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**Vocabulary Range and Frequency in First Intermediate
Girl's English Textbook in Saudi Arabia:
Learners' Achievement and Strategies**

By

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Abstract

The current study aims at investigating a number of variables related to the vocabulary development of first intermediate female Saudi learners. An analysis of the coverage and repetition of the two thousand high frequency words in the first intermediate girls' textbook, entitled *Say it in English*, was carried out using the RANGE and FREQUENCY software (Heatly, Nation & Coxehad, 2002). The textbook's coverage was then compared to participants' performance in two vocabulary size tests, namely the *1000 vocabulary size test*, and the *2000 vocabulary level test* (Nation, 2001b). Furthermore, an *achievement test*, constructed by the researcher, was implemented to explore participants' vocabulary performance in two parts: the vocabulary sections and the rest of the book. Finally, information about participant's most and least commonly used vocabulary learning strategies were collected using a questionnaire adapted from Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. Overall, two hundred and eighty six female students participated in the present study. The RANGE analysis indicated that the coverage of the 1st and 2nd thousand high frequency words in the textbook are 5.6% and 25.8%, respectively. As to participants vocabulary size, it has been found that the average participant knows at least 14.09% of the 1st thousand most frequent words and 4.84% of the 2nd thousand high frequency words. The frequency results showed that the fifty highest frequent words are function words. Furthermore, most of the words occur less than ten times in the textbook. On the other hand, the achievement test results showed that participants know at least 40% of the words in the textbook. In addition, participants' performance in the items presented in the *vocabulary sections* of the textbook surpassed their achievement in the vocabulary items found in the rest of the book. In relation to vocabulary learning strategies, the most commonly used strategies indicate that learners are interested first in gaining surface knowledge of words. On the other hand, the least commonly used strategies were neglected for requiring deep processing of information. A number of applications can be drawn from the results of the present study. To start with, textbook writers need to plan the sequencing, presentation and repetition of high frequency words bearing in mind that learners might end up learning less than 40% of the vocabulary items presented to them. Teachers, on the other hand, are urged to provide rich instruction of high frequency words and to train learners to use several vocabulary learning strategies.

ملخص البحث

يهدف هذا البحث إلى دراسة تطوير مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية لدى طالبات الصف الأول في المرحلة المتوسطة. وقد تم ذلك من خلال تحليل حجم وتكرار أكثر ألفي كلمة تكررًا باللغة الإنجليزية في كتاب اللغة الإنجليزية للصف الأول في المرحلة المتوسطة للطالبات باستخدام برنامجي التغطية و التكرار (هيتلي، نيشن، كوكسهيد، 2002). ومن ثم تمت مقارنة تغطية الكتاب للألفي كلمة بأداء الطالبات في امتحان حجم أول ألف كلمة، وامتحان مستوى ثاني ألف كلمة (نيشن، 2001b). كما تم استخدام امتحان معد لقياس إنجاز الطالبات في مفردات الكتاب. ثم تم جمع معلومات متعلقة باستراتيجيات تعلم المفردات بواسطة إستبانة مبنية على تصنيف شميت (1997) لإستراتيجيات تعلم المفردات. شاركت مائتان وست وثمانون طالبة في الدراسة. دلت نتائج تحليل برنامج التغطية على أن تغطية أول ألف كلمة هي فقط 5.6%، بينما تغطية ثاني ألف كلمة هي 25.8%. بالنسبة لحجم مفردات المشاركات فإن متوسط حجم أول ألف كلمة هو 14.09%، بينما متوسط حجم ثاني ألف كلمة هو 4.84%. إضافة إلى ذلك فإن أغلب الكلمات في الكتاب تتكرر أقل من عشر مرات. و دلت نتائج امتحان الإنجاز على أن المشاركات في البحث تعلمن حوالي 40% من كلمات الكتاب. أما بالنسبة لإستراتيجيات تعلم المفردات فإن أكثر الاستراتيجيات استخداماً تدل على أن الطالبات مهتمات بالحصول على معلومات سطحية عن الكلمات. يوصي البحث مؤلفي الكتاب باستخدام وتكرار الكلمات الأكثر تكررًا كما يحث المعلمات على تدريب الطالبات على استخدام العديد من استراتيجيات تعلم المفردات خاصة تلك التي تحفز على التحليل العميق للمعلومات.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Although a Foreign language in Saudi Arabia, English plays a crucial role in communication, trade, education, and employment. Its utility is most evident when Saudis attempt to communicate with foreign expatriates who do not know Arabic. Furthermore, its interactive use plays an undoubtful role in trade, especially with the recent accession of Saudi Arabia to the world trade organization. English, also, represents an important means of communication for many of those involved in fields like medicine, computer sciences, and engineering. In fact, many postgraduate students are required to provide English proficiency certificates when applying for jobs. Fortunately, the Saudi government has realized, quite early, the status of English as the lingua franca of the present age and is now, more than ever, persistent to promote it among its citizens. The best example of this is found in Education. The Ministry of Education has recently modernized a compulsory English curriculum that extends from sixth grade of elementary school to the final grade of secondary school.

It is widely accepted that one of the major goals of teaching English in Saudi Arabia is to provide learners with the most important vocabulary items that would help them communicate successfully in real life situations. The old curriculum document which was accepted by the Ministry of Education in 2000 (as cited in AL-Hajailan, 2003) stated that learners should be able, by the end of the intermediate stage, to "learn the assigned vocabulary that would enable them to express themselves in different life situations" (p. 25). The new English curriculum sets a different objective for the intermediate stage. It states that learners should "read material with common words and simple grammatical constructions" and "meet limited practical writing needs by recombining learned vocabulary and structures into simple

sentences" (Educational development center, 2004, p. 6). A slight improvement is found in the way vocabulary items are described in the new curriculum. For now learners are supposed to acquire 'common words' and not just the 'assigned words'. The word 'assigned' does not give any clue to the type of vocabulary items in the textbook. However, there still needs to be a clear description of the vocabulary items that should be included in the textbook. In other words, the selection of vocabulary items has to be guided by clear scientific criteria.

Nation and Waring (1997) consider frequency to be the best available measure for the selection of the most useful vocabulary items for beginner learners. They report Francis and Kucera's study (1982) which provides evidence that the most frequent 2000 words give an 80% coverage of a one million running words corpus. If we adopt Nation's view, the goal of vocabulary instruction in Saudi School English textbooks should be to help learners acquire the 2000 high frequency words.

A retrospective look at the vocabulary size of learners who graduated from secondary schools in Saudi Arabia using the old curriculum, tells us that the goal of learning the 2000 high frequency words was not achieved. Al-Nujaidi (2003), for example, found that Saudi EFL first-year university students had a relatively small vocabulary size (500-700 words). In addition, Al-Hazemi (2000), as cited in Al-Hassan (2005), found that the vocabulary size of Saudi male learners at secondary schools was low.

With the development of the new English curriculum, it is important to see whether school textbooks, which are the major source of input, are sufficiently providing learners with the 2000 most frequent words of English. It is also helpful to examine the learners' side of the problem, and see what vocabulary learning strategies they use to encode and remember the items presented to them in class.

1.1. The Research Problem

Saudi female Learners' poor English vocabulary achievement and size might be attributed to a number of factors. One factor could be related to the inappropriate planning of the primary source of input which is the school textbook. Obviously, we cannot reach the end if we do not plan the means. In other words, we cannot expect learners to master the most important or the 2000 most frequent vocabulary items in English if we do not provide them with sufficient exposure to those words in school textbooks. Other factors affecting vocabulary development could be related to learners themselves. If learners are not using the appropriate vocabulary learning strategies to discover and retain the meaning of new words, their vocabulary development would be equally unsatisfactory even if the textbooks sufficiently cover high frequency words.

1.2. The Purpose of the Present Study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the vocabulary range of the first intermediate girl's English textbook in Saudi Arabia and learners' strategies. In essence, the textbook will be studied according to coverage and repetition of vocabulary items. The researcher will try to find out whether there is a strong correlation between the textbook coverage of the 2000 most frequent words of English and participants' performance in two vocabulary size tests, namely the *1000 vocabulary size test*, and the *2000 vocabulary level test*. Furthermore, the study will implement an *achievement test* to explore participants' vocabulary performance in two parts: the vocabulary section and the rest of the book. In addition, the study will attempt to identify the vocabulary learning strategies which are used by participants to learn both high and low frequency words. Finally, the study will present a number of

pedagogical implications and recommendations that would help first intermediate school learners increase their vocabulary size.

1.3. The Scope of the Study

The present study is primarily a quantitative corpus-based study. It will examine the coverage and frequency of vocabulary items in the first intermediate girl's English textbook entitled *Say it in English*, published by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia. The textbook consists of two volumes: (1) the first semester book, and (2) the second semester book. In addition, the study uses vocabulary counts and tabulations. Sutarsyah, Nation and Kennedy (1994) argue that the counting and tabulation of vocabulary leads to losing the textual components of language. In fact, they argue, coherent texts are turned into "lists of seemingly unrelated words" (p. 37). Nonetheless, they maintain, an analysis of the vocabulary load of books will yield insightful information for both teachers and learners (ibid.).

Another aspect of the present study is also quantitative because it deals with learners performance in two vocabulary size tests conducted pre and post the first year of intermediate English language instruction. In addition to the vocabulary size tests, an achievement test will also be carried out. All of the tests are used to evaluate learners' recognition and receptive knowledge. No attempt will be made to examine their productive abilities.

The third part of the study tackles vocabulary learning strategies and the way learners utilize them to expand their vocabulary size. Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies (1997) has been slightly modified to suit the participants' level as well as the current situation, on the basis of which, the researcher developed a questionnaire.

It should not follow from all of this that the textbook is designed solely for teaching vocabulary items. For the textbook is targeted towards achieving a variety of affective, social, and cognitive objectives and only one part of which is assigned to vocabulary development.

1.4. The Research Questions

The present study aims at answering the following research questions:

Q1. What is the vocabulary range and frequency in the first intermediate girl's English textbook in Saudi Arabia?

Q2 .What is the actual size of Saudi 1st year intermediate school learners' lexicon in terms of vocabulary recognition?

Q3. How do Saudi 1st intermediate school learners achieve in both the vocabulary sections of the book and the rest of the book?

Q4. What are the vocabulary learning strategies used most and least frequently by Saudi 1st intermediate school learners?

1.5. The Significance of the Study

The study is expected to yield important information for syllabus designers, teachers and educators. Syllabus designers should be provided with feedback on their selection of vocabulary items. In addition, they should be given suggestions for future revisions and developments of English school textbooks. The study should also help educators and teachers realize the importance of high frequency vocabulary items. Their awareness should lead to extra focus on the most useful vocabulary items. Moreover, knowledge of the vocabulary learning strategies used by learners should be extremely empowering to educators and teachers. They should be able to exploit various vocabulary learning strategies to enhance vocabulary acquisition. At the same time, their knowledge of vocabulary learning strategies should help them introduce

new ways of encoding and retaining vocabulary items. Learners should, also, benefit from the study. This is true especially with recent calls for self-autonomy in language learning. Learners' metacognitive knowledge of their vocabulary size and level in English should highly motivate them even at quite an early stage. They could seek to develop their language by resorting to extra curriculum activities like, for example, reading graded readers or using computer assisted language learning programs. Furthermore, the study should help them identify the vocabulary learning strategies which they have never used before.

1.6. The Limitations of the Study

The study has a number of limitations. To begin with, the study tackles only passive vocabulary items or the items encountered in the aural and written receptive modes of the language. Hence, it does not address the ability to use words in speaking or writing. Secondly, it does not deal with any units larger than the word like idioms or utterances. Hopefully, the results of the current study will prove helpful for those interested in vocabulary studies and lexical meaning. Thirdly, Nation (2001a) states that the RANGE and FREQUENCY software "do not include collocations or lexical phrases, and the programs are not capable of distinguishing different meanings of the same forms such as *row* (a lot of noise) and *row* (a line of objects or people)" (p. 34).

1.7. Definitions

1.7.1. Word

In this research, the term word (also called a lexical item or a vocabulary item) refers to a base form (e.g. drink) plus all its inflectional and derived forms (e.g. drink, drank, drinking, drinker, drinks, and drunk). Since the meanings of inflected forms are closely related, it is expected that once a form is learned, little effort will be required to learn the rest of the forms (Read, 1988). This conforms with Nation's (1990)

principle of the learning burden of a word or "the amount of effort needed to learn and remember it" (p. 23). The principle states that the more a word follows patterns of previous knowledge, i.e. the more regular and predictable the features of the word are, the lighter the burden will be (ibid., p. 23-24). Hence, the learning burden of a base form and all its inflections and derivations will be lighter than the learning burden of several unrelated base forms.

1.7.2. Frequency

One of the most important criteria for vocabulary selection is frequency of use by the speakers and writers of a particular language. Nation and Waring (1997) define frequency as "how often the word occurs in normal use of the language" (p. 8). As such, they explain, a word like *the* is highly frequent because it represents seven percent of a conversation or a page of written English. Due to its high frequency, *the* is the most important word in English and it should be taught before any other word. We must bear in mind that the concept of frequency is a relative matter. All of the vocabulary items are there, i.e. in the language, to fulfill certain communicative needs and, as such, they are typically used for a large number of times by language speakers. However, the example of *the* indicates that there are certain words which are more frequent than others. According to West (1953), the words which have a high percentage of occurrence in different types of texts are called high frequency or "General Service" words (p. 3). An arbitrary line is drawn at the 2000 most frequent words in English to distinguish high and low frequency words (Nation, 2001a, p. 32). Knowledge of the 2000 high frequency words can lead to practical implications in the selection and teaching of English vocabulary items especially for beginner learners. They can be used as a guide to the words that need to be taught first and the words that require more attention.

1.7.3. Software Terminology

The most frequent two thousand words of English are available as word lists in the RANGE and FREQUENCY software. They are called BASEWRD1.DAT. which refers to the 1st 1000 most frequent words in English, and BASEWORD2.DAT. which includes the 2nd 1000 most frequent words in English (Nation,2001a, p. 36). The two lists are extracted from the General Service List. There are 998 *word families* in BASEWORD1.DAT. and 988 in BASEWORD.2.DAT, i.e. giving a total of 1986 *word families* (Cheng-chao, 2006, p. 7). A *word family* or a *lemma* is defined by Bauer and Nation (1993, p. 253) as "a base word and all its inflected forms that can be understood by a learner without having to learn each form separately".

According to Nation (2001a), each time the software analyzes a text, it tabulates the number of *word tokens*, i.e. "total running words" and the number of *word types*, i.e. "different word forms" (p. 35). It also provides a *range* or *distribution* figure which refers to "the total number of times the actual headword type appears in all the texts" (ibid., p. 38). Moreover, it gives a *family frequency* figure, i.e. "the total number of times the word and its family members occur in all the texts" (ibid.).

1.7.4. Active and Passive Vocabulary

Meara (1990, p. 3) provided a clear explanation of active and passive vocabulary. He stated that passive vocabulary items are those which can be easily identified when they are heard or read but which cannot be produced without external assistance. By contrast, active vocabulary items do not require outside help and can be produced easily in speaking and writing.

1.7.5. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Before looking at the definition of vocabulary learning strategies, we have to first take a look at the definition of learning strategies. This should be done because

vocabulary learning strategies represent a subsection of learning strategies. To begin with, Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as the "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (p. 8). Oxford's definition portrays strategies as actions that are aimed towards enhancing learning. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) gave a more concise definition for learning strategies. They defined them as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information" (p. 1). Here, strategies are not only behaviors but also thoughts targeted towards internalizing knowledge. O'Mally and Chamot (1990) commented on their definition by saying that:

the broad description of learning strategies may include any of the following: focusing on selected aspects of new information, analyzing and monitoring information during the encoding process, evaluating the learning when it is completed, or assuring oneself that the learning will be successful as a way to allay anxiety. (p. 43)

The above description gives a look at some of the cognitive, metacognitive and affective processes which take place when strategies are used. Another definition is provided by Stern (1992; as quoted in Brown, 2005, p. 261), who states that "the concept of learning strategy is based on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals, that they exercise a choice of procedure, and that they undertake some form of long-term planning" (p. 261) Here, Stern stresses learners' metacognitive thinking as represented by consciousness, deliberate selection, and planning.

It is clear that the literature provides numerous definitions for learning strategies. However, the same thing does not apply to vocabulary learning strategies. In other words, there is a scarcity in vocabulary learning strategies definitions. Perhaps this is why Schmitt (1997, p. 203) himself based his vocabulary learning strategy taxonomy

on Rubin's (1987) general definition of learning as "the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used" (p. 29). Schmitt limits the word 'use' to "vocabulary practice rather than interactional communication" (p. 203). This is done in an attempt to restrict the general definition of learning to vocabulary learning. Nation (2001b) acknowledged the difficulty of arriving at a definition for the term 'vocabulary learning strategy'. He, instead, lists a number of characteristics that help identify vocabulary learning strategies. He states that a vocabulary learning strategy must:

involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from, be complex, that is there are several steps to learn, require knowledge and benefit from training, and increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use. (p. 217)

The only definition, to the researcher's knowledge, for vocabulary learning strategies is provided by Catalan (2003) who defines them as the:

knowledge about the mechanisms (processes, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode. (p. 56)

Catalan used several terms to describe strategies like mechanisms, processes, steps, and actions. One or two of these would have been enough. Catalan even defined vocabulary learning strategies as knowledge about strategies which is a kind of circular definition! Overall, His emphasis was on the reasons behind using strategies. A shorter version of the above definition would be something like this: vocabulary learning strategies are the processes undertaken by learners to encode, remember and use new words.

1.8. The Structure of the Study

This thesis is divided into five chapters. The present chapter (Chapter One) presents the introduction, the research problem, the purpose of the present study, the scope of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study and a number of definitions.

The second chapter gives a review of vocabulary acquisition, textbooks in K.S.A and the present corpus, history of word lists, comparing word lists to textbooks, vocabulary learning strategies, and the current study in relation to the above review. The vocabulary acquisition section discusses the main aspects of words knowledge in addition to a number of issues related to vocabulary size. The last section, which is called vocabulary learning strategies as a subfield of learning strategies, is divided into four parts: (1) taxonomies of learning strategies (subdivided into Oxford's taxonomy of learning strategies and O'malley and Chamot's taxonomy of learning strategies), (2) taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies (subdivided into Nation's vocabulary learning strategy taxonomy and Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies), (3) vocabulary learning strategies in the Saudi context, and (4) previous research findings.

The third chapter presents the research method. It describes the experiment, procedures, ethical issues, validity, and reliability. The research experiment involves the corpus, participants, and a number of instruments which are RANGE and FREQUENCY software, Nation's vocabulary tests, the achievement test, and the questionnaire. The chapter also provides an account of the steps followed to perform the experiment, i.e. the procedures. There are two types of procedures: (1) the data collection procedures (which consist of two parts: textbook analysis and administration of tests and questionnaire), and (2) data analysis procedures (which

consists of vocabulary range, vocabulary frequency, vocabulary size, vocabulary achievement, and questionnaire).

Chapter four presents an analysis of five types of data which are range, frequency, vocabulary size, vocabulary achievement, and questionnaire results. The range section involves the range of vocabulary items in the 1st volume of the textbook, the range of vocabulary items in the 2nd volume of the textbook, and a summary and comparison of the two volumes. The most frequent fifty words in both volumes of the textbook and the distribution of high and low frequency words in both volumes plus a summary of frequency results are provided in the frequency section. The vocabulary size section includes the 1st 1,000 word level test, the 2nd 1,000 word level test, and a comparison of learners' 1st and 2nd 1,000 word level and textbook range, and a summary of vocabulary size results. An analysis of the achievement test plus a summary of achievement results are given in the vocabulary achievement section. The questionnaire section involves two parts: (1) discovery strategies, and (2) consolidation strategies. The first part is concerned with participants' use of discovery strategies. In particular, it deals with participants' use of discovery-determination strategies, participants' use of discovery-social strategies, and a summary of findings on discovery strategies. The second part is related to participants' use of consolidation strategies. In particular, it deals with participants' use of consolidation-memory strategies, participants' use of consolidation-social strategies, participants' use of consolidation-cognitive strategies, participants' use of consolidation-metacognitive strategies, and a summary of findings on consolidation strategies.

The final chapter presents a summary and discussion of the major research findings. It also presents a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations

that would help EFL learners enlarge their vocabulary size. Moreover, it gives several suggestions for future research in the field of vocabulary acquisition.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter is divided into five sections which are respectively: vocabulary acquisition, textbooks in K.S.A and the present corpus, history of word lists, comparing word lists to textbooks, vocabulary learning strategies, and the current study in relation to the above review.

2.1. Vocabulary Acquisition

This section examines the main aspects of word knowledge as well as a number of issues related to vocabulary size.

2.1.1. Word Knowledge

Knowing a word cannot be simply restricted to knowing its form or meaning; for words have several characteristics that require complex learning processes. The learner must be aware of the multiplicity of characteristics contained within a word to be able to select the applicable vocabulary learning strategies that would enable him/her to grasp all the aspects of word knowledge. Below are three lists suggested by Carter (1998), Nation (2001b), and Laufer (1997a) to explain what is meant by knowing a word.

Carter (1998; cited in AL-Fuhaid, 2004) stated that knowing a word entails knowing:

- 1) How to use it productively....
- 2) The likelihood of encountering the word....
- 3) Its syntactic frames....
- 4) The relations it contracts to other words....
- 5) The relative coreness of the word as well as its more marked pragmatic and discoursal functions and its style-levels,
- 6) the different meanings associated with it and the range of its collocational patterns,
- 7) words as part of or wholly fixed expressions....(p. 239)

Nation (2001b) argues that knowing a word, in the most general sense, involves form, meaning, and use. In particular, he states that knowing the form of a word entails knowing its spoken and written representations as well as word parts; whereas knowing the meaning of a word involves "form and meaning, concept and reference, and associations" (p. 27). Nation adds that the ability to use a certain word is manifested by the knowledge of constraints on use and by the ability to use its grammatical functions and collocations. Overall, Nation differentiates between receptive and productive aspects of word knowledge. Beglar & Hunt (2002) said that "receptive knowledge means being able to recognize one of the aspects of knowledge through reading and listening, and productive knowledge means being able to use it in speaking and writing" (p. 261).

According to Laufer (1997a), knowing a word involves mastering the following aspects: "form..., word structure..., syntactic patterns..., meaning..., lexical relations..., and common collocations..." (p.141). Laufer (1997a) argues that adult educated native speakers are ideally familiar with all aspects of words, but this is not often the case with language learners. In fact, she adds, the multiplicity of word features renders the task of learning words more difficult for learners. In addition, Laufer points out the problem of partially learned words or the words that can be easily recognized in certain contexts, but which cannot be produced in speaking or writing (*ibid.*). This is a common problem that faces foreign language learners who can easily identify with a large number of words but who face difficulties in recalling and using those words.

Table 1 summarizes the aspects of word knowledge as provided by Carter, Nation, and Laufer. A close examination of the lists leads to the conclusion that they share, more or less, similar characteristics. In other words, there is a great amount of

overlap between them. The table shows that Carter's list provides a coverage of all the aspects of word meaning, except for "constraints on use". The next in coverage would be Nation's list, for it covers all the requirements of word knowledge except for "discourse and stylistic level" and "syntactic pattern". Laufer's list has the advantage of being brief, however it has the serious drawback of overlooking productive uses of words. Laufer's list, also, ignores the syntactic frame of the word i.e. the parts of speech, discourse and stylistic level, and constraints on use.

Table 1
Summary of Aspects of Word Knowledge

Aspects of word knowledge	Researcher		
	Carter	Nation	Laufer
Meaning	Meaning	Meaning	Meaning
Collocations	Collocations	Collocations	Collocations
Use	Use	Use	x
Derivative forms	Derivative forms	Word parts	Word structure
Syntactic frames	Syntactic frames	Grammatical functions	x
Lexical relations	Relations with other words	Word associations	Lexical relations
Form	Encountering the word in spoken or written	Spoken and written form	Form

	context		
Discourse and stylistic level	Discourse and stylistic level	X	X
Syntactic pattern	As part of whole expression	X	Syntactic pattern
Constraints on use	X	Constraints on use	X

A careful look at the features of word knowledge leads us to say that vocabulary learning is not an easy process. It requires motivation, planning, persistence, and use of several vocabulary learning strategies.

2.1.2 Vocabulary Size

Syllabus designers and teachers would be interested in certain issues related to vocabulary size. Particularly, they would be interested in knowing the vocabulary size of the English language, the vocabulary size of native speakers and the vocabulary size that foreign language learners need to have. In this regard, Nation (2001b) placed the following questions:

- a- How many words are there in English?
- b- How many words do native speakers know?
- c- How many words are needed to do things a language user needs to do?

Regarding the first question, Nation (2001b) suggested using large dictionaries to estimate the vocabulary size of the English language. However, his proposal involves several complexities. An example of such complexities relates to the way dictionaries differ considerably in answering the question: what counts as a word? A particular dictionary might consider lemmas as words and thus consider (play, plays, played, and playing) a single word; another might count every base form and consider them four words (Kucera, 1991). Moreover, some dictionaries tend to increase the number of words by listing homographs, i.e. words that have the same form but different meanings, separately (Goulden, Nation & Read, 1990). These types of problems might cause misleading results. For example, the preface of Webster's Third New International Dictionary states that it includes 450,000 words. Goulden, Nation, and Read (1990) carried out an analysis of the words in Webster's dictionary and found that it includes 114,000 word families excluding proper names. As we can see, the difference between the two figures is major!

Before we attempt to provide an answer to the second question, we have to remember that it is impossible for one to know all the words of his/her language (Nation, 2001b, p. 6). This is due to the fact that languages are rich in the sense that they include a large amount of technical, archaic, and even colloquial terms. We have to remember, also, that any language is dynamic in nature. It changes constantly depending on the communicative needs of its users. Ordinary speakers may not need a specialized or an old term. It is also unnecessary for them to know all the colloquial terms which can differ depending on geographic locations, as the English language is vitalized on many continents. Furthermore, users enrich their language by developing new terms when new meanings, concepts, or objects arise. They do so by borrowing

or making new uses for old terms. Hence, it is absolutely natural for speakers to replace the old uses with new ones.

Back to the original question, Goulden, Nation, and Read (1990) estimated that the native speaker has a vocabulary size of roughly 20,000 word families. They explained this by saying that the native speaker acquires a thousand new words every year. As such, they maintain, a five year old entering school will have a vocabulary size of approximately 4 to 5 thousand words, whereas a university graduate will have a vocabulary of around 20,000 word families. Nagy, Anderson, and Herman (1987; cited in Gu, 2003) also estimated that a child's vocabulary store grows about 1,000 words per year. Applying the following equation (1 year = acquiring 1000 words) to the foreign language learner means that the learner will have to spend 20 years or so to reach the size of a native speaker's vocabulary. Otherwise, as Nation (1990) suggests, the foreign language learner will need to enter the same school system of the native speaker to gain a vocabulary of 1000 words per year. And even if he/she did, he/she will still have to acquire an additional 2000 to 3000 words to bridge the gap between him/her and the native speaker. Although the goal of attaining a native-like lexical store is possible, it is far beyond the reaches of foreign language learners. This leads us to the third question which pertains to the amount of vocabulary items required by foreign language learners.

In regard to threshold vocabulary, Laufer (1997b) wondered "how many words one must know (be able to recognize automatically irrespective of context) in order to be able to use the higher level processing strategies with success?" (p. 23). Another important question relates to the predicament facing beginner learners who are required to learn words incidentally through reading. Coady (1997) calls this the 'beginner's paradox'. He asks how can beginners "learn enough words to learn

vocabulary through extensive reading when they do not know enough words to read well?" (p. 229). His solution is to place great emphasis on intentional vocabulary learning. In particular, he supports Laufer's advice on developing learners' reading skills which are hampered by their insufficient vocabulary. Laufer (1997b) suggests, on the basis of several empirical studies of L2 vocabulary and reading, teaching a minimum of 3,000 word families. Nation (1990), on the other hand, used several frequency count studies to support his view that learners:

need a productive vocabulary of around 2000 high frequency words plus the strategies to deal with the low-frequency words they meet. Learners with special goals, such as study at a university, need to acquire a further 1000 high frequency words. (p.24)

Here, Nation distinguishes between the vocabulary size required for beginner learners and the one required for more advanced or academic learners. His view on teaching the 2000 most frequent words is adopted in the present study for two reasons. First, because it sounds like a more realistic goal and second because of the enormous amount of studies which support the idea that the 2000 words provide a coverage of approximately 85% of any given text. (See section 2.3.) However, we must not forget that Nation conditioned his suggestion of the two thousand most frequent words of English to the use of vocabulary learning strategies. An example of a vocabulary learning strategy that helps learners use their lexical storage to deal with low-frequency words is guessing from context. According to Clark & Nation (1980), learners with a vocabulary of around 3000 words are capable of guessing up to 80% of a reading passage. This is supported by Liu & Nation (1985) who found that learners, who have mastered the skill of guessing from context, can guess up to 85% of the unknown words they meet.

Now, if we accept that the goal for the foreign language learner is to acquire two or three thousand words, we have to consider whether we should expose the learner to

the words all at once, or to sequence them. Meara (1995) advocates teaching beginner learners a large number of vocabulary items very quickly and not restrict their lexical development to a small number of vocabularies acquired over a long period of time. He argues that teaching beginners a vocabulary of 2,000 words is sensible for two reasons: one is linguistic, the other is psychological. The linguistic justification is based on his finding that a basic vocabulary of 2,000 words accounts for approximately 80% of what we see or hear. The psychological reason relates to learners' naive understanding that learning a language entails learning many vocabulary items and that language courses should reflect their expectations. In addition to the above reasons, Meara argues that a knowledge of 500 words or less will not allow learners to view all the grammatical patterns of language, whereas a knowledge of 2000 words will allow learners to view a large spectrum of the grammatical structures in language. Thus, learning a large number of vocabulary items will eventually lead to grammatical mastery as opposed to using a limited number of vocabularies to be used in grammatical instructions. Surely, Meara tried to provide a number of reasonable justifications for his proposal. However, there are a number of objections related to whether or not his justifications support his views. First, the fact that the 2,000 most frequent words account for approximately 80% of any text does not necessarily mean that they should be taught at once. In other words, the large coverage of the 2000 words does not contradict with sequencing. Second, it could be true that learners wish to develop their vocabulary size very quickly. But they could, also, be severely disappointed and overwhelmed by the large task ahead of them. Third, the idea that grammatical and lexical advancement work in synchrony is true. Nonetheless, grammar, just like vocabulary, needs to go through a number of 'interlanguage' stages. According to Mclaughlin (1987) 'interlanguage' refers to the

"interim grammars constructed by second-language learners on their way to the target language" (p. 60). Also, as with the case of many grammar books, it is possible to use a small vocabulary size to represent most if not all the grammatical patterns of language. Hence, some sort of vocabulary sequencing is necessary especially at the very beginning. Finally, it is important to understand that the mere coverage and sequencing of vocabulary items in the textbook may not necessarily lead to acquisition. In other words, encountering the word only once or twice may not allow learners to discover all the aspects of word knowledge. Thus, there needs to be a sufficient amount of repetition or cyclical presentation of the two thousand vocabulary items in the series of the textbooks taught. This is supported by Jenkins et al. (1984) who found a positive relation between the repetition of vocabulary items in context and their acquisition. This leads us to the question: what is the minimum number of vocabulary repetition that could lead to successful acquisition? An attempt to provide an answer to this question was provided by Webb (2007) who found that different aspects of word meaning will unravel to the learner as he/she encounters the word ten times or more in meaningful contexts. Another way of helping learners acquire the different aspects of word knowledge could be provided by what Beck, Mckeown and Omanson (1987; cited in Nation, 2001b) call 'rich instruction'. According to Nation (1990b), rich instruction refers to "spending time on the word; explicitly exploring several aspects of what is involved in knowing a word; and involving the learners in thoughtfully and actively processing the word" (p. 95). Nation points out that rich instruction should be directed towards the high-frequency words of the language (ibid., p. 97). In relation to the Saudi first intermediate girl's English textbook, rich instruction is mostly provided for the words which occur in the vocabulary sections irrespective of their frequency of occurrence.

2.2. Textbooks in K.S.A and the Present Corpus

According to AL-Salloom (1995), as cited in AL-Hajailan (2003), the official teaching of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia started in 1929. At the elementary stage, which lasted for four years, learners received formal teaching of English for four hours a week. Ever since, as AL-Hajailan states, English language teaching has undergone several reformations. Overall, textbooks and language teaching methods went through four phases of development. Below is a brief description of the four phases of development as provided by AL-Hajailan.

The first phase started in 1944, where secondary school learners had five years of English instruction. The books taught were *Red Primer*, *Green Primer* and a series of books called *Reader*. *Supplementary readers* were added from the third year on. Two novels and a dictionary were additionally used at the fifth stage. According to the curriculum booklet, vocabulary is emphasized only at the first and fourth stages. The main focus at all stages was on reading, writing, and grammar. This reflects Michael West's method which was prevailing in the 40s. Generally, the books were criticized for relating to the English and not the local culture. The Second phase started in 1958. It witnessed the division of the secondary stage to two stages: the intermediate and the secondary. Each stage lasted for three years. A cooperation between the Ministry of Education and Longman Company was arranged to produce a series of textbooks like *Living English for the Arab world*, and *Living English Structure* by Stannard Allen and *A First Book in Comprehension & Precis* by L.G. Alexander. A number of stories were also adopted like *A Traveler's Cheque*, *The Pearl*, *Vice Versa*, *Oil*, *Literature and Science*, and *Round the word in Eighty days*. In addition, third grade literary students received a book called *Easier English Practice*, whereas those in the science

sections got *Easier scientific English Practice*. Since the old books were rejected for being related to the western culture, the new ones were developed in a way that fits the Arabic culture. However, the new ones were also rejected for presenting Arabic topics through western eyes. Overall, the books were based on the Aural-Oral Approach. Hence, repetitions, imitations and drills were emphasized. The curricular focus was on grammar, writing, translation, and reading. Unfortunately, many teachers have criticized the books for their lack of systematic progression, poor use of instructional aids, mismatch with objectives, and conflict with modern ways of teaching. As a result, and in the third stage, the Ministry of Education signed a contract with Macmillan Press Company in 1979 to compose a series of books especially for Saudi learners. The set of books were labeled *Saudi Arabian School's English*. The books designed for the intermediate stage were: *A student's Book* and an *Activity Book*. As to the secondary stage, there were a *student's Book*, and two *reading books*. The books were based on the Communicative Approach. As such, the aim of those textbooks was to employ linguistic points to deal with certain topics instead of focusing solely on linguistic points. The textbooks included colorful pictures and various topics and were described as attractive and interesting. However, they were abandoned for administrative and practical problems. An example of such problems was the delay of the printing and handling of the books. Later on, i.e. at the fourth stage, the Ministry of Education launched a national project for creating a series of school textbooks entitled *English for Saudi Arabia*. A group of specialists worked under the supervision of King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals in 1989 to develop a whole package of textbooks and illustration aids for both the intermediate and secondary stages. There were Student Books, Work Books, Teacher Books, wall charts, flash cards, and two audio cassettes for the intermediate stage. In relation to

the secondary stage, there were Student Books, Work Books, Teacher Books, and one audio cassette. In addition, there was a reading book for the second level and a writing book for the third. All of the books were based on the Communicative Approach. They were aimed at tackling local and worldwide topics in an interesting and attractive way. All the linguistic details were dealt with after the discussion of topics (AL-Hajailan, 2003, p. 12-16).

An overview of the place and role of vocabulary items in the four phases of English textbooks in KSA indicates the little attention which they have received from textbook writers and syllabus designers. For vocabulary items were mentioned shyly in the first phase, and were completely forgotten in the other phases. To recapitulate, the first phase focused primarily on reading, writing, and grammar. Vocabulary items were taught only in two of five stages. All of the language components and skills, i.e. grammar, writing, translation, and reading, were attended for in the second phase except for vocabulary items. In the third and fourth stages, vocabulary as well as all other linguistic points were considered secondary in favor of the ultimate goal which is communication.

Recently, in what can be considered the fifth stage of English teaching in Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education has developed a series of English textbooks under the title *Say it in English*. A large group of writers, editors and supervisors collaborated to produce eight English books for learners from six grade of elementary school to third year of intermediate school. At every stage, learners receive two books: *a Pupil's Book* and a *Work Book*. In addition, teachers receive a Teacher Book and a number of posters. As to the secondary stage, the Ministry of Education has kept the old curriculum which is *English for Saudi Arabia*.

The books of the intermediate stage are based on the Communicative Approach and more specifically on the Functional Notional Approach. This is most evident in the first intermediate pupil's book, i.e. the corpus of the present study. Every unit in the textbook is organized around a particular topic. For example, the topics of the first volume are: *Good Morning*, *My Classroom*, *My School*, *My Family*, *My House*, and *My Rroom*. The units are aimed towards achieving a number of functions. For instance, the functions of the first unit which is *Good Morning* are: greeting people, introducing your self, and asking for phone numbers.

The first intermediate pupil's book contains sixteen units divided into four lessons, with a review after every three units. There are two volumes in the book, each with eight units plus a section of communicative activities. In both volumes, the lessons include a large number of activities aimed at developing learners' vocabulary, grammar, and phonics, as well as the speaking, listening, writing, and conversation skills. The second volume differs slightly from the first one. It adds two reading activities in the second and fourth lessons. Another difference lies in the number of running words in the second volume which is larger than the first one. As will be shown in the findings of the present study, there are about 7900 running words in the first volume and 8650 in the second. (See sections 4.1.1. & 4.1.2. for further details) Obviously, the total number of running words in both volumes, i.e. 16550, does not correspond to the number of pages in the book which is 200. The reason for this is the large amount of colorful pictures, maps, schedules and tree diagrams. The use of visual illustrations, though, renders the book suitable for young learners.

Vocabulary items received much more attention in the curriculum of the present phase, especially in the first intermediate stage, in comparison to the previous phases. The first intermediate textbook, for example, includes a large number of vocabulary

activities. In fact, each unit starts with a vocabulary activity. In addition, there is a vocabulary activity in almost every lesson. Furthermore, there are several elements which support vocabulary acquisition like pictures and word banks as well as various activities which reinforce them like listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, it is unquestionable that vocabulary items are highly emphasized in the present textbook. The uncertainty, however, lies in the way they were planned and selected.

2.3. History of Word Lists

Throughout the history of vocabulary lists, various attempts have been made to construct lists of vocabulary items. These lists provided a basis for the selection of words in textbooks and graded readers. One of the earliest attempts was carried out by C.K. Ogden (1937), who presented a word list consisting of 850 items called *Basic English*. Ogden claimed that his list would facilitate "ordinary communication in idiomatic English" and, as such, it would provide a solution for the problems of Ogden's 'Universal Language'. The list was supplemented with a hundred words dedicated to general science, and fifty words for any specific science, giving a total of 1000 words (Ogden, 1937). According to Aiken (1933), although the list has received wide acceptance among educators in England and other countries, one must not overlook its shortcomings. He argues that Ogden's descriptions of the list are full of idiosyncrasies, confusing explanations, and omitted transitions. For example, Ogden avoids using simple terms like verb and preposition providing, instead, prolonged explanations that are more likely to confuse rather than help the reader. Aiken cites another source of confusion which springs from the fact that the list actually includes about 1100 or 1200 words and that the number 850 only refers to head words. Above all, Aiken correctly states the mere fact that the list does not include clear objective

criteria for the inclusion or exclusion of vocabulary items which makes it unsuitable for vocabulary graded syllabus design (Aiken, 1933).

Ogden's *Basic English* list (1937) will not be helpful for the present study for two reasons. First, the list was not based on a count of the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in any corpus. In fact, the selection of vocabulary items was based on Ogden's own judgment. For example, he included 200 names of pictureable objects or "common things such as the auctioneer handles daily, parts of the body, etc." for "judicious reasons" (p. 2). Obviously, judicious reasons are not sufficient criteria for vocabulary selection. Secondly, the list is very old, i.e. 75 years old, and there are no recent studies, to the researcher's knowledge, which have used a contemporary corpus to examine the list's inclusion of the most frequent words in English.

Afterwards, Thorndike and Lorge (1944) provided *The Teachers Word Book of 30,000 Words* which was based on a manual count of 18,000,000 word written corpus. The size of the list and the large corpora on which it is based added to its value (Nation & Waring, 1997, p. 13). However, the list has been criticized for having too many discrepancies and errors and was, thus, considered inaccurate (Rosenzweig & McNNeill, 1962, p. 361-319). The Teacher's Word Book is not suitable for the present study for many reasons. Besides being outdated, the list is larger than what the study needs. We might be able to take the first two thousand vocabulary items and compare them to the textbook, but we cannot be sure that they can be viewed separately from the rest of the items. In addition, the title indicates that the vocabulary items are provided for teachers and not for beginner learners.

Within the same period of time, i.e. the forties, West was working on a written corpus of five million running words to make *The General Service List* (GSL). The list was finally finished in 1953. The semantic count consists of 2000 words. It enlists

the frequency of occurrence of the various meanings and parts of speech of the words in the five million (or sometimes 2,5 million) running words. The selection of items was not based solely on frequency, other criteria like cost, i.e. ease or difficulty of learning, necessity, cover, stylistic level, and intensive and emotional words have been taken into account (West,1953). West's criteria provide the best available measure for the usefulness of vocabulary items. They are more objective and comprehensive than the ones suggested by Wilkins (1976), who evaluates the usefulness of lexical items by using five criteria: *frequency*, *range*, *availability*, *familiarity* and *coverage*. The meaning of frequency is already known. *Range* refers to the occurrence of a word in different text types. *Availability* accounts for the availability of a lexical item for the speaker when he/she needs it. Moreover, *familiarity* is associated with the speaker's preference of certain vocabulary items in particular areas of interest. Last but not least, *coverage* is measured by the number of meanings a word expresses or by the ability of a word to replace several lexical items with more specific meanings (Wilkins, 1976). Unlike West's criteria, which can be objectively investigated, some of Wilkins's criteria are inherently subjective. Availability and familiarity, for example, require taking the opinions of language speakers. Furthermore, West's criteria are more comprehensive in the sense that they include three of Wilkins's criteria which are frequency, range and coverage and add four more which are cost, necessity, stylistic level and intensive and emotional words.

Back to word lists, a more recent endeavor was undertaken by Carroll, Davies and Richman (1971; as cited in Nation & Waring, 1997) who used a computer analysis of a corpus of 5,000,000 running words taken from written school textbooks in the United State to construct *The American Heritage Word Frequency Book*. According to Warren (1973), the list is based on a large and comprehensive corpus. In addition, it

arranges the words alphabetically while providing the relative frequency of each item in grades from three to nine, and the category of the material in which they occurred. However, as Warren contends, the alphabetical arrangement renders the task of finding words of equal frequency in the textbooks extremely difficult. Furthermore, the fact that the list was based on children's books does not necessarily reflect children's graded vocabulary, but what adults provide for learners throughout their education (Warren, 1973). In spite of being recent and accurate, the list is unsuitable for the present study for being based on how adults perceive the language used by children and not on what adolescent beginner learners need.

An important contribution to frequency based word lists was done by Coxhead (1998), who worked on a compiled corpus of 3.5 million running words of written academic texts. She excluded West's 2000 words and examined the range and frequency of the rest of the items to produce an *Academic Word List* (AWL). The AWL includes 570 word families and provides coverage of 10% of academic texts. Coxhead argues that the AWL is a valuable source for learners with academic goals because it includes items frequently found in a wide range of academic texts (Coxhead, 2000). Coxhead's *Academic Word List* will not be used in the present study because it is specifically designed for advanced learners at college and post-college levels.

More recently, Leech, Rayson, and Wilson (2001) derived a three word frequency list from the *British National Corpus* (BNC). The BNC consists of over 100 million words taken from both spoken and written texts (Aston & Burnard, 1998). Nation (2004) states that these lists should not be used as a basis for designing English teaching syllabi for primary or secondary school students. Nation argues that the reason behind this is that the BNC is based on "British, adult, formal, informative

language" (2004, p.3); whereas both primary and secondary language learners are "not British, are children, and need both formal and informal language for both social and informative purposes" (2004, p.4). Following Nation's Advice, these lists will not be used in the present study.

Generally, frequency based word lists have been criticized for having several shortcomings. Harris, for instance, lists six weaknesses of word counts. He states that most word lists are based on written corpora. Thus, many words which are of high frequency in spoken language are listed as low frequency words in the lists. The *Teacher's Word Book*, for example, puts the words *bathroom* and *compassion* in the same rank. In addition, absolute difficulty is not considered in the ranking of lexical items. Hence, derivative forms like (examiner from examine), which are easy to learn, are ranked as low frequency words. Moreover, there is no consideration, in the ranking, for the effect of the native language on the ease or difficulty of learning. Certain lexical items, which do not have L1 cognates, might be difficult for foreign language learners. Furthermore, some word lists do not consider the various meanings of lexical items. Hence, a word like *bark* which is highly frequent if we associate it with "the sound made by dogs" is of low frequency if we associate it with the "coverings of trees". In addition, recent analysis of frequency is important because of the effect time has on the ranking of lexical items. To exemplify, a currently high frequency word like *television* was considered infrequent by the *Teacher's Word Book*. This is because it was written between 1921 and 1931. Finally, some word lists are based on written samples of language that do not suite the needs of foreign language learners. For instance, the corpus which is used to make the list may include certain classical works whose language is archaic. In spite of all above weaknesses, Harris still considers frequency a reliable measure of difficulty (Harris, 1969).

Now, if we examine the above weaknesses in relation to West's GSL, we will find that, with the exception of using a written corpus, they do not apply to the GSL. For instance, absolute difficulty and ease or difficulty of learning are incorporated in one of the GSL criteria which is 'cost'. Moreover, the GSL takes into account the different meanings of words as well as their derivative forms. In spite of its age, Nation and Waring (1997) consider the classical GSL the best available list. Several studies confirm this point of view. For example, Hwang (1989), as stated in Hwang and Nation (1989), found that the GSL covers around 80% of 80 newspaper articles, bearing in mind that about 10% of the running words were proper nouns. Also, Hirsh and Nation (1992) stated that the GSL provided coverage of 90-92% of three novels. Further, Sutarsyah's et al. study (1994) gave evidence to the GSL's coverage of 82.5% of an economic text, and 78.43% of a general academic corpus. In addition to all of the aforementioned studies which support the contemporaneousness of the vocabulary items in the GSL, Nation has modernized the list in 2008.

Due to its use of objective and comprehensive criteria of selection, its consideration of different lexical meanings and derivative forms, its large coverage of different types of texts, its small size, its contemporaneousness, and its suitability for beginner learners, the GSL has been selected for the present study to be compared against the first intermediate girl's English textbook.

2.4. Comparing Word Lists to Textbooks

The vocabulary analysis of foreign language teaching textbooks is not a new invention, nor is it restricted to English teaching textbooks. Since the beginning of the 20th century, many researchers have attempted to examine the vocabulary range and coverage of foreign language teaching textbooks. In this section, a number of studies will be reported and compared to each other. To begin with, Skinner (1936) has

graded forty five Italian textbooks according to their coverage of a word list consisting of 3000 words in 1936. He stated that the source of the word list was a table of prepared vocabularies taken from the textbooks under examination. Based on Skinner's description, the vocabulary items of the textbooks were compared against each other, without referring to an independent list based on larger corpora that could provide a fairer representation of the Italian language.

A description of another study which examined the vocabulary content of ten French textbooks indicates more sophistication because it compared the vocabulary items of the textbooks against two frequency lists: the *Francais Fondamental*, a list based on the spoken word, and *G.E. Vander Beke's French Word Book*, a list based on the written word. For both lists, the study showed that more than 50% of the words used in the textbooks were of low frequency (Frechette, 1970). Similar results were found in a study that compared five texts of elementary Russian to a frequency list of 1500 Russian words called *Markovkin*. It showed that pedagogical lists often make substantial departures from actual word counts of the Russian language (Keller, 1991). A large number of infrequent words have also been spotted at all levels of English textbooks and readers used to teach primary school students in Hong Kong. The list compared to the texts was derived from the University of *Birmingham's Bank of English Corpus* (Coniam, 1994). As reported, the results were even more extreme in an investigation of the words found in three first year college-level Spanish textbooks and three second year college level Spanish textbooks. It has been found that only 10-50% of the words are among the most frequent lemmas in the *Frequency Dictionary of Spanish: core vocabulary for learners (2005)* (Davis & Face, 2006).

What most of the aforementioned studies have in common is that less than half of the pedagogical words belong to high frequency vocabulary items in the language.

Researchers like Skinner (1936), Frechette (1970) and Keller (1991) are, as such, calling for a more careful design of syllabi that provides a better inclusion of basic vocabulary or high frequency vocabulary items especially at beginner levels.

The present research study is the first known evaluation of the first intermediate textbook in terms of its coverage of the 2000 most frequent words in English. In relation to the local situation, it is crucial to compare the vocabulary items of the English textbooks to reliable word counts. Although the textbooks include a large number of activities dedicated to both intentional and incidental vocabulary learning, a direct and systematic analysis of the vocabulary content is necessary. The necessity of such an analysis springs from the fact that the textbooks are not optional or commercial. They are freely distributed to be used on a large scale. In fact, they are compulsory for learners at the elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools. The reason behind this goes back to the centralized nature of the educational system in Saudi Arabia which does not allow teachers to select their own books. As such, and to ensure utmost vocabulary development, there needs to be a planned, sequential, and cyclical presentation of carefully selected vocabulary items. For vocabulary items are, after all, a major component of language.

2.5. Vocabulary Learning Strategies as a Subfield of Learning Strategies

In the last 20 years or so, an interest has developed in the area of describing and classifying vocabulary learning strategies. According to Nation (2001b, p. 217), vocabulary learning strategies can be viewed within the framework of language learning strategies, which in turn can be seen within the broad framework of learning strategies. This view can be quite beneficial for vocabulary learning strategy research. For Schmitt (1997, p. 200) argues that we can reach stronger conclusions about vocabulary learning strategies by combining the results of general learning strategy

studies and specific vocabulary learning strategy research. From this point of view, and in order to gain a better understanding of vocabulary learning strategies, we have to take a look at the major taxonomies of learning strategies first.

2.5.1. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

This section gives an overview of the major taxonomies of learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies. It also discusses the adaptation and implementation of one of the taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies. In conclusion, a discussion of some previous research findings is presented.

2.5.2. Taxonomies of Learning Strategies

Since the field of learning strategies is still in an early stage, there is no consensus among researchers on the exact number and type of learning strategies. This is supported by Oxford (1990) who argues that:

at this stage in the short history of language learning strategy research, there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined; demarcated, and categorized; and whether there it is – or ever will be possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies.(p.17)

The following subsections provide two taxonomies of learning strategies given by Oxford (1990) and O'malley and Chamot (1990). These taxonomies are the most recent and probably the most important in the field of learning strategies. Ellis (1994; as cited in AL-Fuhaid, 2004, p. 27) asserts that Oxford's taxonomy is the most comprehensive taxonomy of learning strategies and that O'malley and Chamot's taxonomy provides an important theoretical background for studying vocabulary learning strategies.

2.5.3. Oxford's Taxonomy of Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) divides learning strategies into two major groups: the strategies which support and manage learning by directly involving the target language and they

are called *direct strategies* and the ones which do not directly involve the target language and they are called *indirect strategies*. Direct strategies include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies whereas *indirect strategies* include metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Memory strategies are used to help learners store and retrieve new information, e.g. creating mental linkages. While cognitive Strategies show the functions of manipulating and transforming the target language, e.g. practicing, metacognitive strategies refer to the conscious planning, monitoring and evaluation of learning processes, e.g. centering your learning. As the name indicates, compensation strategies involve ways of compensating gaps in knowledge, e.g. guessing intelligently. The affective strategies are related to emotional management in language learning, e.g. lowering your anxiety. Finally, social strategies refer to the way learners acquire the target language by interacting with native speakers, e.g. asking questions. Oxford argues that the groups of strategies are not independent of each other. There are strong bonds and relations between them. She provides figure 1. to illustrate the way groups of strategies support and assist one another.

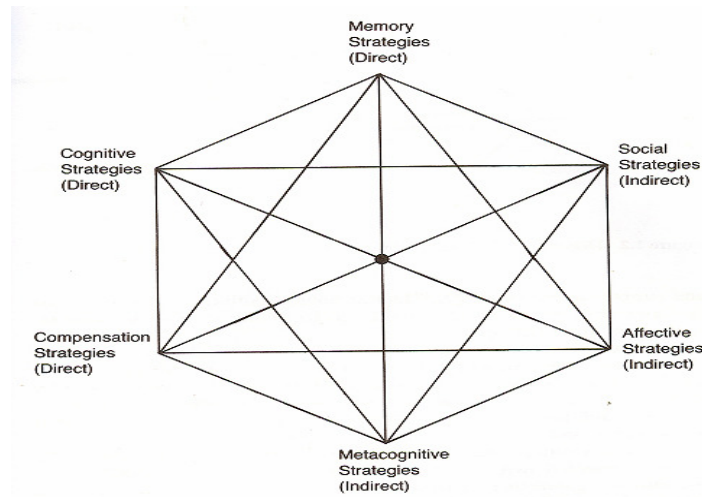


Figure 1. Interrelationships between language learning strategies.

Note. From Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know (p.15), by R.L. Oxford, 1990, Boston: Heinle & Heinle. Copyright 1990 by Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Oxford's taxonomy is general in the sense that it provides a global classification of the steps or processes used to learn a language. However, the different levels and skills of language are enormously different and cannot be laid equally under a single umbrella. Oxford attempted to overcome this problem by applying her taxonomy to the four language skills which are: listening, reading, speaking and writing. Unfortunately, she did not apply her taxonomy to other important areas of language such as vocabulary, grammar and phonology.

2.5.4. O'malley and Chamot's Taxonomy of Learning Strategies

O'malley and Chamot (1990) attempted to link linguistics and psychology by applying cognitive theory to language acquisition. They extended Anderson's (1983-1985) cognitive information processing theory to describe learning strategies as a complex cognitive skill. Anderson's theory makes a distinction between *declarative knowledge* or what a person knows and *procedural knowledge* or what a person can do. In addition, the theory states that the acquisition of any skill goes through three

stages: (1) cognitive, (2) associative, and (3) autonomous. At the cognitive stage, learners acquire declarative knowledge. They are given instructions on how to do the task, or asked to discover the way to do it themselves. At the associative stage, declarative knowledge is turned into procedural knowledge. This involves the detection and elimination of errors, and the reinforcing of connections among the components of skills. Flawless and automatic performance of the skill is achieved at the autonomous stage. As stated earlier, O'malley and Chamot (1990) applied cognitive theory to language acquisition. They did so by considering the formal rules of language as declarative knowledge. Furthermore, they suggested that language comprehension and production can be viewed as procedural knowledge. In addition, they considered learning strategies a skill that can be acquired through cognitive, associative, and autonomous stages of learning.

O'malley and Chamot based their taxonomy scheme on the strategies which were already identified in the literature, on analysis of reading comprehension and problem solving, and on research in cognitive psychology based on interviews with psychologists and remarks on psychological tasks. They classified learning strategies into three groups: (1) metacognitive, (2) cognitive, and (3) social/affective. Brown (1985; cited in O'malley and Chamot, 1990) defined metacognitive strategies as "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, and evaluating the success of a learning activity." (p. 44) O'malley and Chamot stated that cognitive strategies work on the input, manipulating it in a way that ensures success of the learning task. They also pointed out that social/affective strategies involve interaction with people or any ideational control over events. There are about fifteen strategy types in the scheme proposed by O'malley and Chamot. Metacognitive strategies include four types and they are: selective attention, planning, monitoring, and

evaluation. Cognitive strategies include eight strategy types and they are: rehearsal, organization, inferencing, summarizing, deducing, imagery, transfer, and elaboration. Finally, three strategy types are covered by the social/affective group and they are: cooperation, questioning for clarification, and self-task.

O'malley and Chamot provided a general classification of the strategies used to learn a language. Their taxonomy includes fewer strategy groups than the one presented by Oxford. They spoke of cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies. Oxford, on the other hand, divided them into memory, compensation, cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective. As such, Oxford adds memory and compensation strategies and separates affective/social strategies into two different groups. Another difference between the two schemes relates to application. Oxford (1990) applied her taxonomy to the four language skills which are listening, reading, speaking, and writing. O'malley and Chamot (1990), by contrast, discussed solely listening and reading comprehension.

2.5.5. Taxonomies of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Several attempts were made to devise a vocabulary learning strategy taxonomy. The following subsections provide a description of two taxonomies proposed by Nation (2001a) and Schmitt (1997). These taxonomies are particularly important for the present study for two reasons. First, Schmitt's taxonomy represents the most comprehensive classification in the literature (AL-Fuhaid, 2004) and is, therefore, used as a basis for the questionnaire implemented in this study. Second, and as will be discussed later, Nation's taxonomy overlaps greatly with Schmitt's taxonomy. As such, Nation's taxonomy provides a good support to Schmitt's taxonomy.

2.5.6. Nation's Vocabulary Learning Strategy Taxonomy

Nation (2001b) proposed a vocabulary learning taxonomy which classifies strategies into three major groups: planning, sources, and processes. Each class is subdivided into a number of key strategies. The first class of key strategies is planning vocabulary learning. It involves making decisions on where, how, and how often to give attention to an item. Hence, it encompasses choosing words, choosing aspects of word knowledge to focus on, choosing strategies, and planning repetition. The second class, which is sources, involves finding information about words by analyzing word parts, using context, consulting a reference source, and using parallels with other languages. The third class is processes and it has to do with establishing vocabulary knowledge through noticing, retrieving and generating vocabulary items.

Nation's taxonomy has the disadvantage of failing to provide a specific and detailed account of all the learning strategies involved under each heading. What he gave was general definitions that do not clearly set the boundaries between the specific strategies. For example, how does decisions on how often to give attention to an item, which is a part of the planning group, differ from noticing a word, which is a part of the processes group. Further, a part of the sources group which is analyzing word parts cannot be separated from giving attention to a word or noticing a word!

2.5.7. Schmitt's Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Drawing heavily on Oxford's system, Schmitt (1997) provides a modified taxonomy that deals specifically with vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt excludes Oxford's affective and compensation strategies. Nonetheless, he includes Oxford's social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies and adds a new group called determination strategies (DET), i.e. strategies used to discover meaning without referring to another person. Schmitt's taxonomy includes 58 strategies grouped under

two large headings: discovery and consolidation strategies. Below is an excerpt of Schmitt's Taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. (The taxonomy is available in appendix 1.)

Table 2

An Excerpt of Schmitt's Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Strategy group	
Strategies for the discovery of a new word meaning	
DET	Analyze part of speech
SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group.
MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning.
COG	Verbal repetition
MET	Testing oneself with word tests

After carefully examining the aforementioned taxonomies, a great overlap has been detected. The taxonomies seem to provide different categorizations of more or less similar groups of vocabulary learning strategies. Whereas Schmitt's taxonomy excludes Oxford's affective and compensation strategies and adds determination strategies, Nation's taxonomy excludes the social, affective and compensation strategies. Furthermore, Nation's planning, sources and processes strategies parallel Oxford's metacognitive, determination, cognitive and memory strategies.

2.5.8. Vocabulary Learning Strategies in the Saudi Context

The use of vocabulary learning strategies is, without doubt, affected by the methods of language teaching and the way they are manifested in textbooks and classroom practices. For example, if the adopted method was Audiolingualism, then we would expect the textbook to present vocabulary items in dialogues and we would see learners first listening to dialogues and then repeating them several times both orally and in writing (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As noticed, the strategies which are perpetuated in such a setting are purely mechanical. Knowing that this method, i.e. Audiolingualism, was prevailing in KSA from 1958 to 1979 (AL-Hajailan, 2003), gives the researcher an idea about the types of strategies which have been reinforced at that time. With the development of new theories of language teaching and the subsequent modifications of English textbooks, the strategies used by learners must have changed. According to AL-Hajailan (2003), the Communicative Approach was adopted in the third and fourth phases of language teaching in KSA. This approach is still advocated in the fifth stage. As such, there must have been a number of changes in the use of vocabulary learning strategies from the year 1979 to date. In relation to the present textbook, i.e. *Say it in English*, we can assume that learners focus on the pictures used in the textbook, or use the context to discover the meaning of a particular word instead of asking for the L1 translations. In addition, we would expect the listening activities and phonics sections to encourage learners to focus more on the aural representations of words. However, we cannot be sure of learners use or disuse of such strategies unless we employ a particular data collection technique to collect more information. The present study uses a questionnaire based on Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt's taxonomy proved to be, by far, the most comprehensive taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies (AL_Fuhaid,

2004, p. 68). It gives a specific description of 58 learning strategies doubly categorized in terms of discovery and consolidation, and in terms of social, memory, cognitive, metacognitive and determination.

2.5.9. Previous Research Findings

This subsection is intended to synthesize, for the reader, the major findings of research in vocabulary learning strategies. Research in this area has helped us understand the difference between 'good' and 'poor' language learners. It also gave us an idea about the most commonly and the least commonly used vocabulary learning strategies. Furthermore, it helped us consider the effect of gender differences on the number and range of strategies used by learners.

Several studies reported a significant relation between the use of a large number of vocabulary learning strategies and high achievement in vocabulary acquisition. They have also indicated that high achievers use more vocabulary learning strategies than low achievers. Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown (1999), for example, found strong connections between extensive use of vocabulary learning strategies and success in vocabulary learning. They also found that poor use of vocabulary learning strategies leads to low vocabulary achievement. Moreover, Yang (2005) found that high achievers used various types of strategies as opposed to low achievers. Similarly, Moir & Nation (2002) conducted a case study on a proficient learner and found that he used more vocabulary learning strategies than less proficient learners. There are also studies which link the use of certain strategies to good or poor achievement. Fan (2003), for instance, found that association strategies often lead to high vocabulary achievement, whereas mechanical strategies like repetition lead to low vocabulary achievement.

The findings of various studies have indicated that vocabulary learning strategies are not equally used by learners. Some strategies are more favored and more frequently used than others. Schmitt (1997), for instance, found that the most frequently used strategies are: using bilingual dictionary, guessing from textual context, asking classmates for meaning, verbal repetition, written repetition, studying the spelling, saying new words aloud, taking notes in class, studying the sound of a word, and using word lists. By contrast, the least used strategies are: checking for L1 cognate, using physical action, using cognates in study, using semantic maps, and teachers checking flash cards for accuracy. Likewise, Fan (2003) reported a positive evaluation as well as a high use of strategies like using dictionaries to look at context and recalling meaning of words by reading. Nonetheless, certain strategies like the keyword method, and the use of word lists received a low evaluation and were perceived as less useful by learners. According to Moir & Nation (2002), the highest used vocabulary learning strategy is rote learning or memorizing, whereas the least used one is word selection. AL-fuhaid (2004) stated that the strategies which are used quite frequently by learners are: using English-Arabic dictionaries, studying the pronunciation of new words, taking vocabulary notes, and using electronic dictionaries. On the other hand, the least used ones are: evaluating L2 vocabulary knowledge, using semantic maps, designing one's own flash cards, using word cards, using graded reading, using or making semantic feature grids, repeated listening to other tape-recorded material, and repeated listening to tape-recorded word lists. Also, Wu (2005) found that the use of electronic dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and guessing from context were the most favored strategies by learners belonging to different age groups. Moreover, Ruuments (2005) found that learners generally prefer mechanical strategies like repetition to association and imagery-based strategies.

Finally, Yang (2005) found that learners prefer to use verbal repetition, written repetition, and bilingual dictionary. All in all, learners seem to prefer the strategies which involve surface processing like verbal repetition, written repetition, using dictionaries, and guessing from textual context, to strategies that involve deep processing like using semantic maps, making semantic feature grids, and the keyword method.

A number of studies have looked into the effect of gender on learners' selection of vocabulary items. Catalan (2003), for example, found a significant difference in the number and range of strategies used by males and females. Females used more vocabulary learning strategies in comparison to males. In particular, females tended to focus more on formal rule strategies, input elicitation strategies, rehearsal strategies, and planning strategies, whereas male learners preferred to use image vocabulary learning strategies. Similarly, Ruuments (2005) found that girls and boys differed in their use of vocabulary learning strategies. Girls were more likely to use rote rehearsal and dictionaries, whereas boys preferred guessing and picking up words from different sources.

2.6. The Current Study in Relation to the Above Review

This section provides a discussion of the research questions in the light of the above review. First, it is necessary to understand that the questions of this study are related to several variables found at different levels of information handling. At the input level there are: range, frequency, and instruction (instruction, and more specifically rich instruction, is measured indirectly through learners' achievement in the vocabulary sections of the textbook as opposed to the rest of the book). At the process level there are vocabulary learning strategies. Learners' vocabulary size and achievement are investigated at the output level. (See figure 2)

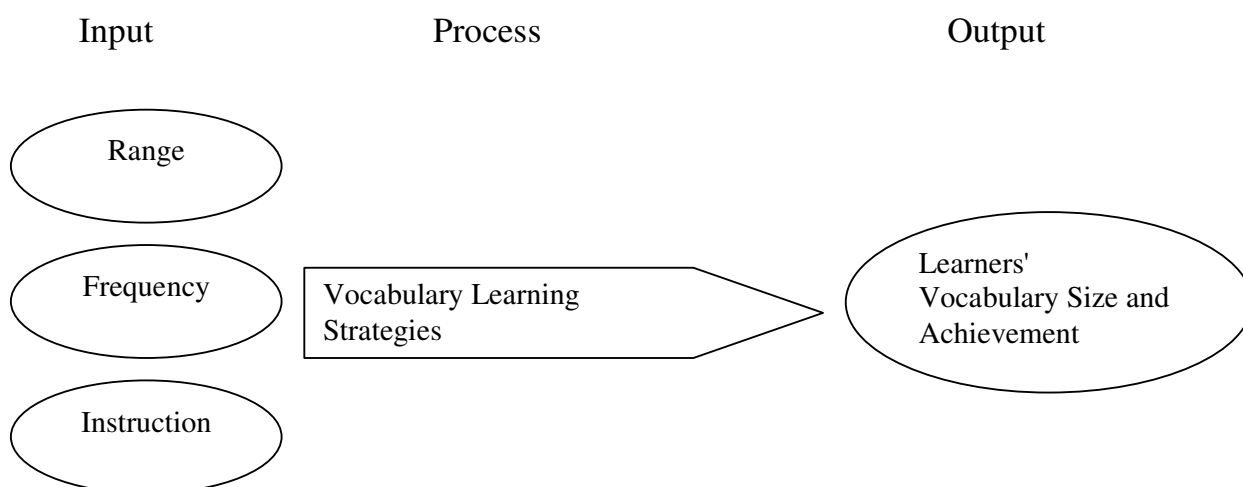


Figure 2. The levels of vocabulary information handling.

Following Nations (1990) views on teaching beginner learners the 2000 most frequent words, the present study investigates the range of vocabulary items in the first intermediate girl's English textbook. The analysis of the range is carried out by comparing a well known word list to the first intermediate girl's English textbook using the RANGE SOFTWARE. After examining the strengths and weaknesses of a number of word lists like Basic English, The GSL, The Teacher's Word book of the 30,000 Words etc., the GSL has been selected to be compared against the textbook. This selection was based on two reasons. First, because the GSL stood against most of Harris's (1969) six word list weaknesses, and second because of its suitability for beginner learners. The current study is not only limited to examining the occurrence of the 2,000 high frequency words in the textbook, but it is also concerned with another source of input which is the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in the textbook. In particular, this study is concerned with the present status of the textbook in relation to Jenkins et al. (1994) and Webb's (2007) advice on repeating words ten times or more in meaningful contexts. Jenkins et al. and Webb stated that such repetitions will help learners recognize the different aspects of word knowledge

(ibid.). The FREQUENCY SOFTWARE was used to examine the repetition of words in the textbook. A third source of input which is instruction was also investigated by examining learners' achievement in both the vocabulary sections of the textbook, which supposedly received a form of rich instruction, and the rest of the items, which mostly did not. According to Nation (1990b) rich instruction should be provided to high frequency items. Since there are no specific sections in the textbook which are dedicated to high frequency words, it was considered helpful to examine the effects of rich instruction on the vocabulary section items.

In addition to teaching the 2,000 high frequency words, Nation (1990b) also advocated training learners to use the vocabulary learning strategies that would help them deal with low frequency words. From that stand, an analysis of the most and least commonly used vocabulary learning strategies of learners was carried out. After all, the output, in this case learners' actual vocabulary size, is the result of the interaction between the input and the process. To investigate learners' use of strategies a questionnaire was devised on the basis of Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy. This taxonomy was selected for two reasons. First, because it was considered to be the most comprehensive taxonomy in the field (AL-Fuhaid, 2004), and second because of its focus on specific vocabulary learning strategies as opposed to focusing on general categories of vocabulary learning strategies

In addition to the foregone variables, the present study tackles two variables at the outcome level which are learners' receptive vocabulary size and achievement. Their vocabulary size was measured using two of Nation's standardized tests (for more information, see section 3.1.3.2.), whereas their vocabulary achievement was measured using a test based on the textbook.

Most of the studies, in the literature review, focused on a single variable like vocabulary learning strategies (e.g. AL-fuhaid 2004; Schmitt, 1997), or the relationship between two variable like textbooks and wordlists (e.g. Coniam 1994), but non of them examined several multileveled variables like the ones dealt with in the present study, i.e. range, frequency, vocabulary size, vocabulary achievement, and vocabulary learning strategies. Furthermore, there are few studies that address any of those variables in the Saudi context. Hence, it was necessary to carry out a study that sheds some light on the relationships between those variables in relation to a specific corpus.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter provides an analysis of the instruments and procedures used in the present study. It also describes the research experiment, ethical issues, validity, and reliability.

3.1. Experiment

The current experiment involves the corpus, participants, and a number of instruments which are the RANGE and FREQUENCY software, Nation's vocabulary tests, the achievement test, and the questionnaire.

3.1.1. Corpus

The Range and Frequency software examine the range and frequency of vocabulary items in a book entitled *Say it in English* (AL_Suruji, AL_Rees, AL-Adma, & Majdali, 2008). In detail, they analyzed two volumes used for teaching beginner learners in the first year of intermediate school, i.e. the first semester book, and the second semester book. Due to the unavailability of the listening audiotapes, even for teachers themselves, only the written textbook was typed and processed using the software. In addition, the exercises were left unanswered to avoid variability in learners' responses.

3.1.2. Participants

Two hundred and eighty six female students participated in the present study. They were divided into two groups: (1) those who finished sixth grade of elementary school (aged 13 years old), and (2) those who finished 1st year of intermediate school (aged 14 years old). There were 106 students in the first group and 180 students in the

second. The participants belonged to seven schools. The sixth elementary grade participants were taken from two elementary schools, where as the 1st intermediate participants belonged to five intermediate schools. All of the schools are in Al-Hofuf area of AL-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia. Some of the schools are located in semirural areas, others are near the center of the city. All the participants are Arabic speakers from Saudi Arabia who received formal education at government schools. Both groups took the 1st thousand vocabulary test to allow an examination of vocabulary growth. The second group, i.e. those who had completed 1st intermediate school, were additionally asked to take the 2nd thousand vocabulary size test, the achievement test, and the vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire.

3.1.3 Instruments

Four types of data will be obtained in this study:

- 1) Analyses of the range and frequency of vocabulary items found in the first intermediate girl's English textbook.
- 2) Assessment of the 1st and 2nd thousand vocabulary size of participants.
- 3) Assessment of the vocabulary achievement of participants.
- 4) Identification of the learning strategies that are especially useful for learning high and low frequency words.

Five types of data collection techniques will be used:

- 1) The Range and Frequency software (Heatly, Nation & Coxehd, 2002).
- 2) A test of the 1st 1,000 words of English (Nation, 2001b).
- 3) A test of the 2nd 1,000 words of English (Nation, 2001b).
- 4) An Achievement test constructed by the researcher.
- 5) A questionnaire adapted from Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies.

3.1.3.1 Software

3.1.3.1.1. RANGE

In the instruction part of the software, Heatly, Nation, and Coxhead (2002) give a clear description of the software applications. Using word lists, the RANGE software can provide the coverage of any English text. To explain, it can compare any text against two wordlists, i.e. BASEWRD1.DAT and BASEWRD2.DAT to see which of the words in the lists are covered or undercovered by the text and in what proportion. In addition, the software allows making comparisons between texts. This can be done by running the program on a given text and then manually lemmatizing, i.e. creating word families from, all of the words found. The lemmatized list can, then, be used in the software to be compared against any other text. The software is able to simultaneously compare up to 32 different texts. In addition to all of these applications, the software can analyze every word in the textbooks in terms of "range or distribution figure, headword frequency figure, family frequency figure, and a frequency figure for each of the texts the word occurs in" (Heatly, Nation & Coxhead, 2002, p.1-3).

3.1.3.1.2. FREQUENCY

This program is used to make a frequency or an alphabetical list of all the words that occur in a given text. It also provides "the rank order of the words, their raw frequency and the cumulative percentage frequency" (Heatly, Nation & Coxhead, 2002, p. 3). For more information on the RANGE and FREQUENCY analyses see appendix 2.

3.1.3.2. Nation's Vocabulary Tests

3.1.3.2.1. The 1st 1,000 Word Level Test

The researcher used a ready-made test called: *A Test Of The First 1,000 Words Of English*. It is basically a true/false test that contains forty items. Only content words are tested and they are arranged according to frequency of occurrence as found in West's GSL. For instance, the word *time* is the highest frequent content word in West's list, and as such it occurs initially in the test (Nation, 1993, p. 196). (See appendix 3.)

3.1.3.2.2. The 2nd 1,000 Word Level Test

Nation (2001b, p. 416-424) provided a copy of Schmitt and C. Clapham *Vocabulary Level Test*. This is a recent and modified version of Nation's original *Vocabulary Level Test* which was made in 1983. The researcher selected the 2,000 word level test which includes 30 items. The researcher has also analyzed the range of the items being tested and identified ten items found in the 1st thousand words. Those items were eliminated. Moreover, the word *wine*, which is inappropriate to the current situation, was replaced by the word *juice* which belongs to the 2nd thousand most frequent words of English. According to Nation (1983, p. 14-15), every section of the test consists of six items and three definitions. The 2nd thousand word level items are defined by words belonging to the 1st thousand word level. Unlike the 1st thousand vocabulary test, which consists of only two true/false options, the 2nd thousand word test provides a sufficient amount of distracters, i.e. six distracters. This test will be used to measure participants' recognition of the 2nd thousand most frequent words of English. (A version of the test is provided in appendix 4.)

3.1.3.3. The Achievement Test

The researcher designed an achievement test which includes twenty multiple choice items which belong to different degrees of frequency, i.e. from BASEWORD1.DAT, BASEWORD.2.DAT and beyond. Sections **I** and **II** cover Term 1 textbook, whereas section **III** covers Term 2 textbook. While the first and the second sections require the participants to describe pictures and underlined words, the third question asks them to fill in blanks. The tested items have been selected from all the units. Forty percent of the items are taken from the vocabulary sections in the textbooks, i.e. *word banks* and *vocabulary*. The remaining 60% are selected from the general instructional language and the reading and conversation sections of the textbook. The items being tested include nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions and idiomatic expressions. They denote abstract meanings, e.g. bargain, as well as concrete meanings, e.g. curtain. All the distracters were taken from the textbook. (See appendix 5.).

3.1.3.4. The Questionnaire

The researcher developed a questionnaire based on Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt's taxonomy consists of 58 strategies, only 47 were used in the questionnaire. Two of Schmitt's strategies included more than one idea and were turned into four items. A strategy like "Analyze any available pictures or gestures" (1997, p. 207) might confuse the participants who agree on one idea and not the other. For example, a participant might be attentive to the pictures in the textbook and careless about teacher's gestures. Hence, the strategy was turned into two items: analyze any available pictures, and analyze teacher's gestures. Similarly, a strategy like "connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms" (ibid.) was turned into two items: connect the word to its synonym, and connect the word to its antonym. As

to the rest of the strategies, some of them were modified, others were excluded altogether from the questionnaire. For example, one strategy was "teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy" (ibid.). Since learners do not have word lists in the textbook, the phrase 'word lists' was removed. Another strategy which is "listen to a tape of word lists" (ibid.) was turned into (listen to the teacher when she reads new words). This is due to the unavailability of audiotapes or word lists. Other strategies were based solely on word lists like "word lists" (ibid.) as a strategy of discovering a new word meaning and "word lists" (ibid., p.208) as a strategy of consolidating a word once it has been encountered. Both strategies were excluded from the questionnaire. In addition, some vocabulary learning strategies were removed for requiring special training that the participants did not receive like the "Loci method, the Keyword method, grouping words together within a storyline, using semantic feature grids, and using scales for gradable adjectives" (ibid.). Finally, one strategy was removed for violating some of the cultural values of the local situation, i.e. "use English-language media like songs and movies" (ibid.). Most educators in Saudi Arabia are against resorting to songs and movies.

In short, the questionnaire consists of 49 items. About 16 items are used to provide information about the strategies used for discovering the meaning of new words. Additional 33 items are targeted towards strategies for consolidating the meaning of words that have been encountered. The participants will be asked to answer questions using a five-point Likert scale (Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, Never). An Arabic version of the questionnaire is available in Appendix 6.

3.2. Procedures

An account of the series of steps undertaken to perform the experiment of the current study is given in two parts: data collection procedures and data analysis procedures.

3.2.1. Data collection procedures

The data collection procedures consist of two parts: textbook analysis and administration of tests and questionnaire.

3.2.1.1. Textbook Analysis

The corpus, made up of a school textbook, was typed into a text file. Then it was processed using Heatly, Nation and Coxhead (2002) software. Proper nouns, letters and numerals were excluded. Since the software are unable to identify abbreviations, these were unabbreviated. For example, words like *didn't* and *weren't* were turned into *did not* and *were not*.

3.2.1.2. Administration of Tests and Questionnaire

The tests and questionnaire were conducted in the classroom. There, the researcher introduced herself, explained the objectives of the study, and gave general instructions to maintain order. The tests and the questionnaire were administered in the same day according to the following order: (1) the 1st 1,000 vocabulary size test, (2) the 2nd 1,000 vocabulary size test, (3) the achievement test, and (4) the questionnaire. All items of the tests and the questionnaire were read orally by the researcher. The participants were required to finish every section supervised by the researcher. This was done to avoid wasting time and to keep participants focused on items. All in all, the completion of the tasks required three classes or 135 minutes. The participants were given a five minute break after every task.

3.2.2. Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis procedures of the current study include measuring vocabulary range, vocabulary frequency, vocabulary size, vocabulary achievement, and administering the questionnaire.

3.2.2.1. Vocabulary Range

The range of vocabulary items in the textbook was analyzed by the RANGE software. The analysis contained the number and percentage of tokens, types and word families according to their belonging to three groups: (1) the 1st thousand high frequency words, (2) the 2nd thousand high frequency words, and (3) the words which are not in the lists. Using the RANGE software, the range of vocabulary items in the two volumes of the textbook were compared, and then an overall analysis of textbook range was presented.

3.2.2.2. Vocabulary Frequency

The analysis of the frequency of words in the textbook was undertaken by the FREQUENCY software. First, the rank and frequency of the fifty highest frequent words in the two volumes were presented. Afterwards, and on the basis of software analysis, the researcher grouped words together according to the number of times they were repeated in the textbook. In other words, the researcher used software frequency analysis to count the words which occur in a particular frequency level, e.g. 100 and above, 90 and above etc. This was done to show the distribution of high and low frequency words in both volumes.

3.2.2.3. Vocabulary Size

The mean and standard deviation of the 1st thousand high frequency test scores of sixth elementary and first intermediate participants were calculated and compared.

Moreover, the mean and standard deviation of the 2nd thousand high frequency test scores of 1st intermediate participants were measured. It is important to mention that the results of both 1st and 2nd thousand vocabulary size tests were calculated out of 100 to show the proportion of known words. Finally, the mean and standard deviation of the 1st and 2nd thousand 1st intermediate test scores were compared to the range of word families in the textbook. The analysis was carried out using the SPSS.

3.2.2.4. Vocabulary Achievement

The mean and standard deviation of participants' scores in the vocabulary section and the rest of the book were calculated and compared. In addition, the overall mean and standard deviation of participants' scores in the achievement test were given. The analysis was carried out by the SPSS.

3.2.2.5. Questionnaire

Frequency responses were calculated according to a 100-point scale. The frequency scale was 100 points for "always", 75 points for "often", 50 points for "sometimes", 25 points for "rarely" and 0 points for "never". The frequency mean index for the categories and groups of strategies as well as for each strategy were measured by using the SPSS.

3.3. Ethical Issues

Students' participation was optional and entirely voluntary in this study. Those who did not wish to take part were excused. In addition, participants were reassured of the anonymity of their results. Their class teachers would not know of their vocabulary level and as such their grades would not be affected.

3.4. Validity

The instruments used in the current study are believed to serve its general objectives and they are, as such, valid. The RANGE and FREQUENCY software

were successfully used by many previous studies (e.g., Sutarsyah, 1994, Nation & Ming-tzu, 1999, & Cheng-chao, 2007). Moreover, Nation's vocabulary size tests are standardized tests that were implemented by several studies and vocabulary programs (e.g., Cobb, 1998 & Mehring, 2005). Furthermore, all the instruments were monitored and accepted by the researcher's supervisor. Also, two teachers were asked to examine the instruments in advance and give their comments. In addition, the instruments were experimented using ten participants in a pilot study. They were welcomed to express any ambiguities or remarks. Subsequent modifications were made on the basis of the researcher's supervisor, teachers and participants' comments.

3.5. Reliability

Measuring reliability through the test-retest method was not possible in the present study due to the large number of instruments and the limited amount of time. It was more economical to measure internal consistency through the split-half method, and the Cronbach alpha. The split half method was applied to the tests, whereas the Chronbach alpha was used with the questionnaire. The 1st vocabulary size test was divided into odd and even numbered items. This was done because the test arranges vocabulary items according to frequency of occurrence. The correlation between the forms was ,78. The 2nd vocabulary size test was divided into two halves. The correlation coefficient between the two halves was ,73. Similarly, the achievement test was divided into two parts. The correlation coefficient between them was ,71. The aforementioned reliability scores are relatively high. Hence, we can say that the above tools are reliable. As to the questionnaire, the Chronbach alpha estimate was ,868. This high score indicates that the questionnaire is internally reliable for reporting use of vocabulary learning strategies.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents an analysis of five types of data: (1) Range, (2) frequency, (3) vocabulary size, (4) vocabulary achievement, and (5) questionnaire.

4.1. RANGE

The present section provides an analysis of the range of vocabulary items in the textbook as obtained from the RANGE software. The section consists of three parts. The first part gives the RANGE analysis of the 1st volume of the textbook. The second part provides an analysis of the 2nd volume. The last part summarizes and compares the results of both volumes.

4.1.1. The Range of Vocabulary Items in the 1st Volume of the Textbook

Table 3 shows the results of an analysis of the range of the 7906 running word tokens found in the 1st volume of the textbook. There are 1498 word tokens from List One, which makes up approximately 18.9% of the running word tokens in the text. The 1498 tokens are made up of 49 different word types belonging to 45 word families. As such, the textbook covers only 4.5% of the word families found in BASEWPRDS 1. DAT. As to the second list, there are 755 word tokens and they represent 9.5% of the total running word tokens found in the textbook. The 755 tokens are made up of 174 word types belonging to 144 word families. This means that the textbook includes only 14.4% of the words in BASEWORDS.2.DAT. In addition, there are 5653 word tokens which do not belong to any of the lists. The types of those items represent 74.8% of the word types in the textbook.

Table 3

The Range of Vocabulary Items in the 1st Volume of the Textbook

Word List	Tokens/%	Types/%	Families
1-One	1498/18.9	49/5.5	45
2-Two	755/9.5	174/19.7	144
3-Not in the Lists	5653/175.9	662/74.8	_____
4-Total	7906	885	_____

Generally, the percentage of the 1st 1000 words included in the text (4.5%) is very low. This is especially true if we were expecting learners to master the 1st thousand words by the end of the year. Another remark has to do with the large decrease of the number of types in the textbook as we move from the 1st list to the words which are not in the lists. However, the number of types which are not mentioned in the list (662 types) outnumbers the types found in the two lists (223 types). Since this is a serious drawback, textbook writers need to avoid this problem when modernizing the text. They need to increase the number of items in the two lists and lower the number of items which are not in the lists.

4.1.2. The Range of Vocabulary Items in the 2nd Volume of the Textbook

Table 4 reports the range of 8649 running word tokens which are found in the 2nd volume of the textbook. There are 1753 word tokens from List One and they represent 20.3 % of the running word tokens in the text. The 1753 tokens are made up of 60 different types belonging to 55 word families. Hence, the 2nd volume of the textbook covers only 5.5% of the word families found in BASEWPRDS 1. DAT. Also, there are 951 word tokens in List Two, representing 11.0 % of the total running word tokens. The 951 tokens are made up of 247 word types belonging to 202 word families. This indicates that the textbook includes 20.2% of the words in

BASEWORDS.2.DAT. There are 5945 word tokens which are nonexistent in any of the lists. These make up approximately 76.6% of the word types in the textbook.

Table 4

<i>The Range of Vocabulary Items in the 2nd Volume of the Textbook</i>			
Word List	Tokens/%	Types/%	Families
1-One	1753/20.3	60/4.6	55
2-Two	951/11.0	247/18.9	202
3-Not in the Lists	5945/68.7	1003/76.6	_____
4-Total	8649	1310	_____

As noticed, there seems to be a lack of balance in the selection of words in the 2nd volume of the textbook. For a start, the percentage of the 1st thousand words is extremely low. Obviously, having only 5.5% of the 1st thousand words of English would not suffice for beginner learners. By contrast, the number of word families in the 2nd word list is relatively high (20.2%). It is four times higher than the number of word families in the 1st list. What is more striking is the large number of words which do not belong to any of the lists. About 76.6% of the word types in the 2nd volume of the textbook are out of the lists. Overall, there is an abrupt and substantial increase in the number of word families as we move from the first list to the words which are not in the lists. This is counter initiative.

4.1.3. Summary and Comparison of the Two Volumes

All in all, the number of vocabulary items in the second volume of the textbook exceeds that of the first one. As reported in tables 3 and 4, there are 7906 word tokens in the first volume and 8649 word tokens in the second. Together they make up 16555 word tokens. The inclusion of the 1st thousand words of English in the two volumes is extremely poor. For both volumes cover only 5.6% of the 1st thousand high frequency

words. The 2nd volume provides a slightly better coverage than the 1st one, i.e. 5.5% for the former and 4.5% for the latter. By comparison, the 2nd thousand high frequency words are given more coverage in both volumes (25.8%). The percentage of word families in the 2nd volume is 20.2%, whereas the percentage in the 1st volume is 14.4%. This means that the second volume gives a marginally better coverage of the 2nd thousand high frequency words than the first one. The words which are outside the lists received the highest score. About 76.5% of the word types in the textbook are not in the lists. The number of word types which are outside the lists is marginally less in the 1st volume. About 74.8% of the word types in the 1st volume are outside the lists, where as 76.6% of the word types in the 2nd volume are not from the lists. For more details on the overall coverage of the textbook see table 5.

Table 5

The Overall Range of Vocabulary Items in the Textbook

Word List	Tokens/%	Types/%	Families
1-One	3251/19.6	62/ 3.7	56
2-Two	1706/10.3	328/19.7	258
3-Not in the Lists	11598/70	1271/76.5	_____
4-Total	16555	1661	_____

4.2. Frequency

This section provides an analysis of the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in both volumes of the first intermediate textbook. The information is obtained from the FREQUENCY software. The section comprises three parts: (1) an analysis of the 50 most frequent words in both volumes of the textbook, (2) an overall analysis of the repetition of vocabulary items in the textbook, and (3) a summary of frequency findings.

4.2.1. The Most Frequent Fifty Words in Both Volumes of the Textbook

Table 6 lists the 50 most frequent words in both corpora. The majority of the highest frequent words of both volumes are function words. Twenty of the highest frequent words of the 1st volume are content words. Only ten of the fifty highest words of the 2nd volume are content words. The content words of both volumes revolve around certain semantic fields like instructional language (e.g. listen, look, hear, and write), grammar (e.g. word, name, and question), school (e.g. teacher, student, and school), and general topics (e.g. time, food, house, and family).

Table 6

The Highest Frequent 50 Words of the 1st and 2nd Volumes of the Textbook

Rank	First volume		Second volume	
	Word	Frequency	Word	Frequency
1	THE	409	THE	425
2	IS	321	IS	274
3	IN	199	YOU	234
4	A	198	AND	199
5	YOU	183	IN	189
6	AND	170	A	177
7	ARE	146	IT	142
8	YOUR	123	TO	140
9	TO	115	ARE	133
10	MY	99	I	130
11	IT	87	DO	104
12	THERE	78	WHAT	95

13	LISTEN	74	HAVE	83
14	WORD	71	YOUR	83
15	NAME	70	OF	82
16	STUDENT	68	AT	62
17	ROOM	63	THEY	62
18	UNIT	60	NOT	61
19	HOUSE	58	HE	59
20	YES	56	HOW	59
21	NO	55	MY	59
22	THIS	55	LIKE	57
23	LESSON	54	FOR	56
24	TEACHER	52	WITH	53
25	HAVE	50	SOUND	45
26	I	49	SHE	43
27	SCHOOL	49	LISTEN	42
28	WHERE	48	UNIT	42
29	OF	43	ABOUT	40
30	SOUND	41	LESSON	38
31	WRITE	40	WHERE	38
32	FOR	39	WRITE	37
33	DO	38	HAS	36
34	OLD	38	LONG	36
35	HE	37	ON	36
36	FAMILY	36	TIME	36
37	WHAT	36	THERE	33

38	NOT	34	EACH	31
39	ABOUT	33	GOT	31
40	SHE	33	MUCH	30
41	AN	32	FOOD	29
42	QUESTION	32	USUALLY	29
43	THEY	32	CAN	28
44	LOOK	31	THESE	28
45	ON	31	THIS	28
46	TABLE	31	GO	27
47	THESE	31	HEAR	27
48	TWO	31	LOOK	27
49	CIRCLE	30	STUDENT	27
50	HOW	30	AM	26
Total frequency		3819		3888

4.2.2. The Distribution of High and Low Frequency Words in Both Volumes

An analysis of the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in the two volumes of the textbook has shown that most of the words occur less than ten times. In detail, there are 711 low frequency words in the first volume and 1131 words in the second. The number of high frequency words is 171 in the first volume, and 177 in the second.

Table 7

The Frequency of Words in the 1st and 2nd Volumes of the Textbook

Frequency level	First volume/%	Second volume/%
100 and above	9/0.11	11/0.12
90 and above	1/0.01	1/0.01
80 and above	1/0.01	3/0.03
70 and above	4/0.05	0/0
60 and above	3/0.03	3/0.03
50 and above	7/0.08	6/0.06
40 and above	6/0.07	5/0.05
30 and above	20/0.25	11/0.12
20 and above	31/0.39	33/0.38
10 and above	89/1.12	104/1.20
1 and above	711/8.99	1131/13.07

4.2.3. Summary of frequency results

The analysis of the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in the textbook showed that most of the fifty highest frequency words are function words. The remaining words, which are content words, belong to instructional language, grammar, school, and general topics. In addition, the analysis indicated that most of words occur less than ten times in both volumes.

4.3. Vocabulary Size

This section presents an analysis of data collected from the 1st and 2nd 1,000 word level tests. It consists of four parts. The first part presents a comparison between participants' one thousand word level results pre and post the first year of intermediate

school. The second part gives participants' 2nd thousand word level results. The third gives a comparison between participants' vocabulary size and the textbook vocabulary size. The final part provides a summary of findings.

4.3.1. The 1st 1,000 Word Level Test

Table 8 shows learners' results in the 1st 1, 000 word level test pre and post the exposure to the textbook. The increase in learners' level at the end of the year is relatively poor (0.23%).

Table 8

Sixth Grade Elementary and First Year Intermediate Learners' Results in the First Thousand Word Level Test

Level	Mean (max.score 100%)	S. D.*
Sixth Grade Elementary	13.86	5.74
First Year Intermediate	14.09	6.97

*Note.*S.D.*= Standard deviation.

4.3.2. The 2nd 1,000 Word Level Test

As shown in table 9 below, first year intermediate participants have demonstrated their knowledge of approximately 5% of the 2nd thousand high frequency words.

Table 9

First Year Intermediate Learners' Results in the Second Thousand Word Level Test

Level	Mean (max.score 100%)	S. D.
The 2 nd 1000 Words.	4.84	3.00

4.3.3. A Comparison of Learners' 1st and 2nd 1,000 Word Level and Textbook Range

As shown in table 10, the vocabulary size revealed that the average participant knows at least 14.09% of the first thousand most frequent words of English and 4.84% of the second high frequency words. Since the text exposes learners to 5.6% of the first thousand words, the mean of their vocabulary size level is higher than what the textbook presents to them. By contrast, their performance in the 2nd thousand high frequency test (4.84%), was unexpectedly lower than what they were exposed to in the textbook (25.8%). All of this indicates that there is a lack of consistency between the level of vocabulary items presented and participants' actual level. This might be related to participants' repeated exposure to high frequency words in the elementary stage or their reliance on sources other than the curriculum. Generally speaking, the results showed that participants' movement towards attaining 50% of the first thousand high frequency words is relatively slow.

Table 10

A Comparison of the Vocabulary Size Mean and Textbook Range

Level	Mean (max.score 100%)	S.D	Range of word families %
1-The 1 st 1000 Words	14.09	6.97	5.6
2-The 2 nd 1000 Words.	4.84	3.00	25.8

4.3.4. Summary of Vocabulary Size Results

Participants have demonstrated a nonsignificant development in the 1st thousand word level by the end of 1st intermediate year. However, their level was better than what was presented to them in the textbook. By comparison, participants' 2nd thousand word size was substantially smaller than the size of items in the textbook.

4.5. Vocabulary Achievement

This section gives an analysis of participants' results in the achievement test. In particular, participant's scores in the *vocabulary section* of the textbook will be compared to their scores in the vocabulary items found in the rest of the textbook.

4.5.1. The achievement test

Table 11 shows the mean and standard deviation of participants' vocabulary achievement. It has been found that the mean of participants' overall performance is 40.58 out of 100. Hence, the average participant knows at least 40% of the vocabulary items presented in the textbook. In detail, participants' performance in the items presented in the *vocabulary section* of the textbook (a mean of 75.82) surpassed their achievement in the vocabulary items found in the rest of the book (a mean of 31.84). This indicates that participants learn better the items presented in the *vocabulary* sections of the book in comparison to the rest of the items irrespective of frequency of occurrence.

Table 11

Mean & S.D of the Vocabulary Achievement Test

Vocabulary	Mean (max.score 100)	S.D
Vocabulary Section	75.82	21
The Rest of the Book	31.84	17.43
Total	40.58	16.44

4.5.2. Summary of Achievement Results

The results in this section indicate that participants have a receptive knowledge of at least 40% of the vocabulary items in the textbook. In addition, participants perform better in the items presented in the vocabulary sections as opposed to the rest of the items. This indicates that intentional vocabulary learning leads to better results than incidental vocabulary learning.

4.6. Questionnaire

This section presents an analysis of questionnaire data. It consists of the analysis of two groups of strategies: (1) discovery strategies, and (2) consolidation strategies. Separate sections are given to discuss vocabulary learning strategies according to their belonging to five categories which are determination, social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive. Each section will cover participants' reported use of vocabulary learning strategies and will give a brief discussion of each strategy. A summary of overall findings will be given at the end of each group. The frequency of learners' strategy use is laid out in tables and figures.

4.6.1. Discovery strategies

The discovery strategies investigated in the current study consist of determination and social strategies. According to Schmitt (1997), there are nine determination strategies and five social strategies. These strategies are presented in table 12.

Table 12

An Excerpt of Schmitt's Taxonomy (Strategies for the Discovery of New Word Meaning)

Strategy group	
<i>Strategies for the discovery of a new word meaning</i>	
DET	Analyze part of speech
DET	Analyze affixes and roots
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyze any available pictures or gestures
DET	Guess from textual context
DET	Bilingual dictionary

DET	Monolingual dictionary
DET	Word lists
DET	Flash cards
SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
SOC	Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word
SOC	Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word
SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
SOC	Flash cards

4.6.1.1. Participants' Use of Discovery Strategies

The overall mean of discovery strategies in terms of frequency is 42.52. A comparison of the means of determination and social strategies, i.e. a mean of 47.59 for the former and a mean of 33.39 for the later, shows that participants prefer to use determination strategies over social strategies to discover the meaning of new words. This confirms the findings of AL-Fuhiad (2004).

Table 13

Participants' Reported Use of Discovery Strategies

Strategy	Mean
1- Determination	47.59
2- Social	33.39

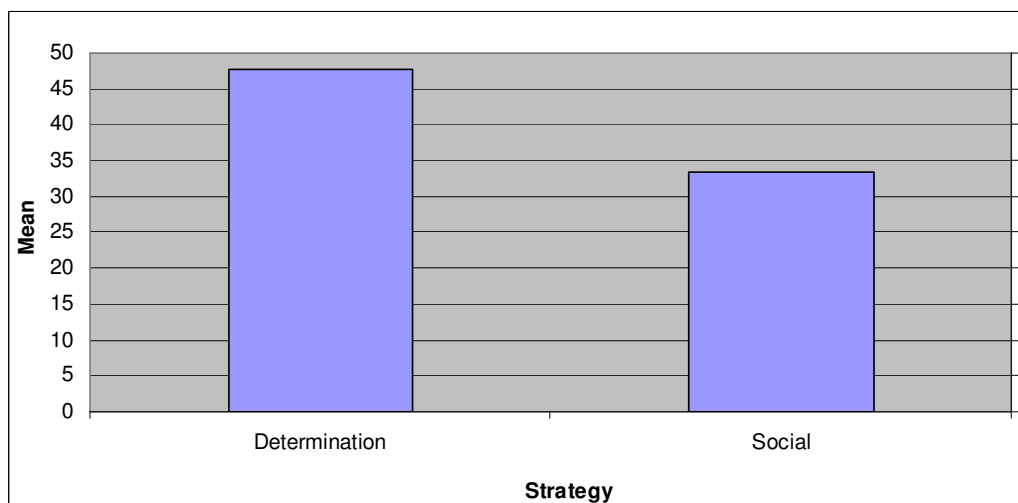


Figure 3. Use of discovery strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

4.6.1.1.1. Participants' Use of Discovery-Determination Strategies

The questionnaire included nine strategies for discovering the meaning of words without asking other people for help. As shown in table 14, the highest used learning strategies are: analysis of any available pictures (a mean of 75.83), check for L1 cognates (a mean of 75.42), and analysis of gestures (a mean of 68.33). Participants' selections seem to reflect the teaching and learning practices which take place in the classroom. In other words, if teachers explain meaning by giving pictures, L1 cognates, and/or gestures, then this is what learners actually do. This is especially true if we remember that learners' behavior, especially at such a young age, is strictly controlled by the teacher. Hence, learners collectively follow certain strategies to decode the meaning of new words.

More moderately used vocabulary learning strategies are: guessing from textual context, using flash cards, and using bilingual dictionaries. As mentioned earlier, learners try to decode meaning by exploiting the strategies which are suitable to the situation of the classroom. An example of such strategies are guessing meaning from

textual context which received a frequency mean of 54.03 points and looking at flash cards which scored a mean of 46.65 points. The relatively average use of flash cards could be attributed to the fact that teachers do not use flash cards to explain all new words. They mostly use them to explain the meaning of words which occur in the vocabulary sections of the textbook. Nonetheless, the researcher observed, in some classroom situations, a lack of consistency in using flashcards even with vocabulary section words. Next, learners reported a relatively moderate frequency index in using bilingual dictionaries (a mean of 43.61 points). This is because the use of bilingual dictionaries is simply not a part of the classroom routine.

Analyzing parts of speech or affixes and roots have gained a low frequency mean. Nonetheless, the analysis of parts of speech was relatively higher than the analysis of affixes and roots with a mean of 38.89 points for the former and a mean of 20.14 points for the latter. Again, learners' use of certain strategies reflects the type of practices which takes place in the classroom. For some teachers occasionally comment on the part of speech of words especially when teaching grammar. This is supported by the textbook which indicates the word part of speech in grammar sections. By comparison, the analysis of affixes and roots does not seem to take place neither in the classroom nor in the textbook.

Finally, and in accordance with the researcher's expectations, participants have reported an extremely low use of monolingual dictionaries (a mean of 5.42 points. Actually, many participants have asked about the meaning of monolingual dictionaries which means that they are unaware of their existence. Those who recognized them, have considered them extremely difficult for their own level. They preferred, instead, to use bilingual dictionaries. This is consistent with AL-Fuhaid's

findings (2004). Table 14 and figure 4. below give a description of participants' self-reported use of discovery- determination strategies.

Table 14

Participants' Reported Use of Discovery-Determination Strategies

Discovery strategies (Determination)	Frequency responses					Mean	S. D.
	^a A/%	O/%	S/%	R/%	N/%		
Analyze part of speech	12/6.6	25/13.8	55/30.5	47/26.1	41/22.7	38.89	29.45
Analyze affixes and roots	7/3.8	17/9.4	13/7.2	40/22.2	103/57.2	20.14	28.96
Check of L1 cognate	80/44.4	51/28.3	27/15	16/8.8	6/3.3	75.42	28.26
Analyze any available pictures	83/46.1	46/25.5	31/17.2	14/7.7	6/3.3	75.83	27.95
Analyze any available gestures	6/3.3	29/16.1	34/18.8	49/27.	62/34.4	68.33	29.73
Guess from textual context	33/18.3	52/28.8	33/18.3	35/19.4	27/15	54.03	33.54
Monolingual dictionary	3/1.6	3/1.6	0/0	18/10	156/86.6	5.42	17.18
Bilingual dictionary	31/17.2	30/16.6	33/18.3	34/18.8	52/28.8	43.61	36.62
Flash cards	30/54	25/13.8	46/25.5	47/26.1	31/17.2	46.65	33.14

Note. ^aA= Always; O= Often; S= sometimes; R= rarely; and N= never.

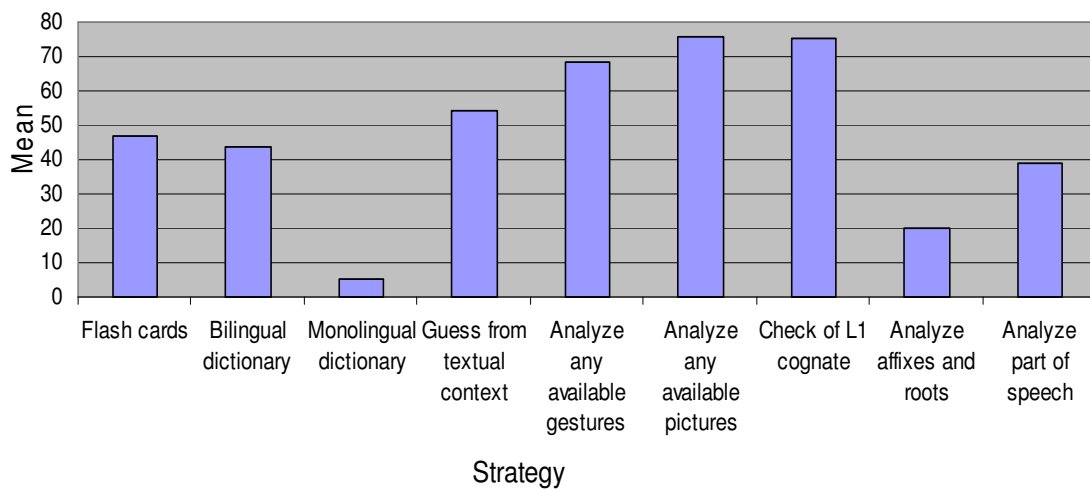


Figure 4. Use of discovery-determination strategies by 1st intermediate learners

4.6.1.1.2. Participants' Use of Discovery-Social Strategies

The questionnaire investigated five strategies for discovering new word meaning through using other peoples' expertise. The strategy of asking teachers for an L1 translation was the most frequently used social strategy with a frequency mean of 57.40 points. The researcher spoke to many teachers about their views on providing L1 translations to beginner learners. Many of them expressed their support of giving L1 translations, others said that they allow learners to get the translation indirectly by asking any learner, who knows the translation, to give it to the rest of the class. As such, learners might feel comfortable when asking teachers for L1 translations, because they think that they, i.e. teachers, are already obliged to give them translations. A similar type of comfort may not exist when asking for sentences or explanations; perhaps because translations help to satisfy a necessary or an immediate need which is knowing meaning, whereas sentences or explanations present extra or

additional information. This is expressed by learners' low use of asking teachers to give sentences, which had a mean of 24.16 points and asking them to give explanations, which received a mean of 14.72 points. Participants preferred instead to ask classmates for meaning (a mean of 35.42 points) or to interact with classmates in group activities (a mean of 35.28 points). These findings are consistent with Schmitt's (1997) and AL-Fuhaid's (2004) findings. Table 15 and figure 5. below show in detail participants' self-reported use of discovery- social strategies.

Table 15

Participants' Reported Use of Discovery-Social Strategies

Discovery strategies	Frequency responses					Mean	S. D.
(social)	A%	O/%	S/%	R/%	N/%		
Ask teacher for an L1 translation	35/19.4	47/26	43/23.8	44/24.4	10/5.5	57.40	29.94
Ask teacher to explain the new word	4/2.2	12/6.6	12/6.6	30/16.6	122/67.7	14.72	25.59
Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word	11/6.1	17/9.4	21/11.6	36/20	94/52.2	24.16	31.45
Ask classmates for meaning	9/5	19/10.5	43/23.8	76/42.2	33/18.3	35.42	26.54
Discovering new meaning through group work activity	18/10	25/13.8	30/16.6	47/26.1	60/33.3	35.28	33.50

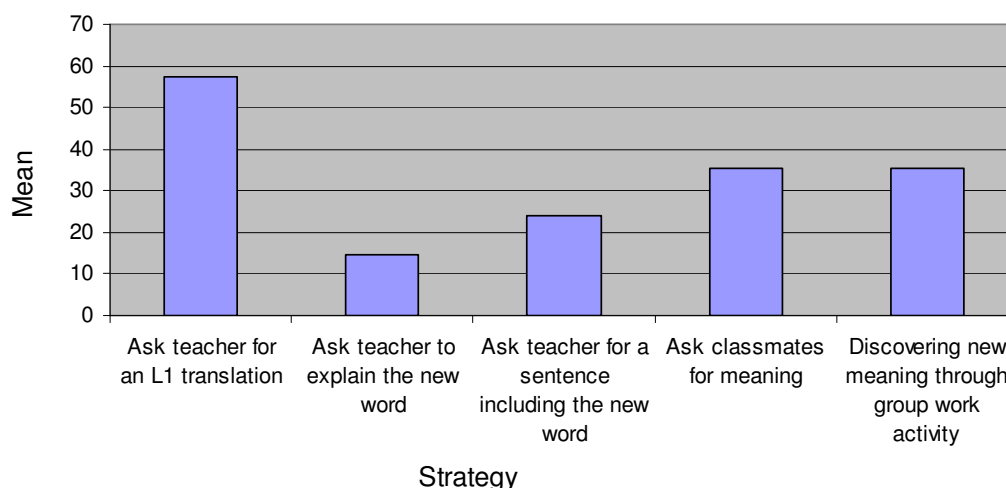


Figure 5. Use of discovery-social strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

4.6.1.1.3. Summary of Findings on Discovery Strategies

1. The five most frequently used discovery strategies, i.e. those which gained a frequency mean above 50, are (in descending order): (1) analyzing any available pictures (a mean of 75.83 points), (2) checking of L1 cognates (a mean of 75.42 points), (3) analyzing any available gestures (a mean of 68.33 points), (4) asking teacher for an L1 translation (a mean of 57.40 points), and (5) guessing from textual context (a mean of 54.03 points).
2. Five strategies received a frequency mean less than 50 and above 25 and they are (in descending order): (1) using flash cards (46.65 points), (2) using a bilingual dictionary (43.61 points), (3) analyzing part of speech (38.89 points), (4) asking classmates for meaning (35.42 points), and (5) discovering new meaning through group work activity (35.28 points).
3. The discovery strategies rated least frequent are (in descending order): (1) asking teacher for a sentence including the new word (24.16 points), (2) analyzing affixes

and roots (20.14 points), (3) asking the teacher to explain new words (14.72 points), and (4) monolingual dictionary (5.42 points).

4.6.2. Consolidation Strategies

The questionnaire included thirty five consolidation strategies belonging to four strategy categories. As provided in table 16, Schmitt (1997) states that there are three social strategies, twenty memory strategies, eight cognitive strategies, and four metacognitive strategies.

Table 16

An Excerpt of Schmitt's Taxonomy (Strategies for Consolidating a Word Once it has Been Encountered)

Strategy group	
<i>Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered</i>	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group.
SOC	Teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy.
SOC	Interact with native-speakers.
MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning.
MEM	Image word meaning.
MEM	Connect word to a personal experience.
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
MEM	Use semantic maps
MEM	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives
MEM	Peg Method
MEM	Loci Method

MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Group words together spatially on a page
MEM	Use new words in sentences
MEM	Group words together within a storyline
MEM	Study the spelling of a word
MEM	Study the sound of a word
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
MEM	Image word form
MEM	Underline initial letter of the word
MEM	Configuration
MEM	Use Keyword Method
MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)
MEM	Part of speech (remembering)
MEM	Paraphrase the word meaning
MEM	Use cognates in study
MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
MEM	Use semantic feature grids
COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Flash cards
COG	Take notes in class
COG	Use the vocabulary section in your textbook
COG	Listen to tape of word lists

COG	Put English labels on physical objects
COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook
MET	Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
MET	Testing oneself with word tests
MET	Use spaced word practice
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time

4.6.2.1. Participants' Use of Consolidation Strategies

Overall, participants' self-reported use of consolidation strategies gives a mean of 43.14 points, which is roughly in line with their reported use of discovery strategies. In detail, metacognitive strategies came top with a frequency mean of 47.64 points. Cognitive and memory strategies came next with a mean of 44.97 points and a mean of 42.37 points respectively. As in the case of discovery strategies, social strategies came last with a mean of 37.41 points. Table 18 gives a description of participants' self-reported use of Consolidation strategies.

Table 17

A Comparison of Discovery and Consolidation Strategies Mean Scores

Strategy Group	Mean
1- Discovery	42.52
2- Consolidation	43.14

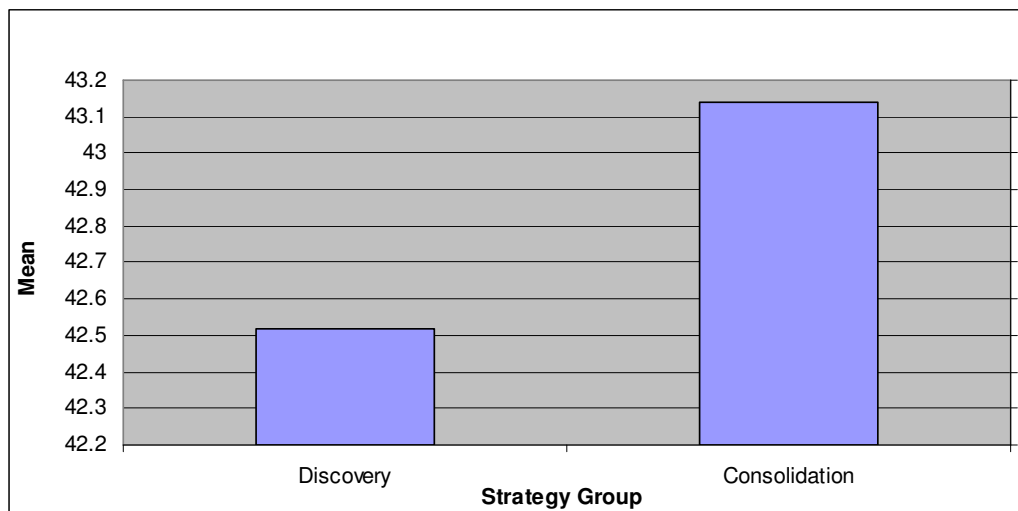


Figure 6. Use of discovery and consolidation strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

Table 18

Participants' Reported Use of Consolidation Strategies

Strategy	Mean
1- Metacognitive	47.64
2- Cognitive	44.97
3- memory	42.37
4- social	37.41

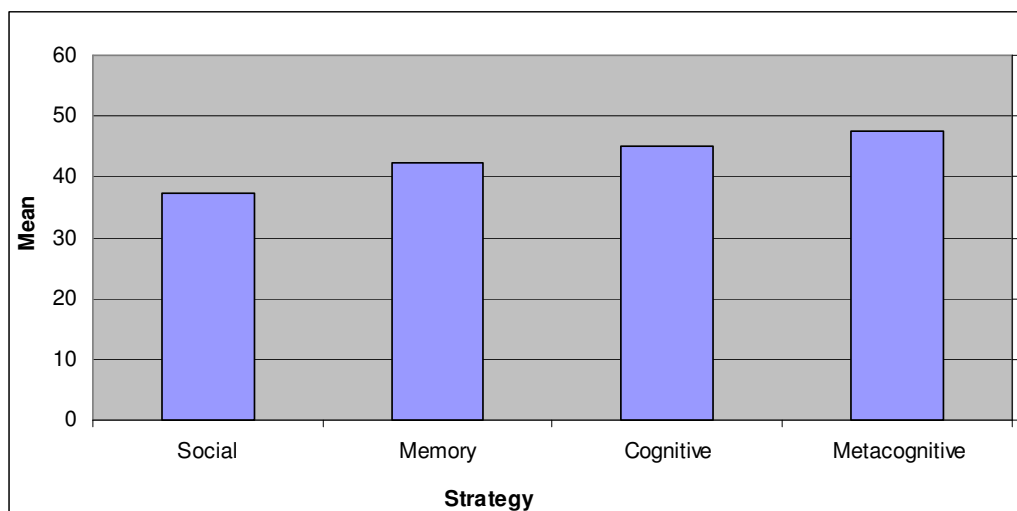


Figure 7. Use of consolidation strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

4.6.2.1.1. Participants' Use of Consolidation-Social Strategies

As mentioned earlier, social strategies are the least used consolidation strategies. In detail, the strategy of practicing meaning in groups scored a relatively low mean which is 30.14 points. This agrees with previous research findings (e.g., Schmitt, 1997; AL-Fuhaid, 2004). This is probably because the study was conducted at government schools which usually suffer from jammed classes or classes that have narrow spaces and large number of learners. For instance, the number of learners have exceeded forty five learners in some classes in this study. Since this is the case in many schools, teachers might find it difficult to manage the class and maintain order while allowing learners to work in pairs or in groups. In addition, although the textbook gives plenty of pair and group work activities, teachers find such activities time consuming. They believe that they are obliged to finish many activities within a limited period of time, and that group work activities are simply a luxury they cannot afford. Hence, they prefer to carry out single activities that engage the whole class in a way that both maintains order and spares some time. An example of such an activity

would be using flashcards. As the findings of the current study indicate, practicing flash cards with teachers is the most frequently used consolidation-social strategy. The mean for this strategy was 47.92 points. On the other hand, interacting with native speakers collected more points than the researcher expected. In spite of the scarcity of native speakers in the region of AL-Hassa, participants have given a frequency mean of 34.17 points for interacting with native speakers. The researcher assumes that participants misunderstood the difference between native speakers and the foreign expatriates who live in AL-Hassa. For it is well known that many Saudis use English, or Arabic gulf pidgin which is in turn full of borrowings from the English language, as a means of interaction with the workers who come from the south and south eastern parts of Asia. Table 19 and figure 8. give further details with regard to participants' use of consolidation-social strategies.

Table 19

<i>Participants' Reported Use of Consolidation-Social Strategies</i>							
Consolidation strategies	Frequency responses					Mean	S.D.
(social)	A/%	O/%	S/%	R/%	N/%		
Practice meaning in a group	9/5	20/11.1	33/18.3	55/30.5	63/35	30.14	29.50
Practice with teacher using flashcards	22/12.2	38/21.1	45/25	53/29.4	22/12.2	47.92	30.46
Interact with native speakers	23/12.7	23/12.7	24/13.3	37/20.5	73/40.5	34.17	36.03

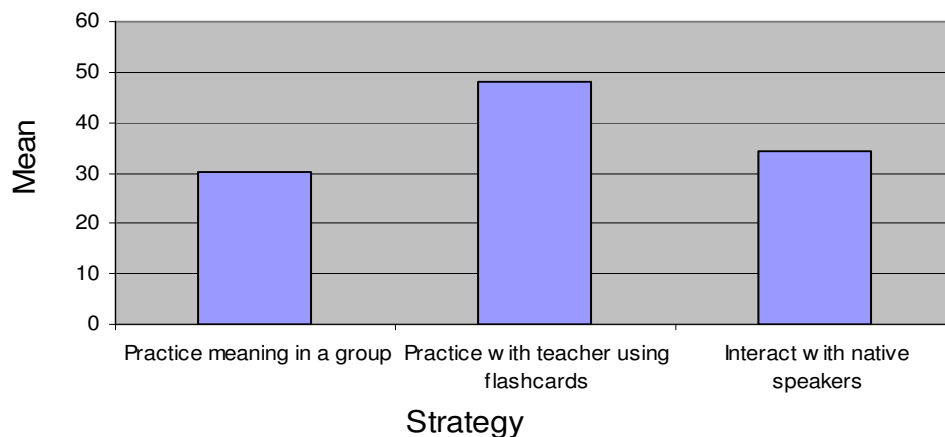


Figure 8. Use of consolidation-social strategies.

4.6.2.1.2. Participants' Use of Consolidation- Memory Strategies

The questionnaire investigated twenty strategies which assist memory in consolidating newly learned vocabulary items. The strategy of using cognates or L1 translations received a very high frequency mean score which is 86.30 points. This is consistent with learners' selection of asking teachers for L1 translations, which was the highest selected discovery-social strategy. In both cases, learners demonstrated their emphasis on obtaining and memorizing L1 translations. This reflects the very long tradition of using translations in foreign language teaching in KSA. According to AL-Hujailan (2003, p. 12-15), dual-language translations were extremely predominant in language teaching from the year of 1944 to the year of 1979.

The strategies which help to capture the spelling, sound, and meaning aspects of words have gained a frequency mean of fifty and above. They came in the following order: study the spelling of a word (62.64 points), image word form (62.01 points), study the sound of a word (56.94), image word meaning (50.69 points), say new word aloud when studying (50.42 points), peg method (50 points), and study word with a

pictorial representation of its meaning (48.89 points). The frequent use of the strategies which support the spelling of words repeats Schmitt (1997) and AL-Fuhaid's (2004) findings. Obviously, learning the spelling of words is a priority to learners. This is probably because the main evaluation tool, which is the test, requires learners to be able to write words appropriately. In addition, the researcher has noticed from the several classes she attended, that teachers usually introduce words by writing them on the board, or by showing learners flash cards of written words, and then asking them to spell the words individually, in groups and chorally. After asking teachers for the reason behind this, they stated that this method is used to make sure learners have acquired the English alphabet. This came in response to several experiences with learners who have reached the third grade without learning the alphabet. Though not intentional, the consequence was training learners to focus on spelling.

As to participants' reported use of certain memory strategies like studying the sound of the word, saying new words aloud and peg method, it appears that learners are affected by two things. First, learners are well aware, by experience, of the active role aural repetition has on storing and retrieving data. Several studies confirmed the active role repetition has on memory in vocabulary recall (e.g., Dempster, 1987; Bloom & Shuell, 1981). Second, the use of the new English curriculum which has a phonics lesson in each unit must have had a great impact on learners' appreciation of phonetics and the way words are pronounced.

In addition, it has been found that participants' focus on meaning comes hand in hand with their focus on form. This seems rational because meaning and form are two highly associated aspects of word knowledge. It makes no sense to memorize the form of any given word without linking it to a particular concept, idea, or object. Similarly,

one can not claim to know a word, especially belonging to a foreign language, without remembering its spoken or written representation.

All in all, the results in the above section support Ryan's (1997) consideration of sound, meaning, and spelling as lower order skills in the word-recognition hierarchy and that using bottom-up processing before mastering higher order skills is vital especially for low-level learners.

The rest of memory-consolidating strategies have been reported to be less frequently used by learners because they collected less than 50 points in the frequency mean index. Below is a discussion of these strategies according to their descending order. Associating a word with its coordinates has received a relatively medium frequency mean which is 42.92 points. A logical explanation for this could be related to the way vocabulary items are organized and presented in the textbook. New words are presented not in sentences but in groups that belong to the same semantic field like family, occupation, color etc. To illustrate, although the words are presented under a single topic, they are decontextualized in the sense that they are not presented as a part of a larger unit like the sentence or the paragraph. Of course, for some words this word decontextualization is temporary because they appear later on in conversations or reading passages. However, for most of the words this is not the case. The next learning strategy is configuration and it received a frequency mean of 39.58 points. This repeats the findings of Schmitt (1997). As mentioned earlier, the textbook does not consist mainly of running lines. For the most part, new words are highlighted by being presented under pictures or by being grouped in small colorful word lists. As such, learners need not to underline words. They only need to do so when they face words in conversations or reading passages which consume a small space of the textbook. Using physical action when learning a word has also gained a

relatively low frequency mean of 39.39 points. An examination of the lexical items in the textbook has shown that learners do not quite often encounter words that can be physically acted out. Certainly, there are certain phrases like stand up, pick up, close the door etc., but they are rare in comparison with the words which refer to concrete objects and abstract concepts.

Connecting a word to its antonyms has likewise received a low frequency index which is 37.85. However, this rating is higher than the one received for linking synonyms. This is probably because learners find it more economical to learn words with different meanings than words with the same meaning. To explain more, when learners associate antonyms, they attempt to consolidate two words which are only linked by oppositeness in meaning as apposed to synonyms which express more or less the same meaning. Unquestionably, learners, especially at such an early stage, are interested in developing a survival language or a language that has a small number of words that can cover many meanings. Grouping words together to study them has also obtained a low frequency mean which is 37.43 points. This is probably related to the topical organization of the textbook which allows lexical items to be presented in groups. In other words, the task of grouping words seems unnecessary because they are already given in groups. The strategy of connecting a word to a personal experience was not quite popular either. It got a frequency mean of 37.29 points. This conforms with the findings of Schmitt (1997). Several reasons could be behind their selection. For instance, this strategy requires a great deal of imagination and mental effort on the part of the learner as opposed to easier strategies like focusing on word form or saying words aloud. In other words, learners are more accustomed to direct ways that help them keep focused on form, sound and meaning. Further, linking words to personal experience might lead to counter results. Instead of focusing on the

word, learners could lose attention by recollecting personal experiences. Remembering affixes and roots and part of speech have also been reported to be rarely used by respondents. These two strategies collected a frequency mean of 29.72 and 27.93 points, respectively. Their low use as consolidation strategies seems to be consistent with their infrequent use as discovery strategies.

Finally, the least used consolidation-memory strategies are paraphrasing word meaning, using new words in sentence, connecting word to its synonyms, and using semantic maps. Paraphrasing word meaning gained 26.11 points in the frequency mean index; using new words in sentences received 24.30 points; and connecting synonyms received 22.21 points. The infrequent use of these strategies can be justified on the grounds that learners' repertoire of vocabulary does not allow them to give sophisticated or elaborate uses of language whether in terms of synonyms or sentences. This is especially true if we remember that words are not given in sentences but in groups of words belonging to the same semantic field. Finally, using semantic maps came last with 15.08 points. This supports Schmitt (1997) and AL-Fuhaid's (2004) findings. Table 20 and figure 9. below give a more detailed description of respondents' reported use of consolidation-memory strategies.

Table 20

Participants' Reported Use of Consolidation-Memory Strategies

Consolidation strategies (memory)	Frequency responses					Mean	S. D.
	A*/%	O/%	S/%	R/%	N/%		
Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning	35/19.4	27/15	42/23.3	47/26.1	29/16.1	48.89	33.92
Image word meaning	36/20	37/20.5	35/19.4	40/22.2	32/17.7	50.69	34.90

Connect word to a personal experience	16/8.8	31/17.2	33/18.3	41/22.7	56/31.1	37.29	33.40
Associate word with its coordinates	18/10	37/20.5	41/22.7	44/24.4	40/22.2	42.92	32.28
Connect word to its synonyms	6/3.3	11/6.1	29/16.1	44/24.4	89/49.4	22.21	27.39
Connect word to its antonyms	15/8.3	32/17.7	28/15.5	59/32.7	45/25	37.85	31.83
Use semantic maps	7/3.8	8/4.4	14/7.7	28/15.5	122/67.7	15.08	26.68
Peg method	44/24.4	30/16.6	29/16.1	35/19.4	42/23.3	49.86	37.79
Image word form	59/32.7	37/20.5	30/16.6	37/20.5	16/8.8	62.01	34.17
Group words together to study them	17/9.4	27/15	44/24.4	31/17.2	60/33.3	37.43	33.55
Use new word in sentence	10/5.5	8/4.4	23/12.7	63/35	74/41.1	24.30	27.79
Say new word aloud when studying	38/21.1	35/19.4	36/20	32/17.7	38/21.1	50.42	36.09
Configuration	29/16.1	22/12.2	28/15.5	47/26.1	54/30	39.58	35.93
Part of speech (remembering)	13/7.2	14/7.7	28/15.5	50/27.7	74/41.1	27.93	30.93
Affixes and roots (remembering)	12/6.6	28/15.5	21/11.6	40/22.2	79/43.8	29.72	33.08
Paraphrase the word meaning	6/3.3	21/11.6	25/13.8	51/28.3	77/42.7	26.11	28.92
Use physical action when learning a word	22/12.2	22/12.2	40/22.2	48/26.6	47/26.1	39.39	33.19

Use cognates in study	75/41.6	34/18.8	30/16.6	27/15	13/7.2	86.30	33.36
Study the sound of a word	44/24.4	39/21.6	42/23.3	33/18.3	22/12.2	56.94	33.53
Study the spelling of a word	61/33.8	33/18.3	39/21.6	30/0	17/9.4	62.64	33.89

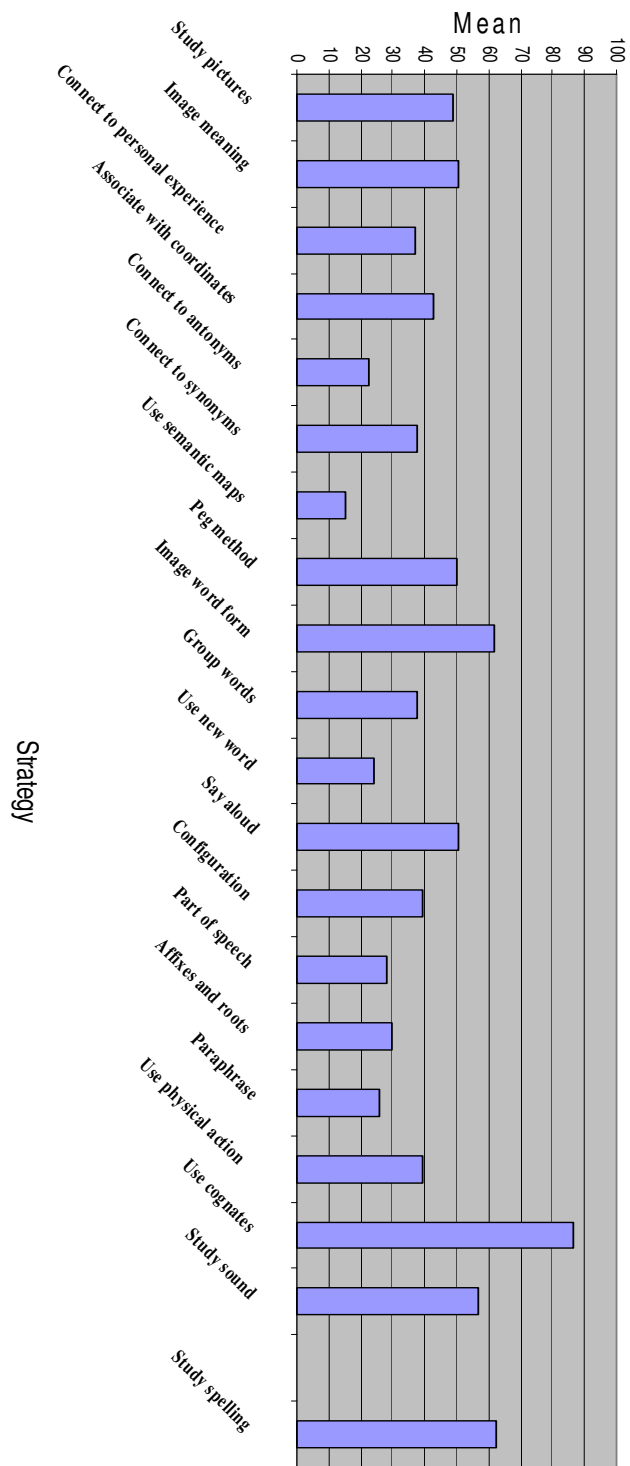


Figure 9. Use of consolidation-memory strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

4.6. 2.1.3. Participants' Use of Consolidation-Cognitive Strategies

The questionnaire included eight cognitive strategies united by a common feature which is "the manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learners" (Oxford, 1990, p. 43). The most popular of these are written repetitions (71.67 points), listening to teachers (70.67 points), and verbal repetitions (54.86 points). The use of written and verbal repetitions conforms with the findings of Schmitt (1997) and AL-Fuhaid (2004). Overall, the frequent use of the above strategies is in line with the high frequency of related strategies like studying the sound of words, studying the spelling of words, and saying words aloud.

Less frequently used vocabulary strategies are taking notes (48.61 points), using 'word banks' (44.17 points), and putting English labels on physical objects (32.92 points). Respondents have reported a medium use of taking notes probably because the textbook covers the main aspects of words, like meaning, which is demonstrated through pictures, and spelling. Hence, it seems that learners add notes only where necessary. Participants' selections in this regard confirm Schmitt's (1997) findings. Respondents have also reported a relatively moderate use of 'word banks' which are a part of the textbook. This is probably because 'word banks' reinforce items which are already grouped and presented with colorful pictures. The next in line is associating words with physical objects. Here, it is important to mention that not all items can be readily attached to physical objects for there are a large number of abstract words in the textbook. If we overlook the abstract words and reflect on the situation of the classroom or even the home, we will find that bringing a real object for each new concrete word is both unfeasible and time consuming. Certainly, there are some words that can be easily linked to available objects like *chairs*, *desks* and *windows* in the

classroom or *orange*, *dresser* and *belt* at home, but these are rare in comparison to the rest of the words.

The least used consolidation-cognitive strategies are keeping a notebook (21.51 points), and using self designed flash cards (15.36 points). Most respondents have reported that they never used a special vocabulary notebook or self-designed flash cards in their study. Unfortunately, the use of a vocabulary notebook or self-designed flashcards is often neglected by teachers. It is true that these two strategies are time consuming and that they require hard work and determination on part of learners, but they are definitely worthwhile. This is because they can help raise self autonomy in language learners and because they are based on the needs of learners.

For extra details see table 21 and figure 10.below.

Table 21

Participants' Reported Use of Consolidation-Cognitive Strategies

Consolidation strategies	Frequency responses					Mean	S.D.
(Cognitive)	A*/%	O/%	S/%	R/%	N/%		
Verbal repetition	47/26.1	38/21.1	27/15	39/21.6	29/16.11	54.86	36.14
Written repetition	87/48.3	35/19.4	18/10	27/15	13/7.2	71.67	33.78
Flash cards	6/3.3	9/5	14/7.7	31/17.2	119/66.1	15.36	26.26
Take notes	37/20.5	32/17.7	34/18.8	38/21.1	39/21.7	48.63	36.11
Put English labels on physical objects	13/7.2	28/15.5	30/16.6	41/22.7	68/37.7	32.92	32.84
Use word bank	32/17.7	22/12.2	42/23.3	40/22.2	44/24.4	44.17	35.26
Listen to teacher	72/40	45/25	30/16.6	23/12.7	9/5	70.67	30.76
Keep a notebook	21/11.6	5/2.7	16/8.8	23/12.7	114/63.3	21.51	34.32

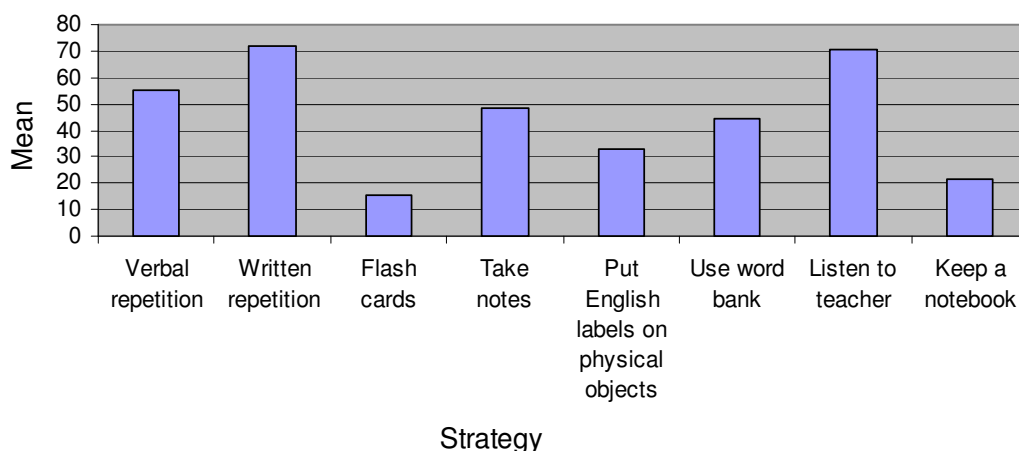


Figure 10. Use of consolidation-cognitive strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

4.6.2.1.4. Participants' Use of Consolidation-Metacognitive Strategies

Four metacognitive strategies have been examined using the questionnaire. Two strategies received the same frequency mean which is 56.39 and they are testing oneself and continuing to study over time. Contrary to the researcher's expectations, about 90 respondents have selected 'always' and 'often' to describe their use of self tests and their ability to study words over time. The relatively high use of testing oneself could be related to participants' concern about quizzes, midterms and final exams. Learners give great importance to these tests to the point that they practice tests all the time to train themselves and to be prepared for real tests. Continuing to study over time can also be related to tests. Learners are required to study everything from the beginning of the book to the end in final exams. They are also required to study four chapters for the midterm. In addition, they are asked to study four lessons, or a whole chapter, for quizzes and tests. This is not to mention the reviews which are given after every three units and the daily

classroom evaluation. All of this drives learners to study words over time. Next, skipping or passing has confirmed Schmitt's (1997) and AL-Fuhaid's findings by receiving a mean of 41.67 points. If we attempt to link this to respondents' results in the achievement test, where learners got better results with words belonging to the vocabulary sections, we will find that learners are more likely to ignore words that occur in the rest of the book as opposed to words occurring in vocabulary sections. Using spaced practice was reported to be the least used metacognitive strategy. It received a frequency mean of 36.11 points. This is somehow unfortunate, for many studies have shown that spaced practice leads to results better than massed practice (e.g., Dempster, 1978; Bloom, 1981). Perhaps this could be compensated for by the review chapter which occurs after every three chapters. For more details look at table 22 and figure 11. below.

Table22

Participants' Self reported Use of Consolidation- Metacognitive Strategies

Consolidation strategies (metacognitive)	Frequency responses					Mean	S. D.
	A/%	O/%	S/%	R/%	N/%		
Testing oneself	51/28.3	38/21.1	30/16.6	28/9.2	33/18.3	56.39	36.91
Use spaced practice	13/7.2	28/15.5	37/20.5	50/11.4	52/28.8	36.11	31.40
Skip or pass	21/11.6	21/11.6	53/29.4	47/16.3	38/21.1	41.67	31.49
Continue to study over time	49/27.2	41/22.7	28/15.5	31/8.6	31/17.2	56.39	36.43

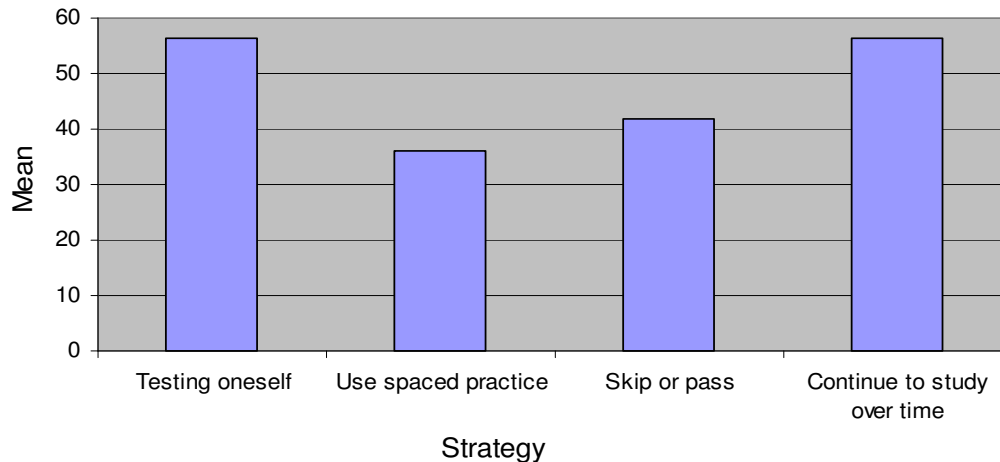


Figure 11. Use of consolidation-metacognitive strategies by 1st intermediate learners.

4.6.2.1.5. Summary of Findings on Consolidation Strategies

1. Thirteen consolidation strategies were found to be used quite frequently, gaining a frequency index above 50. These comprise (in descending order) the strategies of: (1) using cognates in study (86.30 points), (2) writing repetitions (71.67 points), (3) listening to teacher (70.67 points), (4) studying the spelling of a word (62.64 points), (5) imaging word form (62.01 points), (6) studying the sound of a word (56.94 points), (7) continuing to study over time (56.39 points), (8) testing oneself (56.39 points), (9) verbal repetition (54.86 points), (10) imaging word meaning (50.69 points), (11) saying new words aloud when studying (50.42 points), (13) peg method (49.86 points), and studying word with a pictorial representation of its meaning (48.89 points).
2. Sixteen consolidation strategies have occupied a middle position in terms of frequency, receiving points under 50 and above 25 and they are as follows: (1) practice with teacher using flashcards (47.92 points), (2) use word banks

(44.17 points), (3) skip or pass (41.67 points), (4) associate word with its coordinates (42.92 points), (5) use physical action when learning a word (39.39 points), (6) configuration (39.58 points), (7) connect word to its antonyms (37.85 points), (8) group words together to study them (37.43 points), (9) connect word to a personal experience (37.29 points), (10) use spaced practice (36.11 points), (11) interact with native speakers (34.17 points), (12) put English labels on physical objects (32.92 points), (13) practice meaning in a group (30.14 points), (14) remembering affixes and roots (29.72 points), (15) remembering part of speech (27.93 points), and (16) paraphrase word meaning (26.11 points).

3. Five consolidation strategies received mean scores under 25 and they are as follows: (1) use new word in sentence (24.30 points), (2) self designed flash cards (15.36 points), (3) keep a notebook (21.51 points), (4) connect word to its synonyms (22.21 points), and (5) use semantic maps(15.08 points).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a brief summary and a discussion of research findings. It also presents a number of pedagogical applications and recommendations that should help EFL learners increase their vocabulary size. Furthermore, it offers a number of suggestions for future research in the field of vocabulary acquisition.

5.1. Summary

This section provides a summary of research findings. To start with, the findings have shown that textbook coverage of the 1st thousand words of English is extremely poor; only 5.6% of the words were covered. By contrast, the 2nd thousand high frequency words had a higher percentage of coverage in both volumes which is 25.8%. Surprisingly, the words which existed outside the lists received the highest percentage of coverage which is 76.5%. The findings of the present study also showed that the majority of the fifty highest frequent words are function words. The remaining words, which are content words, belonged to instructional language (e.g. listen, look, hear, and write), grammar (e.g. word, name, and question), school (e.g. teacher, student, and school) and general topics (e.g. time, food, house, and family). Furthermore, it has been found that most of the words in the textbook occur less than ten times. There are about 711 low frequency words in the 1st volume and 1131 words in the second. By contrast, there are 171 high frequency words in the 1st volume, and 177 in the second.

Moreover, the results indicated that the one thousand vocabulary size of sixth elementary grade participants was 13.86%. At the end of 1st intermediate school, their

vocabulary size increased to around 14.09%. This means that participants' one thousand vocabulary size gained a marginal increase of around 0.23%. As to the 2nd thousand vocabulary size of 1st intermediate participants, the percentage was 4.84%. Hence, it is clear that participants' one thousand vocabulary development was extremely poor at the end of 1st intermediate school. If their one thousand vocabulary size, which is 14.09%, was compared to textbook range, which is 5.6%, we will find that their vocabulary size surprisingly exceeded what was presented in the textbook. Still, they are far behind in attaining the one thousand vocabulary level. By comparison, participants' 2nd thousand word size, which was 4.84%, was substantially smaller than the range of two thousand items in the textbook, which was 25.8%.

As to participants' achievement, it has been found that the average participant knows at least 40% of the items presented in the textbook. Moreover, participants gained higher scores with the items presented in the *vocabulary sections* of the textbook (a mean of 75.82) as opposed to their scores in the vocabulary items found in the rest of the textbook (a mean of 31.84). This indicates that participants do not acquire all the items presented in the textbook. It also shows that participants do not treat all the words found in the textbook equally. They are more likely to focus on the items which occur in the vocabulary sections as opposed to the rest of the items.

In relation to vocabulary learning strategies, it has been found that participants' use of discovery strategies is in line with their use of consolidation strategies; with a mean of 42.52 for the former, and a mean of 43.14 for the latter. Speaking about the most common strategies, participants reported a high use of two discovery strategies, which are (1) analyzing any available pictures (with a mean of 75.83 points), and (2) checking of L1 cognates (with a mean of 75.42 points), and one consolidation strategy which is using cognates in study (with a mean of 86.30 points). These were the only

strategies which received a frequency mean above 75 points. On the other hand, five consolidation strategies received mean scores under 25 and they are as follows: (1) using new words in sentence (24.30 points), (2) flash cards (15.36 points), (3) keeping a notebook (21.51 points), (4) connecting the word to its synonyms (22.21 points), and (5) using semantic maps (15.08 points). The discovery strategies rated least frequent are: (1) asking the teacher for a sentence including the new word (24.16 points), (2) analyzing affixes and roots (20.14 points), (3) asking the teacher to explain new words (14.72 points), and (4) monolingual dictionary (5.42 points).

5.2. Discussion

Four questions have been placed in this study. This section provides a discussion of the answers of these questions.

Q1.What is the vocabulary range and frequency in the first intermediate English textbook?

This question relates to the coverage of the 1st and 2nd thousand high frequency vocabulary items in the 1st intermediate English textbook. It also pertains to the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in the textbook. Particularly, it deals with the 50 most frequent words as well as the overall repetition of vocabulary items in the textbook. The results of the present study indicate that there is a low coverage of the two thousand high frequency words in the textbook. This could be related to the objectives of the textbook which do not consider basic vocabulary as a criterion for vocabulary selection. In fact, there are no clear objective criteria for the inclusion or exclusion of lexical items. To illustrate, textbook writers stated that the vocabulary goals of the textbook are to help learners "read material with common words and simple grammatical constructions" and "meet limited practical writing needs by recombining learned vocabulary and structures into simple sentences." (Educational

development center, 2004, p. 6). As noticed, the word 'common' was used to describe the vocabulary items included in the textbook under analysis. Since there is no technical definition that clearly identifies the characteristics of a 'common' word, we can only assume that words were selected according to their suitability to the functions and notions provided in the textbook. For it seems to be quite logical for textbook writers to select words that suit the curriculum and teaching methods of the textbook, i.e. the Communicative Approach and more specifically the Functional Notional Approach. However, the selection of 'common words' that revolve around certain functions and notions needs to be guided by a clear objective criterion, which is frequency, or else it will be open to subjective and haphazard decisions.

The second part of the question relates to the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary items in the textbook under study. As has been found, the fifty highest frequent words in the textbook are function words. It is logical for function items to occur more frequently than the rest of the items because of their belonging to the closed set. The closed set includes a small number of vocabulary items that are highly recurrent. By comparison, content words belong to an open set which includes a large and probably an unlimited number of vocabulary items. As such, their frequency of occurrence in any text will be lower than function items. Most of the content words which were highly recurrent were extremely relevant to the classroom situation, e.g. teacher, student, school, listen etc. Undoubtedly, the language of the classroom is different from other varieties of language. Halliday and Hasan's (1985) use of the term 'register' which is defined as "a variety of language, corresponding to a variety of situation" (p. 38) may be relevant here. Halliday and Hasan (1985) classify registers into two types: open and closed. They state that closed registers include a finite number of messages, e.g. the international language of the air. Open registers, on the

other hand, include more free and open-ended messages, e.g. the language of the classroom (Halliday & Hassan, 1985, p. 38-40). Classroom language is featured by the use of instructions, explanations, and other types of messages which are relevant to school and education. Hence, it is expected that certain vocabulary items are highly recurrent in classroom language. This also applies to the language of the textbook which is supposed to reflect the types of messages which normally take place in the classroom. As to the high frequency of the rest of content words which revolve around certain topics like time, food, house, and family, there is also a reasonable explanation. The reoccurrence of these items pertains to the functional-notional approach on which the textbook is based. Finally, the low repetition of vocabulary items in the textbook could also be attributed to the objectives of the English curriculum. To explain, if textbook writers considered the development of linguistic points like vocabulary and grammar as marginal, and if they did not consider frequency as a criterion for vocabulary selection, then it would be expected that the textbook will not provide a good coverage nor enough repetitions of high or even low frequency words. Another explanation could be related to the way syllabus designers view the relation between the length of lessons, which is 2 to 3 pages, and the amount of time available in class, which is approximately 45 minutes. The relatively long time assigned to teach short texts allows teachers to repeat words from a limited coverage over and over again. It also allows them to ask students to repeat words chorally, in groups and individually. Let us not forget also that the students, as the findings of the present study indicate, are accustomed to using mechanical vocabulary learning strategies like verbal and written repetitions. All of this might compensate for the lack of repetitions in the textbook.

All in all, it seems that the syllabus designers of the textbook under analysis are unaware of the salience of matters like range and frequency of vocabulary items. This conclusion is based on a number of points. First, textbook writers stated in the course objectives that their goal is to help learners acquire 'common words'. Since the textbook is based on the Communicative Approach, it is assumed that 'common words' are selected according to their suitability to the communicative needs of learners. Hence, the acquisition of the two thousand words of English was not considered in the objectives of the textbook. Furthermore, the RANGE analysis of the textbook showed a low coverage of the two thousand high frequency words. This indicates that the coverage of the two thousand words of English was not considered in the actual selection of words in the textbook. On the other hand, the FREQUENCY analysis showed that there was no plan for the repetition of high or even low frequency words. All of this leads us to the possibility that the textbook writers are not experts in the field of material production.

Q2 .What is the actual size of 1st year intermediate learners' lexicon in terms of vocabulary recognition?

This question pertains to the one thousand vocabulary size of participants pre and post the 1st year of intermediate schooling. It also relates to the two thousand vocabulary size of participants at the end of the 1st intermediate year. As the findings of the present study indicate, there seems to be a lack of balance between what is presented in the textbook and what learners acquire. This could be partially linked to participants' achievement results which will be discussed below. On the other hand, it has been found that learners have a relatively high 1st thousand vocabulary size, as compared to textbook low coverage of the one thousand word level. This can be attributed to a number of factors. First, learners might have been exposed to these

words in a previous stage, which is the elementary stage, but we cannot be sure of that unless an analysis of the range of vocabulary items in the elementary English textbook is carried out. Second, the fact that the English language is an international language predisposes learners to pick up words from different sources. The most salient example of such sources would be the media in all its forms. The second government TV channel is English speaking. It, together with a large number of commercial TV channels, broadcast many children programs, cartoons, and series. Other and equally important sources of English vocabulary items would be the internet, magazines, store frontages, goods labels, gift cards and so on. Third, let us not forget that the local dialect is affected by the establishment of the Arabian Oil Company (Aramco) and the presence of Americans since the 1930s. A large number of words are borrowed from the English language. Some of these words occurred in the 1st thousand word level test like chief, handle, juice, promise, and impossible. Fourth, learners might have relied on their knowledge of the Arabic pidgin used in the gulf, which is characterized by extensive borrowings from the English language. It is possible that the effect of these sources will be less on the acquisition of words belonging to the 2nd thousand word level due to their low frequency in comparison to the 1st thousand words. Furthermore, the mismatch between the coverage of two thousand words in the textbook and learners' vocabulary size could be related to the fact that the mere inclusion of words does not necessarily lead to their acquisition. The relationship between what is presented and what is learned will be discussed in detail below.

Q3. How do 1st intermediate learners achieve in both the vocabulary sections of the book and the rest of the book?

This section provides a discussion of participants' results in the achievement test. In particular, it discusses participants' scores in the vocabulary section of the textbook as well as their scores in the vocabulary items found in the rest of the textbook. As found in the results, participants do not acquire all of the items presented in the textbook. In addition, they learn better the items presented in the *vocabulary* sections of the book in comparison with the rest of the items. A possible explanation would be that the vocabulary items found in the *vocabulary sections* receive what Beck, Mckeown and Omanson (1987; cited in Nation, 2001b) call 'rich instruction'. Teachers tend to focus and elaborate on vocabulary section words. They usually ask learners to repeat those words in new lessons and in revisions. Thus, such words are more likely to be intentionally learned by students. By contrast, the rest of the items receive little or no attention from teachers. They are mostly left to be learned incidentally. Another reason behind the unequal learning of vocabulary items could be related to testing. Learners tend to focus more on the items that occur in vocabulary sections because they expect them to occur in tests. This is one of the 'harmful backwash effects' of tests, as Hughes (2003, p. 1) calls them. Generally, learners tend to ignore or overrate certain items depending on their probability of occurring in tests. A harmful backwash effect takes place when learners eliminate the items which do not occur in tests. This negatively affects learners' study. On the other hand, a beneficial backwash effect takes place when learners focus on certain lexical items because they expect them to be used in tests. This positively affects learners' study. To recapitulate, unequal learning of items could be attributed to unequal treatment in both instruction and testing.

Q4. What are the vocabulary learning strategies used most and least frequently by 1st intermediate learners?

This question relates to the vocabulary learning strategies which are the most and least preferred and used by participants at 1st intermediate level. Overall, participant's use of both discovery and consolidation strategies indicates that learners value equally the need to discover the meaning of new words as well as the need to retain and retrieve words for future uses. In detail, the findings have shown a high use of two discovery strategies which are analyzing any available pictures and checking of L1 cognates. This indicates that participants are interested, at first, in gaining surface knowledge of words. They do so by trying to discover one aspect of word knowledge which is meaning. In particular, they use pictures or L1 cognates to refer to meanings that already exist in their native language to help them grasp the meaning of new words. This is not always a harmful technique. In fact, it can ease and facilitate the process of learning new words, since as Swan (1997) stated "they already learnt how one culture categorizes and labels the world" (p.165). Hence, the selective use of translations can sometimes lead to a positive transfer of learning especially if we remember that learners, as has been found in the achievement test, tend to focus on the words which belong to the vocabulary sections of the textbook and which refer to simple and noncomplex meanings that can be easily and directly linked to L1 equivalents e.g. concrete objects, countries, directions, seasons, names of shops etc. Two additional factors prompt learners to use pictures and L1 cognates: the textbook which presents words with pictures and the teachers who are accustomed to give L1 translations to learners. Next, the results showed that participants use L1 cognates for consolidating and remembering the meaning of new words. This somehow indicates a form of interrelationships between strategies. The strategies which are used for one

purpose, which is discovering, could continue to be used for a different purpose, which is consolidation. Again, the use of L1 cognates need not be considered entirely negative. According to Ausubel (1968; cited in Brown, 2000), meaningful learning takes place when new information becomes an integral part of an already established system of knowledge. This is supported by James (1890; also cited in Brown, 2000) who argues that good procession of memory takes place when new facts are associated with old facts in the mind. Nonetheless, it should not be understood from this that learners should rely entirely on translations, or that the use of translations does not sometimes lead to a negative transfer of learning.

Finally, nine discovery and consolidation strategies attained low frequency scores for requiring deep processing of information (e.g. connect word to its synonyms), for requiring much effort on the part of the learner (e.g. keep a notebook), and for being beyond their current level (e.g. monolingual dictionary). For a more detailed discussion of the least and most used strategies see section 4.6.

5.3. Implications and Pedagogical Recommendations

The following implications and recommendations are drawn from the findings of the present study and are generally aimed at advancing EFL learners vocabulary acquisition.

First, the present English curriculum, which extends from 6th grade of elementary school to 3rd grade of secondary school, needs to be modernized in a way that provides a planned sequential presentation and repetition of the 2,000 most frequent vocabulary items. Second, both teachers and learners should be aware of the importance of high frequency vocabulary items. This is necessary for teachers so that they could monitor and examine the growth of their learners' vocabulary size. Learners, on the other hand, need to be informed about their current vocabulary level

so they could take responsibility of their own learning and set objectives with regard to their vocabulary development. In other words, they should see how far they have reached and what more needs to be accomplished in terms of lexical advancement. Third, teachers should be encouraged to focus more on the vocabulary items that occur frequently in the textbook. This is because some teachers presume that the words which occur frequently are known by learners and do not require much instruction. As the findings of the present research indicate, participants have attained higher scores with the vocabulary items which occurred in the vocabulary sections and which have received direct rich instruction as opposed to the rest of the items. The items which do not occur in the vocabulary sections but which occur frequently in the textbook equally deserve rich instruction. Of course, it should not be understood from this that teachers are supposed to give deep instruction to every word they face in the textbook. What is meant is that teachers should sporadically give attention to the items which have occurred frequently and have been superficially internalized by learners. Rich instruction will allow deep processing for those items. Fourth, learners, for the most part, are not familiar with the fact that words have different aspects of knowledge that require different vocabulary learning strategies. Therefore, teachers should draw learners' attention to the depth of word knowledge and train them to use several vocabulary learning strategies. For there are some vocabulary learning strategies that are widely acknowledged as useful skills but which require special training. For example, teachers need to:

- a) Train learners to use several types of dictionaries, e.g. monolingual, bilingual, electronic, computer based etc.
- b) Help learners guess from context through four steps which are: (1) determine the part of speech of the word, (2) look at the immediate grammar, (3) study the wider

context, and (4) guess the word and check the guess (Clark & Nation, 1980, p. 212-213). Effective use of vocabulary learning strategies would help reinforce self autonomy in learners and will subsequently lead to higher gains in vocabulary achievement. Fifth, teachers should encourage learners to make extensive reading of graded readers. Graded readers are a series of books that are designed in a way that strictly controls the level of vocabulary (Nation, 2001b). They are usually divided into a number of levels. Nation (2001b) recommends using Oxford's 'bookworms' series. These types of books will help learners establish already available lexical items and introduce new ones in a carefully planned way.

5.4. Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of the present research show the necessity of conducting more research in the field of textbook vocabulary design and vocabulary acquisition especially in Saudi Arabia. This section provides a list of suggestions for five areas that require detailed investigation:

5.4.1. Range and Frequency

1. In this study, a single textbook which is the first intermediate girl's English textbook was processed through the RANGE and FREQUENCY software. A number of studies can also be carried out to provide and compare the range and frequency of vocabulary items in the English textbooks from 6th grade of elementary school to the final grade of secondary school.
2. Studies should be conducted to see whether there is a difference in the acquisition of vocabulary items that occur less frequently in the textbook but which receive rich instruction, and the vocabulary items that occur more frequently in the textbook but which receive little or no instruction.

3. Additional studies need to be carried out to investigate the relationship between the repetition of vocabulary items and their acquisition.

5.4.2. Vocabulary Size

1. The present study investigated the vocabulary size of learners at the end of 6th grade of elementary school, and 1st year of intermediate school. Other studies need to look at and compare the vocabulary size of learners belonging to the rest of the levels.

2. Further studies need to compare the range of vocabulary items in the rest of the textbooks to learners' receptive vocabulary size.

3. Studies should investigate learners' vocabulary size in terms of production at all levels and compare them to the range of vocabulary items in the textbooks.

4. Additional studies are required to examine learners' vocabulary achievement in terms of what is presented in the textbook at different levels.

5.4.3. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

1. Further studies have to be carried out to look at the difference in the most and least commonly used vocabulary learning strategies by elementary, intermediate, and secondary school students.

2. The current research implemented the questionnaire as a basic tool to collect information on learners' use of vocabulary learning strategies, other research should use further data collection techniques like the think-aloud-technique, interviews etc. to obtain more elaborate explanations on the way strategies work, and the reason behind their selection.

3. Studies need to examine the effect of gender differences on vocabulary learning strategies at different levels.

4. Case studies need to be carried out to have a close look at the difference in number and range of vocabulary learning strategies used by both high achievers, or 'good' language learners, and low achievers, or 'poor' language learners, at different levels.
5. Research on the way vocabulary strategy training affects vocabulary development need to be carried out.

5.4.4. Teachers and Learners

1. A number of evaluation studies should be conducted to examine teachers and learners' beliefs about the most as well as the least useful vocabulary learning strategies.
2. Studies have to look at teachers as well as learners' perceptions about the aspects of word knowledge.

5.4.5. Readers

1. Research on the effect of graded readers on vocabulary advancement has to be carried out.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies.

Appendix 2: The RANGE and FREQUENCY software (Heatly, Nation & Coxhead, 2002).

Appendix 3: The 1st 1,000 word level test (Nation, 2001b).

Appendix 4: The 2nd 1,000 word level test (ibid.).

Appendix 5: An achievement test.

Appendix 6: Vocabulary learning strategies Questionnaire (based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies).

Appendix 1.

Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies.

Strategy group	
<i>Strategies for the discovery of a new word meaning</i>	
DET	Analyze part of speech
DET	Analyze affixes and roots
DET	Check for L1 cognate
DET	Analyze any available pictures or gestures
DET	Guess from textual context
DET	Bilingual dictionary
DET	Monolingual dictionary
DET	Word lists
DET	Flash cards
SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
SOC	Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word
SOC	Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word
SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
SOC	Flash cards
<i>Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered</i>	
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group.
SOC	Teacher checks students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy.
SOC	Interact with native-speakers.
MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning.

MEM	Image word meaning.
MEM	Connect word to a personal experience.
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
MEM	Use semantic maps
MEM	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives
MEM	Peg Method
MEM	Loci Method
MEM	Group words together to study them
MEM	Group words together spatially on a page
MEM	Use new words in sentences
MEM	Group words together within a storyline
MEM	Study the spelling of a word
MEM	Study the sound of a word
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
MEM	Image word form
MEM	Underline initial letter of the word
MEM	Configuration
MEM	Use Keyword Method
MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)
MEM	Part of speech (remembering)
MEM	Paraphrase the word meaning
MEM	Use cognates in study
MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word

MEM	Use semantic feature grids
COG	Verbal repetition
COG	Written repetition
COG	Word lists
COG	Flash cards
COG	Take notes in class
COG	Use the vocabulary section in your textbook
COG	Listen to tape of word lists
COG	Put English labels on physical objects
COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook
MET	Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
MET	Testing oneself with word tests
MET	Use spaced word practice
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time

Appendix 2.

The RANGE and FREQUENCY software.

The software were first designed by Paul Nation and Averil Coxhead at the School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies. The software were, then, programmed by Alex Heatley. The software are available for free on Nation's webpage at <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation/nation.aspx> There you can download a folder that consists of ten parts which are: the Range software, the Frequency software, five text files containing base words, i.e. BABSEWORD1, BASWORD2, BASEWORD3, BASWORD4, and functions, two sample text files, and a Word document file that includes instructions. The RANGE software can provide the coverage of any text by comparing it against word lists. Moreover, the software can analyze every word in any text in terms of "range or distribution figure, headword frequency figure, family frequency figure, and a frequency figure for each of the texts the word occurs in" (Heatly, Nation & Coxhead, 2002, p.1-3). The software also allows making comparisons between texts. This can be done manually by lemmatizing, i.e. creating word families from, all of the words found in the text. The lemmatized list can, then, be compared against any text. The software is able to simultaneously compare up to 32 different texts. On the other hand, the FREQUENCY software can be used to make a frequency or an alphabetical list of all the words that occur in a given text. In detail, it can provide "the rank order of the words, their raw frequency and the cumulative percentage frequency" (Heatly, Nation & Coxhead, 2002, p. 3). Below are two samples of the RANGE and FREQUENCY analyses of the first intermediate English textbook.

The RANGE analysis of the first intermediate girl's English textbook

Number of lines: 1413

Number of words: 7906

WORD LIST	TOKENS/%	TYPES/%	FAMILIES
one	1753/20.3	60/ 4.6	55
two	951/11.0	247/18.9	202
three	96/ 1.1	31/ 2.4	28
not in the lists	5849/67.6	972/74.2	?????
Total	8649	1310	285

Number of BASEWRD1.txt types: 69 Number of BASEWRD1.txt families: 61

Number of BASEWRD2.txt types: 3708 Number of BASEWRD2.txt families: 987

Number of BASEWRD3.txt types: 3107 Number of BASEWRD3.txt families: 570

Table of Ranges: Types

Words appear in 1 input files 1310

Table of Ranges: Families

Words appear in 1 input files 285

Types Found In Base List One

TYPE	RANGE	FREQ	F1
A	1	177	177
ABOUT	1	40	40
AGAIN	1	1	1
ALL	1	4	4
ALMOST	1	1	1
ALONG	1	1	1
ALREADY	1	1	1
ALWAYS	1	18	18
AN	1	11	11

The FREQUENCY analysis of the first intermediate girl's English textbook.

Total tokens: 7906

Total types: 885

... in frequency order ...

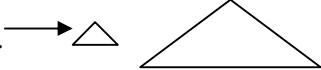
Word Type	Rank	Frequency	Cumulative Percent
THE	1	409	5.17
IS	2	321	9.23
IN	3	199	11.75
A	4	198	14.25
YOU	5	183	16.57
AND	6	170	18.72
ARE	7	146	20.57
YOUR	8	123	22.12
TO	9	115	23.58
MY	10	99	24.83
IT	11	87	25.93
THERE	12	78	26.92
LISTEN	13	74	27.85
NAME	14	70	28.74
STUDENT	15	68	29.60
ROOM	16	63	30.39
UNIT	17	60	31.15
HOUSE	18	58	31.89
YES	19	56	32.60
NO	20	55	33.29
THIS	21	55	33.99
LESSON	22	54	34.67
TEACHER	23	52	35.33
HAVE	24	50	35.96
I	25	49	36.58
SCHOOL	26	49	37.20
WHERE	27	48	37.81
OF	28	43	38.35

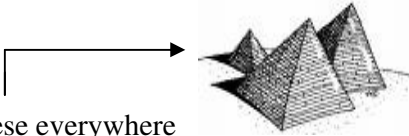
Appendix 3.

The one 1,000 word level test.

Write T if a sentence is true. Write F if a sentence is not true. Write X if you do not understand the sentence. The first one has been answered for you.

1- We cut time into minutes, hours and days. -----T-----

2- This one is little.  -----

3- You can find these everywhere  -----

4- Some children call their mother Mama. -----

5- Show me the way to do it means " show me how to do it". -----

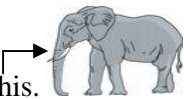
6- This country is part of the world. -----

7- This can keep people away from your house.  -----

8- When something falls, it goes up. -----

9- Most children go to school at night. -----

10- It is easy for children to remain still. -----

11- One person can carry this.  -----

12- A scene is a part of a play. -----

13- People often think of their home, when they are away from it. -----

14- There is a mountain in every city. -----

15- Each month has the same number of days. -----

16- A chief is the youngest person in a group -----

17- Black is a colour. -----

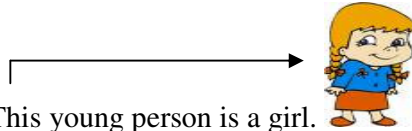
18- You can use a pen to make marks on paper. -----

19- A family always has at least two people. -----

20- You can go by road from London to New York. -----

21- Silver costs a lot of money. -----

22- You can see more when you are on a hill. -----



23- This young person is a girl. -----

24- We can be sure that one day we will die. -----

25- A society is made of people living together. -----

26- An example can help you understand. -----

27- Some books have pictures in them. -----

28- When some people attack other people, they try to hurt them. -----

29- When something is ancient , it is very big. -----

30- Big ships can sail up a stream. -----

31- It is good to keep a promise. -----

32- People often dream when they are sleeping. -----

33- This is a date – 10 o'clock. -----

34- When something is impossible, it is easy to do it. -----

35- Milk is blue. -----

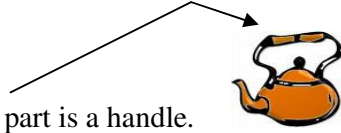
36- A square has five sides. -----

37- Boats are made to travel on land. -----

38- Cars cannot pass each other on a wide road. -----

39- When you look at something closely, you can see the details. -----

40- This part is a handle. -----



Appendix 4.

The 2nd 1,000 word level test.

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example.

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1- business. | |
| 2- clock. | |
| 3- horse. | _____ part of a house. |
| 4- pencil. | _____ animal with four legs. |
| 5- shoe. | _____ something used for writing. |
| 6- wall. | |

You answer it in the following way.

- | | |
|--------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1- business. | |
| 2- clock. | |
| 3- horse. | ___6___ part of a house. |
| 4- pencil. | ___3___ animal with four legs. |
| 5- shoe. | ___4___ something used for writing. |
| 6- wall. | |

Some words are in the test to make it more difficult. You do not have to find a meaning for these words. In the example above, these words are business, clock, shoe. Try to do every part of the test.

Part I

a-

- | | |
|------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1- copy. | |
| 2- event. | |
| 3- motor. | _____ end or highest point. |
| 4- pity. | _____ this moves a car. |
| 5- profit. | _____ thing made to be like another. |
| 6- tip. | |
-

b-

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| 1- accident. | |
| 2- debt. | |
| 3- fortune. | _____ loud deep sound. |
| 4- pride. | _____ something you must pay. |
| 5- roar. | _____ having a high opinion of yourself. |
| 6- thread. | |
-

c-

- 1- birth.
- 2- dust.
- 3- operation.
- 4- row.
- 5- sport.
- 6- victory

_____ game.
 _____ winning.
 _____ being born.

d-

- 1- clerk.
- 2- frame.
- 3- noise.
- 4- respect.
- 5- theatre.
- 6- juice

_____ a drink
 _____ office worker.
 _____ unwanted sound.

e-

- 1- dozen.
- 2- empire.
- 3- gift.
- 4- opportunity.
- 5- relief.
- 6- tax.

_____ chance.
 _____ twelve.
 _____ money paid to the government..

f-

- 1- admire.
- 2- complain.
- 3- fix.
- 4- hire.
- 5- introduce.
- 6-stretch.

_____ make wider or longer.
 _____ bring in for the first time.
 _____ have a high opinion of someone.

g-

- 1- arrange.
- 2- develop.
- 3- lean.
- 4- owe.
- 5- prefer.
- 6-seize.

_____ grow.
 _____ put in order.
 _____ like more than something else.

h-

- 1- blame.
- 2- elect.
- 3- jump.
- 4- manufacture.
- 5- melt.
- 6-threaten.

_____ make.
 _____ choose by voting.
 _____ become like water.

i-

- 1- brave.
- 2- electric.
- 3- firm.
- 4- hungry.
- 5- local.
- 6- usual.

_____ commonly done.
 _____ wanting food.
 _____ having no fear..

j-

1- bitter.

2- independent.

3- lovely.

4- merry.

5- popular.

6- slight.

_____ beautiful.

_____ small.

_____ liked by many people.

Appendix 5.

The achievement test

I - Look at the picture and circle the appropriate letter:

1-

- a- rug.
- b- umbrella.
- c- quarter.
- d- sock.



2-

- a- sit down.
- b- close the door.
- c- don't sit down.
- d- stand up.



3-

- a- queue.
- b- pillow.
- c- curtain.
- d- closet.



4-

- a- opposite.
- b- between.
- c- behind.
- d- near.



II- Look at the underlined word and circle the appropriate letter .

5- An example of a school staff is:

- a- a Playground.
- b- Geography.
- c- a vice principal.
- d- a student.

6- To tidy up your room means to:

- a- close it.
 - b- arrange it.
 - c- describe it.
 - d- change it.
-

7- a family gathering means:

- a- a family tree.
 - b- a family member.
 - c- a family meeting.
 - d- taking pictures.
-

8- To Punctuate sentences means to :

- a- put commas or full stops.
 - b- circle the first letter.
 - c- number the sentences.
 - d- rewrite the sentences.
-

9- when you work in pairs, you work :

- a- as one person.
 - b- as two people.
 - c- as three people.
 - d- as four people.
-

10- Which of the following is a possessive adjective:

- a- Turki's.
 - b- she.
 - c- friend's.
 - d - your.
-

III- Circle the appropriate letter to fill in the blanks.

11- I a dress when I visit my friend.

- a- wear.
 - b- hide.
 - c- shop.
 - d- feel.
-

12- I buy bread from the

- a- butcher.
 - b- flower shop.
 - c- baker.
 - d- shoe shop
-

13- My is 70 kilos.

- a- thin.
 - b- weight
 - c- fat.
 - d- height .
-

14- This man is.....

- a- young.
- b- big.
- c- fat.
- e- old.



15- When you bargain, you can get things.....

- a- with a high price.
 - b- with a low price.
 - c- with a visa.
 - d- with cash.
-

16- To please someone is to make him/her.....

- a- happy.
 - b- sad.
 - c- angry.
 - d- cry.
-

17- An example of a continent is.....

- a- Saudi Arabia.
 - b- Cameron.
 - c- Africa.
 - d- Morocco
-

18- A silent letter is

- a-** a letter that you can hear.
 - b-** a letter that you cannot hear.
 - c-** a consonant
 - d-** a vowel.
-

19-..... is an uncountable noun.

- a-** Carrot.
 - b-** Rice.
 - c-** Tomato.
 - d-** Egg.
-

20- look at the

- a-** chart.
 - b-** table.
 - c-** map.
 - d-** row.
-



Thank you.

Appendix 6.

Vocabulary learning strategies Questionnaire.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أختي الطالبة /

- الرجاء الإجابة على جميع فقرات الاستبيان المتعلقة باستراتيجيات تعلم المفردات الإنجليزية من خلال وضع علامة صح (✓) أمام الخيار الأنسب لك.

- الرجاء اختيار الطريقة التي تقومين بها فعلاً وليس ما تعتقدين بأنه الأفضل.

- يجدر التنويه بأنه لا توجد إجابة صحيحة أو خاطئة فلا تترددي بالتعبير عن آرائك وأفكارك الحقيقة كما أن نتائج الاستبيان خاصة بالباحثة ولن تطلع عليها المعلمة.

شاكراً لك حسن تعاونك.

البيانات الشخصية:

الاسم: المدرسة: الفصل:

هل سبق وأن تلقيتي التعليم في مدرسة خاصة (أي غير حكومية) ؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

أولاً- إذا لم أعرف معاني الكلمات الجديدة:

الرقم	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	أبداً
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					

14	استكشف معاني الكلمات من خلال المشاركة في الأنشطة الجماعية.				
----	--	--	--	--	--

ثانياً- لأتذكر الكلمات الجديدة:

الرقم		دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	أبداً
15	أتمرن على الكلمات من خلال المشاركة بأنشطة جماعية.					
16	أراجع الكلمات مع المعلمة باستخدام الكروت التوضيحية.					
17	استخدم الكلمات التي تعلمتها حين التخاطب مع المتحدثين باللغة الانجليزية.					
18	ادرس الكلمات وأنا أمعن النظر بالصور المصاحبة لها.					
19	أتخيل معاني الكلمات.					
20	أصل الكلمات بتجارب شخصية.					
21	أربط بين الكلمة والكلمات المجاورة لها (مثال: a cup of tea, a glass of milk).					
22	أربط الكلمة بمرادفات لها باللغة الانجليزية (مثال small= little).					
23	أربط الكلمة بكلمات معاكسة لها بالمعنى في اللغة الانجليزية (مثال: big ≠ small).					
24	ارسم خرائط أجمع من خلالها الكلمات المتقاربة في المعنى.					
25	أربط الكلمة الانجليزية بكلمة مشابهة لها بالنطق في العربية (مثال: meat و ميت).					
26	أتخيل شكل الكلمة مكتوبة.					
27	أجمع الكلمات الجديدة في صفحة وأذاكرها معاً.					
28	أستخدم الكلمات في جمل جديدة.					
29	أنطق الكلمة بصوت عالي عند الاستنكار.					
30	أضع خط تحت الحروف الأولى من الكلمات.					
31	أذاكر تصنيف الكلمة (فعل، اسم، ضمير الخ).					
32	أذاكر مصدر الكلمة والأجزاء المضافة إليه (مثال : looking, looks, looked والمصدر look).					
33	أحاول التعبير عن نفس المعنى باستخدام كلمات مختلفة باللغة الانجليزية.					
34	أقوم بتمثيل الكلمات جسدياً.					
35	أستذكر الكلمات مع المرادفات لها بالعربية (مثال: city = مدينة).					
36	أكرر الكلمات بصوت عالي عند المذاكرة.					
37	أقوم بكتابة الكلمات أكثر من مرة.					
38	أستخدم الكروت التوضيحية عند المذاكرة.					

39	أدرس طريقة نطق الكلمات .				
40	أدرس إملاء الكلمات .				
41	أدون ملاحظاتي على الكلمات في الفصل.				
42	أستخدم الكلمات الإنجليزية للدلالة على أشياء محسوسة.				
43	أتجاهل بعض الكلمات حتى لو لم أعرف معناها.				
44	أراجع بنك الكلمات في الكتاب.				
45	استمع إلى المعلمة حين تقرأ الكلمات من كتاب الطالب.				
46	لدي كراسة احتفظ فيها بالكلمات التي أدرسها.				
47	أقيم تطور الكلمات لدي باستخدام الامتحانات الذاتية.				
48	في كل حين وآخر، أراجع الكلمات التي درستها في وقت سابق.				
49	أحاول تعلم كلمات جديدة				

لطفاً التأكد من إجابة جميع الفقرات مع الشكر الجزيل.

Curriculum Vitae

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PRACTICAL EXPERIENCES

- Practice teaching supervisor, Curricular and Teaching Methods Department, King Faisal University, from 8-9-2007 to 25-6-2008.
- Invigilator, Admission Test, The National center of Measure and Evaluation, King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, from 30-11-2007 to 7-12-2007.
- Simultaneous translator, Special Education Conference, King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, 25-4-2008.
- Simultaneous translator, Quality Assurance for Academic programs, King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, 8-9 November 2008.

- Member of the Graduation Committee, King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, from 26-3-2009 to 8-4-2009.
- Member of Atta'akhi Planning Committee, Hassana Falla, Al-Ahsa Municipality, Saudi Arabia, 4-10 July 2009.
- Member of the Cultural Committee, Wahat Al-Marefa, Mawhiba Program, King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, from 11-7-2009 to 7-8-2009.
- Simultaneous translator, Teaching Styles and Learning Styles work shop, King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, 26 May 2009.

TRAINING PROGRAMS AND COURSES

- "Windows and Microsoft Office Programms", New Horizon, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, from 15-2-2005 to 10-5-2005
- "The Art and Science of Neuro Linguistic Programming", The International NLP Trainers Association, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, 11-15 March 2006
- "Developing Administrative and Academic Leaderships in Higher Education Institutions", King Faisal University, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, 10-13 February 2010
- "Solving Future Problems Creatively", Al-Ahsa Chamber, Business Women Center, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, from 30-1-2010 to 2-2-2010.

COMMUNITY SERVICE

- 2008- Present Member of the Planning Commity, Atta'akhi Saloon, Atta'akhi Center, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia.
- 2009- Present Member of the field work team, Al-Hayat Ajmal, Ata'akhi Center, Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabai.

COMPUTER SKILLS

- Can type 70 words per minute in Arabic and English.
- Proficiencient and experienced in the following programms:
 - Microsoft Office
 - SPSS (statistical program)
 - Range (vocabulary analysis)
 - Frequency (vocabulary analysis)