

# **INVESTIGATING THE IMPACT OF VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION ON DEVELOPING READING COMPREHENSION**

*A THESIS SUBMITTED*

*BY*

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*TO*

*THE COUNCIL OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION  
UNIVERSITY OF TIKRIT IN PARTIAL  
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER  
OF EDUCATION IN METHODS OF TEACHING  
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE*

*SUPERVISED BY*

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تحقيق في تأثير تعليمات مفردات اللغة لتطوير  
استيعاب القراءة

رسالة تقدمت بها  
أمل حسن البزاز

إلى  
مجلس كلية التربية في جامعة تكريت  
وهي جزء من متطلبات نيل شهادة الماجستير  
في التربية  
طرائق تدريس اللغة الإنكليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية

بإشراف  
الأستاذ المساعد  
الدكتور نوفل سعيد مجيد

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## بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

﴿وَلَنَبْلُوَنَّكُمْ بِشَيْءٍ مِّنَ الْخَوْفِ وَالْجُوعِ وَنَقْصٍ مِّنَ  
الْأَمْوَالِ وَالْأَنْفُسِ وَالثَّمَرَاتِ وَبَشِّرِ الصَّابِرِينَ الَّذِينَ إِذَا  
أَصَابَتْهُمُ مُصِيبَةٌ قَالُوا إِنَّا لِلَّهِ وَإِنَّا إِلَيْهِ رَاجِعُونَ﴾

صدق الله العظيم

(سورة البقرة: ١٥٥-١٥٦)

## **Dedication**

*To My Only Late Son . . . . Ali*

*To My Only Daughter . . . . Andet*

*To My Faithful Husband . . . . Samir*

I certify that this thesis was prepared under my supervision at the University of Tikrit, as a partial requirement for the Degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

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Date: / /2005

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We certify that we have read this thesis and as Examining Committee, examined the student in its content and that in our opinion it is adequate as a thesis for the Degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

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Name:

Date: / /2005

Member

Signature:

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Date: / /2005

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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Nawfal Sa'aeed who embodied his loyalty and meticulous care in discussing and commenting on the earlier version of this study. Without his invaluable supervision and his abundantly constructive suggestions, this study would not taken its final shape.

Likewise, I wish to extend my heartfelt thanks to Dr. Amra (Head of the Department), Dr. Riyadh Khalil, Dr. Esbah Shakir, Mr. Falah Saladdin and Mr. Safwat Hawar, for their invaluable and remarkable service during the teaching courses.

I wish to acknowledge my great indebtedness to Dr. Uloom Muhammed for the efforts and comments he made on the outline the procedures of the test achievement his suggestion on finding the statistical methods.

I owe special debt of gratitude to my faithful husband Sameer Chyir, my darling only daughter Andet as well as my bosom friend Zainab Abudi for their continual encouragement and incentive assistance.

## **ABSTRACT**

The vocabulary of any language plays an eminent role in understanding any text moreover it is considered as a means to communicate and develop the four skills of learning. Many pupils are perplexed because of their limited capacities in understanding the whole items of the final Baccalaureate Examination especially for 6<sup>th</sup> grade. The availability of unfamiliar vocabularies with in unseen passages make pupils confused with their correct responses. This may be attributed to the lack of experience in mastering the content and function words and their derivations and reflections.

To carry out the investigation, it is hypothesized that:

1. Vocabulary meaning affects syntactic and semantic features within a text.
2. Vocabulary meaning has an important role in understanding phonetics and morphology, as well as the structure of the language.
3. Vocabulary knowledge depends on constant teaching methods and its techniques.
4. Reading comprehension has a harmonious relation with vocabulary knowledge

To fulfil the aims of the study and to verify the hypotheses an achievement test for pupils at 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stages has been constructed with reference to vocabulary meaning identification, spelling, derivation, phonetic symbols and comprehension.

Relevant statistical procedures are applied to secure the authenticity of these tools, jury members are consulted to ensure face validity of the test. The test is given to a sample of 200 pupils from both stages with the purpose of determining a number of features including:



1. Item difficulty.
2. Item discriminating power.
3. Effectiveness of the distracters.

Test reliability is computed through using two methods, test-retest and split-half method.

After analyzing the data statistically it has been found out:

1. Students level in vocabulary learning instruction in Ordinary School is rather lower than that of Developmental, Distinguished and Central Secondary Schools.
2. Female standard in vocabulary instruction is rather better than male.

The study, which falls into Five Chapters has arrived at a number of conclusions the major ones are:

1. Students in Ordinary Secondary Schools require special teaching techniques to overcome the difficulties in learning English as a foreign language.
2. Understanding the main ideas in any text depends largely on vocabulary instruction.
3. There is an interrelated relation between vocabulary instruction and the structure of any language.

Besides the conclusions, the study has stated some recommendations and suggestions for further study.

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## **APPENDIX (1)**

The Following are the Names of the Members of the Jury Arranged Alphabetically According to the First Names of Members.

1. Adnan Ghali – English Teacher – Al-Nakasid Secondary School for Boys.
2. Ali Al-Duleimi (Ph.D.).
3. Falah Hassan – English Teacher – Baghdad – Distinguished Secondary School for Boys.
4. Isbah Shakir (Ph.D.).
5. Jamal Noori – English Teacher – Tikrit Development Secondary School for Boys.
6. Kais Hafith – English Language Specialist.
7. Nawfal Saeed Majeed (Ph.D.).
8. Riyadh Khalil (Ph.D.).
9. Uloom Muhammed (Ph.D.).
10. Shrooq Abudi (Instructor).

## **APPENDIX (2)**

The Final Form of the Test Given to the Pupils of Third Intermediate Stage.

Read the Following Passage Carefully. Then Answer Only (15) of the Questions:

Mr. Thomas came home from work early yesterday evening. His wife was usually in the kitchen at that time, but that evening she was not. Mr. Thomas went upstairs and opened the door of the living-room. His wife was on the floor and there was a man near her heads. He had something heavy in his hand. Mr. Thomas was afraid. What are you doing? He said to his wife and the man. Mrs. Thomas laughed and said do not be afraid George.

This man is going to paint the ceiling of our living-room next week. He has brought several tins of paint and put some of each colour on the ceiling, and I am lying on the floor and looking at them and choosing one of the colours.

1. When did Mr. Thomas come home early?
2. Mr. Thomas is Mrs. Thomas's .....  
wife – husband – uncle – aunt
3. Complete this sentence: His wife was lying .....
4. Where did Mr. Thomas go up?
5. Was Mr. Thomas in the kitchen?
6. His wife was .....  
on the floor – in the kitchen – behind the living-room –  
above the living-room
7. Give the opposite of these two words: heavy – upstairs



8. Why was Mr. Thomas afraid?

Mr. Thomas was afraid because .....

9. Fill in the blanks:

visit; visitor.                      paint; .....                      work; .....

10. Mr. Thomas laughed and said .....

11. Give the meaning of the following words in Arabic: tins – lying

12. Is Mrs. Thomas a funny or a clever woman?

13. .... your watch and tell me the time.

look for – look at – look after – look in

14. Yesterday evening is .....

an adverb – an adjective – a verb – a noun

15. Fill in the blanks:

they; their                      he; .....                      we; .....

16. Give the past tense of the following verbs:

is; .....                      bring; .....

17. Add (-ing) to the following verbs:

sit; .....                      come; .....

18. Fill in the blanks:

doing; do                      choosing; .....                      lying; .....

19. What colour do you like?

20. Mrs. Thomas and The painter is a good Title to the passage. Isn't it?

21. Give the plural of these two words:

Living – room, woman

22. Are these questions easy or difficult?

## APPENDIX (3)

The Final Form of the Test Given to the Pupils of Sixth Preparatory Stage.

Read the Following Passage Carefully. Then Answer Only (15) of the Questions:

Now one knows how the first family started. Excavations in an ancient caves show that men, women and children lived together in small groups. It is not certain that the groups separated at first into the units father, mother and children that we think of as a family. Although the woman probably cared for their own children. The family kept warm with fire and protected themselves against wild animals with simple weapons.

A family kind of life is more necessary among human beings than among other creatures. This is because the most helpless creatures on earth is the human baby. Most insects and other members of the lower forms of life can move about and get their own food as soon as they are hatched. But the young of higher forms of life human infants, baby bears and other animal must be fed and protected. During the hundreds of thousands of years that family life has existed different forms of family organizations have developed among different peoples. In some tribes, the mother's brother was head of the family. The father had little to do with the children.

The Pharaohs in ancient Egypt married their sisters, during Biblical times and earlier, a man might have two or more wives. Among some peoples a woman might have several husbands. The marriage of man or a woman to more than one mate is called Polygamy. There are still families in Africa and the Near East with more than one wife, but the practice seems to be dying out.

1. What is excavation?
2. How do most insects form their life?
3. Why do in some tribes, the mother's brother was head of the family?
4. Give a suitable title to the passage?
5. A woman might have several husbands. Is this belief accepted in our religion as Moslems?
6. Where did the Pharaohs live?
7. But the young of the higher forms of life human infant, baby, bears and other animal..... Complete this sentence.
8. Tribes means .....
  - Many groups of families live together.
  - Small number of people.
  - Little groups of people.
  - Few number of families.
9. Define Polygamy.
10. Denote in the passage a sentence that shows a cause and effect relations.
11. Different forms of family ..... have developed. Fill in this blank a suitable word from the passage.
12. Derive nouns from the following verbs: relate – develop
13. Give the meaning of the words: necessary – head
14. Give the opposite of the words: certain – ancient
15. Give the meaning of these words in Arabic: a bear – protected
16. Fill in the blanks with suitable words:  
 help; helpless      home; ..... possible; .....
17. Derive the adjectives from the nouns: Africa – East.
18. Is this passage religious or historical?
19. Do you see there is a difference between an insect and a sheep?
20. Give the phonetic symbols of the words: hatched – bears

21. State your preference concerning men who has more than one wife.
22. a. The sound        /k/     /ʃ/     /t/     /tʃ/  
                              is found in hatched.
- b. The sound        /a:/     /eə/     /iə/     /ei/  
                              is found in bears.
23. What's your opinion of these questions?

## **APPENDIX (4)**

Show types of Synophones:

1. Synophones differing in one phoneme:

live / leave	cot / court
bed / bad	hut / heart
also / although	fateful / faithful
sink / think	roll / role

2. Synophones confused in spite of the ability to distinguish between the meaning determining phonemes:

possession / position	delegate / delicate
affect / effect	trend / trained
adopt / adapt	rat / rate
former / formal	export / expert
inhabit / inhibit	rule / role
invention / intention	precede / proceed
typical / topical	

3. Synophones differing in one additional phoneme:

conscious / conscience	cute / acute
quite / quiet	Turks / turkeys
violate / violent	Tempt / attempt
wide / wild	diction / addiction
eternal / internal	addition / addication

II. Synophones differing in more than one phoneme:

1. Synophones with a Latin root and different prefixes:

acquire / require / inquire	reduce / induce / deduce
success / successors	implication / application / complication

attention / intention	artificial / superficial
attain / retain	consequent / subsequent
institute / constitute	accidentally / incidentally

2. Synophones with meaningful polysemic root and different suffixes for different derivatives:

respective / respectable	sensitive / sensible
respectively / respectfully	comprehensive / comprehensible
industrious / industrial	considerate / considerable
imaginary / imaginative	exhaustive / exhausted
visional / visionary	agreed / agreeable
numerous / numerable	tolerant / tolerate
economic / economical	historic / historical
moral / morale	scientific / scientifical

3. Miscellaneous-Phonemes which Delay Exact Definition:

crowd / coward	acute / accurate
embarrassed / embraced	ironically / erroneously
torment / tournament	exposure / explosion
inherent / inherited	arrogant / ignorant
avoid / evade	intermission / termination
conceal / cancel	available / valuable
dispose / dispossess	revolution / revelation
appeal / apply	

## **APPENDIX (5)**

Show exercises on Practicing Vocabulary:

1. What are the similarities and differences between the following pairs?
  - to see something / to look at something
  - to pour tea / to spill tea
  - to meet somebody / to bump into somebody
  - paint / varnish
  - to surprise / to astonish
  - ability / skill
  - task / duty
  - target / goal
  
2. Choose from the Words in Brackets the One which Best Fits the Given Context:
  - a. In London you see tramps ..... the streets, looking for something and looking for nothing.  
(roam, walk, go)
  - b. As we reached the top of the hill a ..... view stretched out before us.  
(good-looking, handsome, beautiful)
  
3. What can you be fed up with?  
Be horrified by? Over look? Discriminate against?
  
4. What kinds of objects / people can be described as cunning, orderly, lenient, shrewd, permissive?

## الملخص

تلعب مفردات أية لغة دوراً بارزاً لفهم أي نص إضافة إلى أنها تعتبر كوسيلة للاتصال ولتطوير المهارات الأربعة لتعلم أية لغة. إن العديد من الطلبة يرتكبون بسبب القابليات المحدودة لفهم النص الكامل للامتحانات الوزارية النهائية وخاصة بالنسبة لطلبة الصف السادس الإعدادي. بسبب تواجد المفردات الغير مألوفة في القطع الخارجية لدى الطلبة نوعاً ما التردد في الإجابات الصحيحة. وهذا يعود ربما إلى نقص الخبرة في السيطرة على الكلمات التي لها محتوى ووظيفة مع مشتقاتها وانعكاساتها. ولإنجاز هذه الدراسة فقد استندت الباحثة إلى الفرضيات الآتية:

١. يؤثر معنى مفردات اللغة في فهم خصائص التركيب والقواعد في أي نص.  
٢. يلعب معنى المفردة دوراً مهماً في فهم قواعد الصوت، وقواعد تركيب الكلمة، وتركيب اللغة.

٣. تعتمد معرفة مفردات اللغة على طرق التدريس المتواصل مع تقنياتها.

٤. إن استيعاب القراءة لها علاقة متجانسة مع معرفة مفردات اللغة.

وق تم إجراء اختبار لطلبة الصف الثالث المتوسط والسادس الإعدادي بالإشارة إلى تمييز معنى مفردات اللغة، والإملاء، والمشتقات، والرموز الصوتية، والاستيعاب. وقد تم تطبيق إجراءات إحصائية مترابطة لضمان أصالة هذه الأدوات، وتم استشارة هيئة لجنة التحكيم لضمان الصدق الظاهري للاختبار قم أعطي الاختبار إلى عينة مكونة من ٢٠٠ طالب لغرض إنجاز الخصائص التالية.

١. صعوبة الفقرة.

٢. تمييز قوة الفقرة.

٣. فعالية المعوقات.

٤. فعالية الكلمات المحيرة.

وقد تم إنجاز صدق الاختبار من خلال استخدام طريقتين: طريقة إعادة الاختبار وطريقة التجزئة النصفية. وقد توصلت الباحثة بعد تحليل النتائج إلى:

١. مستوى الطلبة لتعلم تعليمات مفردات اللغة في المدارس العادية تكون نوعاً ما واطئة عن المدارس المطورة والثانويات المتميزة والمركزية.

٢. مستوى الإناث لتعلم مفردات اللغة نوعاً ما أفضل من مستوى الذكور.



وتوصلت الدراسة، التي تقع في خمسة فصول، إلى نتائج من أهمها:

١. يحتاج طلبة المدارس الثانوية الاعتيادية إلى تقنيات التدريس لتجاوز الصعوبات في تعلم اللغة الإنكليزية كلغة أجنبية.
  ٢. يعتمد فهم الأفكار الرئيسية لأي نص بدرجة كبيرة على تعليمات مفردات اللغة.
  ٣. توجد علاقة متداخلة بين تعليمات مفردات اللغة وتركيب أية لغة.
- وفضلاً عن هذه النتائج فقد قدمت الدراسة بعض التوصيات مع مقترحات لدراسات مستقبلية.

# CHAPTER ONE

## *Introduction*

### **1.1 The Problem:**

The vocabulary of any language plays an eminent role in understanding any text. Moreover, it is considered as a means to communicate and develop the four skills of learning. During May 2000, as an invigilator, I have seen that pupils of sixth grade were perplexed because they were unable to understand the meaning of these vocabularies: canals-railway banks, seeds-upset and fresh. As these words affect to understand the whole meaning of the passage. This may be attributed to the lack of experience in mastering the content and function words and their derivations and inflections.

### **1.2 Aims of the Study:**

This study aims at:

1. Determining the reasons behind the difficulties facing by the pupils in dealing with familiar and unfamiliar vocabulary.
2. Finding the significant differences according to the stages (3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> stages).
3. Investigating the significant differences between male and female at 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> stages.

### **1.3 Hypotheses:**

It is hypothesized that:

1. Vocabulary meaning affects understanding syntactic and semantic features within a text.

2. Vocabulary meaning has an important role in understanding phonetics and morphology, as well as the structure of the language.
3. Vocabulary knowledge depends on constant teaching methods and its techniques.
4. Reading comprehension has a harmonious relation with vocabulary knowledge

#### **1.4 Limits of the Study:**

1. The study focuses on the impact of vocabulary on pupils' comprehension of the reading passages of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> stages. The pupils of 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> stages in secondary schools in Tikrit on the academic year (2004-2005) who face difficulties in understanding the whole item of ministerial examination.
2. It is limited to the relation between form and meaning of the vocabulary items contained in the reading text, including both male and female at secondary school level.

#### **1.5 Procedures of the Study:**

The procedure to be adopted here can be assumed up as follows:

1. Presenting a general theoretical background or survey available concerning vocabulary.
2. Constructing a test that is designed for research purpose.
3. Identifying and analysing the main reasons behind the difficulties of pupils comprehension in understanding vocabulary items in the text.
4. Outlining conclusions and recommendations.

## **1.6 Value of the Study:**

Theoretically, the study will present an adequate analysis and classification of types of vocabulary items usually used in the reading texts.

Practically, the study is supposed to be of use to EFL especially with 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> perquisite attention.

# CHAPTER TWO

## *Literature Review*

Students start the fourth secondary school year comprehension course which is done by giving them an item of listening comprehension at the end of each unit, after having completed at least five years of formal learning English at the primary and intermediate levels. Their language level can be rated intermediate. During their preparatory stages which begins with fourth-year. The listening comprehension-course at the end of every unit is called as developing skills an integrated-course for intermediate students and fluency in English an integrated course for preparatory students.

During this period students are more or less exposed to comprehension exercises, including comprehension questions and vocabulary which acts a crucial role in understanding the whole passages, summary-writing and objective questions. Therefore, the preparatory listening comprehension course can be considered a further and more sophisticated stage in all aspects. Language content and form. Here-upon students reflections miscue during their responses to the questions submitted by final Baccalaureate examination.

Students always baffle or confused when they find at least four or five new vocabularies in their unseen passages. Sometimes, it affects their activity in answering the whole questions.

By submitting various types of unseen passages representing different styles and covering a wide range of ideas we aim at developing the students' skills in understanding the English language and producing

it themselves in guided and free compositions. In addition to the basic aims of training the students' skills in understanding what they read and in expressing their own ideas in writing their passive and active vocabularies. It also touches upon grammatical points and provides for oral training through class discussions of certain passages.

The aim of unseen passages is harmonious even with the aim set in the text book -8- which states that there are three reasons why language is essential to academic success. Most teachers instruction to students is given through vocabularies whether direct or indirect. Primarily speech with elaboration or reinforcement in writing.

Students seek information and often show their understanding through speech. Many new words and expressions in a reading passage set for comprehension certainly hinder the testee's performance in the test, especially if those testees lack motivation and unfortunately this is the case of most Iraqi students.

Such a state greatly does much harm to the testees and their performance. Learning about most subjects involves reading experience and rich vocabulary.

## **2.1 Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary:**

Reading comprehension is considered one of the major goals of modern language instructor. It is more than mouthing words loudly and it is more than plodding along looking carefully at every word and every sentence. It is a complex process which comprises of several levels and skills which work together to produce the ultimate goal which is meaning. Without understanding the meaning of the passages or any text, students are unable to express themselves correctly. Generally, all items during

examination require responses and answers which is related to the understanding the whole meaning.

Reading is a pivotal skill that provides and informations conveyed explicitly or implicitly in a written language. It has lately become a subject of concern to psychologist, scientists and psycholinguists; and every one of them looks at it from his vantage point.

Students at 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory level must take at least once a monthly examination about unseen passages since it is considered as developing skill and a keen on talent for Final Examination which sets out in June. As most of our students spend more time in their attempt to give the correct responses.

### **2.1.1 The Relation between Reading and Reading Comprehension:**

Chafe (1970: 40) defines reading as “getting the meaning of words formed by letters on a printed page and nothing else”. This, of course, clearly refers to the beginning stage of reading.

Al-Saadi (1985: 10) believes that reading is the “construction of new meanings through manipulation of concepts already processed by the reader with resulting meanings organized into thought processes according to the purposes adopted by the reader.

Lado (1964: 32) defines reading foreign language as “grasping language pattern from their written representation. Yet, reading is considered as the foremost of the language process” through which an access to the universe of thought is gained.

Grellet (1981: 52) defines it as “perceiving communication, it is a discriminative responses to graphic symbols; it is decoding graphic symbols to speech and it is getting meaning from the printed page”.

Smith and Wilson (1979: 82) view reading as “an act of communication in which information is transferred from a transmitter to a receiver”, while Harris considers it as “the meaningful interpretation of written or printed verbal (Harris: 1969: 5).

To sum up these definitions, many writers have arrived at the conclusion that reading is the translating of graphic symbols into their corresponding form whether spoken or written. While, adherents of the definition of reading regard it as extracting meaning from text and meaning is the central to all reading.

These definitions try to be more global so they endorse the point of view that comprehension is the core of reading, without which no reading can take place.

As reading is reading comprehension so comprehension forms the essence of all reading. The reader must grasp what the author has meant and reflect upon it. Besides, he must evaluate it critically and apply what he has learnt and gained in a useful situation.

Generally speaking, all definitions of reading fall into two categories. First, there are those who restrict it to the mere mouthing the words and this is certainly so at the beginning level. Second, there are those who concentrate on meaning as the central goal of reading. This research proves that if students do not understand the meaning of every word in any passage or text, they will certainly be unable to do well during the exams whether final or not. The researcher means that even with items related to grammar especially joining two parts of a sentence to make one.



### **2.1.2 Problems in Testing Reading Comprehension:**

Since the word ‘reading’ may have different connotations to different people and the phrase “the teaching of reading” may mean different things to different teachers. To some teachers it means reading aloud, to other it means silent reading. To primary school teachers, it means beginning reading which is something different from reading books and magazines for getting knowledge or for enjoyment. To some teachers it means extensive, to others it means intensive. All these different kinds of reading involve seeing symbols, whether printed or written, which represent meaningful utterances.

It has been noticed that Iraqi student as the Arabic reader (Miller, S. and K. Lairds, 1972: 15) considers reading word by word as not being reading at all. Richard plainly says that through the words we are trafficking or trying to traffic with things – things gone by present to come for eternal. So, students grew to be no more than parrot readers who read sentences and even paragraphs without going deep into the ideas expressed behind them.

Since reading comprehension is considered a basic part for 6<sup>th</sup> grade preparatory students. Al-Saadi (1985: 30) points that reading comprehension widens the gap to understand the meaning between attaining satisfactory level of comprehension and learning the language. As a result, most of students either fail or get low marks in the items that measure their ability of comprehension and interpretation.

River considers enunciating words as one aspect of reading, but that does not mean the foreign language students should be only trained in this skill. They have to get meaning from them. They should

familiarize themselves with the code of the foreign language as they know it in their own language (Weekley, 1926: 23).

Gowers (1975: 60) indicates that the Arabic readers are, as Al-Saadi (1985:20) described word by word readers. They seem to black on white readers. They concentrate on pronouncing the words written in their textbooks with little attention on the meaning which a series of words convey.

The researcher has proved that reading for meaning would start with very young people from their early years of primary till secondary. The pupils of primary stage should acquire the habit of careful reading of each line. Since they lack this habit from early years they are not described as good readers, a good reader is the only one “who” does read, enjoys reading and knows how to use what he has read. Therefore, it seems that best readers are those who assimilate, make their own and produce what they read.

Al-Hamash (1984: 25) states that reading is not a simple mechanical skill nor is it a narrow scholastic tool. Properly cultivated; it is essentially thoughtful process, it should be developed as a complex organization of patterns of higher mental processes.

Careful reading results from wide reading and gaining reading experience because “there is so much emphasis on understanding the meaning of new words, new idioms and new grammatical structures, that the students can not enjoy its reading.

## **2.2 Vocabulary Definition:**

Stork and Hartmann define vocabulary as the stock of words which are at disposal of a speaker or writer.

The term vocabulary refers to all words in the whole language, or the words and phrases used in a particular variety such as → dialects → register, or → terminology.

The number of words counted in different languages varies according to the specialized needs of its speakers and to the quality of available dictionaries (Hartmann and Stork, 1972: 251-253).

Vocabulary refers to the words one must know to communicate effectively. In general, vocabulary can be described as oral vocabulary or reading vocabulary. Oral vocabulary refers to words that we use in speaking or recognize in listening. Reading vocabulary refers to words one recognizes or uses in print (Crystal, 1987: 135, 252).

Ramey and Ramey (1990) define vocabulary as a list of words used in a book, etc. usually with definitions or translations. One also conceives of vocabulary as words, but words with a wider range. It is for this reason that what is usually called “vocabulary item” is used to refer, to a word as well as a group of words having a meaning different from the meaning of its individual components.

Crystal (1991: 373) defines vocabulary as linguistics uses this term in its everyday sense reserving for its technical study the use of terms beginning with (lexi-lexis-lexicon).

Rupley et al. (2000) define vocabulary as a list of words. As in a dictionary of glossary: lexicon. Those words known or used by a person or group. All the words of a language.

In English, the total vocabulary has been estimated at over 1 million words.

### **2.2.1 Types of Vocabulary:**

As vocabulary is very important to reading comprehension. Readers cannot understand what they are reading without knowing what most of the words mean. As pupils learn to read more advanced texts, they must learn the meaning of new words that are not part of their oral vocabulary.

On the basis of this criterion, the classification of vocabulary can be divided into:

1. Listening vocabulary: The words we need to know to understand what we hear.
2. Speaking vocabulary: The words we use when we speak.
3. Reading vocabulary: The words we need to know to understand what we read.
4. Writing vocabulary: The words we use in writing. (Zepeda, 1996: 4)

The scientific research on vocabulary instruction reveals that (a) most vocabulary is learned indirectly, and (b) some vocabulary must be taught directly.

Pupils learn vocabulary indirectly when they hear and see words used in many different contexts. For example, through dialogues and conversations with each other inside and outside the classroom. This must be encouraged by teachers as most of our pupils in secondary schools are unable to differentiate between the types of words, and that the word is a genuine linguistic unit. They also cannot recognize there is a high correlation between the written and the spoken forms of words (Pascoe, 1998: 5).

Pupils are directly, or implicitly, taught both individual words and word learning strategies. This method of vocabulary aids reading

comprehension. So teachers generated vocabulary list during guided reading lesson (Panozzo, 1991: 6).

### **2.2.1.1 Word Classification:**

Greenough notes that in every cultivated language there are two great classes of words, which are taken together comprise the whole vocabulary.

**A. Popular Words:** are words which we become acquainted with ordinary conversation, which we learn through scholastic training and familiar association. We should know them and use them even if we could not read or write. These words concern the common things that pupils always repeat among them when they attempt to use English as a native speaker (Greenough, 1953: 41-42).

**B. Learned Words:** are words whose meaning are known to every educated person, but to employ them. Pupils acquaintance with them comes not from the lips, but from books that they read, lectures that they hear. Or from the more formal conversation of a highly educated speakers.

The distinction between the two kinds is of great importance to a right understanding of linguistic process. It may be easily seen in this example. We may describe a girl as 'lively' or 'vivacious'. In the first case, we are using a native English information from the familiar noun life. In the latter, we are using a Latin derivative which has precisely the same meaning. Yet, the atmosphere of the two words is quite different. No one ever got the objective out of a book. It is a part of everyday's vocabulary.

From the same point of view, we may contrast the following pairs of synonyms:

Speech-oration	choose-select
Stiff-rigid	round-circular
Brave-valorous	try-endeavour
Piece-fragment	book-volume
Teacher-instructor	beggar-medicant
Fat-corpulent	crazy-maniacal

No two persons have the same stock of words, and the same words may be popular in one man's vocabulary and learned in another's. When we call a word 'popular' we do not mean it is a favourite, but that it belongs to the people as a whole. It is everyday's word not the possession of a limited number. Likewise, 'learned' we do not mean that it is used by scholars alone, but simply that its present in English vocabulary (Ibid.: 62-71).

Teachers always should take into consideration that the origin of learned words in English is foreign. Most of them are derived from French or Latin, and a considerable number from Greek.

## **2.3 Vocabulary and Lexical Relations:**

Lexical relations are characterizing the meaning of a word not in terms of its component features, but in terms of its relation to other words. This procedure has also been used in the semantic description of languages and is treated as the analysis of lexical relations (Yule, 1996: 118).

### **2.3.1 Properties of A Lexical Item:**

It is assumed that the semantic properties of a lexical item are fully reflected in appropriate aspects of the relations it enters with actual and potential contexts. But there are good reasons for a principled limitation

to linguistic contexts: first, the relation between a lexical item and extra-linguistic contexts is often crucially mediated by a purely linguistic contexts.

Consider the possible relations between 'horse' and the extra-linguistic situation in:

- That's a horse and there are no horses here; Second, any aspect of an extra-linguistic context can in principle be mirrored linguistically and third, linguistic context is more easily controlled and manipulated (Cruse, 1986: 40).

According to Jacobs, language learners need various kinds of strategies for interpreting what they hear or read. They need strategies for interpreting contextual clues which provide them with information about the likely content of the language to which they are being exposed. Just as important, if not more, are strategies for determining and interpreting the grammatical units and relations that make up what they hear or read. An English sentence, like a sentence in any language, is made up of units that combine to contribute an overall semantic interpretation (Jacobs, 1995: 101).

Most of our pupils in preparatory stages are unable to recognize the differences between phrases, sentences and the type of sentences. Even the type of relation of words within a sentence.

Panozzo's strategies for learning vocabulary are (1) skits, (b) A picture is worth a thousand words, (c) Scavenger hunts, (d) Using the dictionary, (e) Capsule vocabulary (Panozzo, 1999: 5).

### **2.3.1.1 Closed and Open Set Items:**

They are characterizing grammatical and lexical elements more explicitly in terms of what are called closed set items and open set items.

The closed set elements in a sentence are those belonging to classes whose membership is virtually constant during lifetime of an individual speaker (on a longer time-scale they do, of course, change). Typically they have few or no possibilities of substitution in an actual sentence:

**1. John's Kindness amazed Mary.**

They comprise affixes (dislike, kindness, John's, waited, coming, blacken, etc.) and independent words (sometimes called markers), such as articles, conjunction, prepositions and so on, a major part of whose linguistic function is to signal the grammatical organization of sentences.

The open set of elements, on the other hand, are those which belong to classes which are subject to a relatively rapid turnover in membership, as new terms are coined and others fall into obsolescence. They are lexical roots, the principal meaning-bearing elements in a sentence.

The open set elements in (1) are (John, kind, amaze and Mary). They typically have numerous possibilities of substitution in a sentence:

John's	kindness	amazed	Mary.
Bill's	coolness	surprised	Sue.
Mary	rudeness	disturbed	Bill.
Sue	sadness	shocked	Bill.
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

It is with words containing open set elements that lexical semantics is principally concerned (Smith and Wilson, 1979: 52-54).

It is of course, perfectly possible for a sentence to exhibit semantic and grammatical simultaneously:

**2. The green idea sleep.**

Two separate operations are needed to normalise this sentence, one involving closed set items:



**2a. The green idea is sleeping.**

and the other an open set items

**2b. The green lizard is sleeping.**

What is more disturbing if we wish to achieve a simple operation of grammar and semantics is that on occasions one and the same deviance may be cured either by adjustment of closed set items, or by replacement of open set items.

Sentence 3a, can be normalised either as in (b) or as in (c):

**3a. The table saw Arthur.****b. The table was seen by Arthur.****c. The rhinoceros saw Arthur.**

Similarly, 4a can be normalised as in (b) or (c):

**4a. I visited Arthur next week.****b. I shall visit Arthur next week.****c. I visited Arthur last week.**

Sentence 3a and 4a are semantically deviant. One reason for this is that many grammatical elements are themselves bearers of meaning. This is true, for instance of the past tense affix -ed, and the plural affix -s. Because grammatical elements typically need to have the capacity to combine normally with semantically very various roots, their meanings tend to be of a very general sort. The notion of past tense, for instance, can combine without a normally with virtually any conceivable verbal notion (Cruse, 1986: 40-42).

**2.4 Types of Lexical Relations:**

In everyday talk, we frequently give the meanings of words in terms of their relationships. If you were asked to give the meaning of the word developed, for example, you might simply reply it is the same as

grown or give the meaning of profit as the opposite of loss or the meaning of panther as it is a kind of an animal. There are many types of lexical relations (Crystal, 1987: 402):

**1. Synonymy:** The first definition of synonymy is that certain pairs or groups of lexical items bear a special sort of semantic resemblance.

Cruse (1986: 267) confirms that it is obvious that synonyms must have a significant degree of semantic overlap, as evidenced by common semantic traits. For example, truthful and honest fall within our broad class of synonyms, and have a relatively high semantic overlap, while truthful and purple, with virtually no traits in common, are about as far away from synonymy as one can get. In another way, we can say the more semantic traits a pair of words share, the more synonymous they are. Although truthful and honest do not have identical meanings, in saying John is honest the difference with John is truthful is not being highlighted; nor in saying (John is not honest or dishonest) is one implying that perhaps truthful would be more appropriate.

Yule (1996: 118) defines synonyms as two or more forms with very closely related meanings which are often not always, intersubstitutable in sentences. Examples of synonyms are the pairs broad-wide, hide-conceal, almost-nearly, cab-taxi, liberty-freedom, answer-reply.

**2. Antonymy:** Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms, and commonly used examples are the pairs, quick-slow, rich-poor, alive-dead, old-young.

Antonyms are usually divided into two main types: gradable and non-gradable, gradable antonyms, can be used in comparative constructions like bigger than, smaller than. Also, the negative of one

member of the gradable pair does not necessarily imply the other. With non-gradable antonyms, also called complementary pairs, comparative constructions are not normally used (the expressions *deader* or *more dead* sound strange), and the negative of one member does imply the other. On the other hand, reversives actually mean do the reverse, examples are *enter-exit*, *tie-untie*, *pack-unpack*, *lengthen-shorten*, *raise-lower* and *dress-undress* (Palmer, 1981: 93-94).

Antonyms share the following characteristics:

- a. They are fully gradable (most are adjectives, a few are verbs).
  - b. Members of a pair denote degrees of some variable property such as length, speed, weight, accuracy, etc.
  - c. When more strongly intensified, the members of a pair move, as it were in opposite directions along the scale representing degrees of the relevant variable property. Thus, *very heavy* and *very light* and *light*, for instance, are more widely separated on the scale of weight than *fairly heavy* and *fairly light*.
  - d. The terms of a pair do not strictly bisect a domain: there is a range of values of the available property, lying between those covered by the opposed terms (Cruse, 1986: 204).
- 3. Hyponymy:** When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy, some typical example pair are *daffodil-flower*, *dog-animal*, *poodle-dog*, *carrot-vegetable*, *banyan-tree*. Hyponymous relations, are essentially looking at the meaning of words in some type of hierarchical relationship (Yule, 1996: 119).
- 4. Homophony (Homonymy):** When two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, they are described as homophones.

Some examples are bare-bear, meat-meet, flour-flower, pail-pale, sew-so. While the term homonymy is used when one form (written and spoken) has two or more unrelated meanings. Examples of homonyms are the pairs bank (of a river) – bank (financial institution), bat (flying creature) – bat (used in sports), race (on test of speed) – race (ethnic group), pupil (at school) – pupil (in the eye) and mole (on skin) – mole (small animal) (Lyons, 1981: 24-25).

5. **Polysemy:** Can be defined as one form (written or spoken) having multiple meaning which are all related by extension. The word head, used to refer to the object of top of your body, on top of a glass of beer, on top of a company or department, or foot (of a person, of bed, of mountain), or run (person does, water does, colors do) (Yule, 1996: 120).
6. **Collocations:** The term collocation will be used to consist to sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur, but which are nonetheless fully transparent in the sense that each lexical constituent is also a semantic constituent. Such expressions as (to pick a semantic area at random) fine weather, torrential rain, light drizzle, high winds are example of collocations (Cruse, 1986: 40).

An important aspect of knowing a word is knowing which words it will collocate with. Presentation of words must therefore always be accompanied by a good number of typical collocations (Crystal, 1991: 65) (for more information see, Chafe, 1970: 99).

## **2.5 Vocabulary Development:**

Deighton (1959: 3) mentions that there are four general principles of context operation:

- (a) The extent to which context reveals meaning varies with the experience of the reader. Words that are commonplace in adult life are new and strange to the developing reader. It cannot be sufficiently emphasized that the connection between an unfamiliar word and its context must be clear-cut or the context reveals nothing, this is the first general principle.
- (b) The second principle is that context generally reveals only one of the meanings of an unfamiliar word. Most words in common English usage have more than one meaning recorded in the dictionary. These dictionary entries are only an interpretation by the dictionary editors of the common denominator in great many instances in which a particular word is used. The dictionary entries are indispensable to us as a point of departure in understanding a word. Dictionary entries are shaped, changed and altered by individual contexts, each of which is different. This in brief is why a single context can illuminate only one phase of a particular word.
- (c) The third principle of context operation is that context seldom clarifies the whole of any meaning.

Occasionally, context will provide a synonym, but it must be remembered that synonyms are never exact equivalents. Words are not like coins of even value, to be substituted at random in the exchange of communication. Context more often provides only clues for which the reader may infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word. It is important to

make clear to developing readers that the whole meaning of an unfamiliar can never be got (be understood) in the first encounter with it.

Meaning comes from experience and the wider the experience with a word, the richer will its meaning be for the reader. From this follows the

- (d) Fourth general principle – that vocabulary growth through context revelation is a gradual matter. It is a matter of finding one clue here another there, of fitting them together, of making tentative judgement, and revising them at later experience requires. It is a matter of building meaning into a word over a period of years.

A Four-part Vocabulary Development Program are:

- (1) Wide Reading, (2) Teaching Individual Words (3) Teaching Word Learning Strategies and (4) Fostering Word Consciousness (Grave et al. 1998).

Teaching individual words:

- (a) Middle to low frequency words that is specific to content area instruction.  
 (b) High frequency words that one encounters in daily language.

Learning the meaning of a word occurs in many ways such as through sight, smell and touch, but in school, almost everything that counts involves language (Ramey and Ramey, 1990).

### **2.5.1 Teaching Vocabulary Development:**

Zepeda (2000: 6) confirms that selection words to teach:

1. A teacher should identify the words in selection that are likely to be known or difficult; to make a list of these words on the board.

2. Determine the words which pupils do not know by doing a quick informal assessment.
3. Analyze the word knowledge data.

Zepeda also states modifying the pupils' behaviour to take a delight in words and let that delight show, as well as providing an inviting environment for pupils. Finally, to adjust the pupils expectation upward and to recognize differences among pupils.

In other words, vocabulary development depends on the teacher's audience and their level of spoken, written and hearing vocabulary.

## **2.6 Steps of Growth in the English Vocabulary:**

Seidle (1978: 1-4) mentions nine steps, they are:

1. Vocabulary growth and change leads to new developments in knowledge. New ideas must have new labels to name them. Communication of new ideas would be impossible without new labels. Most of words come from the English of special subjects such as science and technology, psychology, sociology, politics and economics.
2. The meaning of words can be understood in a particular situation. For example, to lock someone out **usually means to lock a door in order to prevent someone from entering**. However, the verb has a special meaning in the context of industrial relations. It means that the employers refuse to let the workers return to their places of work until they stop protesting. Nouns and verbs will become new words if they are used in special context. For example, the noun a lockout is considered a new word in the language. When it is used like this gives new meaning.

3. New ideas can be expressed by the combination of two or three existing words. Thus, help language to grow. For example, the words wage and to-freeze are well known, but the idea of a wage-freeze came into the language a few years ago. To freeze wages is another expression from British politics and economics and means “To stop increase in wages”. The same idea is found in **to freeze prices and a price freeze**.
4. The change of a verbal phrase into a noun(as in a lock-out) or by changing a noun into a verb to form a new word, these changes are very popular in **American English (AE) – British English (BE)** quickly borrows new word formation from (AE).

Nouns formed from verbal phrases, a stop-over, a check-up, a walk-over, a hand-out, a set-up all common especially in formed style.

Some verbs formed from nouns: to pilot (a plane), to captain (a team), to radio a message, to service (a motor car), to air-freight (a parcel) to Xerox (a document).

5. There are other short-cut which BE borrowed from AE. Verbs can also be made from the root of a noun, e.g. to housekeep from the noun housekeeper, to barkeep from barkeeper, to babysit from babysitter. To house-sit is a new word which has been copied from to babysit, because it includes the same idea, namely, to look after someone’s house while he is away.
6. Another short-cut joins words together in order to form one objective instead of a long phrase, e.g. around-the-clock service, instead of service which is offered around clock (i.e. 24 hours).
7. New words can be made by adding endings such as -ise or isation to adjectives or nouns. This is especially popular in the language of



newspaper. Some example: to decimalise instead of the long phrase (to change into the decimal system), to departmentalise instead of (to organise into different department) and containerisation instead of (the process of putting things into containers).

8. Prefixes such as mini-, maxi-, super-, uni-, non-, extra-, are put in front of words (mainly nouns and adjectives) to indicate the quantity or quality of some thing in the shortest possible way. Here are some examples: supergrade petrol (the best quality) uni-sex (in fashion, the same design in clothes for men and women), a non-stick frying-pan, non skid tyres, mini-skirt, extra-mild cigarettes.
9. New words can be made by mixing two words that already exist, i.e. by combining part of one word with part of another, A well-known example is smog (smoke + fog). Other are branch (breakfast + lunch), newscast (news + broadcast) and motel (motorist + hotel).

AE uses more of these words than BE. Here are some from AE laundromat (laundry + automat), cabelgram (cable + telegram) and medicare (medical + care). Here is one from the world of economics, stagflation (stagnation + inflation).

(For more information, see Unesco, 1973: 45 and Robins, 1980: 30).

### **2.6.1 The Role of Vocabulary Items:**

Learning a language means learning thousands of vocabulary items. During your kick start phase of language learning. You might aim to learn your first thousand vocabulary items.

Vocabulary plays an important part in learning to read. Remember, you will start out as a poor speaker and gradually improve. As beginning readers pupils use the words they have heard to make sense of the words they see in print. So, the first vocabulary you will want to

learn will be the vocabulary that even a poor speaker would know. Consider for example, what happens when a beginning reader comes to the word “dig” in a book. As she begins to figure out the sounds represented by the letters d, i, g, the reader recognize that the sounds make up a very familiar word that she has heard or said many times (Gulio, 1972: 50).

Beginning readers have a much more difficult time reading words that are not already part of their vocabulary. Some words would be important even for a poor speaker, while other words would be suitable only to a more advanced speaker. Consider the following words for facial expressions or facial movement: blink, grimace, smile. In using English, people use smile more frequently than they use blink, while they do not use grimace very often of at all. Native speakers of a language will probably have a good sense for which words are high frequency words, and which are less frequent. Even without the help of your LRP, you will have some sense of what words are important. If you are a wore of some area of vocabulary that you will have opportunity to use in the near future, that will be a good area of vocabulary to work on (Bryant and Lynette, 1985: 32).

Pascoe (1993: 10) states that pupils anticipate vocabulary items when they acquired answers which are provided by statement on vocabulary and how to learn words.

## **2.7 Types of Vocabulary Knowledge:**

Vocabulary knowledge can be divided into four types:

1. Active speaking vocabulary that is words that the speaker is able to use in speaking.
2. Passive listening vocabulary which is, words that the listener recognizes but can not necessarily produce by speaking.

3. Passive reading vocabulary, which refers to words that a reader recognizes, but would not necessarily be able to produce.
4. Active writing vocabulary, which is words that a writer is able to use in writing. Pupils use this type when writing free compositions, or expressing summaries about reading comprehension passages.

<b>Oral</b>	<b>Graphic</b>
Active spoken	Active written
Passive listening	Passive reading

(Widdowson, 1995: 168)

Ramey (1990: 25) indicates that there are three types of vocabulary knowledge:

1. **Controlled:** The rate at which you introduce vocabulary.
2. **Core:** The vocabulary with which you come into any situation.
3. **Expressive:** Your emotional vocabulary when pupils are engaged in writing free composition.

(Lesson, 1975: 25)

### **2.7.1 Levels of Vocabulary Knowledge:**

Although it is enough for pupils to have a superficial acquaintance with some words in a selection, for most words and all important words, pupils must have an established level of knowledge if they are to attain full reading comprehension (Nagy et al., 1985: 31).

Graves and Slater (1996: 31) state that there are three levels of vocabulary knowledge:

**Level 1:** Established meaning is easily, rapidly and automatically recognizes.

**Level 2:** Acquainted, Basic meaning is recognized after some thought.

**Level 3:** Unknown, Meaning is completely unfamiliar.

### **2.7.2 Word Meaning and Vocabulary Knowledge:**

Pupils learn word meanings in three ways:

- a. They engage daily in oral language. Pupils learn words through conversations speaking with the teacher is beneficial. The more the language experiences, the more word meaning pupils learn.
- b. They listen to the teacher read to them conversations about books during, before and after reading help pupils learn new words and concepts and utilize background knowledge.
- c. They read extensively on their own. The more pupils read on their own, the more they encounter and the more word meaning they learn. Learning a new meaning for a known word (i.e. the meaning in the learner's oral vocabulary). Learning the meaning of a new word representing an unknown concept or a thing and clarifying and enriching the meaning of a known word.

(Graves and Slater, 1999)

### **2.7.3 Vocabulary Knowledge and Reading Experience:**

To cultivate pupils as good readers, it is essential to:

- a. Share the reading experience.
- b. Make reading materials accessible.
- c. Modify pupils behaviour.
- d. Modify the teacher's own behaviour.

To consolidate reading experience a teacher must let:

- a. Pupils see when he reads, his tone and volume of voice matter a lot, as well as the teacher's facial expressions and **gestures** increase understanding. The teacher should also recognize that timing what she/he says can influence its outcome.
- b. Share information from the teacher's reading oral reading, read the newspaper, read periodical, read aloud and talk about their reading choices.
- c. Encourage identification with characters. The teacher should follow this procedure when he wants to modify pupils' behaviour by asking them to dramatize dialogues, a scene from a play or a novel.
- d. Connect stories to pupils' lives.
- e. Make connection among books.
- f. Urge the pupils to question books instead of teachers

(Lara Brekel: 1999)

Wide reading means all the reading we do and the different situations in which we read. Wide reading leads to reading experience in pupils behaviour who needs to be concerned with wide reading and acquiring reading experiences in pupils behaviour are teachers, parents and community. Teachers also participate with parents to increase reading abilities by sharing practical reasons for reading, shopping, cooking, home repair, crafts, jobs and directions (Ibid.).

Zapeda indicates that reading material should be essential to academic success if teachers follow the following points:

1. Offer reading material as reward.
2. Subscribe to pupils magazines.

3. Becoming pen pals with other classes. This means enriching their competition spirits.
4. Make a class scrapbook.
5. Make class language experience stories.
6. Introduce pupils to serious books.

(Allington, 2001)

## **2.8 The Importance of Vocabulary Learning:**

Al-Hammash (1961: 7) mentions that vocabulary cuts across all aspects of a language. It is related to pronunciation, sentence-structure, spelling and syntax. Vocabulary problems hinder the acquisition of the linguistic skills which the language teacher tries to develop vocabulary problems help in the solution of problems in other aspects of the language.

If pupils are unable to understand the meaning of more than two words, they will fail in their responses. For example, the item that requires: Write the number of the item and the word or phrase that best fills the blank from the list below:

(beyond, victorious, heal, phenomena, doing up, show off).

Although such vocabularies are familiar to pupils they are the vocabularies which are taken either from their text book -8- or from the literary reader -3- to enable pupils how to express themselves in well-designed precise composition. Sixth preparatory students cannot employ the most suitable words or phrases for certain blanks. This depends on both understanding the meaning of every word whether it is familiar or unfamiliar and memorization of selections of vocabularies.

It is worth mentioning that vocabulary is one of the basic aspect of foreign language learning. It is acquired in the process of learning by the learner and it must be considered the most important, since without a stock of words it is impossible to use a language in practice (Belyayev, 1963: 144).

As a result many interviews carried out by the researcher with a number of young teachers of English at secondary schools. The impression is formed on the part of the researcher that the English language teachers often complain the weakness of the pupils at preparatory stages in their ability with correct responses as they quickly forget foreign words which they have previously learned. Even when, as it seems pupils know those words, it turns out that they use them incorrectly. They also do not employ the most suitable words for a certain context. The defect activity dealing with listening comprehension items at the end of each unit.

Lado (1964: 55) confirms that pupils must be engaged in practice most of the learning time. This principle has a psychological justification, the quantity and permanence of learning are in direct proportion to the amount of practice.

This means that the more the learner is exposed to the language, the more linguistic information he can learn and grasp.

The learning of vocabulary is based on the formation of specific habits. Since this involves the association of symbols and their meanings, it is clear that an enrichment of the meaning of the word is as important as it frequent repetition. The more numerous the associations, the larger the retention and the easier recall. Since the size of one's vocabulary is basic to all facility in speaking and reading the aim should be to secure

permanent retention and automatic response. This is best attained through drills.

Furthermore, a drill or better practice may be given in interesting forms like games, dialogues, dramatization and songs (Huebener, 1969: 88-89).

Acquiring vocabulary is one of the tedious learning tasks confronting the language learners. This task is difficult not only because of the large number of words that must be mastered, but also because so little attention has been given to the problem of making the learner's job easier (Rowley, 1971: 167).

It has been thought that the acquisition of a rich vocabulary is an essential factor in foreign language learning. The priority assigned to vocabulary in language learning makes it quite necessary for teachers of foreign language in general to stress this aspect (Al-Hamash et al., 1974: 49).

### **2.8.1 Phonology and Vocabulary Learning:**

Al-Hamash (1976: 16) also states that pronunciation drills in foreign language teaching are more efficient when based on contrastive studies that point out the differences and similarities between the sound system of the native language and that of the foreign language. Points of differences should be emphasized more than points of similarities because the points in which the two languages indicate difficulties in learning the foreign language.

In another way, it is clear that the mastery of sound system also relate to vocabulary recognition, according to the researcher's point of view, that pupils acquire good knowledge of sound system and their



pronunciation if they are able to understand the meaning of the words that carry the phonetic symbol, it will be easier for pupils to master the phonetic symbols through the recognition of meaning.

However, constant exposures of written words through the use of teaching aid, the use of marker or independent words, such as articles, conjunctions, prepositions and so on, the use of demonstration and the use of ideas proportionate to the age of the learner and his level of recognition are of great use in increasing his stock of vocabulary and in helping him to retain a good amount of what is learnt (Al-Hamash and Younis, 1985: 15).

Furthermore, the teaching of vocabulary through mere explanation of words that are not highly frequent and teachable at this stage may be futile. Students at this stage require a great deal of contextualization and concrete ideas to comprehend fully what is taught and to be able to retain it in the immediate memory.

Another impression caught on the part of the researcher is that many teachers at preparatory stages are unable to concentrate on Parts of Speech and their derivational forms. The idea of suffixes, prefixes and infixes are unknown to the pupils, this is due to the fact that these items are neglected by their teachers. Most of our pupils during their final examinations both 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory grades are unable to recognize selections of vocabulary structure which is necessary for them to understand any reading texts they take in the form of listening comprehension (4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> preparatory grades) or reading comprehension or in the form of unseen passages which is required at the end of each term at least or during the final sitting for examination whether it is Baccalaureate or not.

### **2.8.2 Vocabulary Learning and Academic Success:**

The possession of a large number of vocabulary items is necessary for success in social, professional and intellectual life, in other words, vocabulary is a vehicle for thought, self-expression, interpretation and communication (Al-Kufaishi, 1988: 42).

Darwesh and Al-Jarah (1994: 42) point that learning vocabulary is an important aspect of the speaking, reading and writing skills. Its development requires constant practice on the part of the teacher.

### **2.8.3 Vocabulary Learning and Spelling:**

It has often been pointed out that spelling and vocabulary have got a lot to do with each other, if a pupil does not understand the meaning of any word, how can he/she use it correctly. The mastery of spelling is almost a universal goal in education, but most pupils do not achieve it as they face difficulties in mastering the complexities of spelling, due to the regular and irregular system of word formation.

Spelling is one curricular area in which neither creativity nor divergent thinking is encouraged; only one pattern or arrangement of letters can be accepted correct. The written form or orthography of the English language has an inconsistent pattern; that is, it does not have an accurate one-to-one correspondence with the oral or spoken sound of English. Spelling a word is much more difficult than reading a word (Al-Hammash, 1976: 262).

### **2.8.4 Direct and Indirect Vocabulary Learning:**

Nagy et al. (1985) point that there are direct and indirect vocabulary learning. The direct vocabulary learning is the vocabulary that

pupils are responsible for memorizing in a text, while indirect vocabulary learning refers to pupils learning vocabulary when they hear and see words used in many different contexts, this happens through:

1. Conversation with teachers.
2. Being read to, it means pupils listen to the teacher when he/she tries to explain or discuss scenes from a play or a novel. Expert teachers make pupils' motivation for reading and learning vivid.
3. Reading extensively on their own.

Direct vocabulary instruction makes reading materials accessible. Allington (2001) says that the type of reading seems less critical whether oral, silent, paired or choral as long as pupils are reading, all have been shown to enhance reading achievement.

## **2.9 Vocabulary and Semantic Field Theory:**

Semantic field theory starts from the premise that vocabulary of a language consists not of a long random list of words, but rather of many interrelating networks of relations between words. These networks are called semantic fields. A very simple example of a semantic field is the set of kinship terms: mother, father, son, daughter, brother, sister, aunt, uncle, etc. Clearly all these words share some aspect of meaning which is not present in, say, the item tree. Another example of a semantic field would be verbs of movement: walk, run, stroll, amble, trot, jog. But this field differs from kinship terms in the sense that here we may want to say that stroll is also part of another field consisting of wander-stroll, roam-ramble. Equally, run is a member of the field 'moving fast': run, sprint, canter, gallop, dash. It is in this sense that the vocabulary of a language

should be seen as a set of interrelating network (Lyons, 1970: 143) (For more information, see Fisher, 1956:34; Gowers, 1975: 56).

### **2.9.1 Vocabulary Analyses and Semantic Fields:**

By analysing vocabulary into fields, we are no longer dealing with random lists, but with a systematic structure and one which can be practically passed on to learners. There is, in addition, evidence from psycholinguistics to suggest that the mind takes account of semantic similarity. For example, speech errors made by native speakers (often called slips of the tongue) show that many wrong words, far from being random mistakes, in fact come from the same semantic field as the intended word (that is the intended word shares some meaning with the wrong word). For example:

- (a) I have my book and jigsaw..... I mean my cross word.
- (b) We invited him to .... Asked him to buy crisps.
- (c) I really like to ..... hate to get up in the morning.

In some cases, the 'wrong' word is a blend of two words from the same semantic field:

- I swindged (switched/changed)
- Momentaneous (instantaneous/ momentary)
- Horrible (terrible/ horrible)

While this evidence is far from conclusive, it does not suggest strongly that the mind uses semantic similarity in classifying words. It is axiomatic that any method of teaching which makes use of the little that is known about psychological processes must be more effective than one which

does not. So we should teach foreign language in semantic sets (cited in Miller and Laird, 1976: 40-45).

### **2.9.2 Lexis Versus Vocabulary:**

Lexicography affirms that lexicography is a branch of applied lexicology, concerned with the principles and practice of dictionary-making, i.e. compiling, comparing, defining, and grouping lexical items in book form.

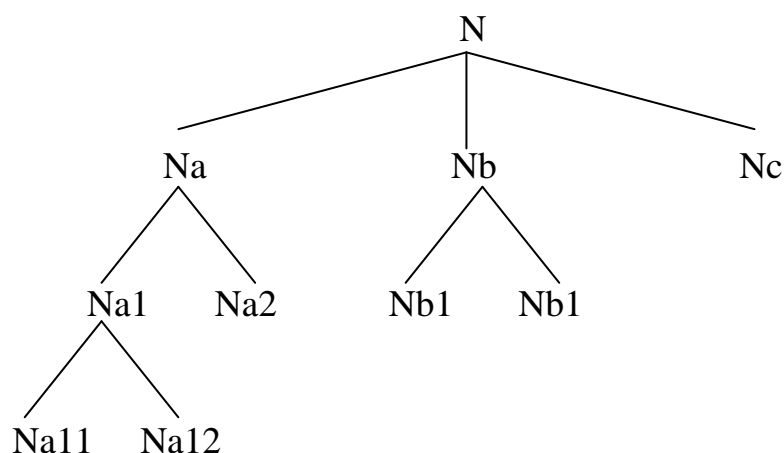
Lexicology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the study and analyses of vocabulary items of a language as well as meaning and evolution (Lyons, 1970: 143).

Lexicon is a collection of the vocabulary or lexical items in a language or language variety, e.g. the words listed in a specialized glossary (Lyons, 1970: 512).

Lexis is a name given by some linguists to that level of a linguistic analysis which is neither phonological nor grammatical in nature. This usually comprises the vocabulary items of a language as well as their lexical or semantic meaning in specific contexts. While a basic unit of the vocabulary of a language, as opposed to a grammatical unit such as the morpheme and semantic unit such as the sememe is known as lexeme. In another way, a unit of vocabulary is generally referred to as lexical item, or lexeme. Lexical structure of lexical system is the way in which lexical items are organized in a language in the form of lexical entries (Ibid.: 542).

Many semanticists have been attracted by the possibility of describing the vocabulary of the language in terms of a hierarchical, taxonomic classification working from the most general to the more specific categories.

The rules divided the vocabulary into hierarchically-ordered class and subclasses. In this figure -1-



Such that Na11 and Na12 are totally included in Na1. Na1 is totally included in Na and Na is totally included in N and so on. This assumption was made in the earliest generative grammars which adopted the system of formalization (introduced into linguistics by Chomsky (Palmer, 1981: 126).

It is unsatisfactory in two aspects. First, it leads to a large number of separate lists of words in the lexicon, with a commensurately high degree of multiple-membership. The class of nouns and the class of verbs, abbreviated as N and V, contains thousands of words including those which occur in the actual sentences listed above:

N: {dog, man, chimpanzee, banana, wind, door, linguist, fact, meaning, structure, child, milk, meat}.

V: {bites, eats, opens, recognizes, determines, undresses, frightens, drinks, sees...}.

One obvious way of amending the proposed grammatical analysis is to subdivide the classes of N and V and formulate, not one new rule, but a whole set of different rules. Let us therefore classify the vocabulary as follows:

$N_a = \{\text{dog, man, chimpanzee, linguist, child, wind, .....}\}$

$N_b = \{\text{banana, door, milk, meat, .....}\}$

$N_c = \{\text{fact, meaning, structure, .....}\}$

$V_d = \{\text{eats, bites, frightens, undresses, sees, ...}\}$

$V_e = \{\text{recognizes, determines, sees, eats, .....}\}$

$V_s = \{\text{determines, .....}\}$

Second, and more important, it makes the formation of the grammatical rules more complicated than the facts would suggest is necessary. To quote Chomsky, “the difficulty is that this subcategorization, i.e. the sub-classification of the vocabulary is typically not strictly hierarchic, but involves cross classification. Thus, for example, Nouns in English are either proper (John, English) or common (boy, book) and either Human (Johnm boy) or non-Human (Egypt, book) (Lyons, 1977: 580).

As far as the lexicon is concerned, the effect of cross-classification is clear. It means that each word must be indexed in a way that makes it possible to select for instance any ‘human’ noun (regardless of whether it is proper or common), any ‘concrete’ noun (regardless of whether it is ‘animate’ or ‘inanimate’), and so on.

The most important factor in the hierarchical organization of the vocabulary by means of hyponymy is the structure of the culture in which language operates and in which it serves as the principal medium for communication. According to the researcher's opinion, she infers that vocabulary is a part of the culture. It is a truism that words referring to artifacts cannot be defined except in relation to the purpose or normal function of the objects they refer to: e.g., school, a building, where children are taught; house, 'a building where people live'. But this is true of the vocabulary as a whole, which is not only anthropocentric' (organized according to general human interests and values), but 'culture-bound' (reflecting the more particular institutions and practices of different cultures) (Ibid.: 572).

### **2.9.3 Componential Analysis:**

Words can be said to belong to the same semantic field when they share some aspects of meaning. At the same time, they hardly ever share all aspects of meaning. For example, walk and run are similar in both being verbs describing ways in which animate beings with legs move, yet they differ in that run implies a different usually faster movement of the legs than walk. Componential analysis offers a systematic way of describing such similarities and differences. It consists, simply of breaking down the meaning of a word or words into different pieces known as semantic components. An analysis of walk might be:

/+ move/    /+ on feet/    /+ on land/ /+ placing down one foot after another/ /+ contact maintained with ground/ with each component enclosed in square brackets, whereas that for run might be:



/+ move/ /+ quickly/ /+ by feet/ / + on land/ /+ place down one foot after another/.

They share some, but not all components. Semantic theory, therefore, provides a way of systematically describing the vocabulary of a language which is at least compatible with what we know about how the brain encodes words (cited in Ulman, 1967: 59).

#### **2.9.4 Words Versus Idioms:**

All native speakers of a language seem to have an intuitive idea of what is meant by the term 'word' in its general sense, whether they write the language or not, but word as a linguistic unit is more difficult to define and has been the subject of much discussion. In many ways the word is a unit of language (language as a system, rather than of parole or speech), and for many writing systems a written word can be defined as a sequence of letters which occur between spaces or we can say that word is a unit of expression which has universal intuitive recognition by native speakers, in both spoken and written language. However, there are several difficulties in arriving at a consistent use of the term in relation to other categories of linguistic description and in the comparison of languages of different structural types. Those problems relate mainly to word identification and definition. They include, for example, decisions over word boundaries (e.g. is a unit as washing machine two words or it is one, to be written washing-machine) (cited in Van Buren: 12) (For more information, see Allen and Corder, 1974: 122).

### **2.9.5 Word Senses:**

Gowers (1975: 25) points three main senses of ‘word’ are usually ‘distinguished (though terminology varies):

1. ‘Word’ is often referred to as the orthographic word (for writing) or of the phonological word (for speech), or words are the physical definable units which one encounters in a stretch of writing (bounded by spaces) or speech (where identification is more difficult, but where there may be phonological clues to identify boundaries, such as pause or juncture features) (Stageberg, 1981: 50-51).
2. Gowers denotes that the set of forms which are plainly variants of the same unit, such as walk-walked-walking-walks, sing-sang-sung-singing-singer. The underlying word unit is often referred to as lexeme-lexemes are the units of vocabulary, and as such would be listed in a dictionary.
3. The need for comparable abstract unit to be set up to show how words work in the Grammar of A language, and a word without qualification, is usually reversed for this role. A word, then, is a grammatical unit, of the same theoretical kind as morpheme and sentence. In hierarchical model of analysis, sentences, clauses, etc.) consist of words, and words consist of morphemes (minimally, one free morpheme). Word-order refers to sequential arrangements of words in a language. Languages are sometimes classified in terms of whether their word order, is relatively ‘free’ (as in Latin) or ‘fixed’ as in English (Gowers, 1975: 160-161).

One well-known definition of the word is A word may be defined as the union of a particular meaning with a particular complex of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. This definition, it will

be observed, makes it necessary condition that the word should be simultaneously a semantic, phonological and grammatical unit. It may well be true that all the units which we wish to regard as words in the description of a given language satisfy these three conditions (Valdmen, 1966: 32).

Some linguists have suggested that the definition can be made satisfactory by saying that words are the smallest segments of utterances which fulfil the three conditions. But this will not do either. The un and the are not acceptable satisfy the three criteria. Yet they would not generally be regarded as words. With the majority of linguists, that in all languages the morpheme is the minimum unit of grammatical analysis (Lyons, 1981: 39-40).

Since the general tendencies of present day English are towards more idiomatic usage, idioms are not separate part of the language which one can choose either to use or to omit, but they form an essential part of the general vocabulary of English (Crystal, 1987: 252).

### **2.10 The Features of Some English Idioms:**

1. Some idioms are often odd, illogical or even grammatically incorrect.
2. Some idioms are completely regular and logical in their grammar and vocabulary.
3. Idioms as a whole cannot be changed except perhaps, only the tense of the verb.
4. English is very rich in idiomatic expressions. In fact, it is difficult to speak or write English without using idioms.
5. It cannot be explained why a particular idiom has developed an unusual arrangement or choice of words. The idiom has been fixed by

long usage, as is sometimes seen for the vocabulary. The idiom to buy a pig in a poke means ‘to buy something which one has not inspected previously and which is worthless than one paid for it’. The word poke is an old word meaning sack. Poke only appears in present-day English with this meaning in this idiom. Therefore, it is clear that the idiom has continued to be used long after the individual word.

The researcher summarizes that a word is the smallest element of a sentence which has positional mobility. That is, the smallest that can be moved around without destroying the grammaticality of the sentence (ignoring any semantic effects):

- a. John saw Bill.
- b. Bill saw John.
- c. Bill, John saw.

While an idiom is an expression whose meaning cannot be inferred from the meaning of its parts (Seidle, 1978: 5-60 (for more information, see Widdowson, 1995: 20; Gleason, Jr., 1965: 63; Smith and Wilson, 1979: 53).

### **2.10.1 Idioms and Changing Attitudes:**

Idioms may change attitudes to language. words which were considered to be slang in the past may be more acceptable in present day English, they may now be considered to be colloquial or informal. The expression to be browned off with somebody was in the past a slang expression for “to be bored with or irritated by somebody”. Most people considered such expression to be informal and not slang. An important fact which must be stressed is that idioms are not only...but also colloquial expressions, as many people believe. They can appear in

formal style and in slang. They can appear in poetry or in the language of Shakespeare and the Bible. In other words, that an idiom is a number of words, which are taken together, mean something different from the individual words of the idiom when they stand alone (Ibid.: 9-10).

### **2.11 Linguistic Theory and language Learner:**

In studying a language, the linguist's goal is to provide a descriptive model which correctly produces all the possible sentences of that language, and which reflects the intuitions of its native speakers about when and how those sentences should be used. While the language learner is not of course, consciously interested in providing a description of the language he is learning, it is obvious that he must acquire, in some sense, all the information which would enable him to do so, since it is the same information which will enable him to speak the language correctly. The native speaker is in possession of 'all the information' and he can use it to judge the acceptability of any sentence. For him, the subtle distinction between an attractive girl/ a pretty girl/ a beautiful girl/ a good-looking girl/ a nice girl/ are things he makes use of his everyday conversation without giving them a second thought. These distinctions are, however, the despair of any foreign learners unless there exists a systematic way of representing them, and therefore of being able to teach them. Two aspects of semantic theory offer just such a possibility. They are semantic field theory, and componential analysis (Cited in Miller and Laird's, 1976: 51).

## **2.12 The Relation between Vocabulary and Comprehension:**

Vocabulary is critical to comprehension. Students must know what individual words mean within the context of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Research suggests the proportion of difficulty in text is the single most powerful predictor of text difficulty: reader's general vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of how well a reader can understand text (Wallace, 1987: 60).

The investigation attempts to give a solution to this problem: (1) Most students of 6<sup>th</sup> grade are incapable of understanding the unseen passages. (2) Students at 6<sup>th</sup> grade on their way of first and second year in universities cannot communicate in English.

Research shows the average 6<sup>th</sup> grade students has a reading vocabulary of about 2000 to 5000 words, yet the material he/she will read in both intermediate and preparatory grades contains approximately 9000 different words. So how can they acquire a rich vocabulary which is an essential factor in foreign language learning and academic success. The priority assigned to vocabulary in language learning made it quite necessary for most teacher instruction to pupils is given through words primarily speech with elaboration or reinforcement in writing.

- Pupils seek information and often show their understanding through speech.
- Learning about most subjects involves reading.

Written materials reinforce what is read or spoken

The pupils were expected to manipulate that wide range of vocabulary correctly and fluently by applying a wide range of vocabulary of grammatical rules (Allen and Corder, 1974: 133-134).

### **2.12.1 The Relation between reading Vocabulary and speaking**

#### **Vocabulary:**

It is instructive to study one's own vocabulary. Specific word instruction, or teaching individual words can deepen pupils' knowledge of word meaning. In depth knowledge of word meanings can help pupils understand what they are hearing or reading. It also can help them use words accurately in speaking and writing. The researcher has found from this point that it is beneficial to make a list of:

- (a) those words which we feel sure pupils learned in their primary stage through speaking and reading,
- (b) those which pupils learned in later scholastic periods intermediate through conversations are repetition,
- (c) those which have entered the pupils' vocabulary from books. That's to say:
  - (1) Reading vocabulary means the vocabulary you come across in print.
  - (2) Receptive /listening/hearing. The vocabulary that you hear.
  - (3) Sight words you know automatically.
  - (4) Speaking words you use when you speak.
  - (5) Writing: the vocabulary you use in writing (cited in Rupley, Logan and Nichols: 5-7) "Vocabulary Instruction in a Balanced Reading Programme" (December 1998/ January 1999).

#### **2.12.2 Practising Vocabulary:**

The learner using this type of teaching material will have sufficient information about any word presented in a semantic field to enable him to use it appropriately and normally in a number of different contexts. He

then needs opportunities to use it. So an important part of structured vocabulary acquisition course must be its exercises, which should be so arranged words appear not just in the lesson they have been taught, but also in subsequent lessons.

Once the learner is aware of the concepts of field theory, feature analysis, and collocation, his knowledge of meaning and use of particular words can be reinforced by exercises which are specifically designed to reflect these concepts. (See Appendix 5).

Exercise -1- requires the learner make an informal componential analysis of the two words.

Exercise -2- tests collocational competence, and also the learner's knowledge of how words in a field relate each other.

Exercises -3- and -4- also test collocational competence. If a learner is able to run through exercises. Like these without hesitation, he knows that the words concerned have entered his active vocabulary, in other words, he knows them (Allington, 2001).

Tests were designed to check the learner's acquisition of vocabulary by asking them to render lists of words, phrases, sentences or paragraphs into the target language.

As a reaction, the advocates of new teaching methods have been impatient with such tenets. They stress the view that it is essential, especially of the early stages from learning, to teach a selected set of structural patterns while giving vocabulary teaching and learning a minor role. Despite this view, it is unrealistic to believe that the teaching of vocabulary should be given little or no attention.



It is true that, during the early stage, this should not go beyond what is usually referred to as “basic vocabulary” until the learners master the manipulation of the basic structural patterns; at an advanced grade such as 6<sup>th</sup> grade new vocabulary items can be included. Yet, this should not give the impression that teachers should refrain from giving the teaching and ultimately the testing of vocabulary special care (for more information, see Fisher and Terry. 1982: 77).

# CHAPTER THREE

## *The Test*

An Achievement test is constructed by the researcher to fulfil the main aims of the research which include:

- a. Identifying the level of vocabulary instruction in understanding any reading and it's comprehension.
- b. Specifying and classifying difficulties and reasons that lead to the lack of vocabulary.

### **3.1 Procedures of the Test:**

The procedures followed are:

- a. Describing the population and choosing the sample of the research.
- b. It also followed in carrying out the test building, the analysis of it's items statistically; difficulty level, discrimination power, the attractiveness of wrong options, validity, reliability and static methods which fulfil the objectives of the research.

### **3.2 The Purpose of the Test:**

As far as this study is concerned with the vocabulary instruction on developing the pupils capacities to understand the whole items submitted by the Ministry of Education during the final Baccalaureate Sitting Examination for 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stages. Therefore, the test covers the whole materials in Books -5- and Book -8-.

The researcher has taken the following steps in constructing a test suitable to the objectives of her research:

1. Reviewing the test book for the 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory grades (see Appendix 2 and Appendix 3).
2. Selecting the vocabulary items that sample adequately the material based on frequency counts of lexical items occurring in the represented sample of the language involve in Book -5- and Book -8- (also see Appendix 2 and Appendix 3).
3. Testing the pupil's passive vocabulary rather than the active one. Although the test intends to test both of them.
4. Designing multiple choice items to test meaning identification and phonemic form whereas the graphic form is tested, moreover the use of completion techniques.
5. Testing the pupil's knowledge in English spelling. English spelling has as is widely known, its regularities, which make spelling a difficult activity to perform. It also has a number of regular patterns and rules. When studying the pupil's comprehension in any natural language, both regular and irregular forms should be taken into consideration.

This is applicable in 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stages. Spelling is one curricular area in which neither creativity nor divergent thinking is encouraged; only one pattern or arrangement of letters can be accepted as correct. The written form or orthography of the English language has an inconsistent pattern, that it does not have accurate one-to-one correspondence with the oral or spoken of English. Therefore, spelling is not an easy task even for children in primary stages (Al-Hamash, 1984: 39-45).

### **3.3 Limits of the Test:**

1. The Population: It consists of (150) pupils from 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate schools, males and females, and (100) pupils from 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory schools, (50) male and (50) females. The schools are taken from Saladdin Governorate.

The number of pupils at 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate schools are (870) male while female are (650). The number of pupils at 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory, scientific and literary branches. Scientific branch (150) male, while (130) female. Literary branch (130) male, while female (25).

The total number of pupils at 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate stage is (1520). The Total number of pupils male (280) in both branches. The total number of pupils in both branches female (155). Scientific branch both males and females are (280). Literary branch both male and female are (155).

The total number of pupils at 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate stage is (1520). The total number of pupils at 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stage both scientific and literary are (435) which is described in table (1) as follows:

**Table (1): The Number of Population**

School	Gender		Total	Kind of Study				Total
	Male	Female		Literary		Scientific		
Intermediate	870	650	280	Male	Female	Male	Female	1520
Preparatory	150	130		130	25	150	130	435
Total				Intermediate				1520
				Preparatory				435

2. The sample of the research, the researcher has chosen (100) pupils randomly from both stages (25) male and (25) females from intermediate and (50) from preparatory (25) male, (15) of them from

literary branch and (13) of them from scientific, and (25) females (10) of them from literary branch and (12) from scientific which is described in table (2):

**Table (2): The Sample of the Research**

School	Gender		Kind of Study				Total
	Male	Female	Literary		Scientific		
Intermediate	25	25					50
Preparatory	25	25	15	10	13	12	50
Total	50	50	15	10	13	12	100

### **3.4 Building Up the Test:**

The researcher has built up the test according to:

1. Dependent experiences of the researcher as she had twenty years in teaching 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stage in Developmental and Distinguished Secondary Schools.
2. The previous studies in the field of linguistics.
3. The literature that has the relation ship with this study.
4. After the researcher has gathered the items, she displayed them to many experts, professors at Tikrit University as well as to many specialists and well-efficient teachers in English language and psychology, to ensure that each item of the test was suitable or not with the aim of the test. The experts decide all of the items are suitable (see Appendix 1).

### **3.5 Test Administration:**

- a. In order to know if there is any difficulty in the items of the test, the researcher displays them to (40) pupils at both intermediate and

preparatory schools, after being certain that there are no difficulties faced by the students and the time that has covered all the items of the test was (90) minutes. On that basis, the test becomes ready for application.

- b. After the researcher adjust some items which experts indicate, and then she gets each item achieves more than 80% percent of agreement of the experts will be correct, according to that she remains all the items; therefore, the test has taken it's final shape, and it has become ready to primary application in order to analyse its item statistically.

### **3.6 Items of the Test:**

The test consists of (22) items for 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and (23) items for 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stage, each answer of each item consists of either four options one of them is correct answer or the testee can use information which is found in the passage. Some of the answers test the testees passive and active vocabularies. The correct answer is given two marks and the incorrect zero on the base of this norm, the researcher carries out statistical treatments of test items, difficulties, discrimination and incorrect answers attraction.

### **3.7 Criteria for the Evaluation of the Test:**

#### **3.7.1 Test Validity:**

Heaton (1975: 153) indicates that validity of a test is the extent to which it measures what is supposed to measure and nothing else.

Validity of a test is perhaps one of the most complex concepts in test construction. It refers to the degree of success with which a technique

or any other instrument is measuring what it claims to measure (Verma and Beard, 1981: 87).

Two types of validity are considered important, content and face validity. Therefore, both types have been adopted for the purpose of this research. Below is a brief explanation of the major features of them.

### **3.7.1.1 Face Validity:**

Face validity refers not to what the test actually measures, but to what it appears superficially to measure. Face validity pertains to whether the test “Looks Valid” to the examinees who take it, the administrative, personnel who decides on its use, and other technically untrained observers (Anastasi, 1976: 139 and Harris, 1969: 21).

### **3.7.1.2 Content Validity:**

This kind of validity has been achieved when the researcher has introduced the items of the test according to the behavioural objectives that were located by the researcher herself and takes agreement of experts.

Lado (1961: 181) supports the consideration given to frequency and states that some vocabularies are selected on the basis of frequency, other on the coverage of a maximum range of power to define other meaning.

As Mackey (1969: 177) indicates the items occurring most frequently are those which the learner is most likely to meet, they are the ones which are selected for teaching. Moreover, since frequent items are more readily recognized than infrequent ones, fluency in a language depends on the fluency of what is taught.

Anastasi (1976: 134-137) also emphasizes the idea content validity involves essentially the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured. Such validation procedure is commonly used in evaluating achievement tests.

Therefore, a survey is made by the researcher of the items of activities covered in Book (5), as well as the review units of Book (8) concerning vocabulary and its role in derivation, spelling and understanding the whole items of the Baccalaureate questions. Besides, word counts have been made and words have been arranged according to their frequency of occurrence.

Mehrans and Lehmann (1973: 290) state that content validity is particularly important for achievement tests.

Undoubtedly, the most important aspect for validity for achievement test is content validity the extent to which the test adequately covers the syllabus area to be tested. To have content validity, a test must reflect both the content and the balance of teaching (Deal, 1975: 30).

To ensure content and face validity the test has been exposed to a jury of experts in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. Each member has been requested to point out his/her remarks and suggestions the suitability of the test to the level of the pupils.

Remarks concerning the suitability of the items have been analysed and the items that scored a higher percentage of agreement from the member (see Appendix 1) members have been retained, while the items that scored a relatively low percentage have been excluded.



### **3.7.2 Test Reliability:**

Reliability refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when re-examined with the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under other variables examining conditions (Anastasi, 1976: 103).

In this study, the researcher has applied two procedures to compute the reliability correlation coefficient of the test: T-retest method and split-half method.

First, the T-retest method is used to determine the reliability. According to this method, the test is reliable when the scores of the two administrations are correspondent, or there is just a little difference.

The researcher administrates the test second time after two weeks from the first administration.

The reliability coefficient is obtained by comparing the scores of the first administration to those gained from the second one.

Pearson correlation coefficient formula has been used to find out the correlation coefficient which is (0.83) and this considered high correlation (Hedges, 1966: 22).

Second, the split-half method as a statistical instrumental has also been used because this method is free from any problems such as that of acquiring some knowledge by the passage of time and the problem of creating exactly identical examination situations in both sitting.

Anastasi (1976) states that split-half reliability provides a measure of consistency with regard to content sampling. This type of reliability coefficient is sometimes called a coefficient of internal consistency, since only a single administration of a single form is required.

### **3.7.3 Estimating Item Difficulty:**

Littre (1964: 54) defines difficulty as any obstacle that prevents achieving certain objectives and incentive the challenge and requires a great deal of effort and thinking.

Abbot et al. (1985: 723) define difficulty as the quality, fact, or condition of being difficult, the character of an action that be accomplished, the opposite of ease, or facility.

Level of difficulty for each item in the test:

$$DL = \frac{HG + LG}{\text{Total number of the Sample}}$$

Whereas:

DL = Difficulty Level

HG = High Incorrect

LG = Low Incorrect

(Valette, 1977: 38 and Madsons, 1963: 180)

According to Madsen (1983: 182) the acceptable range of the level of difficulty is from 30% to 90%.

Tables (3) and (4) show the level of difficulty of the items ranging from 31% to 79%.

**Table (3): The Number of the Items with Discrimination Power and Difficulty Level of 3<sup>rd</sup> Intermediate Stage.**

<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>The Upper Group 27</b>	<b>The Lower Group 27</b>	<b>Difficulty Level</b>	<b>Discrimination Power</b>
1	20	15	0.4	6.2
2	3	1	0.9	0.07
3	12	21	0.8	0.4
4	15	2	0.7	0.5
5	12	2	0.7	0.4
6	18	5	0.8	0.5
7	18	5	0.8	0.5
8	15	2	0.7	0.5
9	16	10	0.5	0.2
10	12	2	0.7	0.4
11	18	4	0.6	0.5
12	15	2	0.5	0.7
13	6	3	0.8	0.1
14	19	15	0.4	0.1
15	11	9	0.6	0.07
16	12	1	0.8	0.4
17	18	3	0.7	0.6
18	25	6	0.4	0.7
19	23	1	0.6	0.8
20	18	1	0.6	0.6
21	19	6	0.6	0.5
22	13	5	0.7	0.5

**Table (4): The Number of the Items with Discrimination Power and Difficulty Level of 6<sup>th</sup> Preparatory Stage.**

<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>The Upper Group 27</b>	<b>The Lower Group 27</b>	<b>Difficulty Level</b>	<b>Discrimination Power</b>
1	26	24	0.07	0.07
2	18	1	0.6	0.62
3	18	X	0.7	0.7
4	20	1	0.6	0.7
5	16	1	0.7	0.6
6	23	11	0.4	0.4
7	13	7	0.6	0.2
8	8	2	0.8	0.3
9	17	4	0.6	0.5
10	1	2	0.8	0.3
11	19	9	0.7	0.4
12	2	X	0.10	0.07
13	8	X	0.7	0.3
14	4	X	0.9	0.1
15	3	1	0.9	0.07
16	23	6	0.6	0.6
17	14	7	0.6	0.3
18	8	2	0.8	0.2
19	10	3	0.8	0.3
20	6	4	0.8	0.07
21	12	6	0.7	0.2
22	19	3	0.6	0.6
23	20	5	0.5	0.6

From the number of pupils in the upper group who get the item ( $R_u$ ) and dividing by one half of the total number of pupils included in item analysis ( $\frac{1}{2} T$ ). This is summarized as formula form:

$$DP = \frac{R_u - R_L}{\frac{1}{2} T}$$

Whereas:

DP = Discriminating Power

$R_u$  = The number of pupils in the upper group who gets the item right.

$R_L$  = The number of pupils in the lower group who gets the item right.

T = The Total number of pupils included in item analysis

(Gronland, 1976: 211)

### **3.7.4 Estimating the Discriminatory Power of the Test:**

The discriminatory power of an achievement test item refers to the degree to which it discriminates between pupils with high and low achievement.

To give the discrimination of each item, the researcher has taken the 27 percent as an upper group and also 27 percent as lower group.

An estimate of item discriminating power can be obtained by subtracting the number of pupils in the lower group who gets the right item.

The discriminatory power can have any value between 30% to 70%. If all members of the (u) group and none of the (L) group passes an item, (D) equals + 70. Conversely, if all the members of the (L) group and none of the (u) group passes it, (D) equal - 70. If the percentage of both groups passing an item are equal, (D) will be zero (Anastasi, 1976: 212). Tables (3) and (4) show the discrimination power of each item.

Ebel (1972: 399) also believes that when the item is 0.30 and above, the item is acceptable. On the other hand, if the item discriminating power index is less than 0.30, the item is weak and needs to be modified or changed.

Results of applying the above formula on the test items are demonstrated in Table (3) and Table (4) the discriminating power of the items ranging from.

### **3.8 Final Administration of the Test:**

Making sure that the test is valid, reliable, clear, discriminative and the distracters are sufficiently effective, the test is administered to (100) pupils for intermediate (50) males and (50) females and to (100) pupils for the 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory, (50) males and (50) females, the whole population of the test is (200) pupils in both stages.

After handing out the test to the testees, the researcher has explained the instructions that accompanied each question, both in English and Arabic in order to clarify the ambiguities that the testees may face when answering the questions.

A good text is expected to “provide as much as information as is required with the minimum expenditure of time, effort and resources” (Carole and Terry, 1982: 16).

# CHAPTER FOUR

## *Discussion of the Results*

One major finding of this study is the fact that:

- a. Vocabulary instruction plays an important role in language learning.
- b. All items in any language depend on vocabulary learning.
- c. Pupils are incapable of responding to the whole items submitted during the final Baccalaureate examination is probably due to their dealing with vocabulary as any item that they use to pass over.
- d. Vocabulary instruction affects the pupils' comprehension if they are unable to understand the meaning of unfamiliar words within the unseen passages or a paragraph or even a sentence. This is due to their limited number of vocabularies.

This finding confirms the findings of other studies that investigate the finding that learning vocabulary will pave the way to solve many complexities which pupils find in doing well during the final exams for 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> stages. In other words, that vocabulary is an important part of learning a language. Stephens et al. (1978: 112) indicate that it is a reflection of the complexity of a language that even hard evidence does not rule out the pluralities or diversities of analysis. That there are no final or absolute answers to the question of how many senses word have, or how they should be divided.

It is also investigated that pupils' weakness is ingrained from intermediate to post intermediate.

An additional finding of the present study concerns whether there are any significant differences in vocabulary knowledge between male and female pupils.

It should be mentioned within the limit of the present study that pupils in Developmental and Distinguished schools have good knowledge of vocabulary than that of ordinary schools. This is due to the well-experts staff that that pay a good attention on vocabulary learning.

#### **4.1 A Problem in Vocabulary Learning:**

With regards to the second aim of this study, which is specifying and classifying the difficulties that pupils face in learning English vocabulary the split-half formula for correlation samples has been used to find out the differences between pupils in 3<sup>rd</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> stages responses to some items in the test. Tables -3- and -4- show that there are significant difference in pupils responses (which test, spelling, phonemic form, meaning identification of the test).

Many teachers of English as foreign language today claim that teaching ‘comprehension’ to post intermediate pupils should mainly consists of teaching sentence structure, discourse analysis, and rhetorical features of different texts or speeches.

Vocabulary understanding is often considered as a secondary in importance, since the meaning of new words can, according to many teachers, be detected by the pupil himself provided he possesses two important skills:

- (a) The skill of educated guessing, i.e. the ability to use structural and contextual clues to extract the correct meaning of the word;
- (b) The ability to use the dictionary efficiently. Special problems in vocabulary understanding, such as polysemy, the word’s idiomatic usage, false cognates, and distinction between homophones can also be solved by the context and the dictionary.



Most of the pupils in post intermediate stage have no knowledge of the word formation. Therefore, they are unable to differentiate the parts of speech, derivational aspects within relation to suffixes, infixes and prefixes. If words are identical in sound but different in meaning they are called homophones (weak/week) (meat-meet). Wrenn states that “one of the outstanding features of English is the apparent discrepancy between its spelling and its pronunciation”(Wrenn, 1960: 85).

Some words in English have aspects of similarities in sound but different in meaning this is another kind of distracters or distortion for pupils. Homophones, can hardly interfere with comprehension. In most cases, the two homophones belong to different parts of speech (war/wore, wear/were, blue/blew), or have an unmistakably different context, e.g. she died/ she dyed her hair. Therefore, though confusion of spelling is possible, confusion of meaning in context is not very likely to occur. The more difficult pairs, like pair/pear, principal/principle, find/fined, are very few.

Unlike homophones, synophones do not seem to get any special treatment in the vocabulary curriculum, perhaps because of a lack of awareness of the particular features of similarity that lead to the confusion between them. It should be born in mind that even the written word, which the pupil sees on the page, is transformed by him into a sound patterns, so that in every case (whether on listening or reading comprehension) the misunderstanding results from the confusion of sound patterns, i.e. failure to distinguish between synophones.

The results of the study. See tables 3 and 4 indicate that testing the pupils' knowledge of graphemic form, i.e. regular and irregular forms) than the other component of the test. This is probably due to the

irregularity of English spelling and its derivational aspects. Pupils should acquire how to add suffixes, prefixes, and infixes to a word; they should also know the fact that there is no one-to-one correspondence between sounds and letters.

Fisher (1956: 113) states that word study can be a challenging and enjoyable experience for both teachers and pupils. The prerequisite for an effective programme is a teacher who is interested and enthusiastic about learning new words. If that same teacher looks for ways to motivate an interest in word study and provides experiences that lead to concept of vocabulary development, the programme should be very successful.

Tables -3- and -4- show that pupils face difficulties in learning phonemic (form of words). Difficulties that face in learning English pronunciation are probably due to the short period of time in which they are exposed to English .

Al-Hamash (1961) indicates that the day-to-day problems of learners are very frequent lexical.

A long-term controversy in the language-teaching world concerns the extent to which theoretical linguistics (as distinct from applied linguistics, which is primarily concerned with language teaching. Many teachers who teach English as a foreign language in our secondary schools have not been trained how to deal with vocabulary instruction, including synonyms, antonyms, homophones, synophones, and polysemy and their relation in context and the structure of paragraphs. When a learner has mastered the basic grammatical structures of English, he may have a basic vocabulary of 1000-2000 words. What he needs to acquire at this stage is more words- words to put into the structures he knows. Usually he is told to read as much as possible; the hope being that, in

some magic way, exposure to large vocabulary extension will lead to rapid vocabulary extension. The learner learns the meaning of new words, but is knowing the meaning enough.

#### **4.2 Types of Synophones:**

Some synophones differ in one phoneme only. Such words can be confused because the distinguishing phoneme does not exist in the mother tongue and is therefore not heard by the learner (live/leave); or they can be confused in context in spite of the fact that the distinguishing phoneme is recognized when the pair of words is pronounced in isolation (typical/topical), or they become troublesome when this phoneme is presented in one of the words and absent in its counterpart (temple, attempt). Synophones differing in more than one phoneme can have an identical Latin root, meaningless in the present-day English, with different prefixes which determine the meaning of the word (application/implication); or they can have a polysemic root (meaningful in itself with different suffixes for different derivatives (comprehensive/comprehensible). Finally, there is a large category of synophones differing in several phonemes which by its nature defies exact definitions (conceal/cancel; dispose/dispossess)\*. See Appendix 4.

#### **4.3 Types of Lexical Errors:**

- a. The learner has grasped the basic meaning of the word but does not know its collocations (which words it will go with):
  1. to put up a campaign.
  2. She laughed broadly.
  3. a good-looking view.

4. to estimate the evidence.
- b. Native language interference, another related finding is that the learner assumes the distribution is the same as that of the translation equivalent, e.g.:

5. He closed the door with the key.

This means (locked).

a voyage by train (journey)

I made an experience in the laboratory (experiment).

- c. Over-use of a few general items which he is sure of:

a good teacher/ lesson/ meal/ day/ girl/ university.

The result is a flat, uninteresting style, and failure to express variety of ideas he wants to communicate.

- d. insufficient generalisation:

The learner knows ‘pretty girl’, but does not know that ‘pretty’ may also collocate with: bird, flower, landscape, view, picture, and even mess. Thus he does not realise the potential of even the word he does know.

In other words, in the light of the preceding results and discussion, a list of possible reasons behind pupils difficulties in English vocabulary learning has been prepared by the researcher through consulting:

1. Frequency of lexical errors results naturally from the lack of emphasis most syllabuses place on vocabulary. Webb (1974: 1) writes ‘as the learning of a language is the most commonly identified with acquiring mastery of its grammatical system, it is not surprising that most (syllabuses) have a grammatical or “structural” organisation’. To correct this bias, syllabuses need to take account of the two

essential things a learner needs to know, besides basic sense, about every new word he wants to make part of his active vocabulary:

- a. How does it relate to other words with similar meaning?
- b. Which other words can be used it with, and in which contexts?

Interestingly, these two questions are precisely the same ones that the linguist needs to answer if he is to provide an adequate description of the vocabulary of a language under investigation.

2. Difficulties in learning English vocabulary can be ascribed to intralingual errors. The first type of errors is due to the interference between the two languages (English and Arabic). For example “Parts of Speech”:

Item -14- Appendix -2-.

Yesterday evening: is

An adverb- adjective- a verb- a noun.

Item -17- add (ing) to the following verbs: sit: ..... come: .....

The pupils have formed a hypothesis that (-ing) is only added without recognizing that there are certain rules in adding the suffix (ing). The second type of errors which the researcher has observed is due to irregularities of English spelling and pronunciation rules. This type of errors is called intralingual errors (Littlewood, 1985: 30).

The words examined in this study according to the second type of errors can be explained briefly as:

<b>1. Base</b>	<b>Devious Form</b>	<b>Right Form</b>
sit	siting	sitting
come	comeing	coming
<b>2. Base</b>	<b>Devious Form</b>	<b>Right Form</b>
paint	paintor	painter
work	workor	worker

<b>3. Base</b>	<b>Devious Form</b>	<b>Right Form</b>
He	her	his
We	were	our

Concerning the grammatical and structural organization, the pupils have formed a hypothesis that in answering any questions, they only write two words to answer any question. Instead of that, they should know that in answering any question, they should begin with a capital letter as a sentence pattern: S + V + Complement. According to the type of the question.

Pupils' responses to an item which requires to give the meaning of words in Arabic shows that most pupils have limited number of vocabulary. Pupils also fail to give right form the items which are related to the context. 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory grade pupils are unable to know that the passage is a historical one not religious. Most of them chose religious. While 3<sup>rd</sup> grade pupils are unable to know the meaning of kinship terms. Although the options were given in item -2-, they failed to choose the right answer.

A pupil, whether in 3<sup>rd</sup> or 6<sup>th</sup> grade, should provide a description of the language he is learning. This would be done by acquiring, in some sense, selection of words and their meaning. The researcher has observed from the results that pupils in both stages seem to grasp the meaning of the words very quickly and do not call for synonymous or antonyms and its relation with other words in a sentence.

As far as the researcher is concerned, pupils during intermediate and post intermediate should be taught constantly to give the meaning of any word that they find in their daily learning. It is very important as the researcher sees to stimulate pupils in secondary schools motivation to

practise English as native speakers through using variety of teaching techniques and different visual aids to make language lessons lively and interesting and to break the routine of classroom drills, because it provides fun and relaxation while remaining very much within the framework of language learning.

- b. From the scores obtained from most of the items in both tests, pupils cannot understand the material if it is presented only once. Acquiring vocabulary is one of the most tedious learning tasks confronting the language learners.

This task is difficult not only because of the large number of words that must be mastered, but also because so little attention has been given to the problem of making the learners' job easier (Rowley, 1971: 167).

Whereas in the word of Al-Kufaishi, the possession of a large number of vocabulary items is necessary for success in social, professional, and intellectual life; that vocabulary is a vehicle for thought, self-expression, interpretation, and communication (Al-Kufaishi, 1988: 42).

- c. Learning vocabulary is an important aspect of the speaking, reading and writing skills. In development requires constant practice on the part of the learner and continuous assessment on the part of the teacher (Darwesh, 1994: 42).

However, constant exposure to written words through the use of teaching aids, the use of demonstration and the use of idea proportionate to the age of the learner and his level of recognition are of great use in increasing his stock of vocabulary and in helping him to retain a good amount of what is learnt (Al-Hamash, 1988: 15).

- d. Furthermore, the teaching of vocabulary through mere explanation of words that are not highly frequent and teachable at this stage may be futile. Pupils especially at preparatory stages require a great deal of contextualization and concrete ideas to comprehend fully what is taught and to be able to retain it in the immediate memory.

The learning of vocabulary is based on the formation of specific habits. Since this involves the association of symbols and their meanings, it is clear that an enrichment of the meaning of the word is an important as its frequent repetition. The more numerous the associations, the larger the retention and the easier the recall. Since the size of one's vocabulary is basic to all facility in speaking and reading, the aim should be to secure permanent retention and automatic response. This is best attained through drills. Furthermore, a drill or a better practice may be given in interesting forms like games, dialogues, dramatization, and songs (Huebener, 1969, 88-89).

- e. It is very important to relate the new material with the previous one, particularly those that have some relation to the new lesson being taught about. This involves going through homework assigned in the previous lesson. The teacher can also review the important points such as sounds, words, structure, whichever the focus of the material covered in the previous lesson. Such a revision has a two-fold value:
1. It prepares the learner's mind for the new lesson.
  2. It makes the pupils aware of the fact that language is an integrated unit. That is, all the various language items are related to each other horizontally (Al-Hamash et al., 1982: 52).

Pupils must be engaged in practising most of the learning time. This principle has a psychological justification, the quality and



permanence of learning are in direct proportion to the amount of practice (Lado, 1964: 55).

Al-Hamash (1961) mentions that vocabulary cuts across all aspects of a language. It is related to pronunciation, for example, how can pupils recognize the meaning of a word if they are unable to pronounce it, a sentence structure when pupils are unable to know the basic sentence pattern for example sixth preparatory pupils when they join two sentences to make one, or when they attempt to change complex sentences into simple ones. This is due to the fact that they are unable to know the kind of sentences, spelling and syntax.

- f. Vocabulary problems hinder the acquisition of the linguistic skills which the language tries to develop. That is to say, vocabulary problems help in the solution of problems which need opportunities to use them. So an important part of a structured vocabulary course must be its exercises, which should be so arranged that words appear not just in the lesson in which they have been taught, but also in subsequent lessons.
- g. Less-able learners are without doubt a difficult learners population who have serious problems in learning a foreign language and very quickly tire of the effort involved. On the other hand, very definite progress is possible in the receptive skills.
- h. Pupils at secondary stages need above all constant feeling of achievement, and need to be constantly encouraged by patient teachers who will be satisfied with successive approximations of the correct forms and will resist that professional temptation of pedagogues always to find something to correct.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## *Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions*

This chapter draws a number of conclusions and findings of the research. Later, a set of recommendations and suggestions have been made for pedagogical purposes and for possible extension of the present research.

### **5.1 Conclusions:**

According to the results obtained from the research, the following conclusions have been drawn:

1. The achievement test which has been constructed for the purpose of this research can be used as a constant technique at least three times within a teaching period during the terms of learning for both 3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory in secondary schools whether Developmental or Ordinary for identifying pupils who are weak at vocabulary instruction. In other words, when a pupil has completed a pre-intermediate course, he enters a period of consolidation and expansion. What has been learnt so far must be practised constantly by asking the meaning of selections in vocabulary in form of different parts of speech. Derivational and inflectional words.
2. A pupil is considered weak if he gets a mean score less than theoretical average with significant differences. The results also reveal that the pupils in normal school need special teaching techniques to achieve the required learning in normal time or standard effort.

3. It has been found out that the achievement of pupils in ordinary secondary schools is significantly lower than Developmental and Distinguished secondary schools.

3<sup>rd</sup> intermediate and 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory stages guide pupils towards intensive and analytical reading through the textbooks reading comprehension and listening comprehension, and to provide them with intensive practice in the four skills, understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Writing skills necessary to academic writing assignments. The reading comprehension sections of Book -8- for 6<sup>th</sup> grade are designed to help pupils recognize the elements of organization, basic thought relationships, and textual coherence devices common to academic writing when the exercises demand pupils' reaction by writing compositions using their own ideas and analyzing their understanding of the text.

4. It has been found out that the difficulties facing pupils in ordinary schools can be put in the following orders:

1. Graphemic form.
2. Phonemic form.
3. Meaning identification.

The textbooks -5- and -8- are therefore not intended to make from pupils good readers in the traditional sense, but also provide pupils with special ability to acquire intensive and analytical reading. In other words that the purpose of Book -5- and -8- is twofold: to guide pupils toward intensive and analytical reading and developing their writing skills.

5. It has also been found out that the pupils in ordinary secondary schools require special teaching techniques to overcome the difficulties in learning English as a foreign language.

A good understanding of the organization of textbook- a paragraph- a chapter, or even the whole books depends to a large extent on the pupils' understanding of two key terms: controlling idea and supporting idea. It is called controlling idea because it controls or limits which ideas and information the passage will include in the text. Pupils as good readers should know the nature of words (vocabulary) relating to the passage.

Pupils will be able to give suitable answers to the whole items during ministerial examinations if they acquire during their preparatory stages learning the differences between ordinary reading and accurate reading.

On the other hand, supporting ideas are more specific than controlling ideas since they represent smaller parts of the entire subject.

The use of different techniques to remind readers how one part of the passage or a text is related or linked to another and how a passage or (text) moves naturally from one idea to another. These techniques can be used to link:

1. Parts of a sentence,
2. Different sentences,
3. large sections of a text. This linking is called coherence.

## **5.2 Recommendations:**

On the basis of the results of the study, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Language learners need various kinds of strategies for interpreting what they hear and read. They need strategies for interpreting contextual clues, which provide them with information about the

likely content of the language to which they are being exposed. Just as important, if not more so are strategies for determining and interpreting the grammatical units and relations that make up what they hear and read.

An English sentence, like sentences in any language is made up of units that combine to contribute to an overall semantic interpretation.

Most of our pupils at preparatory stage do not recognize the difference between sentences and the type of sentences. Even the type of relation of words within a sentence.

2. Special attention should be given to teachers who newly graduated from colleges by increasing the training period. The teachers should be engaged in practising and testing reading skills necessary for academic success:

Word attack: This means the wide information of vocabulary understanding which pupils had acquired from their previous learning and identifying main ideas.

3. Teachers of English language should be encouraged to use more techniques to clarify familiar and unfamiliar vocabulary and to concentrate on dictation items and memorizing sections of vocabulary available in books -5- and -8-.
4. Spelling should be given special attention in form of memorizing the meaning of vocabulary. By this, pupils acquire large selections of synonyms, antonyms and synophones.
5. Encouraging pupils who are of low average, not to neglect them either, not to distinguish them in treatment, and not to compare them to their siblings as this treatment may yield negative results.

### **5.3 Suggestions:**

According to the conclusions and recommendations of this research, the researcher has suggested the following:

1. Reading aloud with its emphasis on uncomprehending rhetoric and its slowing-down of the reading process, the researcher is discussing the less-able pupils in his fourth and fifth preparatory stages of English studies, not the young beginner since according to the researcher's point of view that pupils in preparatory stages are considered as young beginner for whom Reading aloud is often pronunciation exercise, not the intensive study of set texts. These pupils should read widely-newspapers in simplified English where these exist, simplified readers, easy vocational material, catalogues, shop names, all short pieces (often accompanied with pictures and diagrams) which are brought by teachers inside the classroom so as to test the pupils' passive and active vocabulary and to encourage read fairly rapidly and not stopping over every grammatical or spelling point. The passages can be tested objectively, thereby getting the pupils to read even more.
2. Since the researcher considers 6<sup>th</sup> preparatory pupils as a student, a student, who is going on learning English not only systematically, but also to enable him to communicate as a native speaker. That is to say a student is self-controlled in understanding the whole items submitted during the Baccalaureate Examination.
3. A good technique of vocabulary instruction helps students remember the subject matter. This will be clear that all writing activities must be very strictly controlled reinforcement of other skills. In other words, incorporation and consistence of passive and active vocabulary.

4. English lessons should be lengthened to an hour lesson, six times a week. This would be enough to teach English as an important language instrument for entertaining and acquiring a good knowledge of communication. By this the pupils will receive most of his training in the classroom and will be required to do a certain amount of extra work in their own time.
5. The provision of laboratories in secondary schools plays an active role for the purpose of training pupils in the four skills, namely understanding, speaking, reading and writing.
6. Constant practice will enable pupils to be good speakers for communication and train them systematically to write English. In other words, the researcher's stress is on vocabulary rather than grammar. There is no need for a separate grammar-book or separate grammar lesson; but what little grammar is taught should be inductive in approach, very limited in quantity, and fully integrated with the reading material: much of the grammar for preparatory grade pupils can be taught in the form of lexical items rather than generalisable rules.
7. To develop pupils' abilities to enrich their vocabulary, though vocabulary learning should be integrated within pupils' talent from the 5<sup>th</sup> primary stage. The researcher's demonstration is the purpose of literary Reader Series 1, 2, 3 and the glossary contained increase pupils' ability in writing precise well-arranged free compositions if they know to get benefit from the series by well-qualified expert teachers.

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