Chapter Two

Review of Literature and Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

In our previous chapter, we attempted to define and discuss the need for undertaking this study in relation to vocabulary learning. The aim of the present chapter is to get familiarized with the reviews of literature available in the field of second language vocabulary instruction. It highlights the kinds of vocabularies, various strategies and techniques for presenting and instructing the vocabulary items in the classroom. Then it attempts to provide various researchers’ perspectives on vocabulary learning strategies instruction and their classification. The second part builds the theoretical support for the study. Informed by theoretical frameworks for vocabulary learning, a comprehensive list of taxonomy of strategies and dispositions will be provided in preparation for the intervention programme of the study. The chapter concludes by establishing the relevance of research for the current study.

2.2 Need for Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

Altogether, there are two schools of thought which facilitate us in understanding the need for vocabulary to be taught: The first type of school advocates the notion that exclusive vocabulary instruction needs to considered and the second type of school does not advocate this idea. According to Zimmerman (1997), the reasons are:

- “Vocabulary is pre-requisite for successful language learning.
- Language comprises more number of content words. Structural words are very limited
Consistent practice in vocabulary increases learners’ competence and performance.

Vocabulary plays an essential part in development of LSRW skills.

Vocabulary is vital for exchange of thoughts, concepts, ideas and feelings.

It promotes knowledge of sounds, pronunciation and formation of new words.

It is unarguable that knowledge of vocabulary plays a pivotal role in one’s own academic and professional career).

No one denies the fact vocabulary plays a vital role in mastering the four language skills-listening, speaking, reading and writing- in English language learning. It is widely acknowledged concept by majority of the linguists. No one can communicate in a meaningful way without vocabulary. According to Bowen et al. (1985, p. 322) and McCarthy (1990, p. iix), the single and larger component of any language syllabus could be vocabulary. This claim is further strengthened by Nation (1990), “whose study affirms that learners see vocabulary as an important element in language learning. Learners feel that many of their difficulties, in both receptive and productive language use, result from the lack of vocabulary knowledge. However, many scholars in the field of vocabulary learning and teaching (e.g. Allen, 1983; Carter and McCarthy, 1988; Hedge, 2000; Long and Richards, 1997; Maley, 1986; Richards, 1985; Zimmerman, 1997) indicate that vocabulary has long been neglected in the language classroom. Therefore, the main purpose of this section is to review the importance of vocabulary in language learning and its application in language teaching and learning context.”

In the view of David Wilkins, “there is little conveyed in the absence of grammar.; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins 1972, p. 111).
According to Mayuree (2007) “This view is consistent with Ellis (1994) who affirms that lexical errors tend to obstruct comprehension more than grammatical errors. Besides, Harmer (1991, p. 153) asserts that choosing words carefully in certain situations is more important than choosing grammatical structures because language learners cannot use structures correctly if they do not have enough vocabulary knowledge. This means that vocabulary is more important than grammar, and it is vital for comprehension skill in any situation.”

There is a growing interest in the area of vocabulary aspect of language learning. Some reasons for the status shift of Vocabulary according to Carter and McCarthy (1991) are as follows.

1. Theoretical advances in the linguistic study of lexicon
2. Psycholinguistic insight into the mental lexicon
3. communicative trend in teaching
4. learner-centered approach
5. Language learning strategies (LLS)
6. Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs) etc.

The above factors have brought in changes that lead to new vocabulary era where word knowledge offers a way to succeed in the L2 learning process. Obviously learning words is not an easy task because it involves a great deal of cognitive process. Since the day we were born our brains have started learning new words and connecting them to previous ones creating an exorbitant invisible net that allows us to communicate our thoughts. However, this acquisition/learning process is not automatic because there
must be suitable stimuli for a person to learn/acquire his/her lexicon. This is similar to what it happens to L2 learners who need those words to use productively in the target language. Words are not acquired in an isolated manner. That is why memorizing a list of words does not lead to acquiring them. In order to ensure successful learning/acquisition, learners need a mental process which enables connecting words to their world and previous linguistic experiences. But this process indeed is intricate.

Due to the complexity of vocabulary learning, vocabulary learning strategies have been developed that enable learners to acquire vocabulary rather easily and comfortably. Hence, it is presumed that if all learners are taught strategies which deal with vocabulary learning process, it will not only add to their autonomy in learning but also sufficiently enhance their vocabulary knowledge and communicative ability. Consequently, the learners can make use of strategies in all possible learning contexts and that too independently. Present generation of L2 learners (especially those who are coming from regional media) must be encouraged and trained in strategies to make them responsible for their learning and independent learners.

To summarise, as argued in Mayuree (2007) that “language learners with good vocabulary knowledge can achieve a great deal of success in their classroom, in their social life, and in their continuing acquisition of the target language. A large, rich vocabulary range gives language learners the right words to use at the right time, and also enables them to express their real thoughts, ideas, views and feelings. Thus, it needs no reiteration that vocabulary plays a dominant role in learning and understanding a language as well as using it as a vehicle of communication. Thus, English instruction
and providing vocabulary resources are inseparable components contributing to successful learning of the target language.

2.3 The Place of Vocabulary in SLA

As language learners or acquires, we do have/set number of goals to achieve them in due course of time. Nagendra (2011) argues that “Language comprises many aspects: sounds, structure of words, word order, and word meanings. English instructors need to focus on these components considering their importance. So, it obvious that vocabulary has an immense role to play in learning L2, since it decides and confirms vocabulary knowledge of learners during written or oral communication activities. Therefore, explicit vocabulary instruction is to be a particular objective in any language courses.” The table given below enables us to understand the place of vocabulary in language learning.

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As discussed in Nagendra (2011), the above information helps us “to realise different language –specific goals. Although the focus of this thesis is on enhancing vocabulary learning through strategies, the intervention makes an attempt to integrate with all components of the target language”.

2.4 Defining Vocabulary

In relation to learning second language, researchers tend to misunderstand that vocabulary indicates ‘new words’. Here, the researcher offers the definitions given in two well-known dictionaries. As discussed in Nagendra (2011),

As per the meanings of ‘vocabulary’ from Oxford *Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, vocabulary means:

1. “All the words a person knows”.
2. “All the words in a language”.
3. “A list of words with their meanings, especially in a book for learning a foreign language”.

(OALD, p.1707)

And, in accordance with the *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, vocabulary refers to:
1. “All the words known and used by a particular person”.
2. “All the words, which exist in a particular language”.

(CALD, p. 1423)

Further, as discussed in Nagendra (2011), “the aforementioned meanings of vocabulary define that all the words in a specific lingua franca. However, it is true that it is not humanly possible for even mother tongue speakers to learn all the words of a language. Hence, related to current intervention study, bearing in mind the felt needs of the subjects their present linguistic status, the word vocabulary is employed in with a specific objective. The objective is to enhance ability of vocabulary learning independently through strategies. The vocabulary learnt from the classroom must be exploited for both oral and written communication activities. Moreover, the aim of the study is confined to the use of vocabulary learnt or acquired in the given suitable communicative contexts”.

2.5 Types of Vocabulary

From the literature available, vocabularies are classified into three types. They comprise: 1) active, 2) passive and 3) ad hoc vocabulary.

2.5.1 Active and Passive or Receptive and Productive Vocabularies

To elaborate on the aforementioned types of vocabularies, the vocabulary which we use for speech or oral communication and for basic written communication is termed as active vocabulary. Whereas, passive vocabulary means those vocabulary items we can recognize and decode in the context of reading or listening.
The words ‘receptive’ and ‘productive’ vocabularies determine different situations in which the target language knowledge is used. Second language researchers use these words quite frequently to discuss vocabulary literature in the studies. What distinguish these words is the ways the meaning of word is recalled and comprehended by the students when they are put to written or oral input. Learners may possess varied degree of these vocabularies. It depends upon the quality of L2 input received by the learners. We need to be life-long learners to be in touch with passive vocabulary of the language”.

2.6 Teaching Vocabulary Items

As discussed in Nagendra (2011), “Vocabulary can be presented in many ways. It has to incorporate meticulous methods. Various linguists, researchers and practitioners made attempts tried to plan their own way of vocabulary teaching process.

In the view of Richards and Rodgers (2001:9), “a language be best learned by using it in the classroom learning process non-consciously rather than using knowing or using set of grammatical rules”. They advocate that teachers must promote threat-free ambience to acquire or learn the target language.

By and large, learning of vocabulary chiefly relies on amount of exposure to L2, teacher competence and the resources required adequately to initiating vocabulary learning process. Therefore, Teachers need to know the various VLSs to help the learners gain good vocabulary proficiency.

Nation (1994:69) proposes “four ways wherein vocabulary learning happens. They are:1) “the preparation of simplified materials” 2) “gradation of words from
simple to complex or known to unknown”, 3) “learning in contextual activities”, and 4) Devoting sufficient time”. These four steps will certainly enable the learners get equipped with required vocabulary proficiency to use the language ability. Teachers of L2 seem to employ various strategies or techniques to present vocabulary to their learners. It is vital for the teacher to be familiar with some VLSs viable for their learners to learn words on their own. This will promote learner autonomy among the learners.

The following are a few strategies that the learners, teachers and other facilitators of vocabulary learning can take into account while dealing with vocabulary instruction and acquisition.

2.6.1 Inferencing or Guessing meanings of words in Context

As discussed in Nagendra (2011), “it is a nice way of familiarizing the learners with familiar vocabulary using principle of constructivism: constructing meaning of words and interacting with learners by posing relevant and leading questions to arrive at educated guesses of the unknown words. The learners can practice extensive reading to develop vocabulary skills by guessing and inferencing the meaning of words from available contextual clues.

Nation (1994:70) suggests that “strategy that begins by making the students to observe the unknown words, and then look for any contextual clues available in the given text. Eventually, derive a larger or broad view of how the context comprising the clauses, sentences or paragraphs. This strategy can be practice using a multiple choice, a cloze test and as an exercise to enhance vocabulary knowledge in context”.
2.6.2 Translation

It is another way of dealing with unknown words. Practicing teachers seem to translate unknown words into the learners’ mother tongue (providing equivalents) in cases where they consider the words as difficult items to understand.

2.6.3 Demonstrations and Visuals

This technique is found to be effective for presenting real objects and other articles. In this way, teachers need to prepare and bring Teaching and Learning material to the classroom for promoting efficacy of this technique. Moreover, various visual promote joyful engagement in the classroom. This technique includes the use of pictures, realia or things to be touched/felt, flash cards, etc.

2.6.4 Word Formation

Dealing with the formation of words is somewhat tricky affair as there no hard and fast rules. Teachers need to enable the learners with knowledge of prefixes, suffixes and zero-affixation. Word and their meaning do vary in accordance with the context and grammar behavior. Learner must be made aware of word constituents: base word/root word, prefix and suffix part of the words chosen. Word formation techniques can be best imparted using monolingual dictionaries.

2.7 Techniques of Presenting Vocabulary

Vocabulary instruction is a daunting task. It requires a lot preparation for the teacher to think about the feasibility of the words chosen for the appropriate classroom. It is surprising to realize that that even though an average Indian teacher devotes some amount of time in an exclusive vocabulary instruction, the vocabulary proficiency of the
students is not satisfactory (Nagendra, 2011). It could be due to no opportunities to use the words or the target language in their immediate context or daily life. Other factors include: faulty teaching methods, improper planning, etc.

According to Nation (2001:81) following are the key techniques of presenting vocabulary:

- “by imitation of feelings/thoughts and physical actions
- by displaying things and objects
- through pictures and diagrams
- through translation
- by providing English equivalents/definitions
- by providing authentic contexts or real-life contexts to simulate the language activities

2.7.1 Realia/Objects

Teacher, at an initial stage of the vocabulary teaching, can exploit the available Objects in the classroom to identify and utter the corresponding words. To mention a few, teacher may show objects: a piece of chalk and register. Realia include grains such as rice, millet, etc.

2.7.2 Pictures and News Paper Clips

It is yet another way of dealing with exclusive vocabulary instruction in the classroom. It is said that “a picture’s worth is thousand words”. Picture containing stories and cartoons can be exploited to teach new vocabulary. These days motivation pictures gathered from social media are highly used in the classroom. One can go oral elicitation
of word present in the picture initially and then move on to written elicitation. Likewise, new paper cuttings or clips can also be used a good source of learning new vocabulary.

2.7.3 Texts

In formal English classroom context, prescribed reading units or lessons are the only available input that a teacher can exploit for the benefit of improving learners’ vocabulary skills. For instance, teachers may ask the learners to read paragraphs and list out the unfamiliar vocabulary. They, he/she may go for collaborative discussions in order to arrive at the meaning of those words as well as the main idea units of the paragraphs that the learners had already read.

2.7.4 communicative Contexts

Exploiting situations or contexts is chief means of developing vocabulary proficiency of the learners. Teacher need to create need for knowing words in the placed contexts. “Immersion: technique may be found useful to participate in communicative contexts and acquire the target language.

Vocabulary proficiency does not just mean storing of word in mind. It means the learned vocabulary should be used in any given authentic situation. For instance, let us look at the following situation wherein language needs to be used to communicate ideas.

Salesman activity

This activity should be done with a pair of students. Roles should be chosen as per their interest. One acts as a seller and other as buyer or customer. To perform this
role play, students need to think a lot formulaic expressions or lexical chunks to communicate well in the given context.

**2.7.5 Vocabulary in Context**

Vocabulary instruction gets richer when done contextually. We all know that words assume various meanings depending upon contexts. Let us consider different words and group of words to conceptualize this technique.

**Content words**

a. I am present here. with the The bank charges are 10%
b. Present yourself well before teachers
c. Students presented so many gifts to teachers.

**2.7.6 Vocabulary games and crosswords**

These are challenging and yet exciting ways vocabulary resources. Teachers need to demonstrate a few vocabulary games and crossword puzzles in the classroom. Later students may be asked to practice the games and puzzles.

**2.7.7 Thinking about Words-Brainstorming**

Brainstorming or thinking about new words or learnt words is an excellent and productive way of enhancing vocabulary skills. Students may be provided ample opportunities and situation or topics to brainstorm about them. Teacher may adopt techniques of ‘mind mapping,, word webs, concept mapping, etc. to consolidate students responses of the given topics.
2.8 Review and Consolidation of Vocabulary Items

The second category of vocabulary teaching strategies refers to those procedures whose aim is to get learners to review lexical items, for this review is necessary, as has been stated on several occasions so far, to consolidate them in long-term memory. According to the principle labeled as ‘expanded rehearsal’ (see Schmitt, 2000), it is necessary to review the material immediately after initial learning and then at gradually increasing intervals (e.g. 5 to 10 minutes after learning, then 24 hours later, a week later, a month later and finally 6 months later). The teacher’s task is to provide learners with opportunities for practising and connecting words in various ways and to stimulate them to retrieve words from memory and use them for all language skills. Principles of memorising words, discussed in one of the above sections, may serve as guidelines in planning and selecting tasks and activities at this stage of vocabulary teaching. The activities most frequently mentioned in the literature are the following:

- **Mechanical repetition of words:** Although deep level processing is more effective in the long run, loud repetition may also contribute to memorisation of a word.

- **Copying words:** If accompanied, for example, by loud repetition or visualisation of its meaning, copying can aid memory. If learners copy words onto word cards, other possibilities of revision activities present themselves.

- **Word manipulation:** This includes examples of tasks such as matching words and their definitions, grouping words, finding the odd one out, etc. Integrating new words with the already known. Activating linguistic pre-knowledge and knowledge of the world creates a link between new words and already known
words. In the process of creating the links, new words become more meaningful and organised, and thus easier to learn. This can be achieved in various ways, as for example by semantic elaboration.

- **Semantic elaboration**: it facilitates the creation of links and semantic networks, as well as deep level of processing. According to Sokmen (1997), the following are procedures based on semantic elaboration:
  
  - Semantic feature analysis (e.g. a componential analysis)
  - Semantic mapping, which also serves as a visual reminder of links between words
  - Ordering or classifying words, which helps learners to organise and distinguish differences in meaning between words
  - Pictorial schemata, such as grids or diagrams, which emphasizes distinctive features and require learners to deeply process words by organizing words and making their meanings visual and concrete.

  These techniques are also suitable for presenting and revising collocations.

- **Creating mental images**: it can be done by drawing diagrams, illustrations of meanings.

- **Personalization**: it makes the learning material psychologically ‘real’. It can be achieved by giving personal examples, i.e. by relating a word to real events or personal experience, etc.

- **Tasks for word identification**: the aim of these tasks is to get learners to pay attention to specific lexical items and to recognize their form. Concrete
examples are finding words in a text, working on a ‘word snake’ puzzle, solving anagrams, etc.

- **Tasks for recalling words from memory**: activating knowledge, i.e. an attempt to recall a word’s meaning with the help of the given form or vice versa, by recalling the form on the basis of given meaning, and thereby enhancing memory. Therefore, the teacher should deliberately encourage recall at spaced intervals. This task may be realised through a number of activities: acting the word out, replacing the word with its synonym or antonym, giving a definition, translation, cross-word puzzles, etc. Also, reading and listening activities stimulate word identification.

- **Tasks for expansion of lexical knowledge**: these are concerned with providing additional information on lexical items in order to cover as many components of lexical knowledge as possible. The activities that seem worthwhile in this respect are analysis of word formation, analysis of grammar categories and forms, highlighting collocations, etc.

- **Productive use of words**: by using words in a meaningful context, learners create mental links. Activities that promote productive use of vocabulary include the following: completing sentences or texts, with words offered or not, using words in sentences, conversations, stories, various games (e.g. Hangman, I spy, Bingo) etc.. All speaking and writing activities by definition include productive use of vocabulary.

- **Multiple encounters with the word**: all above-listed activities can offer learners opportunities to encounter words many times and in different contexts.
A variety of tasks and multiple encounters of a word ensure a more systematic coverage of various aspects of lexical knowledge and enable learners to build up an adequate lexical knowledge and consolidate it in long-term memory.

When planning and teaching a vocabulary lesson, in addition to the tasks and objectives discussed above, one must take into consideration general teaching strategies, principles of planning and organising a lesson, and other relevant components of the teaching process. Unlike in other areas of L2 teaching, in vocabulary teaching the teacher continuously monitors comprehension and production, corrects errors, directs, evaluates, tests, encourages and rewards his or her learners. It is the teacher’s mission to motivate learners and develop their interest in expanding their lexical knowledge.

It is of extreme importance to encourage learners’ active participation. Cooperation with their peers and teacher has a positive influence on vocabulary learning. More importantly, learners need to be supported in their own discovery of lexical items, in finding ways of expanding their lexical knowledge (by, for example, giving them confidence in using a dictionary), and in a systematic and continuous expansion of vocabulary outside the classroom as well (by emphasizing the need for taking notes, recycling, the importance of exposure to language input through reading or the media, etc.). It is in this latter context that vocabulary learning strategies become prominent. Vocabulary learning strategies are to be embedded in all objectives and principles of L2 vocabulary teaching. However, it is recommended on the basis of earlier research findings. At any rate, learners need to be encouraged to discover new ways and develop the existing vocabulary learning strategies in order to be able to deal with lexical items on their own both inside and outside the classroom (Takac, 2008).
2.9 Approaches to Vocabulary Learning

According to Nation (1990, p. 2), “Since vocabulary is the heart of mastering a foreign language, it is necessary to discuss vocabulary learning approaches. Before starting this section, it should be made clear that there is no one ‘right’ approach for vocabulary learning (Schmitt 2000, p. 142). The best practice in any situation will depend on the type of student, the words that are targeted, the school system and curriculum, and many other factors. There are two general ways in which learners learn vocabulary: the direct vocabulary learning approach, and the indirect vocabulary learning approach. This section concentrates on learning approaches which language learners can make use of to decode for themselves the meanings of words, using both direct and indirect learning approaches.

We may need direct or explicit vocabulary learning when language learners learn vocabulary either in context or in isolation”. We learn both the meanings of individual words and word-learning strategies consciously (Laugher and Hulstijn, 2001). Learners are systematically taught specific words and language structures in direct learning Rubin and Thompson (1994, p.79) and Richek et al. (1996, p. 203).

(Nation, 1990) argues that “This approach to vocabulary learning is necessary for learning the core vocabulary -basics and important vocabulary that is useful in most situations. This is particularly true for developing basic lexical and semantic knowledge, particularly for beginner-level or less successful language learners.” The learning of single words explicitly should be emphasised at an early stage of second language learning. After the language ability is developed, indirect vocabulary learning
through contexts is essential to be emphasised for language learners (Coady and Huckin, 1997).

On the other hand, (Read, 2000) argues that “indirect vocabulary learning involves learning meanings of new words implicitly when language learners hear or see the words used in different contexts, for example, through daily opportunities, through conversations with others and through reading extensively on their own.” Indirect vocabulary learning is concerned with unconscious processes of learning through reading or listening without language learners necessarily being aware of the goals of learning. In this type of learning, new words are learned incidentally while reading or learning from listening to stories, films, television or the radio (Anderson and Nagy, 1991; Nation, 1982; 2001; Sternberg, 1987). Moreover, learners absorb meaning of vocabulary, grammatical structures, and concepts simply from being exposed to rich language (Richel et al. 1996, p. 203).

Learning vocabulary indirectly via guessing from context is widely accepted as the most important of all sources of learning vocabulary (Nation 2001, p. 232). This approach should be emphasized for further lexical and semantic development of the words learned through explicit learning and for learning additional vocabulary.

Since, there are too many words to learn, it is impossible to teach language learners all words. Many researchers (e.g. Carter, 1998; Gu, 2002; 2003; Hulstijn, 1992; Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 2000; Sökmen, 1997) have maintained that guessing the meaning of words presented in context is an effective strategy for vocabulary learning, and most vocabulary can be learned from context by means of strategies of inferences.
When language learners become advanced or independent learners, they acquire the meanings of new words by using more ‘inferential’ or ‘implicit’ vocabulary learning strategies. Regarding the role of teachers at this stage, they may help learners with vocabulary directly or ‘explicitly’ by means of word lists, paired translation equivalents, and in related semantic sets. They may also help learners by more indirect or ‘implicit’ means, such as exposure to words in the context of reading authentic texts. That is to say, learners may learn vocabulary incidentally through explicit or/and implicit learning.

We can see that language learners may learn vocabulary incidentally through direct or/and indirect vocabulary learning; however, it is impossible to teach everything learners may face. Since learners not only learn vocabulary intentionally as part of the course requirements but also gain knowledge of words incidentally through their reading and listening, therefore both direct and indirect vocabulary learning approaches are very useful and essential for them to acquire vocabulary items. Learners also learn new items when they are taught explicitly, not only individual words but also vocabulary learning strategies.

### 2.10 Relationship between LSRW and Vocabulary Skills

This section concentrates on the issues vocabulary, four language skills and their types, meanings and vocabulary functions as well as how many words a language learner needs to know for the four language skills.
In order to understand how vocabulary items work or relate to the four language skills, it will be helpful to make clear first by grouping the skills into two different pairs. Grouping can be done in two ways.

With respect to Mayuree (2007), “Firstly, listening and speaking are the skills necessary in oral communication which can be grouped together. Some learners find interest in these skills. Reading and writing can be grouped together since they are the skills necessary in written communication, and this may be the main focus or motivation for other learners.’ Alternatively, we can group listening and reading together, since they both are used to understand language which was produced by other people. To this extent, listening and reading are known as receptive skills, and speaking and writing are productive/expressive skills.

Based on type of vocabulary in general, there are four categories of vocabulary learning: listening vocabulary, speaking vocabulary, reading vocabulary, and writing vocabulary. Listening vocabulary refers to words learners use to understand what they hear. Speaking vocabulary is known as words they use when they speak. Reading vocabulary concerns words in prints that they recognise and use to understand what they read, and writing vocabulary involves words they use in their own writing. Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 2) have produced a diagram that may make a better understanding of the relationship between vocabulary and the four language skills:”
As Mayuree (2007) describes that “the above figure by Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 2) demonstrates that vocabulary items play a dominant part in learning to communicate effectively. Vocabulary items in the diagram above can be classified in terms of types, meanings, and functions. Based on the diagram, vocabulary is categorized into four main groups as meaning/oral vocabulary, literate/written vocabulary, receptive vocabulary, and expressive/productive vocabulary. However, it is obvious that all vocabulary items are overlapped in meanings and functions.”

2.10.1 Vocabulary - Meanings and Functions

Regarding meanings and functions of vocabulary, let us now discuss meanings and functions of each vocabulary type concerned with the four language skills in detail.

Mayuree (2007) defines that “1) Meaning/Oral vocabulary: it refers to words language learners use in order to understand what they hear in speech, and words they
use when they speak. This involves both receptive and productive vocabulary. For
listening, if they lack meaning/oral vocabulary knowledge, they would have difficulties
in what they are hearing in authentic situations or from authentic texts. That is, they
probably miss the points of what they are listening to. For speaking, Nation (1990, p.
93) suggests that in order to speak English, it is necessary to have a large vocabulary. In
developing learners’ spoken English vocabulary, it is best to give learners practice in
being able to say a lot, using a small number of words. Pikulski and Templeton (2004,
p. 3) ascertain that language learners who have large speaking vocabulary generally will
have the proportionate listening, reading, and writing vocabulary, and *vice versa*.

2) Literate/Written vocabulary: it refers to words language learners use in order
to understand what they read, and words they use in writing. This, again, includes both
receptive and productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary involves being able to
recognise it when it is seen. When one reads, he or she needs a number of vocabulary
items to understand texts he or she is reading. Likewise, when one writes, he or she
needs a number of vocabulary items to produce his or her ideas in the writing texts.

3) Receptive vocabulary: it concerns words language learners use in order to
understand what they hear in speech, and words used to understand what they read. It is
generally acknowledged that language learners need receptive vocabulary for their
listening and reading. The better one’s vocabulary knowledge, the easier one would find
it to understand the conversation or a large amount of reading. However, when
compared vocabulary learning from listening with vocabulary learning from reading,
Read (2000) points out that vocabulary learning from listening has received a lesser
degree of attention than learning vocabulary items through reading.”
As discussed by Mayuree (2007) “Discussing on vocabulary and reading, Nation and Coady (1988, p. 98) point out that vocabulary is likely to be a predominant causal factor for reading comprehension. Laufer (1997, p. 20) emphasises that no text comprehension is possible, either in one’s native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text’s vocabulary. Besides, Rubin (1993, p.1) states: “A good vocabulary and good reading go hand in hand. Unless language learners know the meaning of words, they will have difficulties in understanding what is read. And the more one reads, the more words one will add to one’s vocabulary”. That is to say, a rich vocabulary is essential to successful listening and reading comprehension. Similarly, Pikulski and Templeton (2004, p. 1) indicate in their study that a large vocabulary is more specifically predictive and reflective of high levels of reading achievement.

4) Productive vocabulary: it involves words language learners use to express their thoughts and ideas in speaking and writing. Since both speaking and writing are productive skills, Nandy (1994, p. i) highlights the relationship between vocabulary and expression of speech and writing that “An extensive vocabulary, besides empowering us to give expression to a wide range of thoughts, also enables us to vary our forms of expression, and so make our speech or our writing more pleasing to hear or more interesting to read. No one can ever become an effective speaker or a ready writer if he does not have at his command a wide vocabulary to which he continually adds”. In terms of vocabulary and the written text, Schmitt (2000, p. 155) indicates that vocabulary knowledge is indispensable since the text involves the use of difficult words to convey more complicated ideas than the spoken one. All in all, vocabulary items can be generally categorized into four main groups as ‘receptive (or passive)’, ‘productive
To improve language skills, language learners need to involve receptive and productive, meaning/oral, and literal/written vocabulary.”

2.11 Constructs of Word Knowledge

The construct of word or vocabulary knowledge is actually quite complex. However, it has often been conceptualized in terms of vocabulary size and vocabulary depth. What we mean by vocabulary size is the number of words which the person knows and at least some of the significant aspects of their meaning. The second dimension of vocabulary knowledge, namely depth of vocabulary knowledge means the quality or depth of understanding. We shall assume that for most purposes, a person has a sufficiently deep understanding of a word if it conveys to him or her all of the distinctions. These distinctions would be understood by an ordinary adult under normal circumstances.

Cited from Mayuree (2007), “With regard to aspects of knowing a word, many researchers have proposed some elements or aspects of knowing a word. Examples are Richards (1976); Ellis and Sinclair (1989); Taylor (1990; 1992); Coady (1993); Ooi and Lee (1996); Ur (1999); Qian (2002) and Nation (2005). What follow are aspects of knowing a word proposed by the above researchers.

1) Richards (1976, p. 83; 1985, pp. 177-182) offers the assumptions concerning knowing a word as follow:
Knowing a word means knowing the probability of encountering that word in speech or print. For many words we also ‘know’ the sort of words most likely to be found associated with the words.

Knowing a word implies knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to variations of function and situation.

Knowing a word means knowing the syntactic behaviour associated with the word.

Knowing a word entails knowledge of the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it.

Knowing a word involves knowledge of the network of associations between that word and other words in the language.

Knowing a word means knowing the semantic value of a word.

Knowing a word means knowing different meanings associated with a word.

3) Taylor (1990, pp. 1-3; 1992, pp. 3-6) summarises eleven aspects of ‘knowledge of a word’ to serve the purposes of vocabulary teaching and learning. These include:

- Mother tongue: knowing how things are said in different languages. Language learners use mother tongue for helping word understanding in the second language by linking the second language sounds to sounds of their mother tongue.

- Sound-spelling: it is crucial for language learners to be aware of the relationship of sound and spelling because many English words sound similarly though they have different spelling, and vice versa. Examples are, *hair* – *hare*; *dear* – *deer*; and *tear* (as a noun) – *tear* (as a verb), etc.
- Denotation: language learners can find out the direct meaning of words in the dictionary. For example, the direct meaning of ‘home’ is ‘the house where one lives’.

- Word grammar: knowledge of word grammar involves word form and the derivations that can be made from it. For example, the word ‘unemployment’ has a common prefix denoting ‘opposite’ (un-), a common noun suffix (-ment), and is derived from the verb ‘employ’.

- Collocation: this refers to words which typically come or occur together. For example, the word ‘perform’ is used with ‘a task’ but the word ‘do’ comes with ‘homework’.

- Polysemy: a word with two or more closely related meanings as ‘foot’ in the following sentences: Maggie hurt her foot. George stood at the foot of the hill. The foot is the lowest part of the hill just as the foot is the lowest part of the human body.

- Frequency: knowledge of some items in English are far more frequent in speech than in writing, e.g. ‘indeed’, ‘well’, ‘actually’.

- Connotation: besides its direct meaning in the dictionary, some words have second or deep meaning. Language learners need to know a word that gives an extra dimension to its literal meaning. For example, the denotation - direct meaning – of ‘home’ is described as ‘a place where people stay or live in’, but in connotation – second or deep meaning – ‘home’ might be represented or implied as ‘happiness’ or ‘warmth’ or ‘security’.
Register: this refers to the appropriate use of a vocabulary item at any situations.

Vocabulary within written discourse: this involves reference, linking, sequencing, and discovering the meaning of unknown vocabulary items in context.

Vocabulary within spoken discourse: this concerns intonation, stress and pausing, and with the words speakers use to signal the beginnings and endings of sections of discourse.”

2.11.1 Conceptualizing Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge

There are a number of ways in which ‘depth of knowledge’ can be conceptualized. One is overall proficiency with a word, ranging from no knowledge at all to complete mastery. This ‘developmental’ conceptualization (Read, 2000) is typically measured along a scale. Examples of such scales include the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Paribakht and Wesche, 1997) and a four-stage scale used by Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002).

A second way of conceptualizing vocabulary knowledge is by breaking it down into its separate elements, which could be described as a ‘component’ or ‘dimensions’ approach. The origin of this approach is usually traced back to an article in 1976 by Jack Richards in *TESOL Quarterly*, where he discussed several assumptions about knowing vocabulary. His article attracted notice, and led Paul Nation to specify the kinds of knowledge one must have about a word in order to use it well. The original list included eight types of word knowledge:

- spoken form
• written form
• grammatical patterns
• collocations
• frequency
• appropriateness (register)
• meaning
• associations

(Nation, 1990: 31) Nation (2001:27) presented a revised and expanded version, which is the best specification of the range of ‘word knowledge’ aspects to date. The following table tells us of what is involved in knowing a word. R/P stands for receptive and productive respectively. It is cited in Nation (2001).

“Table No.3: Word Knowledge Aspects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>R what does the word pronounce like?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P How is the word uttered?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>R What does the word resemble?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P How is the word written and spelled?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word parts</td>
<td>R What parts are recognizable in this word?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P What word parts are needed to communicate the meaning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Form and meaning</td>
<td>R What meaning does the word form indicate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P What word form can be used to communicate the meaning?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concepts</td>
<td></td>
<td>R What does the concept comprise?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above mentioned various types of word knowledge become important when teaching a language or developing research for a number of reasons. First, some of these word knowledge aspects are relatively agreeable to intentional learning, such as word meaning and word form, while the more contextualized aspects of word knowledge, such as collocation and intuitions of frequency, are much more difficult to teach explicitly. They probably have to be acquired instead through massive or enormous exposure to the L2. Likewise, some aspects are relatively easy to measure in research (e.g. written form, meaning), while some are extremely difficult to capture (register, collocation). Although all of the word knowledge types are learned at the same time, some are mastered sooner than others (Schmitt, 1998a). This has implications for research, as different vocabulary measures might be appropriate at the different stages.
of acquisition of an item. At the beginning of the incremental learning process, measuring the meaning-form link is probably most appropriate, but as the word becomes more established, it might be better to measure some of the contextual types of word knowledge (e.g. collocation) to determine the degree of higher-level mastery of a lexical item.

Simultaneously, each word displays both its uniqueness and the general system behind vocabulary (Nation, 2001, p. 23). This raised the competition for attention between system knowledge and individual items in vocabulary learning. Nation (2001) pointed out that explicit attention to form and system (of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammatical constructions) should be limited within 25% of class time while it should be a component of instruction content. As to when the attention to systematic aspects of vocabulary knowledge should be given, referring to Myles, Hooper and Mitchell’s (1998) work, Nation proposed a parallel to L1 learning, claiming “attention to form and rules must be supported and prepared by experience with the items in use” (p. 59). Different aspects of vocabulary knowledge and the correspondingly efficient learning modes are summarized in Table 4 (adopted from Nation, 2001, p. 35, Table 2.3) as cited in Jakobs (2014).

**Table No. 4**

*“Kinds of word Knowledge and Efficient ways of Learning”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinds of word knowledge</th>
<th>Kinds of learning</th>
<th>Tasks and Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Incidental learning</td>
<td>Repetitive encounters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>intentional noticing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus, word learning or mastering the aspects of vocabulary knowledge seems to be a complex process by the fact that each word poses different types of difficulties (collocational use /polymeric quality of a word, etc.). Raising consciousness levels or creating awareness of such differences is very crucial and vital to successful vocabulary learning”.

### 2.12 Factors Affecting Vocabulary Learning

There are some factors which influence the learning of a lexeme or lexical item and make the learning of vocabulary difficult. According to Laufer (1997), the factors that affect the learning ability of lexical items comprise pronounceability, orthography, length, and morphology. This include both inflectional and derivational complexity that increase the vocabulary load, similarities of lexical forms (e.g. homonyms), grammar, i.e. part of speech, and semantic features (e.g. abstractness, specificity, and register restriction, idiomaticity and multiple meaning). The following table gives an overview of the intralexical factors and their effect on vocabulary learning -facilitating factors,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Strong direct instruction</th>
<th>Deeper processing by using images, elaboration and intentional guessing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use</td>
<td>Grammar and collocation patterns</td>
<td>Incidental learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints on use</td>
<td>Intentional learning</td>
<td>Direct mentoring and support”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Use | Grammar and collocation patterns | Incidental learning | Rote activities or repetition |
| Constraints on use | Intentional learning | Direct mentoring and support” |
difficulty-inducing factors and factors with no clear effect (Laufer, 1997:154). Let us now look at the following table for further details.

**Table No.5: Factors affecting vocabulary Learning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilitating factors</th>
<th>Difficulty-inducing factors</th>
<th>Factors with no clear effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiar phonemes</td>
<td>Presence of foreign phonemes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phonotactic regularity</td>
<td>Phonotactic irregularity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed stress</td>
<td>Variable stress and vowel change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency of sound script-relationship</td>
<td>Incongruency in sound-script relationship</td>
<td>Word length</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inflexional regularity</td>
<td>Inflexional irregularity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derivational regularity</td>
<td>Derivational complexity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphological transparency</td>
<td>Deceptive morphological transparency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synform (similarity of lexical forms)</td>
<td>Part of speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.13 Language Learning Strategies (LLSs)

Asgari et al. (2011) argues that “Second language acquisition or learning encompasses various areas like interest, students’ purposes, learning ambience, learnable techniques and linguistic knowledge. The concept of ‘language learning strategy’, referring to learners’ attempt to learn, has become widely recognized in the field of L2 acquisition. With increasing importance of the communicative approach in language learning and teaching, practitioners including teachers and researchers have become more interested in looking at factors that affect the acquisition and retention of lexical items. The use of strategies is suggested as one of the important factors in learning a language effectively.”

2.13.1 What are LLSs?

The concept of language learning strategies (LLS), from which the subset of vocabulary learning strategies branches out, are defined as techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students make use of in order to facilitate the learning and recall
of both linguistic and content area information (Chamot, 1987, as cited in Macaro, 2001, p.5). However, there is still no universally accepted version or definition of the concept of LLS. The following are sample definitions that show inconsistency or discrepancy in a number of features.

1. An attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language.  
   (Source: Tarone (1981))

2. Behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process. (Source: Weinstein and Mayer (1986).


5. Generally, a strategy is a mental or behavioral activity related to some specific stage in the process of language acquisition or language use. (source: Ellis (1995))

6. Consciously selected learner processes might result in action which is taken to increase L2 usage, through the storage, recall and application of linguistic information. (Source: Cohen (1998))

7. Conscious or unconscious techniques or activities that an individual invokes in language learning, use or testing. (Source: Purpura (1999).
The differences in the above definitions stated are, to some extent, a consequence of the fact that the researchers tend to define LS in the context of their own research.

In the light of the above definitions, it is clear that the LLS are complex cognitive skills that can be learnt and taught. Strategies cannot be characterized as inherently either good or bad, but potentially useful (Cohen, 1998). They are a resource that learners can turn to in solving language learning tasks. The element of choice seems to be one of the key features of learning strategies. Learners employ strategies intentionally with the aim of making learning more effective, or the way they select, acquire, organize or integrate new knowledge. Learning strategies are beneficial in several ways in learning the language effectively. Their use can influence learning and completion of simple tasks (e.g. vocabulary learning tasks and activities), as well as of more complex tasks (e.g. comprehension or use of language while reading difficult or dense piece of text).

To conclude the definitions quoted above, LLS may be defined as specific actions, behaviours, steps or techniques that learners use (often deliberately) to improve and enhance their progress in the development of their competence in the target language (L2). Strategies are tools for self directed participation in learning which is necessary for development of communicative competence (Oxford 1990).
2.14 Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

Second language (L2) acquisition chiefly relies on the acquiring a good amount of vocabulary words. In the field of second language acquisition, there is a branch or domain called as Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition (SLVA). In this domain, researchers focus on the need for optimizing learners’ vocabulary proficiency and knowledge (Singleton, 1999; Schmitt, 2000). It is evident from the recent research (Schmitt, 1997) that “the field of SLA has seen the revival of interest in vocabulary learning component (Meara, 1987), and the prominence of the VLSs. These investigations which are present in the area have dealt with either an individual or a fewer number of strategies. The present scenario of the area is characterized by the absence of taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies or inadequate comprehensive list of VLSs.

2.14.1 Definitions of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Many learners of English feel the need to use strategies for learning vocabulary (Schmitt, 1997). To Cameron (2001), “vocabulary learning strategies are learnable steps or techniques that learners take to discover and retain new vocabulary”. This definition seems broad and general. A more precise definition was given by Catalan (2003), who has considered ideas of other researchers (Schmitt, 1997, Oxford, 1990, Rubin, 1987) and offered her own definition. According to Catalan (2003, p.54), “vocabulary learning strategy refers to

awareness about the ways employing strategies to acquire words as well as decisions taken by learners (a) to discover the unfamiliar vocabulary, (b) to remember
them for a loner span, (c) to restore them when needed, and (d) to contextually employ them in oral or written communicative contexts” (Catalan, 2003: 56).

Nation (2001, p.201), who admits that it is not easy to arrive at a definition, comes up with a list of characteristics of a strategy used by language learners. In his words, a strategy (here a vocabulary learning strategy) must:

1. “includes an option, that is, there are various strategies to select from
2. “be difficult, i.e, there are various procedures to acquire”
3. “need efforts and benefit from strategy –based instruction”
4. “enhance the efficiency of vocabulary use when needed”

What is gathered from all the above definitions is that vocabulary learning strategies are actions taken by learners that aid the process of learning new words. The role here expected from learners is a rather active one.

2.14. 2 Review of Related Literature on VLSs

This section discusses literature available in the area of VLSs. Discussed in Ranali (2003), “inclination in strategies of language learning emerged during 1970s in order to find out good characteristic features good language learners (Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975). O'Malley and Chamot puts forward strategies as the particular actions or decisions that individual learners employ to decode and encode new knowledge and information (1990:1). This was is reinstated by Schmitt in arriving at viable definitions and implications of VLSs. Schmitt states that learning is “the process-oriented approach wherein we gather, remember, recall and use pieces of information. Thus, vocabulary learning strategies influence and positively contribute to process-oriented approach” (1997:203). This implies if VLSs are explicitly trained or
implicitly acquired. This is being still debated in ongoing vocabulary research. From this we can deduce that VLSs need to be considered for classroom pedagogy to promote desired vocabulary proficiency.

According to Sokmen (1997: 225), “need for explicit instruction of vocabulary learning strategies is inevitable as they contribute to gain significant difference in performing well oral and written communication abilities. Students cannot acquire required words and aspects of word knowledge in less span of time. Hence, teacher may opt for strategy-based instruction to enhance vocabulary skills. Cunningsworth (1995: 38) states that “making the students learn VLSs as a means of difference-making approach to vocabulary learning. this means that enabling students to be familiar with vocabulary building steps, motivating them to use monolingual or bilinguial dictionaries and other referential skills”.

As mentioned in Ranali (2003), Brown and Payne (1994) “identify five important steps in the process of learning vocabulary in any lingua franca (a) having opportunities for meeting new vocabulary (b) forming vivid or clear pictures, face-to-face mode appeal, or listening to unknown words, (c) discovering the meanings of unfamiliar words, (d) making a mental links or establish good bond or interaction between the word forms and the meanings, and (e) using the vocabulary learnt. Consequently, all vocabulary learning strategies, to a greater or lesser extent, should be related to these five steps (Fan, 2003: 223)”.

It is also possible to look at vocabulary learning strategy from at least three different angles. First, a vocabulary learning strategy, very broadly speaking, could be
any action taken by the learner to aid the learning process of new vocabulary. Whenever a learner needs to study words, he/she uses strategy/strategies to do it. Second, a vocabulary learning strategy could be related to only such actions which improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning. Hence, there are actions which learners might employ but which do not enhance the learning process – a perfectly possible scenario with poor learners. Third, a vocabulary learning strategy might be connected to conscious (as opposed to unconscious) actions taken by the learner in order to study new words. Ideally, learners should be made aware of ‘good’, efficient strategies, so that they could freely and consciously choose the one(s) suitable for them. It should be borne in mind, though, that a strategy that works well for one student may completely fail with another and that for a concrete learning situation one strategy may work better than another.

2.14.3 Deep and Surface Processing Strategies

Generally learning may take place intentionally or incidentally among the learners. We always seem to distinguish strategies that prompt the students more actively and deeply and the strategies that do not prompt actively and deeply termed as surface level strategies. The efficacy of VLSs seems to be rather conflicting. For example, rote memorization has been considered an “undesirable” way of learning and is out of fashion” in communicative language teaching (Read, 2000, p.39). However, the findings of studies on word lists or paired associates have indicated that a large number of words may be learned within less span of time (Nation, 1982). In contrast, mnemonic devices have been regarded as more “desirable” strategies than memorization. They involve learners more deeply in the process of learning and can therefore help them to remember more words than rote memorization or repetition.
Cohen and Aphek (1981) stated that “native speakers of English reported employing strategies pertaining to meaning, articulation, and image relevance to retain the words of Hebrew. One kind of association strategy that has been intensively researched is the keyword technique (Atikson, 1975). This strategy is related to the meaning, sound, and image of the L1 and L2. It has been found to improve retention (Miller, 1982). However, this technique was criticized for focusing only on receptive vocabulary (Meara, 1980) and for requiring too much effort from the learners (Stenberg, 1987).

Dictionary strategies are commonly used among L2 learners in the learning of new words. Although Hulstijn (1993) found no significant differences in post test scores between students who looked up many words in the dictionary and those who looked up only a few. Luppescu and Day (1993) reported that the Japanese learners who used bilingual dictionaries scored higher in a vocabulary post test than the students who did not. Knight (1994) also reported that students with access to a computerized dictionary demonstrated more vocabulary knowledge after reading than those without. Similarly, Gu and Johnson (1996) found that Chinese students were very positive about dictionary use. They reported using a variety of look-up strategies, which correlated positively with vocabulary scores.

Whereas using dictionary strategies is an intentional way of learning new words, guessing or inferencing strategies are closely related to the incidental learning of vocabulary. Inferencing is generally understood as using available information to guess the meaning of new items. Inferencing strategies have been the focus of many studies (Huckin, Haynes, & Coady, 1993; Liu & Nation, 1985; Saragi, Nation, & Meister,
1978; Seibert, 1945) and have been highly promoted (Nation, 1990). Indeed, Read (2000) regarded inferencing as "a desirable strategy because it involves a deeper process that is likely to contribute to better comprehension of the text as a whole and may result in some learning of the lexical item that would not otherwise occur" (p. 53). However, when Bialystok (1981) looked at the relationship between strategy use and language achievement, she found that functional practice had a stronger relationship with achievement than any other strategy, but inferencing was unrelated to achievement at any grade level. Other research findings have indicated that students may fail to guess the correct meaning (Kelly, 1990; Pressley, Levin, & McDaniel, 1987) and that guessing the contextual meaning does not necessarily result in long-term retention (Mondria & Wit de-Boer, 1991; Parry, 1993).

2.14.4 Folse’s Views on Vocabulary Learning Strategies

According to Folse (2004), the best vocabulary learners make use of good range of Vocabulary Learning Strategies. The existence of one specific "magical" strategy for learning foreign language vocabulary is a myth. The truth is that there are numerous good vocabulary learning strategies, and there are bad ones, too. What research shows is that good learners use a wide variety of vocabulary learning strategies; however, the good students have developed an individualized set of strategies that works best for their needs and personalities (Folse, 2004b).

In a qualitative study of French-as-a-second-language learners in British Colombia, Sanaoui (1995) found that learners' proficiency level and type of instruction did not impact their vocabulary learning; what mattered was the individual learner's approach towards overall vocabulary learning: structured or unstructured. The good
learners had a specific plan or strategy for learning English, including vocabulary, while the weaker students did not. In other words, it does not seem to matter so much what students do with new vocabulary provided that they do something and that they do this consistently.

In sum, two points should be stressed. First, no vocabulary learning strategy is a substitute for another for learning vocabulary. Second, no single strategy is better than another. The most successful learners not only have more strategies at their command but also use them more extensively and more consistently.

2.15 Perspectives on ‘Explicit training in Vocabulary Learning Strategies’

Generally, any kind of training in strategies will result in better way of doing or performing given activity or task. In the same way, strategy training enables the students know and apply strategies that are best suitable to better language ability. It promotes knowledge of strategies which in turn enable the learners to be independent users of strategies. According to Chamot (1999) “strategy-based instruction enables the students to be autonomous in bettering the target language. Moreover, when the students make attempts to internalize the bearing between their application of strategies the rate of success in mastering the target language. Lofti (2007) reports that “Cohen and Aphek (1981) who imparted strategy training in remembering Hebrew words by creating paired mnemonic clusters, discovered that those who made cluster or associations retain the words better and the rest did not. Stoffer (1995, as cited in Renali, 2003) states that “explicit instruction of VLSs contributes to success rate of the target language. Nation (2001) firmly says that that “it is vital to go for strategy-based instruction related vocabulary component of the language as students significantly differ
or vary in terms of the skill development and application of strategies. Lawson and Hogben (1996) concluded that “there is a need to present strategies more explicitly during language teaching since students are not aware of their advantages. Nonetheless, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) make us know the fact that strategy instruction is difficult process requiring more dedication of more time”.

Further, Chamot (2004) believes that that strategy training is to be direct or indirect. It implies that teachers should discuss the value and application of strategies with in the regular classroom instruction or special coaching programme. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) confirm that strategies do have an immense benefit in language classrooms. Thus, English teachers must assist their students employ strategies to faster learning the target language. This incorporates learners competency level of L2 (English) proficiency (which can affect learners’ ability to make a sense of metacognitive issues for how and why to choose and apply strategies regularly), context of learning process, cultural nature and background, prior knowledge or schemata, learning ways, etc (Renalli, 2003). This training has to provide avenues for learners to realize the prominence of VLSs in successful learning of the target language (Sinclair and Ellis, 1992). The following points have been derived based on the finding and recent researches in the field of SLVA.

- There may be various VLSs proposed by different researchers. From which learners may pick and choose depending upon the viability or feasibility factor. All strategies may not be always effective and efficient. Learners need instruction to widen their range of strategies and use them.
• Students prefer to learn strategies without context at an early stage. Later, they can increase the efficiency of strategies both contextually and decontextually. With increasing ability in use of strategies, the difference can be moderated.

• As students are not aware of grammar terms and rules for direct teaching of strategies, it may be better for choosing implicit acquisition of strategies. Explicit instruction on strategies may be made familiar with the learners at a late stage.

• Metacognitive strategies must be incorporated regular classroom.

• Learners may exhibit inhibitions to strategy instruction due prior knowledge, social or native background, styles of learning or other reasons or factors. Therefore, the goals of “strategy-based instruction” must be briefed at the outset and then to be proceeded with positive motivation and sustenance.

• Direct teaching of strategies has better efficacy. Hence, use of mother tongue is always to be preferred.

We must realize one important thing while discussing research on vocabulary learning strategies that is the prospects of their teaching, the approaches, advantages and limitations and most prominently, efficiency of such training.

The majority of researchers favoring strategy instruction propose that it can be the most successful when incorporated into the regular classroom instruction (McDonough, 1999). Ellis (1995) strongly believes that vocabulary learning is the area where strategic instruction would be particularly beneficial for learners.
Oxford and Scarcella (1994) state that “explicit instruction of strategies is very essential in learning vocabulary skills”. It is suggested that vocabulary learning is a kind of academic literacy skill not acquired naturally, but requiring instruction and training. The intent of strategy instruction is to help all students become better language learners. When students begin to understand their own learning processes and can exert some control over these processes, they tend to take more responsibility for their own learning. This self-knowledge and skill in regulating one's own learning is a characteristic of good learners, including good language learners. Promoting the use of strategies is considered beneficial to learners. Students who use strategies for learning have a higher sense of self-efficacy, or confidence in their own learning ability (Zimmerman, 1990). Moreover, strategy research suggests that less competent learners may improve their skills through training on strategies evidenced by more successful learners (Carrell, 1989). Another reason behind the urge for strategy training is a narrow range of strategies learners use and the fact that they favour a rather surface application of the strategies.

According to Nation (2001), strategies studies indicate that there is significant value in applying various VLSs. If student restrict themselves to a few VLSs, rate of learning the language may not greater. He also firmly believes that VLSs are immensely beneficial in developing the language skills to a greater extent. role strategy training plays in second language vocabulary development. If strategies can be taught, learners can benefit from training and their vocabulary learning can be enhanced.
2.16 Some conclusions about Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

Schmitt (1997) has arrived at three general conclusions regarding vocabulary learning strategies based on the findings of general learning research and vocabulary learning studies. Firstly, many learners are aware that learning vocabulary is important and they use more strategies for learning vocabulary than for other linguistic aspects. Secondly, “mechanical” strategies such as memorization, note-taking, and repetition are used more often than strategies that involve deep processing, such as guessing, imagery, and the keyword technique. Lastly, it is concluded that good learners use a variety of strategies and take the initiative to manage their vocabulary learning. Later, Schmitt (2000) following Nation (1990) suggested that high-frequency words should probably be taught, so that they mainly require strategies for review and consolidation, whereas low-frequency words will mostly be met incidentally in reading or listening, and so initially require strategies for determining their meanings, such as guessing from context and using word parts. (p.133) However, these assumptions have not been supported by empirical data.

2.17 Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Several classification systems for learning strategies have been proposed. A number of attempts have been made to classify language learning strategies. In one of the earliest studies of strategies, O’Malley and Chamot (1990:46) “arrived at 3 kinds of strategies: “thinking beyond mind and thinking about the linguistic paralinguistic-metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies”. At more or less the same time, Oxford (1990) developed the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which is the most influential work in language learning strategies. She classified two
distinct approaches to language learning: “intentional and incidental. In other words, it must be either or implicit or explicit ways. The first one comprises memory, mind related or cognitive, and repair strategies while the other involved metacognitive, affective, and social strategies” (p.17).

Oxford’s scheme is considered as the most comprehensive system of the six language learning strategies, namely memory, cognitive, comprehension, metacognitive, affective and social strategies, which are further divided into 19 sets and 59 subsets, totaling 193 strategies when combined with the four language skills. However, Oxford’s categorization of VLSs was unsatisfactory. This gap was bridged by a world famous vocabulary Norbert Schmitt. Let us now briefly discuss his taxonomy of VLSs.

2.17.1 Schmitt’s (1997) Taxonomy

It is one of the most comprehensive attempts to provide a classification scheme for a wide range of L2 vocabulary learning strategies. According to Schmitt, “out of all existing classification, the strategies which were proposed Oxford (1990, p.205) seemed best to be able to know and arrive at the VLSs listed”. As a result, Schmitt’s taxonomy is organized by revising and expanding on Oxford’s (1990) classification scheme. It aims to focus on vocabulary learning and minimize the potential overlap in classification of strategies. He classified vocabulary learning strategies as discovery strategies and consolidation strategies.
2.17.1.1 Distinction between Discovery Strategies and Consolidation Strategies

The distinction between discovery and consolidation strategies (i.e. the initial ways of knowing words’ meaning and retaining them) has been first suggested by Cook and Mayer (1983) and Nation (1990). Schmitt’s (1997) study on vocabulary strategy survey (See Appendix 10) proposed two types of L2 VLSs: discovery and consolidation strategies. Discovery strategies are the strategies for gaining initial information about a new word. Once learners have been introduced to a new word, the strategies they use for remembering the word are consolidation strategies. For the discovery strategies, they include determination and social strategies, while the consolidation strategies consist of social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies, with 58 strategies in total. The social strategies are duplicated in the two categories because they can be used for both purposes.

Schmitt gives a detailed description of the five vocabulary learning strategy groups: determination, social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive (Schmitt (1997, p. 207-8), He lists his ‘taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies’. According to Schmitt (1997,p.207-8), “determination strategies are used to analyze part of speech; analyze affixes and roots; check for L1 cognate; look critically at any pictures or observe gestures; form guesses or make inference from contextual clues. These steps would certainly help the learner’s master large number of words by using word lists and flash cards”.

Schmitt (1997, p.207-8) further states that “social strategies are defined as asking the language guide or teacher for mother tongue equivalent; asking teachers for expanding or deriving meanings of words, asking teachers for similar meaning giving
words, obtaining sentences comprising the new vocabulary, asking peers for meanings of new words through pair work and group work, etc”.

Schmitt (1997, p.207-8) also defines “memory strategies as knowing words with visual appeal in terms of conveying meanings of new words; associating meanings with given words; forming mental images, establishing words and their meanings to individual learning styles and experiences; relating the word with its coordinates; arriving at its similar and opposite words; by concept or word maps, etc.

According Schmitt (2007), “cognitive strategies refer to word recurrence; graphic or written recurrence; words’ lists and profiles; flash cards; using vocabulary notebooks; referring to textbook glossary or intratextual glossary; listening to large lists of words; labeling physical objects. These are key cognitive VLSs in imparting strategy-based instruction.

Schmitt (1997) further add that “metacognitive strategies consist of using English-language media such as songs, movies and newspapers; testing oneself with word tests; using spaced word practice; skipping or passing a new word; continuing to study a word over time”.

2.17.2 Nation’s Taxonomy of kinds of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Nation (2001:218) proposed an important taxonomy of VLSs. Its rudimentary characteristic is that the kinds of VLSs refer to various aspects vocabulary knowledge. The table provided below illustrates the taxonomy of VLS as. this was taken from Nation (2001:218)
**Table No.6: Taxonomy of VLS by Nation (2001, p.218)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“General class of strategies”</th>
<th>Types of strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning: choosing what to focus on when to focus on it</td>
<td>Choosing words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Choosing aspect of word Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Choosing strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Planning repetition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sources: finding information about words</td>
<td>Analyzing the word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consulting a reference source in L1 or L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using parallels in L1 and L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes: Establishing knowledge</td>
<td>Noticing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retrieving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generating “ “</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The strategies of *planning* comprise decisions about which lexical items to attend to, as well as how to focus on lexical chunks or items. Students need to realmise the type of vocabulary they want to improve, where they gather information, and which aspects of vocabulary knowledge is desired in particular overall linguistic proficiency.
task or vocabulary activity. The strategies for vocabulary memorization are part of the third group. They refer to learning conditions, from noticing, over retrieval, to vocabulary generation or production. Noticing, which includes strategies of recording vocabulary and oral or visual repetition, is the first step leading to a deeper information processing. Further on, strategies of retrieval play a very important role in learning: every recall of previously learnt word strengthens the link between knowledge and retrieval cue. Retrieval can take several forms such as receptive (e.g. the cue is written form, the information to be retrieved is the meaning) or productive (e.g. the cue is the meaning, to be retrieved is the word from), oral or visual, hidden or open, contextual and contextless. It can range over all four language skills. All retrieval forms also refer to generation strategies. Generation strategies include expanding knowledge on already known words by means of this word analysis, semantic mapping, etc. Another example of this type of strategy is generation on the basis of rules via contextualization, using words in collocations and example sentences. The use of mnemonic technique, and meeting and using a word in new contexts through the four language skills are also examples of generation strategies. Each of the above three basic strategy groups contains a many individual strategies characterized by a different degree of complexity.

To conclude, it is interesting to note that within the field of vocabulary learning strategies new specialized subgroups of strategies have recently been formed to improve the existing classifications.
2.18 Research on Vocabulary Learning Strategies

A very few studies classified vocabulary learning strategies and explored what and how these strategies are used, which students use them, and whether training students in strategy use results in more lexical acquisition.

2.18.1 Gu & Johnson’s (1996) Research

In a study of 850 non-English majors at a university in China, Gu & Johnson (1996) investigated the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies use and learning outcomes as measured in terms of vocabulary size and general language proficiency. Gu & Johnson used a vocabulary learning questionnaire (VLQ) to elicit Chinese students’ beliefs about vocabulary learning and their self-reported vocabulary learning strategies. Beliefs about vocabulary learning of the VLQ included 17 statements representing three dimensions of beliefs: “vocabulary should be memorized”; “vocabulary should be picked up naturally”; and “vocabulary should be studied and used”. The researchers then correlated the results of the questionnaire of vocabulary assessment test and a general linguistic proficiency test.

The three types of beliefs in this study show that, overall, these learners rated the belief that “vocabulary should be memorized” lower than the other two belief categories. They predominantly believed that vocabulary should be carefully studied and used and they also tended to agree that words can be acquired in context. The correlation analysis revealed the contextual inference, dictionary reference ability, note-taking, and discovering unfamiliar vocabulary which is positively correlated with two concerned test scores. However, what the researchers found contrary to popular beliefs about Asian learners was that “appearance of words through some visual effect was the
The strongest negative factor or anticipator of both vocabulary knowledge and general linguistic proficiency. The subjects must have employed more meaningful strategies than mechanical, drill-based strategies” (Nation, 2001: 218).

2.18.2 Schmitt’s (1997) Research

Schmitt (1997) surveyed a sample of 600 Japanese students and adult learners for evaluating what sort of strategies of vocabulary learning do the learners exploit; the strategies they believed; how useful they are. It was discovered the learners employed more dictionary (mono-lingual) as well as verbal and non-verbal recurrent strategies. They considered non recurrent strategies to be more useful than the recurrent strategies. Other popular vocabulary learning strategies were studying spelling of a word and guessing from context. In contrast, strategies such as using semantic maps, physical action, L1 cognates and the keyword method were the least commonly used. They also considered “imagery strategies’ and “semantic grouping strategies” as the least useful strategies.

From a research (Tseng, 2008), it is also vindicated that advanced learners tend to go for prefer employing a bit complex and meaning-making and meaning-focused strategies than non advanced learners. It was done by comparing the strategies used by upper primary school, secondary school, senior secondary school, university and adult participants. The findings showed that the used strategy patterns do change in course of time due to the learner of the target language being matured and becoming more efficient.
When the Japanese learners grew older, the strategies they used were less popular with young learners. They tended to move away from shallow, mechanical repetition such as word lists and flash cards to deeper mental processing such as the Keyword Method and word association. This phenomenon was also observed in their perceptions of strategy helpfulness. Schmitt then made a remark on this finding, “it is considered that some strategies are more useful for specific age groups than others. If this is correct, then we need to consider learners’ linguistic proficiency and mental maturity in order to recommend strategies for those learners” (Schmitt, 1997: p. 226). Therefore, Schmitt (1997) reinstated that that “cognitive maturity” and linguistic ability need to be taken into consideration if strategies are to be recommended”.

Schmitt cautioned, however, that these patterns of strategies may be culture-specific and the same results may not be occurred with learners hailing from various backgrounds. from different L1 backgrounds. The significance of Schmitt’s research was not only on his proposed taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies, but also his findings on the change of strategy use over time and proposed idea of introducing new strategies to learners at different stages of cognitive maturity.

2.19 Establishing the Need of the Study: Research Purpose and Problem

Vocabulary learning is a prerequisite element in Second Language Acquisition. The mastery of vocabulary not only takes place in classroom or school, but it also has to be accumulated over lifetime. Besides, no one can master all the vocabulary in a language. What can be done is to obtain certain strategies to speed up the acquisition of new words. So the study of vocabulary learning strategies is demanded naturally as an important step in SLA. Vocabulary is one of the three essential elements (sound,
vocabulary and grammar) of a language, and it is very important for people’s communication and language learning, which plays an important role in the whole process of SLA. If L2 learners cannot make a breakthrough in vocabulary learning, the lack of vocabulary will prevent learners from developing language skills like listening, speaking, reading and writing. Many researchers underline the close relationship between vocabulary knowledge and second language proficiency. Coady (1993) conducted two experiments which showed that increased proficiency in vocabulary also led to an increase in reading proficiency. Wilkins (1978) and McCarthy (1990) advocated that vocabulary was the center of SLA.

Among the several types of learning strategies (Cohen & Macaro, 2007), vocabulary learning strategies and intervention studies have attracted the attention of many researchers around the world (Fan, 2003; Gu, 2003a; Schmitt, 1997). This is because mastering vocabulary is one of the most challenging tasks that any learner faces while acquiring another language, and thus, learners have consistently found it necessary to compensate for their limited vocabulary (Nyikos & Fan, 2007). This situation is especially true for rural environments, where exposure to English in daily life is extremely limited; consequently, vocabulary acquisition does not come naturally.

Most ESL learners (mainly in rural context) work hard on learning new words, but the result is so disappointing. Why is vocabulary so difficult to remember and use? It is perhaps due to lack of strategy training for vocabulary learning in both teachers and learners, and they, specifically learners need to adopt effective ways to learn vocabularies more efficiently. But unfortunately, only a few researchers focus on
vocabulary learning strategy. Hence explicit instruction on vocabulary learning strategies is absolutely needed and has significant practical value for learners.

2.20 Theoretical Underpinnings of the Study

In this section, let us reiterate briefly and sum up the discussion that has been made so far on strategies of vocabulary learning. Strategies of vocabulary learning are the sub-branched language learning strategies. These are techniques or steps taken by the language learners to make learning words easier and faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed and more effective (Oxford, 2003, Nation 2001). They constitute knowledge about what learners do to find out the nuances of each word (to extract information about words, the process of retaining words in long-term memory, retrieving the vocabulary in the context of comprehension, and use them in language production (Ruutmets, 2005). The present study proposes to incorporate the wide-ranging inventory of strategies of learning vocabulary discussed in Schmitt (1997).

2.20.1 Theoretical Views on Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Language learners generally learn new words in two stages. According to (Baker and Westrup 2000, p. 38) “when learners hear or read a new word, they usually know and recognise it, but might be unable to use it in their speaking or writing. Later, when they are ready to use the word, it becomes their active vocabulary. However, to be able to use new words is not easy. It is a rather complex and time-consuming process”. (Miller and Gildea, 1987; Nation, 1990) argues that “language learners need to learn and know how to record, store, and practise new words by using different types of vocabulary learning strategies. This may be because one strategy may not be better than another, or no single strategy has been proved the best of all (Intaraprasert 2005, p.
Rather, each strategy for vocabulary learning may be appropriate for its purpose” (Oxford, 1990; Schmitt, 2000).

As mentioned in Mayuree (2007), “in order to acquire vocabulary and enlarge vocabulary size, that is, knowing a large number of words with their meanings, or how to pronounce and use them correctly, language learners need to deal with a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies and every language learner has their own ways of learning vocabulary. Vocabulary learning strategies will also be very different depending on whether language learners’ primary goal is to understand the language, either in reading or listening, or to produce it, either in speaking or writing. Schmitt (2000, p. 133) states, “active learning management is important. Good language learners do many tasks: employ various strategies, gradation of learning vocabulary items from the reading texts, record, practice and retain target vocabulary items and so on”. Besides, Gu and Johnson (1996) indicate that successful strategy users need a strategy for controlling their strategy use. This involves choosing the most appropriate strategy from a range of known options and deciding how to pursue the strategy and when to switch to another strategy.

In classifying learning strategies, scholars have different ways of classifying them (Intaraprasert 2004, p.10). These classification systems make a crucial contribution to the knowledge of vocabulary strategies”.
2.20.2 Cohen’s Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Cohen (1987, p. 43; 1990, pp. 21-37) “came up with a list of Strategies for dealing with vocabulary items. They were put together and could be grouped under three main categories as follows:

Category 1: Strategies for Remembering Words

• Using Rote-repetition by repeating the word and its meaning until it seems to have stuck.

• Using Mnemonic Associations:
  1. By linking the word to the sound of a word in the native language to the sound of a word in the language being learned, or to the sound of a word in another language;
  2. By attending to the meaning of a part or several parts of the word;
  3. By noting the structure of part or all of the word;
  4. By placing the word in the topic group to which it belongs;
  5. By visualizing the word in isolation or in a written context;
  6. By linking the word to the situation in which it appeared;
  7. By creating a mental image of the word;
  8. By associating some physical sensation to the word;
  9. By associating the word to a keyword; and
  10. By using of mnemonic device in order to create a cognitive link between an unfamiliar foreign language word or its translation by means of a cognitive mediator.

Category 2: Semantic Strategies:
• Thinking of synonyms so as to build a network of interlinking concepts;
• Clustering words by topic group or type of word; and
• Linking the word to the sentence in which it was found or to another sentence.

**Category 3: Vocabulary Learning and Practicing Strategies**

• Word and Structure Analysis (analyze the word according to its roots, affixes, and inflections as a way to understand its meaning);
• The Learning of Cognates (words in two languages which are from the same source);
• Using a Dictionary;
• The Use of Flash Cards;
• Grouping; and
• Cumulative Vocabulary Study.

Strategies for dealing with vocabulary items proposed by Cohen (1987; 1990) have been found to share some common characteristics; therefore, could be put together to create the new three main categories. They comprise strategies for storing meanings of words, meaning-making strategies, and vocabulary practicing strategies”.

**2.20.3 Schmitt’s Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

Schmitt (1997, pp. 207-208) “has developed a taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies based on an extensive language learning strategies’ taxonomy organised by Oxford’s (1990, pp.17-21), including Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, and Social categories”. The following is the strategy inventory offered by Schmitt (1997):

“**Category 1:**

• Discovery Strategies for knowing new vocabulary items
- “Techniques To determine new words: **Determination Strategies (DET)**
  - understanding and processing word categories or speech areas;
  - understand prefixes and suffixes and base parts of the words;
  - know Mother tongue cognates or similar words;
  - decode and process pictures;
  - infer meanings from contextual clues;
  - Use of bilingual and monolingual dictionary references

- **Social Strategies**
  - Ask teacher for a similar meanings or definitions of words or mother tongue equivalents of new words;
  - Ask classmate for meaning

  - **Category 2: Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered**

- **Social Strategies**
  - Study and practice meaning in a group;
  - Interact with native speaker

- **Memory Strategies**
  - link words to personalized experiences;
  - related the word with its topics words;
  - know similar and opposite meanings of words;
  - Use vocabulary or mind maps;
  - form images about words;
  - Image word’s meaning;
- Use Keyword Method;
- Group words together to study them;
- Study the pattern of orthography of words;
- Say new word aloud when studying;
- Use physical action when learning a word

• **Cognitive Strategies**

- Verbal repetition;
- Written repetition;
- Vocabulary expressions or large lists of words;
- Label physical objects or things in English;
- Maintain notebooks/diaries of vocabulary learning

• **Metacognitive strategies**

- Listen to songs and podcasts and watch movies (with subtitles), newscasts, etc.;
- Conduct self-assessment of words tasks;
- repeat or reinforce words already learnt”

Further Schmitt (1997) “made use of a vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire in his study in order to survey strategy language learners’ reported use of strategy and how useful they rated each strategy. The list of strategies is divided into two major classes: 1) strategies that are considered to be beneficial to initial discovery of unknown vocabulary and 2) those helpful for summing up a word once that has been met. Based on strategies for discovering meaning, bilingual dictionaries, asking teacher for paraphrase/synonym, and analyzing pictures or gestures were the strong preferences.
In terms of strategies for consolidating meaning, saying new words aloud, written repetition, connecting words with synonyms/antonyms, continuing the practice overtime, studying spelling, taking notes in class, and verbal repetition were preferred. The least helpful strategy of discovering meaning was to skip or pass the new word. The least helpful strategies of consolidating meaning consisted of imaging the word’s meaning, using cognates in study, keyword method, and imaging word form”.

2.20.4 Decarrico’s Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

According to Decarrico (2001), “incidental vocabulary learning occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as on understanding a text, or using language for communicative purpose. Incidental learning from exposure to texts will be greatly facilitated if learners use vocabulary learning strategies. Below are four vocabulary learning strategies proposed by Decarrico (2001):

Category 1: Guessing Meaning form Context;
Category 2: A Mnemonic Device or the Keyword Method;
Category 3: Vocabulary Notebooks;
Category 4: Other Learner Strategies:

Vocabulary learning strategies suggested by Decarrico (2001) are shown in four main groups, including guessing meaning from context, a mnemonic device or the keyword method, vocabulary notebooks, and strategies involving checking for an L1 cognate; studying and practicing in peer groups; using verbal and written repetition; and engaging in extended rehearsal. She mentioned that language learners have not been taught the majority of words. Therefore, vocabulary learning is more likely to be mainly implicit (incidental). She further suggested that strategies should aid both in discovering
the decoding of unfamiliar vocabulary items and in summing up those words when the word or vocabulary items met. Thus, language learners should approach independent learning of vocabulary by using a combination of extensive reading and self-study strategies”.

2.20.5 Nation’s Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Nation (2001, pp. 217-222; 2005, pp. 589-593) derived “taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies offered, put together and, then reclassified under three categories as provide below:

- “**Category 1: Meticulous planning and selection of words**
  - selecting vocabulary items;
  - selecting a few specific or various aspects of vocabulary knowledge;
  - prioritization of strategies; and
  - planning vocabulary revision sessions”

“**Category 2: Sources**: (Finding information about words)

- doing word analysis;
- analyzing word components;
- Flashcards for vocabulary learning;
- Using context;
- Using a dictionary;
- relying on L1 and L2 language resources; and

**Category 3: Process-oriented approach to vocabulary learning:**

- observing or noticing;
- Recalling; and
Nation (2005) “designed a framework of taxonomy of strategies enabling vocabulary learning strategies, which can be grouped under the three main categories, comprise planning, finding information, establishing knowledge. The Planning category is divided into four sub-categories. The Sources category is combined to create seven subcategories, and the Processes category consists of three sub-categories. From the features of all three main categories of vocabulary learning strategies, it could be assumed that vocabulary learning strategies proposed by Nation (2001; 2005) involve both cognitive and metacognitive strategies since both include a wide range of strategies of different complexity.

The above section has tried to examine taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies by different researchers. Vocabulary learning strategies can also be categorised in terms of knowledge-oriented strategies and skill-oriented strategies. Knowledge-oriented strategies include those for understanding and recognizing a word (which involve receptive skills). Skill-oriented strategies concern the use of words (which concern productive skills). These vocabulary learning strategies are very important for language learners since they promote language learners to take control of their learning independent of the teacher. In other words, language learners with a variety of vocabulary learning strategies would make themselves more self-directed learners. They would also make their vocabulary learning easier, faster, more enjoyable and more effective themselves”.
2.21 A Model of Motivated Vocabulary Learning

To truly understand the vocabulary learning process, we must first step outside purely lexical issues and address what affect L2 learning in general. Among the other factors that could influence the outcome of L2 learning, motivation has been widely embraced by both practitioners and researchers as a critical determinant of success in language learning. Thus, it can be deduced that motivation also facilitates vocabulary learning.

Tseng and Schmitt (2008) have come up with a model of motivated vocabulary learning by determining its elements. They are traditionally referred to as latent variables. These are cited in Kovacs (2009). In accordance with Kovacs (2009) “the six elements of latent variables include:

1. being aware of prior vocabulary process-Initial appraisal of vocabulary learning experience
2. Autonomous vocabulary learning-Self-regulating capacity in vocabulary learning
3. strategy-based learning and teaching-Strategic vocabulary learning involvement
4. Specializing in using of VLSs- Mastering vocabulary learning tactics
5. Knowing aspects of word knowledge-Vocabulary knowledge
6. Receiving feedback of VLSs--Post appraisal of vocabulary learning tactics”.

This model of motivated vocabulary learning drew on work undertaken by Dornyei (2001a, 2001b, 2005) on the stages of motivation. Dornyei (2005) suggested that motivational process can be broadly sectioned into three phases: Preactional, actional, and post actional. The preactional phase is referred to as choice motivation. It deals with how motivation is generated. The actional phase is called executive
motivation. It is to protect and regulate the motivation generated in the first phase. The post actional phase has to deal with motivational retrospection. It helps learners evaluate the process of learning. It further influences learners’ willingness and create sustainability to carry on the same learning activity (in this case vocabulary learning).

The following figure better illustrates Tseng and Schmitt’s motivated model of vocabulary learning.

Figure No.2: A Model of Motivated Vocabulary Learning

(Source: Tseng & Schmitt, 2008, p.4)

2.22 Person, Task, Context and Strategies

To dwell in to these terms, let us consider the social constructivist framed by Williams and Burden’s (1997). This model puts forward four key elements or aspects in
any TLP (Teaching-Learning Process). The four key elements comprise: teachers, learners, tasks, and contexts. Further, Cohen (2001) emphasizes on students and describes the overlapping of preferred learning styles, strategies used by the learners, and linguistic tasks. Flavell’s (1979) came up with notion of the three key elements involved in gaining metacognitive knowledge: person, task, and strategy. According Flavell’s (1979) model, “the person-task-context-strategy” is very much useful for conceptualizing the total teaching and learning process. This model has been provided below for better understanding of the terms used in the model.

**Person:** The learners or participants of the language programmes bring a variety of personalized experiences, prior knowledge to bring to the language classroom. This factor greatly affects or influences rate of learning as well as individual success rate. The factors comprise: “age, sex, language aptitude, intelligence, prior knowledge, motivation, self-concept/image, personality, and cognitive and learning styles” (Falvell, 1979). These factors would certainly evaluate how each learner or participant initiates or approaches a linguistic task or activity.

**Task:** A task is defined as set of instructions to apply give pieces of information in order to arrive at an answer or solution (end product). The learners need to process the instruction and perform the task by making informed decisions. Goal of any task is to master specific skills or components of the target languages aimed at. In any language programme, learning task incorporates the materials being used for learning process: reading tasks, listening tasks, vocabulary tasks, etc.
Use of strategies purely relies on the types of language materials used in the tasks, task objectives and task complexity/simplicity.

**Context:** Context is defined as occurrence of the place or environment wherein language tasks and activities or exercises are administered. Learning happens in various social, economical and cultural contexts. Stakeholders such as teachers, peers, classroom ambience or ethos, the family support, the social, cultural activities, the syllabi, and the presence of plentiful input as well as output activities and opportunities. Learners’ approaches to attempting linguistic task get derived from the type learning context as they differ from place to place.

**Strategy:** Cohen (1998) states that a strategy is nothing but a set of steps/decisions and actions taken by teachers or learners in order to perform well in a given linguistic task or activity. Strategies do facilitate the process of teaching, learning and evaluation procedures.

To achieve success in any language programme, the aforementioned factors or aspects: “Person, task, context, and strategy” are to be mutually reciprocative in nature. Strategies can be classified as: Person-dependent, context-specific, task-specific and strategy-specific. These four types determine the success rate of language learning programmes.

**2.23 The Task ahead: The Concept ‘Vocabulary Learning’**

Vocabulary learning is viewed in two dimensions. One is to discover meanings of unfamiliar or unknown words, and the other is to assess productive and receptive
uses of those vocabulary items learnt or made familiar with the learners. The purpose of any language instruction in general, or vocabulary instruction or intervention in particular, is to ensure the learners become free and confident and independent users of the target language or the productive use of words learnt in the instruction for various communicate needs.

2.24 Framework for the Present Study

With special reference to rural ESL learners at the secondary level, this study aims at addressing their immediate vocabulary needs. The researcher would choose and experiment with five important and relevant VLSs for explicit instruction in the classroom. The five strategies are: 1. keeping a vocabulary notebook (cognitive strategy); 2. using a monolingual dictionary (determination strategy); 3. guessing the meaning of a word from its context (determination strategy); 4. word mapping (memory strategy); and 5. Framing example sentences (using new words in sentences-memory strategy).

2.25 Conclusion

When a learner faces or encounters a relatively difficult task, he or she will try to employ or apply task-specific strategies to deal with that task undertaken. The success rate of the task completion/result is dependent on the context the task is administered. A mentioned in the above paragraphs, person, context, task and strategy affect and affect the process-oriented, progressive and productive learning aspects. Pertaining to the present study, English language learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular are difficult areas in the context of learning English as a Second Language, specifically in the context of rural areas. This study proposes to solve their
problem or makes an attempt to arrive at a few feasible solutions with the help of suitable instructional strategies in vocabulary teaching and learning. However, the efficacy of the language instruction/ vocabulary instruction depends on learner’s innate abilities, interests and active participations during classroom activities. In other words, factors: attitudes, willingness/motivation, previous knowledge, the learning activities tasks at hand, and the learning ambience (e.g., the learning culture, the richness of input and output opportunities) contribute to success rate any language instruction or intervention programmes.

Well planned vocabulary lesson based on contemporary pedagogical principles will certainly guarantee that learners will acquire the vocabulary that is taught. Nonetheless, the present researcher is convinced that given the willingness and readiness of teachers and learners to learn and apply vocabulary learning strategies will take them a long way in achieving the goal of required vocabulary proficiency in second language learning.

2.26 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter has tried to discuss the important elements of second language vocabulary learning such as factors affecting vocabulary learning, aspects of vocabulary knowledge, and teaching and learning of vocabulary through various strategies. This chapter has thrown light on the plethora of vocabulary learning strategies suggested by various well-known vocabulary researchers and language theorists and teachers. The next chapter will present the research design of the study.