Adjectives and Adverbs**

**Fill in the blanks in the following lists of adjectives and adverbs.**

|  | <u>Adjectives</u> | <u>Adverbs</u> |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | recent | _____ |
| 2. | _____ | originally |
| 3. | personal | _____ |
| 4. | temporary | _____ |
| 5. | scientific (science) | _____ |

**Part 5**

**Fill in the blanks with the words from Part 4.**

1. _____ , can we prove God exists?

2. She's been working too hard _____.

3. Is there _____ proof that dinosaurs existed?

4. That's a _____ matter. I don't want to talk about it!

5. The _____ change in the weather has come as a surprise.

6. The elevator is _____ out of order; it doesn't work right now.

7. This is a very _____ painting! I've never seen anything like it.

8. Each student is _____ responsible for his or her own homework.

9. After the Kobe earthquake, many people had to live in _____ housing.

10. I _____ believed in UFO's, but now that I've read this, I don't anymore.

**Part 6  Review**

**Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with words from Set B3.**

1. I want to study for the TOEFL. Where do I _____?
2. Tables, chairs, lamps and beds are examples of _____.
3. Working part-time is good _____ for working full-time in the future.
4. If you work part-time, you can _____ 1,000 yen an hour on average.
5. Our local convenience store has seven _____ s. Seven people work there.
6. Who had more _____ on you in your childhood, your mother or your father?
7. Japan's _____ system is basically 12 years long, based on a 6 + 3 + 3 system.
8. Both Yasunari Kawabata and Kenzaburo Oe have won the Nobel Prize for _____.
9. Who has been the most famous _____ soccer player ever, Pele or Maradona?
10. _____ expenses include rent, food and payments for such utilities as gas, water, electricity and the telephone.