

Investigating English Lexical Insufficiency by Saudi Public School Students.

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ABSTRACT: *The Cambridge Examination Center published a study of English proficiency in 2009 and ranked Saudi students 39th of 40 nations taking part in both academic and general tests. Many studies relevant to the Saudi context attribute Saudi students' poor performance in English language to their lack of sufficient English vocabulary. This study investigates two potential factors that may contribute to lexical insufficiency by Saudi students. These factors are the range and effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies used by students and the school textbooks' input. The participants were 35 Saudi students of different study levels and nine male Saudi teachers teaching English as a foreign Language (EFL) at intermediate and secondary public schools. Data was collected using questionnaire and evaluating two school textbooks, that is, the first and second secondary school textbooks. The results show that students who participated in the study ineffectively use different vocabulary strategies, mainly using bilingual dictionary, asking others and guessing meaning to discover unknown words' meaning and repetition and keeping a vocabulary notebook to retain new vocabulary items. Additionally, the analysis of the two school textbooks shows insufficient recycling for the presented vocabulary items. Moreover, the analysis shows that these textbooks do not cover all aspect of vocabulary knowledge. Finally, based on these findings and relevant literature, some pedagogical implications along with suggestions for further research are provided.*

KEYWORDS: Investigating English Lexical Insufficiency by Saudi Public School Students.

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary suffered tangible neglect during the 1950s and 1960s when the audio-lingualism dominantly influenced the teaching methodology (Nunan, 1991:116) when the emphasis was on the acquisition of basic grammatical patterns (ibid:117). Recently, however, as a result of the development of communicative approaches to language teaching, vocabulary has gained a considerable attention. Many second-language acquisition (SLA) researchers have found that an adequate vocabulary uptake is essential for using a second language successfully. A wide, varied vocabulary is considered to provide the building blocks for all other skills, that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Moreover, vocabulary size highly correlates with reading comprehension either in L1 or L2 (Coady 1997) and with general language proficiency scores (Bachman & Palmer 1996). Therefore, many approaches, techniques and practices have been introduced in the realm of vocabulary teaching (Hatch & Brown 1995). Admitting the importance of vocabulary, researchers (e.g., Nation 2001; Schmitt, 1997; Oxford, 1989) have devised different taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies to address major problems learners encounter during the learning process. Regarding the Saudi context (the studied context), recent studies attribute Saudi students' poor performance in English language to insufficient vocabulary knowledge. Al-Hazmi (2000), found that within the use of Audio-lingualism method (ALM) about two hundred English words are taught at the intermediate and secondary levels every year. In the same venue, Alsaif and Milton (2012) found that the public schools' textbooks contribute to insufficient vocabulary learning in the Saudi context. Therefore, this lexical incompetence by Saudi students has led Saudi researchers to replace ALM by the communicative approach to teaching English (Al-Seghayer, 2011).

EFL curriculum in Saudi Arabia

The Saudi EFL curriculum is structured according to four basic components: (a) objective, (b) content, (c) teaching method and (d) student evaluation techniques. The main objective of this curriculum is to enable Saudi students to 'speak, read and listen with understanding to basic contemporary English discourse, respond to others appropriately, speak with confidence in a range of contexts, read with fluency, accuracy and understanding, and be able to write connected passages of up to half a page about a simple subject or incident' (Ministry of Education, Directorate of Curriculum Department 2004, p. 2, cited in Al-Seghayer 2011: 41). The communicative approach to teaching English is highly recommended in this context. It is adopted to ensure that students are fluent in the communicative competency of English. This goal is supposed to be implemented through ensuring that the teaching method is student-centred, applies a communicative approach to teaching English, utilises various teaching aids and includes wide range of teaching activities.

Although there is a call for manipulating the communicative approach to teaching English, it is the grammar translation and audiolingual methods that are preferred and largely applied by Saudi EFL teachers (Al-Seghayer 2011; Zaid 1993). Unfortunately, Saudi EFL teachers do not incorporate language laboratories, which results in a lack of sufficient exposure to authentic English. Rather, they only focus on grammatical rules and monotonous repetitions of words (Al-Seghayer, *ibid*). Regarding GMT, Al-Seghayer (*ibid*) indicates that Saudi EFL teachers encourage students to memorise vocabulary lists and grammatical rules. This, unfortunately, reveals the contradiction between the school curriculum's approach to teaching English and the actual implemented approach by the EFL teachers in this context. Although the curriculum is structured over seven years and consists of 13 textbooks and seven additional workbooks to meet the educational needs of the English learners, graduate learners fail to effectively engage or comprehend any kind of spoken or written English discourse. Al-Nujaidi (2003) claims that Saudi students leave high school with an estimated vocabulary of around 500 to 700 words, of which 75 are academic words. In the same venue, Alsaif (2011, cited in Alsaif & Milton 2012) argues that Saudi learners leave school knowing about 1,000 words. These figures of vocabulary uptake are not even close to the most frequent estimates of 2,000 or 5,000 words.

This insufficient vocabulary uptake may explain the poor achievement of Saudis in English proficiency test that was held by the Cambridge Center (2009) which ranked them 39th of the 40 nations taking part in both academic and general training tests (Cambridge ESOL: Research Notes, 2010).

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study investigates failure in vocabulary knowledge by Saudi public school students. One step toward this end is drawing on such relevant issues as the importance of vocabulary in learning English, the meaning of 'word', what it means to know a word, teaching and learning English vocabulary, the textbook's input and the vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs).

The importance of vocabulary

Teaching and learning vocabulary have been underestimated in the pedagogical practices of teaching L2 (Zimmerman 1997: 5; Thornbury 2002: 13). Teaching approaches such as the direct method and audiolingualism prioritised grammar over vocabulary (Thornbury 2002:14). Consequently, insufficient vocabulary was introduced. Thornbury (*ibid*) states that the 1970s witnessed the advent of the communicative approach. Since that time, more attention has been given to vocabulary.

However, Dubin and Olshain (1986 :111) argue that even the communicative approach did not tackle vocabulary sufficiently, as the emphasis is on structures and communicative strategies. Recognition of the critical importance of vocabulary leads syllabus writers, researchers, teachers, course designers and even language learners to draw much attention toward vocabulary learning and teaching.

In fact, learning and focusing on L2 vocabulary is fundamental to learning that language. Wilkins (1972 :111) sums up this importance: 'without grammar little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed'. Rivers (1983, cited in Nunan 1991: 117) also points out that the acquisition of sufficient vocabulary is fundamental for successful second language use because 'without an extensive vocabulary, we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have learned for comprehensible communication'. Language learners themselves acknowledge the critical importance of having sufficient vocabulary and relate many of their difficulties in both receptive and productive language to inadequate vocabulary. Lewis (2000) argues that the most important task that a language learner faces is acquiring sufficient vocabulary..

What does 'word' mean?

This study investigates the vocabulary input in the Saudi students' textbooks, that is, how many words these textbooks offer and how much vocabulary recycling there is in each textbook. Thus, it could be necessary to determine the meaning of the term 'word' to facilitate such an investigation. The term 'word' has many different synonyms, such as token, type, lemma and word family, each of which affects the total number a spoken or written text has. Estimating the number of words that a textbook offers depends on what we mean by a word or, more specifically, what counts as a word. Nation (2001: 7) argues that there are many ways of counting words, ways that follow.

Tokens

This way entails counting every word in a spoken or written text regardless of the number of its occurrences in that text. The total number of words counted in this way is expressed by 'tokens'. This way of counting is suitable to knowing how many words a learner can write in an essay, for example.

Types

This way entails counting every word that appears for the first time. If it appears for two or more times, we do not recount it. Words counted in this way are expressed by types. To draw a clear distinction between types and tokens, Milton (2009: 8) indicates that 'tokens refer to the number of words in a text or corpus, while types refer to the number of different words'. Thus, the sentence 'The student explained the lesson to other students' contains eight tokens but six types because the words 'the' and 'student' occur twice.

Lemmas

A lemma is a headword, and its dependents are the same part of speech. Thus, *play*, *played*, *plays* (in *he plays*), *playing* (*he is playing*) all count as one word. In other words, lemmas include the base words and their inflections, that is, the base words and their grammatical affixes (Nation & Waring 1997, cited in Schmitt 2000: 2). Accordingly, *wrote*, *writes* and *writing* are lemmas of the base word *write*.

Word families

A word family includes the base word, its inflections and its derivatives (Schmitt 2000:2 ; Nation, 2001: 8) that can be recognised by the learner without having to learn each separately. Thus, *plays*, *played*, *playful* and *player* belong to the same family and are accordingly counted as one word. Such

definition of the term *word* makes counting words that a textbook, for example, offers achievable. It also reduces the learning burden of derived words containing known base forms (Nation, *ibid*).

Using word families makes learning vocabulary much easier than using tokens, for example. Instead of knowing each and every word in a particular word family, a learner can generalise rules such as adding –s to the singular noun to make its plural or –ed to the regular verb to form the past tense. However, a learner needs to memorise irregular nouns and verbs, as they do not follow the rules of the regular ones.

What is word knowledge?

Vocabulary knowledge is a complex process; thus, there is no simple answer to the abovementioned question. For example, when a learner has to know a new word to use it effectively, he needs to know more than its basic meaning. He needs to know its spelling, other words that collocate with it, its pronunciation and its part of speech. This indicates the fact that there are different degrees or aspects of knowing a word (Schmitt 2000, Nation 2002). Nation (2001: 24) proposes the receptive/productive scale of word knowledge and explains how this scale applies to each aspect of word knowledge (see table1).

The receptive/productive distinction

Receptive knowledge, sometimes known as passive knowledge, indicates the ability to recognise the word when encountering it in reading or listening, whereas word productive knowledge indicates the ability to use the word in writing or speaking. It has been widely believed that L2 learners have larger receptive word knowledge than word productive knowledge. Accordingly, many textbooks are designed on the basis of this distinction (Milton 2009). However, Laufer & Goldstein (2004: 405) argues that 'there is no consensus as to whether this distinction is dichotomous or whether it constitutes a continuum'. According to Melka (1997) learners gradually move from lexical receptive knowledge to productive knowledge as they develop their lexical competence. Nation (2001: 26-27) provides a more comprehensive account of the elements of 'knowing' a word, based on three lexical aspects: knowledge of form, knowledge of meaning and knowledge of use.

Table (1) What Is Involved In Knowing a Word.

| Table 1 What is involved in Knowing a Word | | | |
|--|--|---|---|
| Form | Spoken (sound) | R | What does the word sound like? |
| | | P | How is the word pronounced? |
| | Written (spelling) | R | What does the word look like? |
| | | P | How is the word written and spelled? |
| | Word parts | R | What parts are recognized in this word? |
| | | P | What word parts are needed to express the meaning? |
| meaning | Form and meaning | R | What meaning does this word form signal? |
| | | P | What word form can be used to express the meaning? |
| | Concepts and referents | R | What is included in the concept? |
| | | P | What items can the concept refer to? |
| | Associations | R | What other words does this make us think of? |
| | | P | What other words could we use instead of this one? |
| Use | Grammatical functions | R | In what patterns does the word occur? |
| | | P | In what patterns must we use this word? |
| | Collocations | R | What words or types of words occur with this one? |
| | | P | What words or types of words must we use with this one? |
| | Constraints on use (register, frequency, etc.) | R | Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word? |
| | | P | Where, when, and how often can we use this word? |

Note: in column 3, R = receptive knowledge, P = productive knowledge. (Nation 2001)

From Nations' perspective of receptive knowledge and use, knowing a word involves recognising its spoken form, written form, constituent parts and its meaning either in isolation or in particular contexts. It also involves the ability to recognise its correct use, typical collocations and frequency. Productive word knowledge and use, however, involves being able to pronounce it correctly, write it with the correct spelling and right parts, and produce its different meanings in various suitable contexts. It also involves the ability to produce other words that usually collocate with it and knowing restrictions about its use, such as its appropriateness and the degree of formality of the context

Explicit versus incidental vocabulary learning and teaching

Explicit learning is a cognitive process. It therefore entails involving learners into conscious cognitive activities which usually lead to explicit knowledge (Allen and Harely, 1992). Regarding SLA, one controversial issue is whether explicit attention to vocabulary is compulsory to vocabulary learning (Laufer 2005; Hulstijn 2001; and Huckin & Coady 1999). Nevertheless, in some cases this approach to teaching vocabulary is necessary, especially with learners who have inadequate vocabulary repertoire, and thus, are unable to guess the meaning of unknown words from contexts. It is also necessary for the instruction of the 2000 most frequent words in English, since without this size of words there would be no possible use of English (Nation, 1990).

Regarding explicit vocabulary instruction, Allen and Harely (1992) classify techniques used in the explicit instruction into two categories. The first category, '*metacognitive counseling techniques*', includes instructions on how to memorize and learn new words. The second category, '*guided cognitive learning techniques*', includes techniques like 'observation', 'explanation', 'mnemonic devices' and explicit practices. Nation (1978, cited in Nation, 2001) also suggests that teachers should allow some time for students to mentally process the new word, repeat it in its context many times and involve the students in the process by encouraging them to provide a translation or explanation for the meaning.

However, the explicit instruction could only serve to deliver the base forms and the most frequent words. It can neither cover all different knowledge of a word nor teach all the vast number of low frequent words. It is also difficult to explicitly teach all aspects of word knowledge and help students consolidate this knowledge (Schmitt, 2008). Thus, another approach should be integrated to complement the explicit approach and that could be the incidental approach. Incidental learning entails extensive meaning-focused exposure (Schmitt, 2008). In this approach the learners' attention is drawn towards the message, not to the vocabulary item. It entails expose learners over and over to both reading materials, which is advocated by Schmitt (2000), and listening materials. Patribackt and Wesch (1997) suggest 'clear cues to unknown words' meanings' as a third factor.

McCarthy and Carter (1988) point out that advanced learners benefit more from incidental vocabulary instruction. In addition, Schmitt and McCarthy (1997: 13) indicate that explicit teaching can be beneficial when the unknown word is met for the first time, after this, the context encountered when reading can result in new knowledge of its collocation and other higher aspects of the vocabulary knowledge.

Extensive reading facilitates vocabulary growth (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009). Al-Homoud and Shmitt found that Saudi learners get benefit from extensive reading and graded readers to increase their high frequency words in 10 weeks. Nation (2001) suggested extensive reading for one grader reader every one or two weeks. He also argued that the length of the grader reader should suite the learners' vocabulary level.

However, incidental learning should be considered as one method to facilitate language learning as there are a number of problems associated with guessing word's meaning from the context. Sokmen (1997: 237) states that these problems include: (a) acquiring vocabulary through guessing meaning from the context is slow process, (b) guessing meaning is an error-prone process, (c) learners' comprehension of a text, which is necessary for guessing meaning from context, may be low due to their lexical incompetence, (d) learners' individual differences entail different teaching methods, and (e) guessing meaning from context does not guarantee long-term retention. As such is the case, explicit instruction should be integrated. Teachers can explicitly teach the key words which learners may misinterpret. They, however, should take the following two issues into consideration. The first one is that students may ignore the unknown word if they understand the text without guessing it (Paribackht and Wesh, 1997). The second issue is that the best way to retrieve a word is by processing it mentally to infer its meaning (Hulstijn, 1992). Thus students should be given the chance to guess meaning from the context and should learn other learning strategies such as guessing the word's meaning from the word itself and consult a good dictionary for accurate meaning.

On the other hand, we might need to recognize that incidental learning does not lead to full mastery of vocabulary especially the productive level (Schmitt, 2008). For example, Ellis (1997) points out that some aspects of word knowledge are more amenable to conscious learning than others. Indeed, many researches refer to that incidental vocabulary learning may increase knowledge about a word but not gain it. For this reason, EFL and ESL teachers should understand that there is no best way to fully teach vocabulary. But rather they should use and improve possible techniques and methodologies that may facilitate better learning.

The role of memory

One encounter with a new word could be not sufficient to recognise it when reading or listening or retrieve it when writing or speaking. Gairns and Redman (1986: 90) and Thornbury (2002: 26) claim that 80% of information is forgotten within 24 hours of the first learning. In this venue, a substantial body of research has addressed the best methods a learner can apply to retain a new word in his memory. For example, Nattingert (1988) suggests that words will be effectively learnt if they are presented in their network of association. Nation (2001: 106) points out that knowing a range of a word's associations such as synonyms, opposites and the head words' family members 'helps recall the word's form or its meaning in appropriate contexts'.

However, it has been argued that, in the early stages of language learning, words cannot be learned effectively in contexts and thus should be learned as single items (Carter, 1998: 193). It could be said that word lists might be an appropriate option in such stages. Word lists conventionally contain words from the target language and their synonym in that target language or translation in the learners' L1. Carter (1987: 135) points out that a large amount of vocabulary can be efficiently learned by such methods as rote learning.

A large number of vocabulary items with sufficiently spaced repetitions can be learned and retained (Nation 1990; Carter 1998). In fact, studies are contradictory regarding the necessary number of repetitions of an item, either in isolation or in contexts, to ensure its learning (cf. Rott 1999; Web 2007; Pigada & Schmitt 2006). In general, repetitions should be spaced out and spread across a long period of time (Nation 2001: 76).

In addition to spaced repetitions, some researchers (e.g., Atkinson & Raugh 1975; Hulstijn 1997) suggest other techniques such as the key word technique to promote retention of vocabulary items. Atkinson and Raugh (1975: 126) explain the key word technique as follows:

The technique divides the study of a vocabulary item into two stages. The first stage requires the subject to associate the spoken foreign word with an English word, the key word, that sounds like some part of the foreign word; the second stage requires him to form a mental image to the key word interacting with the English translation. The key word method should be treated as only one among several techniques. Carter (1998: 195) argues that the more a word is analysed or is enriched by imagistic and other associations, the more likely it is to be retained.

Textbooks' vocabulary input

One of the first questions EFL teachers usually have is what vocabulary to teach. For many of them, the answer to this question is determined by sources at their disposal such as course books. Even so, teachers should be concerned about the criteria upon which their materials are designed. They should also be concerned about the objectives and criteria upon which decisions about vocabulary content are made. Without treating such issues, it becomes difficult to evaluate syllabi and materials, to understand why particular vocabulary is to be taught, and to explain to learners why they need to learn this vocabulary (McCarthy 1990: 79).

EFL learners in general consider textbooks a guide that helps them organise their learning inside and outside the classroom (Huchinson & Torres 1994: 318). Textbooks are also seen by teachers as a tool that 'saves time, gives directions to lessons, guides discussions, and facilitates giving homework' (ibid). Therefore, textbooks could be described, according to Lopez-Jimenez (2010: 159), as the 'starting point for the class and for the teacher that should lead to creative and spontaneous improvisation, adaptation and interaction, a resource bank for materials and ideas, and as reference for grammar and vocabulary without suppressing the teacher's creativity'.

Regarding the Saudi context, textbooks are considered the most popular and even the main source for Saudi EFL learners (Alsaif & Milton 2012). In fact, this leads us to draw on what effective textbooks should offer regarding vocabulary learning. Gairns and Redman (1986, pp. 58-64) propose four criteria for vocabulary selection: frequency, cultural factors, learners' needs and level, and expediency. Thornbury (2002: 34) also suggests four factors: usefulness, frequency, learnability and teachability. In the same venue, O'Dell (1997: 269) also proposes such criteria as frequency, range, coverage, availability, learnability, learning opportunity and centres of interest. Among these criteria, frequency seems to be the most important one for selecting vocabulary, as advocated by Nation (2001). Therefore, many course books present the most frequent words in the early stages of language teaching on the basis of offering the learner a 'survival-level repertoire for comprehension and production' (McCarthy 1990: 79).

Although there is no consensus among researchers on the specific amount of vocabulary that should be introduced in textbooks, they do not dismiss the critical importance for textbooks to offer no less than the most frequent 2,000 word families. Some researchers (e.g., Cobb 2002; Milton 2009) state that the most frequent 2,000 word families cover 80% of all text. However, such coverage may result in poor comprehension for authentic texts, for example. Bonk (2000, cited in Schmitt 2008) found that knowing 95% of the text is sufficient for adequate comprehension while knowing less than 90% results in poor comprehension. Alsaif and Milton (2012) suggest that good textbooks should offer 5,000 word families at least.

Recycling in the textbook input

Learning vocabulary is an incremental process in nature, and repeated exposure to a word reinforces its meaning and aids in its memorisation (Nation 2001). Thus, one single meeting is not sufficient to fully learn a new word, even this meeting involves substantial explicit instruction (Nation 2001: 81). Nation introduces the following reasons why this is so:

- 1- There are numerous things to know about a word: its form (spoken, written, and component affixes and stem), its meaning (underlying concept, particular instantiations and associations), and its use (collocations, grammatical patterns and constraints on its use).
- 2- There are several strands through which knowledge of a word need to develop: through meeting in meaning-focused input, through direct study and teaching, through meaning-focused production, and through fluency-developing activities.
- 3- Learners seem to be capable of dealing with only a limited amount of information at a time; too much information confuses them (Nation 2001: 82).

Many relevant studies indicate that a learner may need to encounter a new word six times (Rott 1999) or 10 times (Web 2007) to learn it. Some other studies suggest many more encounters than 10 times to learn a new word (e.g., Pigagda & Schmitt 2006). However, Laufer (1989) does not find any connection between recycling a new word and its learning. Nations (2001: 81) comments that it is difficult to state a fixed number of repetitions needed for learning to occur.

According to Schmitt (2008: 343) 'teachers and materials writers need to think about vocabulary learning in longitudinal terms, where target lexical items are recycled over time in a principled way. From memory research, we know that most forgetting occurs soon after the learning session and then eventually slows down (Baddeley 1990), so the first recyclings are particularly important and need to occur quickly'. Therefore, vocabulary sources such as textbooks should include an appropriate level of recycling to facilitate an incremental learning of vocabulary.

Vocabulary learning strategies

According to Ellis (1994), there is no consensus about one meaning for learning strategies. However, there are some attempts to frame the concept of learning strategies. The table below shows some examples:

Table (2) Definitions of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

| |
|--|
| Chamot (1987: 71) 'Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information'. |
| Oxford (1990: 8): 'Learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to a new situation'. |
| Anderson (1991: 460) 'Learning strategies are deliberate, cognitive steps that learners can take to assist in acquiring, storing and retrieving new information and thus can be accessed for a conscious report'. |
| Nunan (1991: 168) Learning strategies are 'the mental processes which learners employ to learn and use target language'. |
| Richard and Platt & Platt, (2000: 20) 'Learning strategies are intentional behaviours and thoughts that learners use during learning to better help them understand, learn or remember new information'. |

Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are a part of language learning strategies (LLS), which in turn are part of general learning strategies (Nation 2001: 217). Therefore, VLS's definitions could be affected by the attempted definitions of LLSs. For example, Schmitt (1997: 203) draws on Rubins' definition (1987: 29) of LLS, in which he states that VLS is 'the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved and used'. A more detailed definition of VLSs is provided by Catalan (2003, p. 56), who states that VLS is a 'knowledge about the mechanisms (process, strategies) used to learn vocabulary and steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral

or written mode'. Catalan's definition focuses on the knowledge of the VLS (metacognitive strategies) and the actions taken by students to implement these strategies (cognitive strategies). However, this definition does not give an accurate, sufficient account of the term VLS, as it only focuses on one aspect of vocabulary knowledge, that is, knowing the meaning of the word (Alyami 2011).

Instead of defining the term VLS, Nation (2001: 217) provides vital characteristics that VLSs should bear. He argues that a strategy for vocabulary learning must involve choice, that is, there should be several strategies; be complex, that is, there should be several steps to learn; require knowledge and benefit from training; and increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use. Nation (ibid.: 218) proposes a taxonomy of kinds of vocabulary strategies. The following table shows this taxonomy:

Table (3) A Taxonomy of Kinds of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (Nation 2001, p. 218)

| General Class of Strategies | Types of Strategies |
|---|--|
| Planning: Choosing what to focus on and when to focus on it | Choosing words Choosing the aspects of word knowledge Choosing strategies Planning repetitions |
| Sources: Finding information about words | Analysing the word Using context Consulting a reference source in L1 or L2 Using parallels in L1 and L2 |
| Processes: Establishing knowledge | Noticing Retrieving Generating |

Nation's taxonomy is divided into three major classes, each of which is divided into key subclass strategies. The first class (i.e., planning) involves where and how to focus attention and how often to give this attention to the vocabulary item. The first strategy in this category is 'choosing words'. Nation emphasises that learners should be aware of their vocabulary goals and what vocabulary will achieve these goals.

The second strategy is 'choosing aspects of word knowledge', where Nations calls for attention to all these aspects. 'Choosing strategy' is the fourth strategy in this taxonomy. Gu and Johnson (1996 in Nation, ibid.) found that the most successful learners were those who were active users of various vocabulary learning strategies.

The planning category is concluded with the 'planning repetitions strategy'. In fact, one encounter with a new word may not guarantee knowing sufficient information about it or consolidating it for long-term retrieval.

Schmitt's taxonomy for language learning

Schmitt (1997) developed a taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. It is based on Oxford's system and distinction between discovery and consolidation. Discovery strategies' category is further divided into two categories: determination strategies and social strategies. The former indicates to strategies that are used to gain knowledge of unknown word. These strategies are 'structural knowledge of the language', 'guessing from L1 cognate', 'guessing from context' and 'using reference materials' (Schmitt, 1997:208). Social strategies on the other hand, entail learning via asking people who know such as teachers and classmates.

Consolidation strategies, the second group of Schmitt's taxonomy, deal with the learner's control over the new word after being encountered with it. Consolidation strategies include social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. Consolidation social strategies could be employed via group work and/or interacting with native speakers. Consolidation social strategies are different from discovery social strategies in the sense that the former's goal of the social activity is to practice or interact with others using the previously learned words whereas the latter's goal is to ask for the meaning or L1 equivalent (Alyami, 2006).

Memory strategies involve mnemonic techniques such as relating the item to be retained with previously learned items by using some form of imagery or grouping. Cognitive strategies involve repetition, utilizing mechanical means and using studying aids such as word lists, flash cards and keeping a vocabulary notebook. The last consolidation sub-strategy in Schmitt's taxonomy is metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are employed by learners to take control and evaluate their learning.

Alsaif & Milton's study on public school's EFL textbooks

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the only study treating vocabulary input in textbooks in the Saudi context is Alsaif and Milton's (2012). Some other studies do, however, attempt to evaluate these textbooks. Alsaif and Milton investigated textbooks' vocabulary input in the EFL program in Saudi public schools. They believe that vocabulary input from school textbooks is a potential contributor to poor vocabulary size in Saudi EFL students. They analysed the 22 books and workbooks that comprise the school syllabus and addressed such questions as:

- 1- What words, and how many, are contained in the textbooks, and what are the frequency distributions of these words?
- 2- Do schoolbooks cover all 2,000 words in the Saudi Ministry of Education target word list?
- 3- How much do they cover regarding the most frequent 2,000 and 5,000 words in English?

The analysis was conducted with the RANGE program (Heatley, Nation & Coxhead 2002) and the text_lex_compare. The RANGE program gives the number of word tokens, types and word families of all words used and their frequency across the examined textbooks. The text_lex_compare was used to examine how much of the MOEd word list was introduced in these textbooks.

Alsaif and Milton argue a good course book should present at least the most frequent 2,000 and 5,000 words, which are considered a requirement for good reading comprehension communication. However, they found that these textbooks provide 3,748 word families. They also found that 55 words from the MOEd target word list were not provided in these textbooks.

Regarding the coverage of the most frequent 2,000 and 5,000 English words, Alsaif and Milton found that only 1,690 words from the most 2,000 frequent words and only about half of the most frequent 5,000 words are presented in these textbooks. Alsaif (2011, cited in Alsaif & Milton 2012) indicates that about 40% of the presents words are learned.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This section is dedicated to information about this study's methodology. The first section introduces basic information about the participants followed by a section for data collection methodology and procedures. This section is ended with the study's limitations.

Participants

Participants in this study are 35 male Saudi English learners. All participants speak Arabic as their mother tongue. They are all Saudis and of different study levels, with a typical age range from 15 to 18 years old. Ten students are older than 12 and younger than 16, from grade six to grade n,....]]]]line. They spend at least two years studying EFL. Twenty-five other students are older than 16, from grade 10 to grade 12, and spend at least five years studying EFL. All students participated in answering the questionnaire. However, the study excludes students who have been to an English-speaking country for more than three months. They are excluded because the researcher seeks typical Saudi students who are instructed by Saudi EFL teachers using the typical national school curriculum, that is, the study's context.

Data Collection

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was distributed among 35 students (See appendix A). Those students were chosen randomly from different years of study. A questionnaire was used to gather information for many reasons. For example, for small-scale studies, questionnaires are quick and easy to administer (Oxford 1996). A questionnaire also can be used to gain access to participants' experiences (McDonough & McDonough 1997; Wallace 1998). However, Dornyei (2007: 102) warns that it is not easy to come up with a questionnaire that can elicit sufficient, valid and reliable scores in the field of applied linguistics.

The Designing and piloting the questionnaire

The main construction of the questionnaire was based on the literature review (Nation , 2001; Nation and Waring,1997; Thornbury, 2002). For example, Q 3 was designed according to the suggestion by Laufer (1988, as cited in Nation and Waring, 1997: 10) that coverage of at least 95% of the text is necessary for successful guessing of the meaning of the unknown words. Also, learners who know 2000 word families know 80% of a text (Nation and Waring, Waring 1997: 9-10). Q 11 and 14 were adapted from Schmitt (1997:207), in which he distinguishes two main types of strategies, discovery strategies and consolidation strategies (more details about Schmitt VLS taxonomy in section 2.9). Nation (2001: 217) states that Schmitt's taxonomy is an extensive taxonomy for language learning strategies. Q 13 was adapted from Oxford (1989). Items in Q 13 were modified to fit the study. For example, the Oxford's item ' I evaluate and think about my progress in learning English' was slightly modified to be ' I evaluate and think about my progress in learning English vocabulary'.

The questionnaire was designed to investigate some English vocabulary learning practices that are performed by a sample of 35 Saudi students. It consists of four sections. The first question is about background information. The second section investigates such issues as the student's perspective on the role of vocabulary and vocabulary learning strategies in learning English. Question 3 was given to the participants on the basis of the assumption that those who can understand at least 80% of the words in a text are believed to have a threshold of 2000 words (Nation and Waring 1997). This

question was designed to explore the respondents' ability to guess meaning when reading a text. Other questions were about the student's practices regarding vocabulary learning, what vocabulary sources he made use of and what strategies of vocabulary learning he utilised. Questions 8 and 9 were given to investigate the student's awareness about learning vocabulary. This section is ended with an overt question about factors that may hinder the student from learning vocabulary.

The third section was about vocabulary learning strategies. Responses were scored on a 5-point-likert scale: 'Never or almost never true for me = 1', 'Usually not true of me= 2' , 'Somewhat true of me=3, ' Usually true of me=4' and 'Always or almost always true of me=5'.

The majority of the questions were closed-ended followed by a space for an optional extra open-ended response. With such a responses format, respondents can easily answer these questions and responses can be easily counted (McDonough and McDonough, 1997) and analysed (Alqhatani, 2005). However, two open-ended questions were given at the end of the questionnaire to cover perspectives and attitudes that may not be included in the other questionnaire items, and give respondents an opportunity to add views that are specially relevant to their own experiences in the area of vocabulary learning, and allow for a greater level of richness that can be gained from the quantitative items.

After finishing the first draft of the questionnaire, it was e-mailed to the researcher's academic supervisor. Some important amendments regarding the wording of the questions and to add some more items, for example, were suggested. After rewording the questions and adding the suggested items, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic (See appendix B). The questionnaire remained anonymous and was administered via SurveyMonkey.com. After the questionnaire was designed (in Arabic), the researcher was provided with a link. Then the link was copied, e-mailed to and distributed among four schoolboy students (relatives to the researcher and not included in the study). Those students assured the researcher that they could understand every question and nothing was unclear to them. After that, the link was distributed among the participants via smartphone Whatsapp software, which is very popular in the context of study. In addition, the questionnaire's language is Arabic, the respondents' mother tongue. Consequently, students can understand the questionnaire's items clearly and avoid any confusion. It also might help them feel free from the pressure of being tested.

Evaluating Textbooks

The majority of teachers and students who participated in this study indicated that the only source they used to learn vocabulary was the school textbook. Therefore, an overall evaluation of these textbooks will be discussed. This evaluation mainly tackles the number of words these textbooks present and whether they provide sufficient recycling. Alsaif and Milton (2012) analysed the vocabulary input of the 22 textbooks that are taught from grade six to grade 12. In this study, Alsaif and Milton investigated how many words these textbooks provide, what the frequency distribution of these words is and how much vocabulary they cover, from the most frequent 2,000 and 5,000 words in English. Actually, the textbooks examined in Alsaif-Milton's study are the same textbooks that should be examined in this study. In addition, one of the most convenient programs to process such textbooks is the program RANGE, developed by Nation et al. (2002). Alsaif and Milton (2012) used this program to assess what and how much vocabulary these textbooks provide and recycle. Therefore, it would be time consuming to duplicate this experiment to reach almost the same outcomes. Rather, only two textbooks will be examined, that is, the first and second secondary textbooks. Additionally, the outcomes of processing the 22 textbooks, conducted by Alsaif and Milton, via the program RANGE will be used in this study.

Alsaif and Milton arranged the 22 textbooks into the TEXT form and then processed them with the RANGE program. The program gave the number of word tokens, types and families of all the words used and their frequency across these textbooks. The program was used also to uncover how many words out of the most frequent 5,000 English words were introduced in these textbooks.

However, there is no previous study investigating collocations in these textbooks. Unfortunately, the RANGE program cannot process the textbooks to output what aspects of word knowledge are covered. Therefore, the selected two textbooks will be examined.

The entirety of the two textbooks have been downloaded from the website www.almohafaza.com.sa. Lesson 4 of each unit is dedicated to word study. In addition, there is a word list at the end of each textbook. The researcher will investigate the presence of knowledge aspects of the introduced words. Much attention will be paid to such information as collocations and word's frequency.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

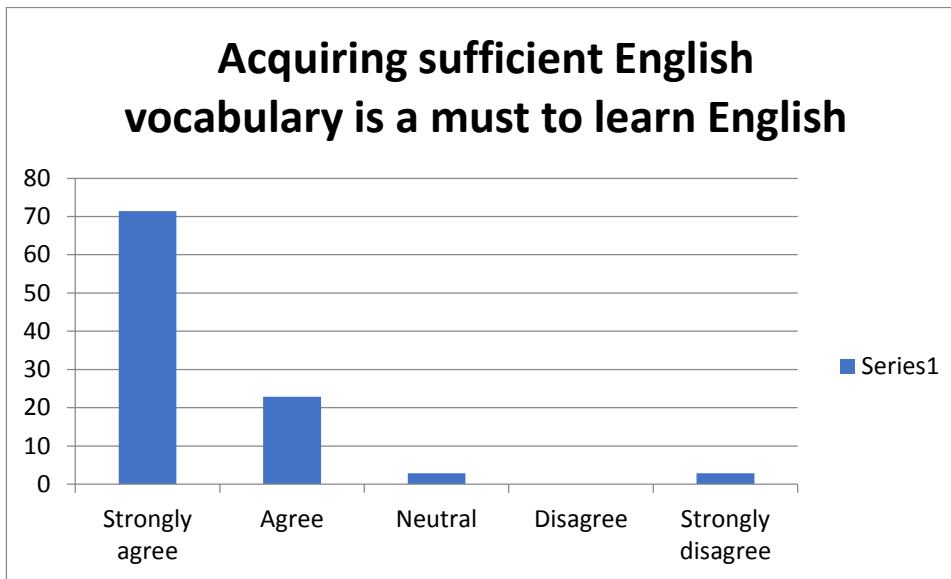
Introduction

Before we draw on the results of the study, we might need to have a preliminary basic idea about the amount of vocabulary the respondents have. Nation and Waring (1997) point out the most frequent 2000 words covers about 80% of written texts. Q 3 was designed in an attempt to have a basic preliminary idea about the average amount of vocabulary the respondents have. The result shows that 82.85% (n=29) of the respondents understand 70% and less from the written texts that school textbooks present. The following section investigates their practices regarding learning English vocabulary. The first section of this chapter sheds light on the respondents' perspective with respect to vocabulary learning. This entails to explore the students' awareness regarding the process of learning English vocabulary. This section also investigates what vocabulary sources students make use of and what vocabulary learning strategies they use. The second section seeks an investigation of such issues as how much vocabulary the Saudi school textbooks offer, how much recycling there is and what aspects of word knowledge they cover. The last section tackles the role or roles of the Saudi EFL teachers in teaching English.

How do Saudi students perceive the role of vocabulary in learning English?

With regards to the research question about student's perspectives of the role of vocabulary in learning English, most students reported a very positive attitude toward the vocabulary's role in learning English, as 33 out of 35 students either agreed or strongly agreed that learning sufficient vocabulary is a must to learn English (See graph 1). In fact, this finding shows obviously how much students appreciate the role of vocabulary regarding learning English.

Graph (1) How Saudi Public School Students Perceive The Role of English Vocabulary.

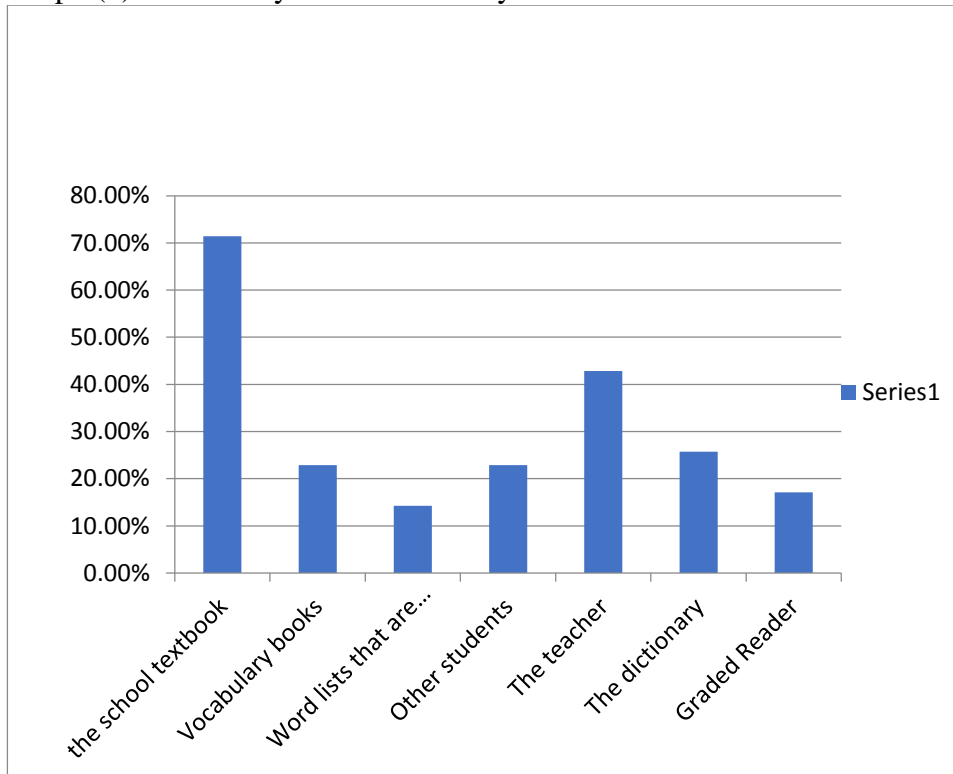


However, although the respondent students reported positive attitudes towards the role of vocabulary in learning English, the analysis shows that the majority of the respondent students have a lack of sufficient awareness or knowledge about the process of learning vocabulary. For example, 57.14 % (n= 20) indicated that the amount of vocabulary an English learner should know is less than 2000 which is inconsistent with the amount suggested by researchers (Nation ,2001 Schmitt, 2000). Furthermore, although they appreciate learning sufficient English vocabulary, 22 students indicated that they do not allocate any time out of the classroom for vocabulary learning, 8 students reported they allocate 5-15 minutes every day and only 5 students reported that they allocate from 15 to more than 30 minutes every day for learning new words. Consequently, there is insufficient vocabulary learning on the weekly basis by the majority of the respondents, in which 10 students showed that they do not learn any item out of the class and another 10 respondents show they learn from 1 to 5 words a week.

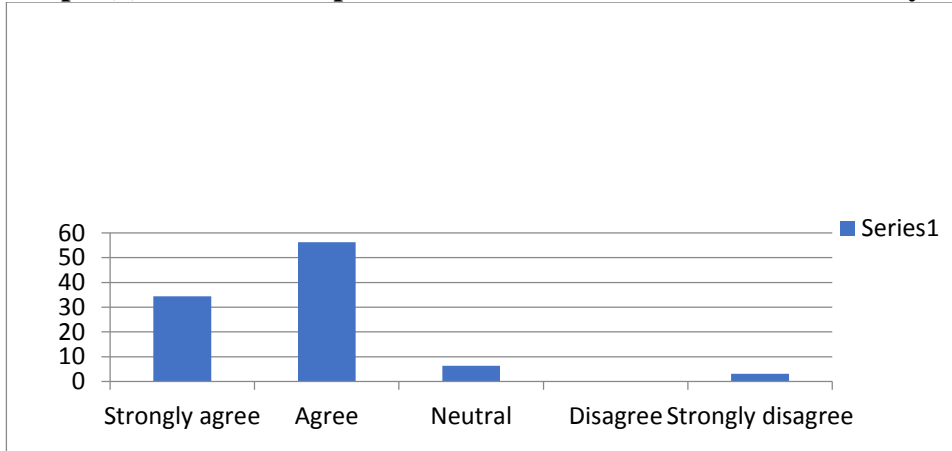
In addition, students were asked about words they focus on when learning vocabulary. This question includes 4 items: 'the most frequent words in English', 'the least frequent words in English', 'Academic English words' and 'I do not recognize these types of words'. About 57% of the respondents indicated that they were unable to recognize the most frequent, the least frequent and academic English words, whereas only 25.7% of them reported that they focus on the most frequent English words. The investigation of two Saudi textbooks and the interview with 9 Saudi teachers reveals that neither these textbooks nor the majority of the participated in the interview (n= 6) focus on such information. One could argue that the textbooks, the only source for the majority of students, offer the most frequent words and there might be no need to draw students' attention to the frequency of the target words. Even though, students should be aware of such information. Nation (2001: 219) emphasizes that students should obtain information about the frequency of vocabulary items from dictionary. One interpretation of this lack of knowledge could be attributable to the poor employment of good dictionaries by students whose popular dictionary is the pocket bilingual dictionary (more details about using dictionary will be discussed in 4.3.2).

What are the vocabulary sources students make use of?

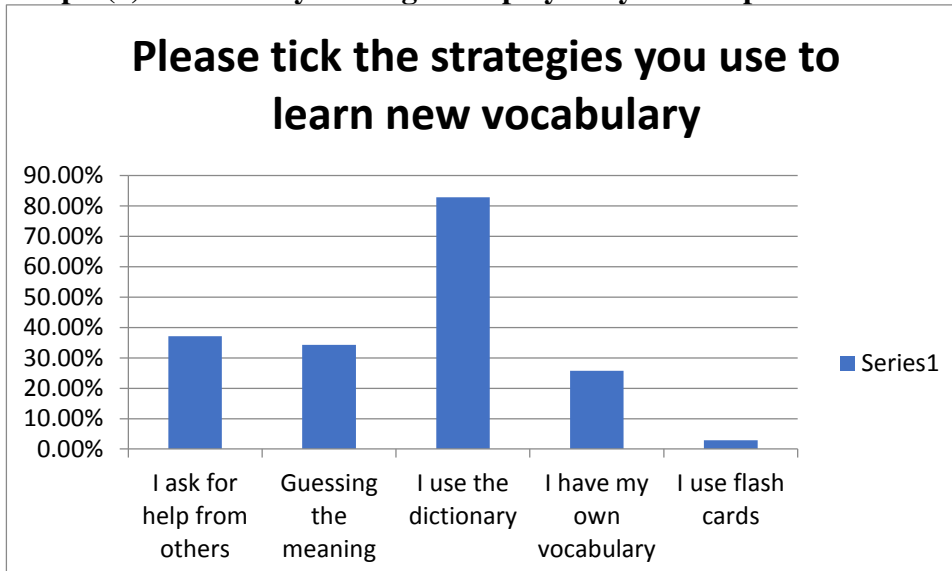
Graph (2) Vocabulary Sources Used by Saudi Students.



This question was designed in an attempt to discover the main sources students utilise to learn new words and then evaluate the most popular sources to find out whether they hinder their vocabulary learning. Students were given a list of resources and were asked to tick all the sources they utilise. This list includes 'the school textbook', 'other textbooks other than the course textbook', 'word lists that are not part of the curriculum', 'other students', 'the teacher', 'the dictionary' and 'readers'. In general, as graph 2 shows, the most common sources that were reported to be among the ones students use are the course textbook, with 74.29%. In fact, this finding agrees with Alsaif (2011, cited in Alsaif and Milton, 2012). The second most common source is the teacher with 42.86% and the dictionary with 25.71%. The least common sources the respondents use is wordlists that are not a part of the curriculum with 14.29% followed by readers with 17% and vocabulary textbooks and other students with 22.86%. One interpretation of this finding could be that students will be assessed according to what they have learned from the course textbook. Consequently, much effort should be paid to it. In the same venue, teachers might be considered to be the controllers of the learning process and the designers of the exams. Therefore, students might consider what a teacher presents is important. Alsaif and Milton (2012) found that the textbooks given to Saudi students do not offer the most frequent 2,000 words, and an investigation of two textbooks, that is, Years 10 and 11, shows that there is a lack of sufficient vocabulary recycling in these textbooks. Respondents also indicated that one main reason behind their inability to retain new words is that these words do not appear frequently through the textbook.

How do Saudi students perceive the role of vocabulary in learning strategies?**Graph (3) How The Respondents Perceive The Role Of Vocabulary In Learning English.**

As the above graph shows, the study also investigates the students' perspective of using vocabulary learning strategies. Similar to the previous question, the majority of the respondent students report positive attitudes toward employing different strategies for learning vocabulary. This significant finding may suggest that students practically employ these strategies. In fact, the study investigates the different VLSs students usually use. The investigation reveals that 77.41% (n=27) of the respondents reported that they use the bilingual dictionary, 25.71% (n=9) record new words in a vocabulary notebook and 14.29% use a monolingual dictionary while only one student reported that he uses word cards. Students also were asked to report any other strategy they use; only one student responded and indicated that he allocated Thursdays' nights to practice English with his father.

Do students use vocabulary learning strategies? If they do, how effectively they use them?**Graph (4) Vocabulary Strategies employed by the Respondents.**

The study is not dedicated to exploring in-depth all the vocabulary strategies that are implemented by students, but rather aims to find out whether the respondents use these strategies and, if they do, how effectively they use them. Question 7 is designed to answer these questions. In fact, the researcher listed only five strategies, of which three strategies are for discovery and two strategies are for

consolidation (Schmitt, 1997). Discovery strategies include asking others, guessing the meaning and using the dictionary, whereas consolidation strategies include only word cards and recording words in a notebook. At the end of this question, respondents were given an open-ended question asking them to write down strategies they use that were not listed. This was done in an attempt to know whether the respondents know strategies other than the listed ones. Furthermore, Gairns and Redman (1986, p. 77) indicate that 'asking others', 'using a dictionary' and 'making use of context to deduce meaning and guessing from the item itself' are strategies of great importance for vocabulary learners to deal with skills activities.

As the above graph shows, discovery strategies are used more frequently than consolidation strategies. Overall, the most used was a bilingual dictionary with 77.14%, followed by asking for help from others with 37.14% and guessing a word's meaning with 34.29%. The least used strategies were flash cards with 2.86%, followed by a vocabulary record with 25.71%.

Cognitive strategies

This section seeks to investigate the most common strategies that are employed by Saudi students when they encounter an unknown word, that is, guessing the meaning, using dictionary and asking others.

Guessing meaning

Although students are usually trained to guess meaning from context, other ways of guessing are partially neglected. Question 11 was designed to find out how students usually guess the meaning of an unknown word. This category includes only three items. These items are 'guessing from the context', 'guessing by knowing the word's grammatical category' and 'guessing by analysing the word's structure'. Also, this question is followed by an open-ended question asking the respondents to report any other strategies that were not mentioned.

Table (5) Guessing Meaning Strategy Used by Saudi Public School Students.

| Answer choices | Total | Average Rating |
|-----------------------------------|-------|----------------|
| guessing the word from context | 34 | 3.26 |
| analysing the word structure | 35 | 2.75 |
| Knowing the word's part of speech | 33 | 2.61 |

Table (5) shows that guessing from context is the most popular strategy used by the respondents with a mean score of '3.26', followed by guessing the word's grammatical category with a mean of '2.75'. The least guessing type was guessing by analysing the word structure with mean score of '2.61'. In fact, it is not surprising that guessing from context scored the highest mean, as it was the most common strategy students were trained to use. Four of the participant teachers in the interview indicated that they introduce new items in context and always train students to guess their meaning from the local contexts they provide. However, guessing from meaning is not a popular strategy among students. Few students reported that they do guessing (total mean=2.80).

Actually, it was expected that guessing meaning is not widely used by students as it requires knowing about 95% of the words in a written text (Laufer, 1992). Hayns (1993) found that students with low proficiency found it difficult to guess meanings because of their limited vocabulary. Therefore, it can be suggested that students in the Saudi context, as long as they lack sufficient vocabulary, should be

trained to use other strategies. Moreover, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001, cited in Lightbown & Spada 2006, p. 100) point out that learners can successfully develop vocabulary when they 'fully engage in activities that require them to attend carefully to the new words and even to use them productively'.

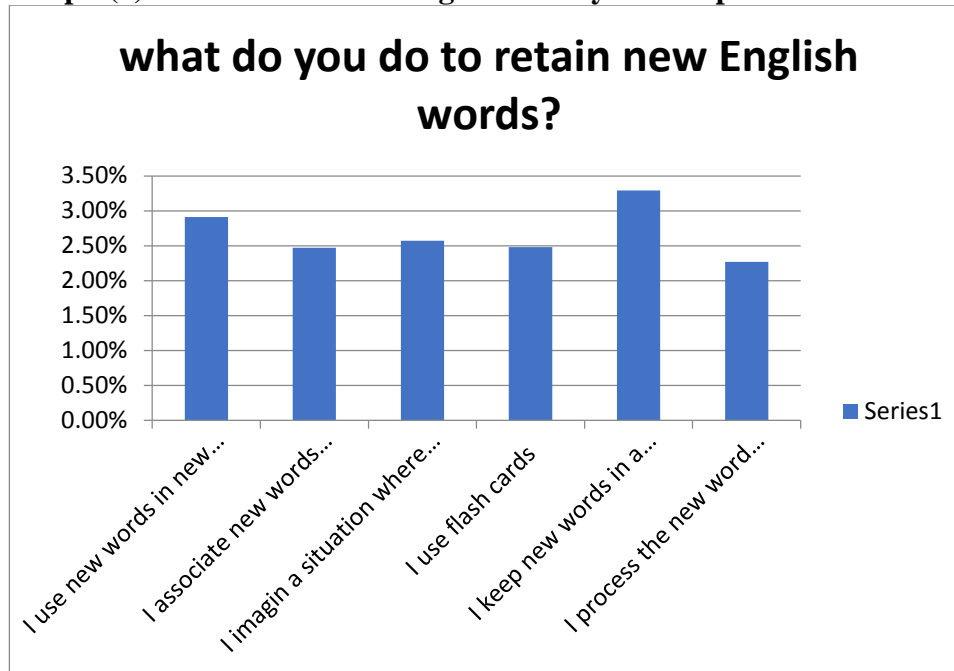
Asking Others

This category includes only two items. They are 'asking for the word's meaning in Arabic' and 'negotiating for the meaning in English'. The results showed that 'negotiating for meaning' falls far short with a figure of 17.64% (mean=2.09) whereas 73.53% (mean=4.03) of them indicated that they use Arabic for asking a new word's meaning. This actually raises the issue of overuse of L1 equivalents when introducing new items. Five of the teachers who participated in the interview emphasised that, because of time constraints, it is not convenient to apply each and every strategy in every class. Only a few students can negotiate meanings in English. If teachers utilised every stage every time for those few students, other students would stop participating.

Using dictionary

Participants also were asked about whether they use a dictionary to check the meaning of an unknown word when they encounter it (Question 11); 26 students reported that they use a dictionary. To check why exactly they use the dictionary, Question 12 was designed to seek more details. In Question 12, students were asked about the purpose of using a dictionary. Looking for a meaning was the most common purpose with a figure of more than 90%, followed by its spelling and pronunciation with figures of 46% and 40% respectively. This finding is consistent with some other studies. For example, Tomaszczyk (1979) found that students use a dictionary to check the meaning of an item during reading or spelling while writing more than other information relevant to the item.

Regarding collocations, it is not surprising that it scored the least figure (12.5%). The investigation of two textbooks and the interview reveal that this is the most neglected aspect within the process. The participating teachers reported that they only shed light on collocations that frequently appear in the textbook. Furthermore, teachers in the interview also reported that the most popular type of dictionary among students is the pocket bilingual dictionaries (English-Arabic and sometimes Arabic-English), which only offer an item's meaning, part of speech and sometimes its synonym. Furthermore, they, teachers, claimed that schools do not allow students to bring their smartphones with them. For the specialised dictionary, teachers also reported that students are reluctant to use and bring these dictionaries with them because they are not affordable for some students and because of their bulk for some others. Gairns and Redman (1986) criticise bilingual dictionaries and consider many of them unreliable

Memorization strategies**Graph (5) Memorization Strategies Used by the Respondent Students.**

One hypothesis the study advances is that students forget the majority of new items after the first meeting. This could be attributed to many factors such as motivation, lack of vocabulary retention strategies and insufficient exposure. Actually, it is beyond the study to investigate factors such as motivation. However, Question 4 might give a clue that motivation might be one reason behind forgetting new items, in which about 60% of the respondents reported that they do not allocate any time for vocabulary learning and another 20% indicated that they only allocate from five to 15 minutes a day. In addition, when they were asked about sources they use, though they are available at the school library, they said they used vocabulary books and graded readers, with figures of 22% and 17% respectively. However, these results could be attributed to other factors other than motivation, such as the demands of other school subjects.

In general, applying vocabulary memorisation strategies is believed to help learners retain vocabulary items and recognise or use them when needed. The study investigates what memorisation strategies students under inspection employ. They were given six statements and then asked to report if each statement is true of them (See graph 5). Overall, recording new items in a notebook and reviewing them regularly were found to be the most popular among respondents, with mean score of 3.29; 55.88% of them reported that it is always or usually true of them to write down new items in a notebook and review them on a regular basis.

Regarding using new items in new sentences, the results showed that only 38% (mean score=2.91) of the respondents use new items in new sentences as a strategy to remember them. Although this is the strategy the interviewed teachers used the most in training, , it was not the one respondents most actually used.

Table (6). Memorization Strategies Used by Saudi EFL Students.

| Answer choices | Total | Average rating |
|---|-------|----------------|
| I use new words in new sentences | 34 | 2.91 |
| I associate new words with Arabic words | 34 | 2.47 |
| I imagin a situation where the word can be used | 35 | 2.57 |
| I use flash cards | 33 | 2.48 |
| I keep new words in a notebook and reveiw them regularly | 34 | 3.29 |
| I process the new word by analyzing its origin and uses and parts | 33 | 2.27 |

With respect to other strategies, the key word method, imagining a situation where the word could be used and using flash cards did not achieve satisfactory scores. Their mean scores were 2.47, 2.57 and 2.48 respectively. These findings agree with some other studies. For example, O'melly and Chamot (1990) found that the key word method is among the least strategies used by learners. However, while training speakers of Indo-European languages such as Germany or Swedish on this strategy was achievable, it could be somewhat difficult for Arabic speakers, especially when forming an acoustic link and when a word has three or more syllables. One reason for these phenomena could be that Arabic has a different phonology system from English. However, the key word method could be implemented with some one-syllable words. For example, the English word 'talk' can be learned by associating it with the Arabic word 'talk allim', which means 'you speak or talk'.

The least-used strategy the study found is processing the new item by analysing its parts, origins and uses with a mean score of 2.27. In fact, this is a reasonable score if we take into account that the best, if only, source for such information in this context is a specialised dictionary, which is rarely used in the classroom.

Metacognitive strategies

The study also explores metacognitive strategies Saudi students make use of. Q 13 was designed to examine this area. Students were asked to describe themselves as vocabulary learners. This category includes 1) 'I try to find as many ways as I can to use the new English words', 2) 'I try to find out how to be a better English vocabulary learner', 3) 'I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study new English words' and 4) 'I evaluate and think about my progress in Learning English vocabulary'. As the graph below shows, the average mean score for this category is 2.72. 31.42% of students (mean score = 3.14) reported that try to find as many ways as they can to use the English words. Respondents were told this category involves using the item in new situations. However, as the interview with teachers reveals, the only way of using the new item is using it in new sentences.

The other items 2, 3 and 4 did not gain significant scores, in which their mean scores are 2.88, 2.60 and 2.29 respectively.

Table (7) Mean Scores of the Student Responses About Metacognitive Strategies.

| Answer choices | Total | Average rating |
|--|-------|----------------|
| I try to find as many ways as I can to use the new English words | 35 | 3.14 |
| I try to find out how to be a better English vocabulary learner | 34 | 2.88 |
| I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study new English words | 35 | 2.60 |
| I evaluate and think about my progress in Learning English vocabulary | 35 | 2.29 |

In fact, the teaching methodology in this context seems to be teacher-centered. The metacognitive processes such as planning, monitoring and evaluating of the student vocabulary learning are usually implemented by the teacher himself. There is no systematic reliable methodology at the students' disposal. As a result, students are dependent of their teachers with respect to planning and evaluating their learning.

What are the factors that hinder students from vocabulary learning from students' point of view?

The results found that students lack effective vocabulary learning strategies, especially ones regarding memorisation. Students were given a more direct question about factors that hinder their vocabulary learning from their perspective. Yet, the question does not investigate how true each statement is. It could at least give a satisfactory confirmation of the previous results. The question includes five statements: 1) The textbooks do not offer a sufficient amount of vocabulary, 2) The text does not sufficiently recycle new words, so I forget them, 3) I forget a lot of new items after a short while, 4) I do not think vocabulary learning is crucial to learning English, and 5) I do not have effective vocabulary learning

The results show that forgetting new items after the first meeting and the lack of effective strategies for vocabulary learning are the top two reasons behind hindering their vocabulary learning, with equal figures of 54.29% for each. The third and fourth top reasons according to the respondents are 'lack of sufficient vocabulary recycling in the textbooks' and 'insufficient vocabulary presentation' with figures of 51.43% and 31.43% respectively. Only 2.86% of the respondents consider downgrading the role of vocabulary in learning English as a top reason that hinders them from learning vocabulary.

Evaluating the textbooks

Introduction

The study also investigates the textbooks' input in the Saudi context as a factor that contributes to failure in English vocabulary learning by Saudi public school students. This section presents the results of the evaluation of two textbooks. The evaluation concentrates on the amount of vocabulary items presented in the textbooks, how much recycling they offer and what aspects of word knowledge they cover.

How much vocabulary do the Saudi 22 textbooks offer and What is the coverage distribution of these words?

EFL textbooks should present the at least the most frequent 5000 words (Alsaif and Milton (2012). Laufer(1989) points out that 95% of a written text's words should be known for sufficient comprehension. Deville et al (1985, cited in Alsaif and Milton, *ibid*) concluded that 5000 lemmatized words are needed for such level. According to Alsaif and Milton (*ibid*), the analysis of the Saudi EFL textbooks using the RANGE program reveals that these textbooks offer 218, 883 tokens, 8,197 types and 3,748 word families. Table (7) shows the results of this analysis.

Table (7). Frequency Distributions of the Words in the Textbooks (adapted from Alsaif and Milton, 2012).

| Word-list | Tokens | Types | Families |
|------------------|---------|-------|----------|
| One | 180,551 | 2699 | 947 |
| Two | 16,898 | 1524 | 743 |
| Three | 5543 | 818 | 509 |
| Four | 3034 | 476 | 334 |
| Five | 2092 | 304 | 220 |
| Six to fifteen | 6693 | 1147 | 995 |
| Not in the lists | 4072 | 1229 | *? |
| Total | 218,883 | 8197 | 3748 |

*Arabic names and translated words that do not have equivalents in English.

The table above also shows the coverage of the most frequent 2,000 and 5,000 words provided in these textbooks. It is obvious from the table that only (1,690) word families from the most frequent 2,000 words are presented and about 73% of the most frequent 3,000 words are covered (2,199). The distribution of words along the remaining frequency bands decreases. Participants in this study, that is, students and teachers, report that these textbooks are the only source they use to learn vocabulary. The analysis of these textbooks reveals that they do not cover the most frequent 5,000 words that are believed to offer 95% coverage of spoken discourse (Adolphs & Schmitt 2003) and written discourse (Laufer 1989). Moreover, not all the presented 1,960 words are learned by the learners. Alsaif (2011, cited in Alsaif and Milton, *ibid*) indicates that, on average, about 40% of the introduced words are learned.

In addition, a basic investigation of these textbooks reveals that they do not show the frequency and range distribution of the presented words to focus on. When a teacher decontextualises an unknown word from reading or listening material, it is left entirely on him and on the learner to find out such information. In fact, it is not easy for non-native speakers of English, especially whose L1 is not Indo-European, to recognise words from the second or third most frequent 1,000 word levels and spend much time learning them. Three teachers participated in this study reported that they rely on their L1, that is, Arabic, to determine whether a particular English word is one of the most frequent ones. (The most frequently used words in Arabic are believed to be the same as in English).

One could argue that there is no need for such information as these textbooks present only the most frequent words. Even though, learners need to know which words are from the first 1000 band and which ones from the second and third bands. Nation (2001: 219) emphasizes that 'learners have to be able to get information about the words. This includes all of the aspects involved in knowing a word'.

How much recycling is there in each textbook?

The school textbooks contain 3,748 word families. In the intermediate stage, 2,794 word families are introduced, that is, in years seven to nine (Alsaif & Milton 2012). The remaining word families (954 words) are introduced in the secondary stage, that is, years 10 through 12. This suggests that much recycling takes place in the secondary stage (ibid.). Because of time restrictions, recycling in only two textbooks has been investigated. These textbooks are the first secondary school textbook and the second secondary textbook. To examine how much vocabulary each textbook offers, the two textbooks were downloaded from the website www.Al-Mohafaza.com, and then they were converted into TXT form. Each textbook was kept in a separate text file. After that, the textbooks were edited, and all pictures, figures and Arabic scripts were removed. Then, each textbook was copied and then inserted into the program *Vocabularyprofiler*, which is available at the Lexical Tutor website (Cobb 2009). This program processes the text and outputs the number of word tokens, types and families of all words used and their coverage. Tables 8 and 9 show the output of each textbook.

Table (8). Frequency Distributions of the Words in the First Secondary (Year 10) Textbook

| Word-list | Tokens | types | Families |
|------------------|--------|-------|----------|
| One | 25283 | 1394 | 777 |
| Two | 1784 | 392 | 272 |
| Three | 453 | 131 | 96 |
| Four | 306 | 73 | 56 |
| Five | 318 | 39 | 28 |
| Six to fifteen | 463 | 170 | 69 |
| Not in the lists | 369 | 168 | *? |
| Total | 28,976 | 2367 | 1298 |

*Arabic names and translated words that do not have equivalents in English.

Table (9). Frequency Distributions of the Words in the First Secondary (Year 11) Textbook.

| Word-list | Tokens | types | Families |
|------------------|--------|-------|----------|
| One | 47553 | 1881 | 819 |
| Two | 5123 | 866 | 489 |
| Three | 1728 | 386 | 250 |
| Four | 892 | 171 | 116 |
| Five | 508 | 100 | 76 |
| Six to fifteen | 1277 | 251 | 251 |
| Not in the lists | 1698 | 630 | *? |
| Total | 58,749 | 4285 | 2001 |

*Arabic names and translated words that do not have equivalents in English.

The analysis of the first and second secondary textbooks reveals that the first secondary textbook offers 1,145 word families from the 3000 most frequent words while the second secondary textbook offers 1,558 word families from the 3000 most frequent words. The total word families that are presented in the first and second secondary textbooks are 1298 and 2001 words, respectively. Alsaif and Milton (2012) found that the average annual growth of vocabulary presentation in the secondary stage is 263 word families. This might indicate that approximately 1035 (1298- 263) words from the 2794 words introduced in the intermediate stage are repeated in the first secondary textbook and 1738 (2001-263) words from the 3,057 (2794+263) words introduced in the previous years are repeated in the second secondary textbook.

However, the analysis of the two textbooks does not show how many times the repeated words recurred in these textbooks. Moreover, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no study investigating the impact of recycling words introduced in one year of study into the next one. Instead of examining how much recycling there is over years of study, the researcher investigated only the recycling of the target words in the first and second secondary textbooks. The first and second secondary textbooks consist of 12 units, six units per term. Lesson four of each unit is dedicated to word study, in which a group of words are presented to be learned explicitly. McDonough and Shaw (1993) point out that textbook evaluation can be implemented by analysing at least two units. Accordingly, to evaluate recycling in these textbooks, the researcher selected the target words from two units in the first secondary textbook and 14 target words from units two, nine and 10 in the second secondary textbook and investigated their recurrences through the textbook.

How much recycling is there in the first and second secondary textbooks?

In order for a new word to be learned, it requires a repeated exposure of six times (Rott 1999), 10 times (Gairns & Redman 1989; Webb 2007) or even more than 10 times (Pigada & Schmitt 2006). This section investigates the total number of repetitions of the selected target words in two units of each textbook.

The first secondary textbook

The first secondary textbook introduces five new words in unit six and another five new words in unit 10. These words also appear in the word list at the end of the textbook. The investigation of these 10 target words in these units reveals that only two words (*flight* and *register*) are recycled more than six times while the remaining eight words (*airline*, *look forward to*, *queue*, *try*, *operate*, *prevent*, *result* and *treat*) are recycled less than six times (See Table 10). *Airline* and *try* are recycled five times; *look forward to*, *queue*, *operate* and *result* four times; and *prevent* and *treat* three times. Most interestingly, six words from the first and second most frequent 1,000 levels that are vital for productive and receptive English do not gain sufficient repetitions.

Table (10) Vocabulary Recycling in the First Secondary Textbook.

| Unit | The word | *Frequency band | Location | | Activity | Recycling |
|------|---------------------|-----------------|----------|--------|-------------------|-----------|
| | | | Unit | Lesson | | |
| 6 | Airline (n) | 3.00 | 6 | 4 | Word study | 5 |
| | | | | 4 | (1)vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 6 | Writing | |
| | | | | 8 | Grammar | |
| | | | 10 | 4 | (2) word study | |
| | Flight (n) | 3.00 | 6 | 3 | Reading | 7 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 6 | Speaking | |
| | | | | 7 | Grammar | |
| | | | | 8 | Grammar | |
| | | | 8 | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | Look forward to (v) | 1.00 | 6 | 4 | Word study | 4 |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | 11 | 6 | Writing. | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--------------|------|----|----|----------------|---|
| | Queue (n) | 3.00 | 6 | 8 | Grammar | 4 |
| | | | | 3 | Reading | |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | Try (v) | 1.00 | 6 | 5 | Writing | 5 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | 9 | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 4 | (2)Word study | |
| | | | 10 | 7 | Listening | |
| | | | | 4 | (2)Word study | |
| 10 | Operate (v) | 1.00 | 10 | 3 | Reading | 4 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 12 | Reading | |
| | Prevent | 2.00 | 10 | 3 | Reading | 3 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | Register (v) | 2.00 | 10 | 3 | Reading | 9 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 6 | Speaking | |
| | | | | 8 | Grammar | |
| | | | | 11 | Listening | |
| | | | | 5 | Speaking | |
| | | | | 6 | Writing | |
| | | | | 7 | Writing | |
| | Result (n) | 1.00 | 10 | 3 | Reading | 4 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 8 | Grammar | |
| | | | | 12 | Writing | |
| | Treat (v) | 1.00 | | 3 | Reading | 3 |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | Word study | |

*First, Second and Third BNC 1000 Frequency Bands.

(1) word study ex. = Words appear in the word study exercises.

(2) Words appear in the definition or example of another target word.

The second secondary textbook

To investigate recycling in the second textbook, the researcher selected 14 target words from units two, nine and 10. These words also appear in the word list at the end of the textbook. The investigation reveals that only two words (*harvest* and *represent*) are recycled six times while other words are recycled five times (*compete* and *wealthy*), for four times (*shock*, *precaution*, *fit* and *one another*), for three times (*belief*, *performance*, *fine*, *force* and *be supposed to*), and for two times (*sight*). Surprisingly, nine words from the first and second most frequent 1,000 levels, which are considered vital for basic communication and comprehension, do not gain sufficient repetitions. Table (11) presents this result of the analysis.

Table (11) Vocabulary Recycling in the Second Secondary Textbook.

| Unit | The word | *Frequency band | Location | | Activity | Recycling |
|------|-------------------|-----------------|----------|--------|--------------------|-----------|
| | | | Unit | Lesson | | |
| 2 | shock (n) | 2.00 | 2 | 2 | Reading | 4 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 3 | Vocab ex. | |
| | | | | 5 | Writing | |
| | sight (n) | 2.00 | 2 | 2 | Reading | 2 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | Precaution (n) | 4.00 | 2 | 2 | Reading | 4 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 3 | Vocab ex. | |
| | | | | 5 | Writing | |
| | fit (adj) | 1.00 | 1 | 3 | (2)Word study *(v) | 4 |
| | | | 2 | 2 | Reading | |
| | | | | 3 | Word study. | |
| | | | | 4 | Grammar | |
| 9 | Belief (n) | 3.00 | 9 | 2 | Reading | 3 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | Vocab ex. | |
| | Compete (v)' | 2.00 | 9 | 2 | Reading | 5 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 7 | Reading | |
| | | | 10 | 6 | Grammar | |
| | Harvest (n) | 3.00 | 5 | 7 | Reading | 6 |
| | | | 9 | 2 | Reading | |
| | | | | 3 | (3)Reading ex. | |
| | | | | 3 | Word Study. | |
| | | | | 4 | Vocab ex. | |
| | | | | 4 | Grammar *(v) | |
| | One another (pro) | 1.00 | 9 | 2 | Reading | 4 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 3 | vocabulary ex. | |
| | | | | 4 | Speaking | |
| | Performance (n) | 2.00 | 9 | 1 | Speaking | 6 |
| | | | | 3 | Word Study | |
| | | | | 4 | Vocab Ex. | |
| | | | | 7 | Vocab ex. (v) | |
| | | | | 8 | Reading (v) | |
| | | | 10 | 2 | Reading (v) | |
| | Represent | 1.00 | 9 | 2 | Reading | 6 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 4 | Vocab ex. | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--------------------|------|----------|---|---------------|---|
| | | | | 6 | Grammar | |
| | | | | 7 | (2) Vocab ex. | |
| | | | | 8 | Reading | |
| 10 | Fine (adj) | 1.00 | 3 | 7 | Reading | 3 |
| | | | 10 | 2 | Reading | |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | Force (n) | 1.00 | 10 | | Reading | 3 |
| | | | 10 | | Word Study. | |
| | | | Revision | | | |
| | Wealthy (adj) | 4.00 | 10 | 2 | Reading | 5 |
| | | | | 3 | Word Study | |
| | | | | 3 | Vocab ex. | |
| | | | | 4 | Grammar | |
| | | | Revision | | | |
| | Be supposed to (v) | 1.00 | 10 | 2 | Reading | 3 |
| | | | | 3 | Word study | |
| | | | | 3 | Vocab ex. | |

*First, Second and Third BNC 1000 Frequency Bands.

*V = the word is used as verb in this activity.

(1) word study ex. = Words appear in the word study exercises.

(2) Words appear in the definition or example sentence of another target word.

Are there appropriate spaces between the repetitions of the introduced words?

Each unit of this textbook consists of eight lessons, one lesson every class. There are four classes each week. This indicates that each unit is instructed through two weeks. Table (10) shows the locations and contexts of the repetitions of each item. Nation (2001, p. 76) argues that repetitions of new words should occur immediately after the first meeting, before too much forgetting occurs. All the items introduced explicitly are repeated after roughly 25 minutes in the vocabulary exercises. However, there should be four more repetitions at least over a regular basis. Unfortunately, this is not the case for the majority of the items in tables (9) and (10). Only words that are repeated for six times and more maintain the number of spaced repetitions suggested by researchers (e.g., Rott 1999; Gairns & Redman 1989; Webb 2007; Pigada & Schmitt 2006).

Are the target words used creatively and generatively?

Nation (2001: 63-71) introduces three processes that may lead to a word being remembered. These processes are 'noticing, i.e., the giving attention to the new word', 'retrieval' and creative or generative use'. Nation (2001: 67) argues that 'retrieval' might be receptive or productive. Receptive retrieval indicates perceiving the form of the word when it is met in listening or reading and having to retrieve its meaning, while productive retrieval involves retrieving the spoken or written form of an item when it is needed in speaking or writing (ibid.). The generative use of a word entails its appearance or use in different forms and meanings in different contexts.

In order for an L2 learner to acquire a new item, he should be exposed to that word in different forms and contexts and be encouraged to use it in different forms and meanings in different contexts. The textbooks under investigation introduce the new words to be deliberately learned in a dedicated lesson for new vocabulary. In this lesson, sufficient attention is given to the item, in which it is written in bold in the dedicated lesson with a detailed definition. The grammatical category and examples of its

uses are provided as well. All teachers in the interview (who mainly teach these textbooks) reported that they do not present the meaning of words directly. Rather, they allow some time for students to process and retrieve their meanings or forms. However, the analysis of these textbooks reveals that the majority of the new words (14 words) are excluded from the following speaking and writing activities and nine words are integrated in these activities only once for each (see tables 12 and 13). The following table (12) shows the number of word repetitions and their different forms and meanings in different contexts in these textbooks.

Table (12) Generative Use of Words

| The word | Number of repetitions | Form | Meaning |
|-----------------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Airline | 5 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Flight | 7 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Look forward to | 4 | 2 different forms | The same meaning |
| Queue | 4 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Try | 5 | 3 different forms | The same meaning |
| Operate | 4 | 4 different forms | The same meaning |
| Prevent | 3 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Register | 9 | 3 different forms | The same meaning |
| Result | 4 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Treat | 3 | 2 different forms | The same meaning |
| Shock | 4 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Sight | 2 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Precaution | 4 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Fit | 4 | The same form | 2 different meanings |
| Belief | 3 | 2 different forms | The same meaning |
| Compete | 5 | 2 different forms | The same meaning |
| Harvest | 4 | 2 different forms | The same meaning |
| Performance | 6 | 3 different forms | The same meaning |
| Represent | 6 | 2 different meanings | The same meaning |
| Fine | 3 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Force | 3 | The same form | The same meaning |
| Wealthy | 5 | The same form | The same meaning |

The table above shows that more than 50% of the presented words (12) are introduced with the same form and six words with two different forms. Only four words are generated with new forms. Regarding meaning, only one word (*fit*) is used with a different meaning. The remaining 11 words are used with the same meaning.

Analysis of Vocabulary exercises

Vocabulary exercises usually come in the second part of a lesson after presenting new words in the first part. These exercises are fill-in-the-blank forms, in which the student is given a list of words and a list of incomplete sentences. The student is asked to complete these sentences with the suitable example. See the following as an example:

- | | | |
|----|--|----------|
| 1- | How can we people from smoking? | A- cough |
| 2- | It is best to see your doctor if you a lot. | B- treat |

- | | | |
|----|--|-------------|
| 3- | I would like to use this machine, but I cannot it. | C- prevent |
| 4- | You must at school before you can attend class. | D- register |
| 5- | Some doctors in the hospital patients with eye problems. | E- operate |

Nation (2001, pp. 159-160) suggest four questions to analyse vocabulary exercises. These questions include what is the learning goal of the activity? And what are the psychological conditions that assist learning? Because of the word limit, only these questions will be discussed. The activity goal seems to be strengthening the meaning of the words via the generative use of the items. The condition leading to learning could be retrieving the word meaning. It also seems that such exercises foster or train students to guess meaning from local contexts such as, 'see your doctor', 'machine', 'at school' and 'doctors and patients'. However, for such exercises, collocations are almost the main cues for successful guessing. This claim leads us to investigate how sufficiently these textbooks treat collocations. More details will be provided in the following section.

What aspects of word knowledge these textbooks provide?

Both of the textbooks provide new items with their definition, grammatical category and example sentences to display how these words are used. However, these textbooks do not provide the spoken form of the target words, in which the teacher takes the responsibility of introducing the spoken forms of the new words to students. Regarding other aspects such as collocations and constraints on use, the textbooks do not provide sufficient information about them. However, words that occur with target items such as *flight*, *queue*, *register*, *shock* and *performance* appear a few times in different contexts (See table 12) without drawing the learner's attention to them. It is entirely left to the teacher to instruct this aspect. In the interview, nine teachers reported that they rarely draw students' attention to the words' collocations. In fact, it is not easy for non-native speakers to determine or spot a word's collocation. Teachers in the interview indicated that they depend solely on the textbook and they do not have much time to cover all aspects of word knowledge. Instead, they encourage students to use the dictionary. Unfortunately, 80% of the students participating in the study reported that they use the bilingual dictionary to check the meaning of an unknown word.

Table (13) Collocations of the New Words in the First and Second Secondary Textbooks.

| The target word | Words collocate with the target word | Activity | Number of occurrences |
|-----------------|---------------------------------------|--|-----------------------|
| Flight | Have a good ... | Reading | 1 |
| | ... number | Word study | 1 |
| | ... leaves at | Grammar | 1 |
| | ... lands at | Speaking | 1 |
| Queue | Join the ... | Reading, writing, word study | 3 |
| | Check-in ... | Reading | 1 |
| Register | Register at hospital, school, clinic. | Reading, word study, writing, grammar, listening, speaking | 5 |
| | Register for a course | Speaking, writing | 2 |
| Result | Test ... | Reading | 1 |

| | | | |
|-------------|--------------|---|---|
| Shock | Electric ... | Reading, word study, writing | 3 |
| | Treat a ... | Word study | 1 |
| Harvest | Tea ... | Reading, word study, grammar | |
| | Corn ... | Word study | |
| | Wheat ... | Word study | |
| Performance | Improve ... | Discussion, | 1 |
| | Poor ... | Word study, vocabulary exercises. | 2 |

To sum up, the analysis of the two textbooks shows that there is a lack of sufficient presentation and recycling for the new words. Nevertheless, this does not mean that all words presented in the textbooks will be absorbed and learned. In fact, little is known about the vocabulary loading from course books (Milton, 2009:215). It is worth mentioning that students' main source of vocabulary is the textbooks and some of those who participated in the study reported that one factor that hinders them from learning vocabulary is the lack of sufficient recycling in these textbooks.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is dedicated to a summary of the study's findings and promoting some paedagogical implications. This section will be concluded with suggestions for further research regarding English vocabulary learning and teaching in the Saudi context.

Summary of the study findings

Generally speaking, lack of sufficient presentation of vocabulary, as Alsaif and Milton (2012) found, lack of sufficient recycling and lack of adequate training and use of vocabulary learning strategies are found to contribute to the failure in satisfactory learning for English vocabulary by Saudi public school students.

The study shows that, though Saudi students have positive attitudes toward both vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning strategies, they are found to be inactive users of vocabulary learning strategies. The study also shows that those students have deficient knowledge of the process of vocabulary learning. They are unaware of critical information, such as how many words an L2 learner should know and what aspects of word knowledge he should learn. This unawareness of such information may be interpreted as students' being independent of their teachers and textbooks.

The study also found that, for discovery strategies of vocabulary learning, teachers have an obvious impact on the choice of strategy, whereas for vocabulary consolidation strategies, it is the student who usually manages the process.

The study found learners heavily rely on the textbooks as the main source of vocabulary. For learners, the teachers come second, and the dictionary, third. One interpretation of this result is that students are very concerned about what will be presented in the exams, so exams and exam designers, namely, the teachers, are major factors that determine what should be learned. The survey of the questionnaire shows that the majority of students use vocabulary learning strategies, but not as effectively as necessary for successful vocabulary learning. Using bilingual dictionaries are found to be the most

popular strategies among students (mean score=3.56) followed by asking others, often for an Arabic translation (mean score=3.06). Guessing meaning is found to be the least-used discovery strategy employed by students (mean score=2.8).

The study also investigates the most popular strategy used by those students, the bilingual dictionary. The results show that not all information gains sufficient attention. Information such as the word's frequency and collocations is rarely looked up. Regarding vocabulary consolidation strategies, keeping a vocabulary notebook and rote learning are the most used strategies. Students reported inadequate use of other strategies such as the key word method and word cards. An examination of two textbooks reveals that there is lack of sufficient recycling for the presented items and that not all aspects of word knowledge are covered. Collocations, a very important aspect for fluent L2 use, are found to be neglected by the textbooks and the teachers.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Based on the literature and the results of this study, we are presenting some basic recommendations that might contribute to improving English vocabulary learning. First, to foster autonomy by helping students observe and control their learning, teachers should coach them to effectively use all sources at their disposal. The Saudi context is a typical EFL context where English input is poor. Therefore, there is an urgent need to maximise exposure to English by all means, of which extensive reading is found to be important (cf Nation 2001; Krashen 1989). Students should be assigned one suitable graded reader every two weeks. It could be useful for learners to select graded readers by themselves. Initial explicit teaching for these graded readers vocabulary may be needed. After that, vocabulary will be reoccurred, and then, learners may enrich and consolidate what they have learned. In fact, the sole reliance of Saudi students on the school's textbooks is not effective, as researchers found (e.g., Alsaif 2011; Alsaif & Milton 2012). Another source that should be effectively exploited is the teacher's oral input. The more teachers expose students to words that are introduced to students, the more recycling and, consequently, learning occurs.

Most importantly, the proficiency level of students determines what vocabulary teaching approach suits learners. The incidental approach is a very effective way to manage massive amount of low frequent lexis. However, such approach entails a vocabulary size of at least 3000 word families. Furthermore, high frequent English words and students whose vocabulary threshold size is below 3000 words should be taught explicitly.

Second, a textbook that is designed to introduce grammar and the four skills at the expense of explicit presentation of sufficient vocabulary may urge us to consider providing learners with a supplementary vocabulary textbook. This textbook would provide sufficient information about all aspects of word knowledge. It could be also useful for students to be provided with information about what and how many words they need to comprehend: 95% of non-technical texts, 90% of movies and TV shows, and the repetitions he needs to be exposed to an item to fully learn it. This may lead to raising their awareness about the process. For recycling, it could be impractical, as Milton (2009:209) observes, to systematically recycle each and every word in a textbook. Therefore, extensive reading for graded readers could be a solution.

Collocations should be explicitly and implicitly introduced, especially for those whose aim is to fluently use English, that is, higher levels of study. One could rightly argue that it is better for learners to explicitly learn a new word and then incidentally learn the wide range of words collocate with it.

Nevertheless, learners who are taught collocations first are likely to recognize words in isolation. For example, those who learn the collocation 'to strike a balance between X and Y' seem to be able to recognize the word 'to balance' when they incidentally meet it in 'to balance between X and Y'.

Finally, students should be trained how to use all vocabulary strategies. It might not be based on literature to constantly train students on one learning strategy. Although culture is a considerable variable, training on wide range of vocabulary learning strategies might meet the different needs and characteristics of individuals. Monolingual dictionaries, for example, are very effective. The words of a target item's definition are frequently used with other target items. This frequent exposure to comprehensible input may foster the incremental process of learning vocabulary. Other strategies such as negotiation, guessing the meaning from the word itself, and mnemonic techniques are not less important.

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Vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire

Below is information that you might need to complete the questionnaire. Please read it carefully.

- 1- This questionnaire is not a test so there is no right or wrong answer. Please answer them honestly as they will neither be marked nor affect your educational assessment.
- 2- Please make sure that your responses indicate what actually happens or what you actually do not what you are supposed to do.
- 3- Please remember that this questionnaire is designed to collect information about vocabulary learning strategies for the purpose of collecting data for MA dissertation. So that, your actual and honest responses will be of great importance for my study and will be treated confidentially. Please do not write your name in this questionnaire as your responses should be treated confidentially.

Background information:

Year of study:

Have you ever been to an English speaking country? (If yes for more than 3 months please stop here).

No ☐ Yes ☐ , How long?

Have you ever taken courses apart from the national curriculum?

No ☐ Yes ☐ , How many?

For the following items please select only one option that best describes your actual response not the one you think you should be or do.

1- Acquiring sufficient English vocabulary is a must to learn English.

- A- Strongly agree ☐
- B- Agree. ☐
- C- Neutral. ☐
- D- Disagree. ☐
- E- Strongly disagree. ☐

2- Using different vocabulary learning strategies, i.e. word cards, dictionary etc., is very crucial to learn new vocabularies.

- A- Strongly agree ☐
- B- Agree. ☐
- C- Neutral. ☐
- D- Disagree. ☐
- E- Strongly disagree. ☐

3- When I read any English text in my textbook I usually understand:

- Over than 90% of the text. ☐
- 80% - 90% of the text. ☐

70%-80% of the whole text. ☐60%-70% of the whole text. ☐50% of the whole text. ☐Below 50% of the whole text. ☐**4- How much time do you allocate for vocabulary learning out of class every day?**None ☐ - 5-15 min ☐ - 15 – 30 min ☐ - more than 30 min ☐**5- How many new words on average do you learn every week?**None ☐ 1-5 ☐ - 5-10 ☐ - 10-30 ☐ more than 30 ☐**6- Please tick the strategies you use to learn new words:**a- I Use the dictionary. ☐b- I have my own vocabulary notebook. ☐c- I use word cards. ☐d- I ask for help from others. ☐e- I guess the meaning ☐Other (please specify):
.....
.....**7- What are the vocabulary sources you make use of? (please tick all sources you use)**A- The textbook. ☐B- Vocabulary books. ☐C- Word lists that are not part of the curriculum ☐D- Other students. ☐E- The teacher. ☐F- The dictionary. ☐G- Readers. ☐Other (please specify):
.....
.....**8- When learning new vocabulary items, I put more effort into learning new words that are:**A- more frequent than other words. ☐B- Less frequent than others. ☐C- Academic. ☐D- I cannot recognize the above types of words. ☐**9- How many words an English learner should know?**Less than 1000 ☐ 1000 -2000 ☐ 2000-3000 ☐ 3000-5000 ☐ more than 5000 ☐**10- Tick the items that you believe contribute to little vocabulary uptake by you:**1- The textbooks do not provide sufficient vocabulary. ☐2- The textbooks do not help recycle new words. ☐3- I forget a lot of new words after a short while. ☐4- I do not think vocabulary learning is crucial to learning English. ☐5- I do not have useful strategies to learn vocabulary. ☐

Other (please specify)

.....

Please for the following questions please tick the number that best describes what you do not what you should do.

1- Never or almost never true for me.

2- Usually not true of me

3- Somewhat true of me

4- Usually true of me

5- Always or almost always true of me

'Never or almost never true for me' means that the statement is very rarely true of you.

'Usually not true of me' means that the statement is true less than half the time. 'Somewhat true of me' means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

'Usually true of me' means that the statement is true more than half the time.

'Always or almost always true of me' means that the statement is true of you almost always.

11- When I encounter an unknown word that is not explained by the teacher:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A - I guess the meaning by: | | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Using the whole context. | | | | | |
| Analyzing the word's structure. | | | | | |
| Knowing its part of speech. | | | | | |
| Other (please specify) | | | | | |
| B - I ask for assistance : | | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| by asking for the Arabic equivalent using my mother tongue. | | | | | |
| by negotiating for the meaning using English with other students. | | | | | |
| C - I consult the dictionary. | | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Other (please specify) | | | | | |

12- When you look up an unknown word, you try to learn: (please tick all items you try to learn):

A- The word's meaning. ☐

B- The word's spelling. ☐

C- The word's pronunciation. ☐

D- The frequency of the target word. ☐

E- Words collocate with the target word. ☐

Other, please specify.....

14- **What do you do to help remember new words that are introduced in class?**

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| I use new words in new sentences | | | | | |
| I associate new words with Arabic words | | | | | |
| I imagine a situation where the word can be used | | | | | |
| I use flash cards | | | | | |
| I keep new words in a notebook and review them regularly | | | | | |
| I process the new word by analyzing its origin and uses and parts | | | | | |
| Other (please specify): | | | | | |

[illegible]

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix (B)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

استراتيجيات تعلم مفردات اللغة الانجليزية.

عزيزي الطالب، تجد ادناه معلومات قد تحتاجها لتعبئة الاستبيان. أرجو منك التكرم قراءتها بعناية.

- 1- هذا الاستبيان ليس اختباراً وعليه فإنه ليس هناك إجابة خاطئة وأخرى صحيحة. واعلم ان هذا الاستبيان يجب أن يكون بدون اسم، لذا أرجوكم أجب بكل صراحة فهو لا يقيم بدرجات ولن يؤثر على تقييم مستواك العلمي.
- 2- الرجاء التأكد من أن اجابتك تعكس ما تفعله فعلاً وليس ما يجب عليك فعله.
- 3- تذكر أن هدف هذا الاستبيان هو جمع معلومات عن استراتيجيات تعلم مفردات اللغة الانجليزية لغرض استخدامها في رسالة ماجستير. لذلك فإن إجاباتك الصادقة والفعلية ستكون مهمة جداً لهذه الدراسة. علماً أن جميع إجاباتك ستعامل بسرية. أرجوكم لا تذكر اسمك ولا تشر لهويتك في هذا الاستبيان.

معلومات أولية:

سنة الدراسة:

هل سبق أن زرت بلداً اللغة المستخدمة فيه هي الانجليزية ؟ (إذا كانت إجابتك نعم لمدة أكثر من ثلاثة أشهر يمكنك أن تتوقف هنا):

لا ☐ نعم ☐

كم مدة بقائك؟

هل سبق أن تلقيت تعليماً باللغة الانجليزية خارج المملكة مثلاً او داخل المملكة في المدارس العالمية.

لا ☐ نعم ☐

كم سنة؟

هل سبق أن سجلت في دورة للغة الانجليزية في أحد معاهد اللغة الانجليزية؟

لا ☐ نعم ☐

كم شهراً؟

الرجاء اختيار الفقرة التي توضح ما تقوم به فعلاً وليس ما تعتقد أنه يجب عليك القيام به.

18- اكتساب عدد كافي من الكلمات الانجليزية شرط لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية.

☐

أ - اتفق مع ذلك بقوة.

☐

ب- اتفق مع ذلك.

☐

ج - لا أدري.

☐

د- لا أتفق مع ذلك.

☐

هـ- أعارض ذلك بقوة.

19- استخدام طرق مختلفة لتعلم المفردات، مثل البطاقات، القواميس و تخمين المعاني من النصوص، أساسي ومهم جداً لتعلم

كلمات جديدة.

☐

أ - اتفق مع ذلك بقوة.

☐

ب- اتفق مع ذلك.

☐

ت - لا أدري.

☐

ث- لا أتفق مع ذلك.

☐

ج- أعارض ذلك بقوة.

20- عندما أقرأ أي قطعة قراءة انجليزية في منهج اللغة الانجليزية فإنني في العادة أفهم:

☐

أ- أكثر من 90% من النص (القطعة).

☐

ب- من 80%-90% من النص.

☐

ت- من 60%-70% من النص.

☐

ث- 50% من النص كاملاً.

☐

ج- أقل من 50% من كامل النص.

- 21- كم من الوقت تخصصه لتعلم الكلمات الانجليزية خارج الصف الدراسي كل يوم.
 لا أخصص وقتاً لتعلم الكلمات ☐ 5 - 15 دقيقة ☐ 15 - 30 دقيقة ☐ أكثر من 30 دقيقة ☐
- 22- كم في المتوسط عدد الكلمات الجديدة التي تتعلمها كل أسبوع؟
 من كلمة - 5 كلمات ☐ 5 - 15 كلمة ☐ 15 - 30 كلمة ☐ أكثر من 30 كلمة ☐
- 23- عندما أقرأ قطعة باللغة الانجليزية فإنني:
 أ- أتجاهل الكلمات التي لا أعرفها والتي ليست أساسية لفهم القطعة. ☐ نعم ☐ لا ☐
 ب- اضع خطأً تحت جميع الكلمات التي لا أعرفها وأبحث عن معناها حتى ولو لم تكن من الكلمات الأساسية في القطعة. ☐ نعم ☐ لا ☐
 ت- أؤمن أو أبحث فقط عن معنى الكلمات الأساسية لفهم القطعة ☐ نعم ☐ لا ☐
- 24- الرجاء اختيار جميع الاستراتيجيات التي تستخدمها لتعلم الكلمات الجديدة.
 أ- استخدم القاموس ثنائي اللغة (عربي - انجليزي). ☐
 ب- استخدم القاموس أحادي اللغة (انجليزي - انجليزي). ☐
 ت- احتفظ بمذكرة أو دفتر خاص بالكلمات الجديدة. ☐
 ث- استخدم بطاقات الكلمات. ☐
 أخرى () أرجو ذكرها ☐
-
- 25- ماهي المصادر التي تستخدمها لتعلم كلمات انجليزية جديدة؟ (أرجو اختار جميع المصادر التي تستخدمها)
 أ- الكتاب المدرسي. ☐
 ب- كتب خاصة بكلمات اللغة الانجليزية (غير الكتاب المدرسي). ☐
 ت- قوائم بالكلمات الانجليزية ليست موجودة بالكتاب المدرسي (الانترنت مثلاً). ☐
 ث- اتعلم من الطلاب الآخرين. ☐
 ج- أتعلم كلمات جديدة من معلم اللغة الانجليزية. ☐
 ح- أتعلم كلمات جديدة من القاموس. ☐
 خ- أتعلم كلمات جديدة من روايات انجليزية مبسطة. ☐
 غير ذلك ☐ أذكرها ☐
-
- 26- عندما أقرأ أي نص (قطعة) باللغة الانجليزية فإنني أبذل جهداً أكثر لتعلم الكلمات الانجليزية الجديدة التي:
 أ- هي أكثر تكراراً في اللغة لانجليزية من غيرها من الكلمات. ☐
 ب- هي أقل تكراراً في اللغة الانجليزية من غيرها من الكلمات. ☐
 ت- تستخدم في المجال الأكاديمي (النصوص العلمية مثلاً). ☐
 ث- لا أستطيع تمييز أي نوع من الكلمات السابقة. (لا اعرف ماهي الكلمات الأكثر تكراراً والأقل تكراراً والأكاديمية) ☐
- 27- كم عدد الكلمات الانجليزية التي تعتقد أنه يجب على متعلم اللغة الانجليزية تعلمها؟

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-----|
| | أرجوك اختر الفقرات التي تعتقد أنها تعيقك من تعلم كلمات اللغة الانجليزية الجديدة. | 28- |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | الكتاب المدرسي لا يحتوي على عدد كافي من الكلمات. | أ- |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | الكلمة الجديدة في المنهج المدرسي للغة الانجليزية لا تتكرر كثيرا في المنهج ولذلك أنساها. | ب- |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | أنسى كثير من الكلمات الجديدة بعد فترة قصيرة من أول لقاء بها. | ت- |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | لا أعتقد أن تعلم الكلمات الانجليزية شيء أساسي لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية. | ث- |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | ليس لدي طرق مفيدة وفعالة لتعلم الكلمات الانجليزية الجديدة. | ج- |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | (ذلك أرجوك اذكرها) | غير |

$1 = \text{أبداً أو تقريباً أبداً ليس صحيحاً بالنسبة لى.}$

2 = في العادة ليس ذلك صحيحا بالنسبة لي.

3 = صحيح نوعاً ما بالنسبة لي.

=4 عادةً ذلك صحيح بالنسبة لى.

5= دائماً أو تقريباً دائماً صحيح بالنسبة لى.

- "أبداً أو تقريباً أبداً ليس صحيحاً بالنسبة لي" تعني أن الفقرة نادر جداً ما تنطبق علي.
- "في العادة ليس ذلك صحيحاً بالنسبة لي" تعني أن الفقرة تنطبق علي ولكن أقل من نصف المرات.
- "صحيح نوعاً ما بالنسبة لي" تعني أن الفقرة تنطبق علي فيما يقاب نصف المرات.
- "عادةً ذلك صحيح بالنسبة لي" تعني أن الفقرة تنطبق علي أكثر من نصف المرات.
- "دائماً أو تقريباً دائماً صحيح بالنسبة لي" تعني أن الفقرة تقريباً تنطبق علي دائماً.

12 - عندما أواجه كلمة انجليزية لا أعرفها ولم يشرحها المعلم فإني:

| | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|---|---|--|
| أ - أخمن معناها بواسطة : | | | | |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| | | | | |
| | | | | استخدام النص (القطعة) كاملا |
| | | | | تحليل أجزاء وبنية الكلمة (مايضاف على الكلمة أولها وآخرها) |
| | | | | بمعرفة نوع الكلمة (فعل , اسم. صفة...الخ) |
| غير ذلك) ارجو منك ذكرها | | | | |
| | | | | |
| ب - أطلب المساعدة وذلك من خلال : | | | | |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| | | | | |
| | | | | استخدم اللغة العربية للسؤال عم معنى هذه الكلمة. |
| | | | | اتناقش مع الطلاب الآخرين باللغة الانجليزية لشرح معنى هذه الكلمة. |

12 - كمتعلم لكلمات اللغة الانجليزية، فانى استطيع القول عن نفسى بأنى:

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|--|
| | | | | | استخدم الكلمات الجديدة في جمل. |
| | | | | | أربط نطق أو صوت الكلمة الجديدة بشكل أو صورة معينة. |
| | | | | | أتخيل موقفاً معيناً تستخدم فيه هذه الكلمة. |
| | | | | | استخدم بطاقات الكلمات (بطاقة في وجهها الأول الكلمة الانجليزية وفي الوجه الآخر معناها بالعربي). |
| | | | | | احتفظ بها في مذكرة أو دفتر خاص بالكلمات وأراجعها بانتظام. |
| | | | | | أعالج الكلمة الجديدة بتحليل أجزائها، أصلها، استخداماتها... الخ. |
| غير ذلك (أرجوك أذكرها) | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

الكلمات الانجليزية الجديدة التي قدمت لك في حصة اللغة الانجليزية:

ماذا تفعل لتتذكر الكلمات الانجليزية الجديدة التي تعلمتها؟