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MAJOR PAPER

The teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Junior High School.

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Abstract

This major paper makes a deep and conscious analysis of the vocabulary learning of the Students in Junior High School. After analyzing and interpreting all the bibliographical resources and the results obtained in the pre-experiment stage, the work shows and provides different possibilities to work with affixation in classes and increase the vocabulary amount of the students. This major paper has as objective to apply teaching activities to foster the vocabulary learning through word-formation processes, through out the work different theoretical, empirical and mathematical methods were used among them, the pedagogical test, the pre-experiment, the analytic-synthetic method, the historical and logical and the percent analysis. All these methods permitted to shape and elaborate the proposal so as to perfect it. The work also provides readers with a deep theoretical support related to the word-formation process and its relation with the psychological, pedagogical, methodological and didactical groundwork. Besides, it provides a set of activities that can be used and readapted in different levels in our educational system. This work analyzes how different methods and approaches have banned the use of the word-formation processes from teaching and have give more importance to other aspect that enhance memorization and not the needed internalization of what is learned.

Introduction

The teaching of languages is in constant development, teachers search ways to improve it and react in excesses and lacks of precedent strategies, showing revolutionary methods that correct its weaknesses. Nevertheless, still there are tangible problems related to the lack of vocabulary in Junior High School, which affect their communicative-cognitive competence in given situations of the communication in and outside of the classroom.

Normally, investigations give aspects related to the development of listening, writing, reading abilities and oral expression, letting aloof in most of the cases, subsystems so important like the acquisition of vocabulary, being then one of the subsystems more affected on the teaching of the English language. The work with vocabulary has suffered the necessity of didactic strategies creation, directed to the development of abilities focused on the morphological analysis of the English words permitting teachers a better handling and an easier learning of the lexicon. Therefore, the students learn easily the words.

Without lexicon is impossible to guarantee any of the mentioned abilities previously. When people travel to a foreign country they do not do it with a grammar book, but with a dictionary, so it is easy to realize how important the learning of the vocabulary is.

Many studies have been related with learning and teaching of the lexicon, nevertheless, its treatment from the morphological, derivational and flexional optic has not been granted the importance that really requires. Previous searching works have focused on the learning and the teaching of the lexicon from the connotative, denotative, phraseological and functional-notional approach stand point. But about the derivational and the inflectional morphology of the English as a foreign language few has been done.

Teaching the mechanisms of word-formation is an important area worthy of effort and investigation. Word formation mechanisms may be defined as a set of processes for the creation of new words on the basis of existing ones. Thus, apart from borrowing from other languages, the vocabulary stock of a language is formed by means of what is usually known as word-formation rules and, particularly, of word-formation mechanisms, such as coinage, derivation, compounding, clipping, blending, conversion, backformation, abbreviation,

among others, see (Yule, 2006: 23-32) ;(Adams, 1973: 25-34); (Bauer, 1983: 128-134).

Aware of its importance, traditional approaches to language teaching tended to place morphological issues at the forefront. In recent times, however, with the arrival of the communicative trends, the learning and teaching of languages no longer focuses on the description of the language itself and, as a corollary, on morphological issues, but on language as a means of communication. Recently, methodologists and linguists (Folse, 2004: 15-25); (Zimmerman, 1997: 69-72); (Nation, 2001: 125); (Laufer, 1997: 101-112) emphasize and recommend teaching vocabulary because of its importance in language teaching. Though, they consider the lexicon as the central aspect of the language acquisition and the use of vocabulary construction and instruction as a priority in second language acquisition research and methodology.

Nation, (2001: 127) refers to the main points in designing the vocabulary component of a language course and focuses on the importance of learner autonomy in vocabulary learning. Whereas, (Folse 2004: 134), relating to the same issue, makes a reflection of the way students appreciate good instruction in vocabulary, which includes teaching words and the mechanisms of how they are constructed and the elements students need to know, giving many good examples of the words, and holding students accountable for the words through appropriate practice activities and systematic testing. Seeming to be obvious, the sequence of developments, especially in the last decade, indicates that vocabulary learning and teaching issues have gradually gained importance.

Mc Donough, (1987: 75-79), views other aspects that while: “The younger the students are more words to be introduced”. But he refers to those mentees who are learning a new language in a country where the new language is the vehicle for communication, and then the language is compulsory to interact with the rest of the people.

Others like (Dorn Byrne 1987: 12) sustain that the teaching of vocabulary goes implicit in within the given grammatical structure; (Mary Finocchiaro 1987: 34-41) relates the learning of vocabulary to the use of the word in within the function. On the other hand, (Oxford 2003: 12-15) supports that the learning comes with the experience of the speaker.

According to the experience of the researcher and the application of different techniques and methods in "Orlando Nieto Sánchez" Junior High School, there has been detected that most the students from Junior High School have a lack of vocabulary that does not allow the development of the oral and written communication in a flowing way, they also have a limited vocabulary, they do not make a right use of the words they learn, they do not transform words or use word formation processes, they forget words easily, they do not give any connection to the words from unit to unit, they do not know the words in all its extension.

All what have been analysed before makes the researcher state the following **scientific problem** how to teach English vocabulary through word-formation processes in Eighth Grade from "Orlando Nieto Sanchez" Junior High School? Then the **objective** goes to apply teaching activities to teach the English vocabulary through word-formation processes in Students from Eighth Grade in "Orlando Nieto Sanchez" Junior High School.

For this reason the research has the following **scientific questions**:

1. What are the theoretical foundations of the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Junior High School students?
2. Which is the real state of students' vocabulary through word-formation processes from Eighth Grade in "Orlando Nieto Sánchez" Junior High School?
3. Which characteristics must have the activities for the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Eighth Grade Junior High School students from "Orlando Nieto Sánchez" School?
4. How to validate the proposal of the teaching activities for the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Eighth Grade Junior High School students from "Orlando Nieto Sánchez" School?

For the elaboration of the research some **research tasks** have been selected:

1. Determination of the theoretical groundwork on vocabulary teaching through word-formation processes in Junior High school.

2. Determination of the real state of the acquisition of English vocabulary through word-formation processes in the students from "Orlando Nieto Sanchez" Junior High School.
3. Elaboration of teaching activities to contribute to increase students' vocabulary through word-formation processes from "Orlando Nieto Sanchez" Junior High School students.
4. Validation of teaching activities to contribute to students' vocabulary through word-formation processes from "Orlando Nieto Sanchez" in Junior High School students.

To put into practice the work some methods and techniques were also taken into consideration:

Theoretical ones

Analysis and synthesis: The investigation does a division of processes in the production of words from analytical, physical, physiological points of view, deepening into the usage of words while interesting interacting with other people in a communicative environment. To teach vocabulary through word-formation processes to improve the oral and written expression in Junior High School students.

Induction and Deduction: The investigation is based on the solution of problems and the knowledge of the phenomena of the oral and written expression and the introduction and usage of new and given words. Until the moment no other researching work has been devoted to this field, in such a way that the paper goes from specific aspects of the language to the general ones and the other way around, in the teaching-learning process in the school.

Historical and logical method: The investigation is based on the evolutionary historical analysis of English as a language; it makes reference to some schools and authors who have deepened into the subject of oral production in the English language, analysing the language in all its parts, to distinguish in the word introduction which aspects allow the fixation of them.

Systematization: There is a gradual and integral treatment that analyses the phenomenon of the word introduction from the acoustic, physiological and physic point of view, without reducing the value of each one of these processes in the oral production. The word introduction is not studied as an isolated

element. Each activity is elaborated considering the correct production of sounds, to work as a system and avoiding the analysis of the language as a mechanical form and to work it like a complex structure.

Transit from the abstract to the concrete: The work done makes an English study of the foreign language, deepening into all its component to teach the students. This work is centred in the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes to improve the oral and written expression, to obtain from students a correct use of the words since the oral and written production. Using elements that allow the language be used, as a whole.

Empirical ones:

Lesson observation. To detect what kind of activities were put into practice to teach vocabulary through word-formation processes.

Documents analysis. To confirm the treatment for affixation in the subject.

Diagnosis tests. To verify the vocabulary acquisition on the part of the students from Junior High School.

For the application of the work was taken as **population** three groups of Junior High School "Orlando Nieto Sanchez" in Mayajigua and as **sample** were selected twenty students, which have the following characteristics: their ages oscillate between 13 to 14 years old, they are in the adolescence stage where they have important physical and mental changes. It is also characterized to present, in a general way, an average learning, all them come from normal primary schools of urban areas, they attend the activities that are organized in the school, they cooperate and they show interest for the activities they know the importance of learning English as a second language and they recognize the importance of it for future studies. Students have difficulties in the use of the vocabulary, they should master in this grade, specifically in the word-formation processes, in the application of them to achieve communication in a flowing way.

The scientific novelty consists on integrating, in the foundation of the proposal, a series of contents that are dispersed in varied bibliographies that approach the teaching activity as a scientific result, the activity from the philosophical,

psychological and pedagogical point of view, so as the teaching of vocabulary through the word formation processes in Junior High School teaching, furthermore of privileging inside it, the dialectical interrelation that prevails when working with this linguistic component.

The practical contribution of the research goes to the teaching activities proposed to teach vocabulary in Junior High School students taking into account word formation process. Actions that are characterized by the creativity and flexibility of the activities, the entailment of the activities to the characteristics of the students as such, the recycling of the vocabulary use while working in and out of the class and they respond to the psychological and pedagogical characteristics of the students.

Development

Psychologists, linguists, and language teachers have been interested in vocabulary learning strategies for a long time (Levenston, 1979:12). Numerous studies have been conducted comparing the retention effects of different vocabulary presentation strategies. In fact, the vocabulary field has been especially productive in the last two decades. We have seen a number of classic volumes on theories e.g., (Carter, 1987: 31); (Carter & McCarthy, 1988: 54); (McCarthy, 1990: 34-45); (Nation, 1990: 135-140), research e.g., (Arnaud & Bejoint, 1992: 123); (Gass, 1987: 128-262); (Meara, 1989: 76-79); (Nation & Carter, 1989: 78), and practical tips e.g., (Gairns & Redman, 1986: 86-72); (McCarthy & O'Dell, 1994: 220-227). Recent volumes, especially the CUP volumes, that shed significant light upon different aspects of vocabulary acquisition include (Huckin, Haynes, and Coady, 1993: 21), (Harley, 1995: 58), (Hatch and Brown, 1995: 117), (Coady and Huckin, 1997: 234-243), (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997: 57-68), (Atkins, 1998: 83), (Wesche and Paribakht, 1999: 97), (Read, 2000: 64), (Schmitt, 2000: 58), and (Nation, 2001: 131).

The importance of the process of how a word is shaped in English is still underestimated by planners, book writers and teachers. The word-formation is usually taken for- granted and words are still assigned to categories e.g. verb, noun, adverb, adjective etc, (Matthews,1974: 154) In EFL, most language teaching materials are taken from grammatical syllabuses which accept the view that language is a grammatical system and that learning a language consists of learning that system.

The last thirty years witnessed the development of new approaches to language teaching, such as communicative approach which originates from the purpose of language as communication. (Hymes, 1972: 98-100) referred to as ``communicative competence``. Canale and Swains work is considered as an expansion of Hymes' model which attempts to determine the feasibility and practicality of developing what we shall call the ``communicative competence of students`` (Canale and Swain, 1980:1). Bachmans framework (1990) is an extension of earlier models in that it attempts to characterize the processes by

which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs (Bachman, 1990: 81).

Such approaches yielded situational and notional syllabuses, in these approaches word-formation processes are not considered in the name of communicative language, and EFL/ESL materials vary depending on how the textbooks designers and developers conceptualize them which is often focus on the situations and notions to be utilized in communicative language. According to these new approaches EFL mostly consists of teaching patterns of social use and how to use them to express meaning. Therefore, neither grammatical syllabuses nor the more recent ones give attention or importance to word formation. Students are left to their abilities to use dictionaries and guessing skills to understand such processes. (Lyons, 1981: 7) does not even see the necessity of listing a word like ``politeness`` in a dictionary as a vocabulary unit, since both its meaning and its grammatical properties are predictable by rule, and that speakers of a language have intuitions about what is or is not an actual word of their language.

It seems that Lyons foregoing statement might be true for the natives, but he forgets the foreign learner who does not have those intuitions and who is denied that list of derived words in the dictionary as Lyons suggests? How can a foreign language learner come to perceive, for example, that ``carelessness`` is formed by the addition of two suffixes ``less`` and ``ness`` respectively, and not a mere vocabulary item?

As (McCarthy, 1990: 86) states'....vocabulary often seems to be the least systematized and the least well catered for of all the aspects of learning a (second) or foreign language. In terms of ESL/EFL pedagogy, then, one major implication of the argument above is that both curriculum and instruction need to incorporate English vocabulary more systematically. Beyond 'meaning identification' ESL/EFL educators need to address what it means to know and use vocabulary in a broader way, including those aspects summarized by (Nation, 1990: 29-49); see also (Schmidt, 1995: 78-83). At the pedagogical levels: in the primary grades students begin to explore the effects of prefixes such as un-, re-, and dis- on base words. In the intermediate grades students continue to explore prefixes and an increasing number of suffixes and their

effects on base words: govern (verb) + -ment = government (noun). Common Greek and Latin roots begin to be explored, along with the effects of prefixes and suffixes that attach to them (Templeton, 1989: 235). These include, for example, chron (“time”, as in chronology), tele (“distant, far” as in television), and fract (“break”, as in fracture).

The EFL teacher is also responsible in a way that he should attribute much importance to the word-formation processes when he teaches EFL materials. The textbook is a tool in the hands of the teacher, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but also how useful it can be. Studying how words are formed offers, one important way of classifying vocabulary for teaching and learning. The rationale behind teaching word-formation processes is that learners are likely to attach meanings to words which they have never encountered before if they can recognize within them the presence of familiar morphemes (McCarthy, 1990: 69-74).

Thereby, students need to know facts about word formation processes and how to put words to fit different grammatical contexts as words can change their shape and their grammatical value, too. The critical view and analysis given by the researcher on the content of the Coursebooks of AP series prescribed for compulsory stage in Jordan, from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ, shows that teaching of morphological processes is relevant and essential in order to enhance the learners’ creative power. Consequently, this piece suggests that there are a finite number of word-formation processes in English and the most common ones and their typical formatives can be introduced and taught directly in EFL purposes. In addition to this, it seems that enhancing learner awareness of the internal structure of words and the mechanisms by which they have been obtained has a double effect.

On the one hand, it contributes to logical memorizing and retention (since words may be learnt in clusters, and not individually); on the other, when the learner is aware of word-formation processes he or she is better prepared to decode and encode new words, which is precisely what will occur in autonomous learning processes.

Comprehensive reviews exist on the effectiveness of mnemonic techniques in foreign language vocabulary learning e.g., (Cohen, 1987: 43-62); (Hulstijn, 1997: 203-224); (Meara, 1980: 123); (Nation, 1982: 231); (Paivio & Desrochers, 1981: 54); (Pressley, Levin, & Miller, 1982: 120). The majority of empirical studies involve one type of mnemonic devices, most probably the keyword method, and the typical task involved in these experiments would be the recall of a list of word-associates between L2 target words and their L1 equivalents within a period of 2 to 4 weeks. With the exception of a handful of studies in classroom contexts (Fuentes, 1976: 37); (Levin, 1979: 56); (Willerman & Melvin, 1979: 45), two and a half decades of rigorous experimentation points to a single conclusion that the keyword method is superior to almost all other methods tested (e.g., rote repetition, semantic methods, or placing words in a sentence). These findings are so unanimous that another review here would appear redundant. Instead, I would like to point out that this is not entirely an empirical issue. Despite the obvious robustness of experimental results, mnemonic approaches to vocabulary development in an L2 suffer from the following limitations:

Mnemonic devices mainly aim for the *retention of paired-associates*. However, the vocabulary of an L2 is far more than a collection of L1-L2 word pairs (Richards, 1976: 10-20), and the retention of a word is the beginning rather than the end of the long process of vocabulary acquisition (Meara, 1996: 40).

- The mnemonic approach to vocabulary development emphasizes on a fixed one-to-one relationship between form and meaning. However, a key notion in the applied linguist's conception of vocabulary is multiple meanings and multiple dimensions of meanings (referential, syntactic, pragmatic, and emotional).
- Mnemonic techniques tend to focus on the referential meaning of a word, often at the expense of its grammatical information. As a result, mnemonic devices may not necessarily be cost-effective in the long run if word use in natural contexts rather than meaning retention is the final aim (Desrochers Paivio, 1981: 54-60).

- Not all words are equally suitable for mnemonic mediation (e.g., abstract words, (Ellis, 1997: 122-139). A few mnemonics that arise naturally during the learning process are certainly beneficial; too much emphasis on this method would be tantamount to overkill.
- Mnemonic devices are “much less effective in productive vocabulary learning than in learning to comprehend the L2 because imagery association in the keyword technique allows retrieval of a keyword which is merely an approximation to the L2 form”. More importantly, these techniques do not include in-built tricks to help spelling and pronunciation (Ellis, 1997:137).
- Delayed recall after 2 weeks under experimental conditions is normally referred to as “long term retention”, while the same period of time is but an instant in the natural vocabulary development process. Moreover, the complete entailments of a word may never be developed in the long run if the learner does not actively seek to expose him or herself to authentic speech and texts.
- Mnemonic devices might be more applicable at different stages of learning. They might benefit absolute beginners who need to remember a large number of fairly arbitrary paired-associates or advanced learners whose target language system has already been established.
- Learners of a foreign language should be explicitly warned that mnemonic devices are only meant to complement rather than replace other approaches to vocabulary learning (Cohen, 1987: 43-62). As (Carter 1987: 188) rightly contends, too great a focus on learning vocabulary as discrete items may well lead to neglect of the skill aspect of vocabulary in natural discourse.

Thanks to the pioneers in rote rehearsal, incidental vocabulary learning and mnemonic strategies, the field has come to many valuable conclusions. However, in order to avoid asking repeatedly very similar research questions on various approaches to vocabulary presentation and retention, this following section will attempt to turn our attention to avenues for further research.

1. Vocabulary acquisition research in the linguistics tradition has largely concentrated on vocabulary (target: what is to be learned; or product: what is learned) rather than acquisition (how is vocabulary learned, the learning/acquisition process) (Crow, 1986: 242-250); (Meara, 1980: 50).
2. In the psychology tradition on vocabulary learning, memory strategies have occupied the lion's share of attention at the expense of other vocabulary learning strategies, probably because vocabulary learning has largely been construed as a memory problem.
3. List learning and short-term recall tasks have been the norm in the literature on intentional vocabulary learning. Applied linguists today well know that the learning of single words is different from the learning of multiword units, not to mention the entire functioning lexicon in a second/foreign language.
4. Much of the emphasis on incidental vocabulary learning has centered on how useful incidental learning is and how much can be learned incidentally, often overlooking the fact that a lot can be learned intentionally during reading with the help of a range of strategies (e.g., guessing, dictionary use, note-taking, activation, as well as intentional repetition). [-17-]
5. The majority of empirical research has centered on the initial learning (mostly basic recognition) rather than long-term development of vocabulary. Real-life learning of the vocabulary of a foreign language, however, is far from this simple. As (Nation, 1982: 54) and (Meara, 1996: 45) rightly observe, vocabulary learning is an on-going process. Being able to remember one meaning of a list of words within a week or two is easy, developing a functional lexicon that contains morphological, semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, and emotional connections needs a gradual process that takes much more time and effort.
6. Contrary to the language learning strategy tradition, vocabulary acquisition research has thus far adopted a primarily top-down approach. Most studies are experimental comparisons between some favored strategies and various combinations of control techniques. And most involve artificial memory and recall tasks without asking if these tasks are

ecologically valid and how big a role these tasks play in authentic second/foreign language classrooms. If helping the learner in the classroom rather than testing a hypothesis in the lab is to be the final aim, more ecologically valid designs should be in order in the field of vocabulary acquisition.

7. Strategies good for meaning retention may not be good for overall proficiency. This is because, among other reasons, proficiency in a second/foreign language involves the automatic activation of individual words and the automatic contextual processing of these words during comprehension and production. As (Ellis, 1994: 211-282) rightly stresses, when we consider the semantic aspect of vocabulary acquisition, the depth of processing principle will stand out. On the other hand, if the learning task centers on the acquisition of automaticity of vocabulary use, strategies that focus on the frequency, recency, and regularity of practice will be most helpful. In this connection, more studies such as (Segalowitz, Watson, and Segalowitz, 1995: 167) that take into account the attainment of lexical automaticity should produce valuable insights.
8. Existing research on vocabulary learning strategies does point to a direction that good learners pay more attention to collocations e.g., (Ahmed, 1989: 36), but the field would definitely benefit from a clearer focus on how exactly learners learn multiword units and how these strategies are related to learning outcomes (Schmitt, 2000: 76).
9. Research efforts have largely been directed towards discovering *the* “best” strategy for vocabulary retention. In reality, however, learners tend to utilize a variety of strategies in combination. Recent research (e.g., (Ahmed, 1989: 3-14); (Gu & Johnson, 1996: 643-679); (Parry, 1997: 43); (Sanaoui, 1995: 47) indicates that these approaches to, or styles of vocabulary acquisition, which may relate more to the learner than to the task, may be more potent predictors of success than individual vocabulary learning strategies.
10. Conceptions of learning have been found to differ from culture to culture e.g., (Watkins & Biggs, 1996: 10-34). Even the same strategy may be

executed in different ways in different educational traditions. More research clearly needs to be done along the learning context dimension.

Teaching the mechanisms of word-formation is an important area worthy of effort and investigation. Word formation mechanisms may be defined as a set of processes for the creation of new words on the basis of existing ones. Thus, apart from borrowing from other languages, the vocabulary stock of a language is formed by means of what is usually known as word-formation rules and, particularly, of word-formation mechanisms, such as coinage, derivation, compounding, clipping, blending, conversion, backformation, abbreviation. (Yule, G, 2006: 38); (Adams, 1973: 45-51); (Bauer, 1983: 56-67). Aware of their importance, traditional approaches to language teaching tended to place morphological issues at the forefront. In recent times, however, with the arrival of the communicative trends, the learning and teaching of languages no longer focuses on the description of the language itself and, as a corollary, on morphological issues, but on language as a means of communication. Recently, methodologists and linguists (Folse, 2004: 23); (Zimmerman, 1997: 12-23); (Nation, 2001: 32); (Laufer, 1997: 43-49) emphasize and recommend teaching vocabulary because of its importance in language teaching. For instance, (Zimmerman, 1997: 27) states that, 'although the lexicon is arguably central to language acquisition and use, vocabulary construction and instruction has not been a priority in second language acquisition research and methodology'. (Nation, 2001: 394-406) also discusses the main points 'in designing the vocabulary component of a language course and focuses on the importance of learner autonomy in vocabulary learning'. Whereas, (Folse, 2004: 8), relating to the same issue, states that, 'students appreciate good instruction in vocabulary, which includes teaching words and the mechanisms of how they are constructed that students need to know, giving many good examples of the words, and holding students accountable for the words through appropriate practice activities and systematic testing'. Seeming to be obvious, the sequence of developments, especially in the last decade, indicates that vocabulary learning and teaching issues have gradually gained importance.

Other important linguists suggest that vocabulary is perhaps the most important component of any language course. McCarthy, (1990: 8) begins his vocabulary book by stating ' it is the experience of most language teachers that the single biggest component of any language course is vocabulary'. Vocabulary is needed for expressing meaning and in using the receptive (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing) skills. "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh (Harmer, 1991: 153). (McCarthy, 1990: 8) argues that 'no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way' . However, as compared, for instance, with grammatical structures or other language functions, word-formation often plays a secondary role. According to (Lessard-Clouston, 1996: 28), vocabulary continues to play a marginal role even in the more recent communicative approach.

English word-formation is usually taken for-granted by teachers and planners, (Matthews, 1974: 146). It is often assumed that vocabulary does not require explicit teaching since, it is claimed, and that learners will end up learning vocabulary indirectly while engaging in communicative activities. 'The truth is that vocabulary is lacking in the overall curriculum. Furthermore, except for the few vocabulary textbooks that explicitly cover vocabulary, most ESL/EFL textbooks do not systematically deal with vocabulary,' (Matthews, 1974: 162-163). No wonder, then, that vocabulary is less systematically taught and learnt than other aspects of the FL. In Jordan, EFL materials, vocabulary does not seem to enjoy much better treatment.

As a rule, previous studies in L2 morphology or word-formation, such as (Derwing, 1976:132), (Derwing and Baker 1977 and 1979), and (Freyd and Baron, 1982: 162), have mainly concentrated on the order of acquisition of morphemes, that is, on whether L2 learners acquire inflectional morphemes before derivational ones, or whether learners are able to decode and recognize them before they can move into a productive stage, disregarding the importance of knowing and the acquisition of the morphological processes available in the L2.

Unlike previous studies, the current work makes emphasis on how relevant word-formation processes or even morphology in general can be for the non-native speaker or foreign language learner as a way to increase their vocabulary or lexical resources, and also as a strategy to promote their autonomous learning. (Nation, 2001: 384) likewise mentions that 'there are principles that some teachers and course designers follow that go against research findings' and mentions several of them in relation to vocabulary, two of which are 'All vocabulary learning should occur in context,' and 'Vocabulary learning does not benefit from being planned, but can be determined by the occurrence of words in texts, tasks and themes'

As a mere first hand impression, after skimming the whole units, one may observe two obvious things. First, that the book consists of 9 units and that almost all these units have more or less the same type of activities. Second, the vocabulary activities and exercises have nothing about English word-formation processes, which means that EFL designers and planners of this prescribed textbook tend to ignore the English word-formation processes entirely. Almost all kinds of the vocabulary activities in AP are words provided to students, either to match words with pictures; match words in column A with words from column B; match verbs with their definitions; find names of places on the map; fill gaps with the suitable word; what everyday objects are made of; give a name of each of these places; describe people/things or choose a feeling for each situation,...etc. The textbook, does not have any single exercise, for example, to explain and clarify that when a word undergoes a word-formation process, several changes might occur regarding spelling, meaning, stress, class, sound, which usually yields a new linguistic unit. The student, actually, needs to know how and why these changes happen.

Morphology, an area of linguistics, dealing with the internal structure of word forms, can be divided into two main branches (Bauer, 1983: 33). Word formation is the one branch of it. According to him, ``word formation deals with the formation of new lexemes''. Whereas (Yule, G., 2006: 64) defines 'word formation processes (mechanisms) ' as the study of the processes whereby new words come into being in a language. These processes enlarge the

vocabulary and therefore create new lexemes. It is also recognized that by dividing the phrase 'word formation processes' into its components the term almost explains itself, namely 'the processes of the formation of words', thus this may be a very appropriate definition.

It is necessary to mention at this point that word-formation is generally divided into two main groups (Bauer, 1983:33); (Quirk et al, 1985: 45), the first group includes 'affixation (derivation), compounding and conversion' which are considered predictable formations, whereas the 2nd group includes what (Bauer, 1983:33) calls the unpredictable formations such as clipping, blending, acronyms. In relation to the definition of the terms relevant to these processes: Affixes (prefixes, suffixes & infixes) are bound morphemes which attached to a base (root or stem). Prefixes attach to the front of a base. Prefixes in English they are small class of morphemes numbering about seventy-five (75) and their meaning are often those of English prepositions and adverbials. An example of a prefix is the „re-' of 'recall or „mal-, of „malnutrition. Suffixes occur to the end of a base e.g. of a suffix, '-al' of 'national, „-y of „noisy; infixes are inserted inside of a root. The infixes are not normally to be found in English e.g. 'absogoddamlutely.

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language (any part of a word that cannot be broken down further into smaller meaningful parts, including the whole word itself). The word 'boys' can be broken down into two meaningful parts: 'boy' and the plural suffix '-s'; neither of these can be broken down into smaller parts that have a meaning. Therefore 'boy' and '-s' are both morphemes. I.e. one free morpheme (boy) and one bound morpheme (s) which is a suffix. Simply one can say that every affix is a morpheme but not every morpheme is an affix. Also every bound morpheme is an affix. To put in another way, that every bound morpheme (derivational or inflectional) is an affix.

(a) *Bound morpheme* is a morpheme that cannot stand alone as an independent word, but must be attached to another morpheme/word (affixes, such as plural '-s', are always bound; roots are sometimes bound, e.g. the 'kep-' of 'kept' or the '-ceive' of 'receive'.

(b) *Free morpheme* is a morpheme that can stand alone as an independent word (e.g. 'table, boy, cat, read, write, city). The stem is an element (free or

bound, root morpheme or complex word) to which additional morphemes are added. A base can consist of a single root morpheme, as with the 'good' of 'goodness'. But a base can also be a word that itself contains more than one morpheme. For example, the use of the word 'goodness' as a base to form the word 'goodnesses' to make 'goodnesses', the plural morpheme is added, spelled '-es' in this case, to the base 'goodness'. *The root* is a (usually free) morpheme around which words can be built up through the addition of affixes. The root usually has a more-specific meaning than the affixes that attach to it. For example, the root 'kind' can have affixes added to it to form 'kindly', 'kindness', 'kinder', 'kindest'. The root is the item you have left when you strip all other morphemes off of a complex word. In the word *decrystalizing* for example, if you strip off all the affixes '-ing, -ize, and de-', *crystal* is what you have left. It cannot be divided further into meaningful parts. It is the root of the word.

A content morpheme is a morpheme that has a relatively more-specific meaning than a functional morpheme; a morpheme that names a concept / idea in our record of experience of the world. Content morphemes fall into the classes of noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. A functional morpheme is a morpheme that has a relatively less-specific meaning than a content morpheme; a morpheme whose primary meaning /function is to signal relationships between other morphemes.

Functional morphemes generally fall into classes such as articles ('a', 'the'), prepositions ('of', 'at'), auxiliary verbs ('was eating', 'have slept') A simple word is a word consisting of a single morpheme; a word that cannot be analyzed into smaller meaningful parts, e.g. 'boy, six, chalk, in, the, of, read'. Complex word is a word consisting of a root plus one or more affixes (e.g. 'girls', 'wanted ', 'deadly' carelessness, disestablishment). Compound word is a word that is formed from two or more simple or complex words (e.g. landlord, red-hot, window-cleaner, classroom, girlfriend) .Given the basic terminology with definitions along with the illustrative examples, makes feasible to start with the English inflectional system.

First of all, one should know that there are no inflectional prefixes in English. English has only three categories of meaning which are expressed inflectionally, known as inflectional categories. They are number in nouns, e.g. 'cat-s, cats,

runs; tense/aspect in verbs e.g. 'talk-ed', talk-ing; and comparison in adjectives e.g. 'small-er' '-EST'. Thereby, inflection is the process by which affixes combine with roots to indicate these basic grammatical categories ,and the suffixes '-s', 'ed', ing, '-er', and est are inflectional suffixes) Inflection is viewed as the process of adding very general meanings to existing words, not as the creation of new words.(regular inflections)

The irregular inflectional morphology considers the type of irregularity nouns plurals and verbs: past tense verb, past participles have. Unusual suffixes can be considered the following examples: oxen, syllabi antennae seen, fallen, eaten. Change of stem vowel foot/feet, mouse/mice, fly/flew, get/got swim/swum, sing/sung change stem vowel with unusual suffix brother/brethren/ feel/felt, kneel/knelt write/written, break/ broken, and so on.

Changes in base/stem form (sometimes with unusual suffix) send/sent, bend/bent, think/thought, teach/ taught, Sent, bent, thought, taught and bought. Zero-marking (no suffix, no stem change deer, sheep, moose, fish, hit, beat hit, beat, come, suppletion (instead of a suffix, the whole word changes): be - am - are - is - was - were – been. go - went - gone, good - better - best, bad- worse - worst, some - more – most. Syntactic marking (added meanings are indicated by a separate word rather than marking with a suffix or change to the base): Future of verbs: will go, will eat, and will fight. Comparative/superlative of adjectives: more intelligent, more expensive, most intelligent, and most expensive.

Having illustrated the inflectional morphemes leads us to start with the common word-formation processes in the production of new English words.

Derivation/affixation: It is the most common word-formation process (Yule, 2006: 70) which is achieved by means of a large number of small bits are called affixes, e.g. 'un, ful, ness, less, ism, im, dis, de, ment, in, it is the process by which affixes combine with roots to create new words (e.g. in 'character-'ize', 'read-er', '-ize' and '-er' are derivational suffixes). Derivation is viewed as using existing words to make new words. The inflection/derivation difference is increasingly viewed as shades of gray rather than an absolute boundary. Derivation is much less regular, and therefore much less predictable, than inflectional morphology. For example, one can predict that most English words

will form their plural by adding the affix '-s' or '-es'. But how can one derive nouns from verbs, for example, is less predictable. Why does one add '-al' to 'refuse', making 'refusal', but '-ment' to 'pay' to make 'payment'? 'Payal' and 'refusement' are not possible English words. Thereby, we have to do more memorizing in learning derivational morphology than in learning inflectional morphology. Unlike prefixes, suffixes frequently alter the word-class as it mentioned above. Four main types of suffixes are usually distinguished in English:

(a) *Suffixes forming nouns*: From nouns: kingdom, rockdom, terrorism, from verbs: crystallization, naturalization, from adjective: militancy, Excellency, Happiness.

(b) *Suffixes forming verbs*: there are two main suffixes deriving verbs from nouns ify and ize as in classify, purify, realize, and colonize, and another suffix forming verbs is en as widen, lengthen, shorten , weaken etc.

(c) *Suffixes forming adjectives*: From nouns: e.g.: habitual, natural, normal, boyish, from verb: readable, believable, tireless, payable etc., from adjective: foolish, greenish, etc.

Some scholars (Arnoff, 1976: 21) claims that only nouns, adjectives and adverbs can be the product of word-formation, and that only these form classes can be used bases in the formation of derivations. However, (Bauer, 1973: 225) reported that the first part of this claim is true, but there is plenty of evidence minor form classes can be used as bases in established forms like inness, inner whyness, downer.

Compounding: joining two or more words to produce a new single form (one new word) it is very common in languages like German and English. Examples: skateboard, whitewash, super-high-way, cat-lover, self-help, red hot, textbook, fingerprint, sunburn, wallpaper, waterbed, etc. A compound, (Bauer, 1973: 243) suggests, may therefore be more fully defined as a lexeme containing two or more potential stems that has not subsequent been subjected to derivational process. One may distinguish four major types of compounds in English:

(1) -Compound nouns which constitutes the rest majority of English components, is obtained by stringing two nouns together. This group contains four kinds of compounds:

(a) Exocentric compounds: this is where the compound is not a hyponym of the grammatical head. For instance, red-skin where the compound refers to a person rather than to a skin which is red.

(b) Endocentric compounds this is where the compound is a hyponym of the grammatical head and informs that e.g. armchair is a kind of a chair.

(c) Appositival compounds: this is where the compound is a hyponym of both the first and second element (and grammatical head), for example *maid servant* is a hyponym of both ``maid`` and ``servant``. The element of oppositional compounds generally marks the sex of person as in boy-friend woman-doctor, etc.

(d) Copulative compounds: this where the two elements of the compound name are separate entities combined to refer to one entity, e.g. Rank-Hovis, these are not common in English.

(2) - Compound verbs: most of the compound verbs in English are formed by conversion or by the process known as backformation. That is by subtracting an affix thought to be part of the word; anyway, verb compounds are rather rare in English. The different types like noun+ verb e.g. *sky-dive*, verb + verb e.g. *freeze-dry*, adjective +verb, e.g. *soft-land*, particle +verb, e.g. *over look*, adjective + noun e.g. *bad-mouth*, and noun +noun, e.g. *breath test*.

(3) -Compound adverbs: the most common way of forming an adverb is by adding the suffix *ly* to a compound adjective.

(4) -Compound adjectives: They could be formed by several different patterns, e.g. noun +adjective (sea- born, space born), verb + adjective (fail-safe), verb + noun (turn-key, switch-button), adjective +adjective (white-sweet, bitter-sweet).etc.

3- **Borrowing**: it is one of the most common sources of new words in English, it is the taken over of words from other languages. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loan words; it may be adapted to the borrowing language's phonological system to varying degrees. Examples: *hummus, chutzpah, cipher, artichoke, alcohol* (from Arabic). *boss* from (Dutch), *croissant* from (French), *lilac* from (Persian), *Piano, spaghetti* from(Italian), *pretzel* from (German), *robot* from(Czech), *yogurt* from (Turkish),*Zebra* from (Bantu) *skunk, tomato* (from indigenous languages of the Americas), *sushi*,

taboo, *wok* (from Pacific Rim languages), *banana* (from Swahili language). A special type of borrowing is described as loan-translation or calque. In this process there is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language, an interesting example is the French term *un gratte-ciel* which literally translates as 'a scrape-sky' or from the German *Wolkenkratzer* (cloud scraper) both of which were used, for what in English, is normally referred to as a "skyscraper". The English word *superman* is thought to be a loan of the German *Übermensch*; the term 'loan-word' itself is believed to have come from German 'Lehnwort' etc.

4- **Conversion**: (also called Zero derivation: or functional shift): As is well known, conversion is the word-formation process whereby a lexical item is simply converted or adapted from one grammatical class to another without an affix. For example, one can talk of the conversion of the adjective *daily* (as in: we read it in a *daily* newspaper) to the noun *daily* (as in: 'We read it in a *daily*). That the two instances of the word *daily* (the base adjective and the derived noun) belong to two different grammatical classes is only clear from the fact that they are used in different sentence positions. I.e. adding no affixes; simply using a word of one category as a word of another category in a different sentence position especially in an adjective case. In English, conversion is indeed an important word-formation process, and adjective-noun conversion is one of its main categories, see e.g. (Marchand, 1969: 81-83); (Adams, 1973: 57-63); and (Quirk, 1985: 75). Further, a change in the function of a word as, for example when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction is generally known as conversion (category change and functional shift). Examples: Noun-verb: *comb*, *sand*, *knife*, *butter*, *referee*, *proposition*, *bottle*, *vacation*, *paper*, etc. We say: 'he is *papering* the bedroom walls', or „have you *buttered* the toast?' verb- noun: *guess*, *must*, and *spy*. Phrasal verbs also become nouns as *a printout*, *a takeover*.

5- Stress shift: no affix is added to the base, but the stress is shifted from one syllable to the other. With the stress shift comes a change in category. The nouns *cómbine ímplant*, *réwrite*, *tránsport* with the stress shift they become verbs: *combine*, *implánt* *rewríte*, *transpórt*, respectively. Sometimes when the

stress shifts, nouns become adjectives e.g. the nouns e.g. *cóncrete*, *ábstract*, become adjectives '*concréte*, *abstráct*'.

6- **Clipping:** The element of reduction which is noticeable in blending is even more apparent in the process called clipping. This usually occurs when a word of more than one syllable e.g. *fanatic* is reduced to a shorter form *fan* often in casual speech. Common examples are *ad* (advertisement), *fax* (facsimile), *gas* (gasoline), *bra* (brassiere), *bro* (brother), *pro* (professional), *prof* (professor), *math* (mathematics), *veg* (vegetate, as in *veg out* in front of the TV), *sub* (substitute or submarine), *flu* (influenza), *fan* (fanatic). In other words, shortening of a polysyllabic word. More examples: *Perm bra*, *cab*, *phone*, *plane*, *pub*, *condo*, etc.

7- **Acronym formation:** forming words from the initials of a group of words that designate one concept. Usually, but not always, capitalized. An acronym is pronounced as a word if the consonants and vowels line up in such a way as to make this possible, otherwise it is pronounced as a string of letter names. Examples: *NASA* (National Aeronautics and Space Administration), *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *AIDS* (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), *scuba* (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus), *radar* (radio detecting and ranging), *NFL* (National Football League), *AFL-CIO* (American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations). All united nation's organizations as *unsc...* etc.

8- **Blending:** Parts (which are not morphemes!) of two already-existing words are put together to form a new word. Examples: *motel* (motor hotel) *brunch* (breakfast & lunch), *smog* (smoke & fog), *telethon* (television & marathon), *modem* (modulator & demodulator), *Spanglish* (Spanish & English).

9- **Backformation:** It is a very specialized type of reduction process is known as back formation. Typically, a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of different type (usually a verb). A good example is the process whereby the noun *television* first came into use and then the verb *televises* was created from it, (Yule, 2006: 67). Backformation process is regarded as a borderline case, i.e. it can be counted as a member of the most productive word formation processes or as a member of the so called secondary word formation processes. Because of the relation between

compounding, especially compound verbs, and back formation. It is a suffix identifiable from other words is cut off of a base which has previously not been a word; that base then is used as a root, and becomes a word through widespread use. Examples: pronounce (pronunciation-pronounce), resurrect (resurrection), enthuse (enthusiasm), self-destruct (self-destruction-destroy), burgle (burglar), attrit (attrition), burger (hamburger). This differs from clipping in that, in clipping, some phonological part of the word which is not interpretable as an affix or word is cut off (e.g. the '-essor' of 'professor' is not a suffix or word; nor is the '-ther' of 'brother'). In backformation, the bit chopped off is a recognizable affix or word ('ham' in 'hamburger'), '-ion' in 'self-destruction'.

Backformation is the result of a false but plausible morphological analysis of the word; clipping is a strictly phonological process that is used to make the word shorter. Clipping is based on syllable structure, not morphological analysis. It is impossible for you to recognize backformed words or come up with examples from your own knowledge of English, unless you already know the history of the word. Most people do not know the history of the words they know; this is normal. More examples of backformed words to illustrate this special process: worker-work, editor-edit, sculptor-sculpt etc. Further, a particular type, favoured in Australian and British English, produces forms technically known as hypocorisms. First, a longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then -y or -ie is added to the end. The most familiar versions of this process are the words movie (moving pictures), telly (television), Aussie (Australian), barbie (barbecue), bookie (bookmaker), Brekky (breakfast), hankie (handkerchief). You can probably guess what Chrissy Pressies are.

10- **Coinage:** Adoption of brand names as common words: One of the least common processes of word-formation in English is 'coinage', that is the invention of totally new terms. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product which becomes general term for any version of that product, e.g. Kleenex, Xerox, aspirin, nylon, zipper, Teflon, kitty litter, Band-Aid. The word ceases to be capitalized and acts as a normal verb/noun (i.e. takes inflections such as plural or past tense). Some scholars warned using them in formal writing because 'the companies using the names usually have

copyrighted them and object to their use in public documents, so they should be avoided in formal writing (or a law suit could follow!).

11- **Onomatopoeia:** (pronounced: 'onno-motto-pay-uh'): words are invented which (to native speakers at least) sound like the sound they name or the entity which produces the sound. In other words, Onomatopoeia is the imitation of sound by sound. Here, the sound is truly an echo to the sense: the referent itself is an acoustic experience which is more or less closely imitated by the phonetic structure of the word. Terms like buzz, crack, growl, hum, hiss, sizzle, cuckoo, cock-a-doodle-doo, beep, ding-dong, crash, crush, plop, roar, squeak, squeal, whizz are onomatopoeic words (Ullman, 1979: 84).

Since it consists of learning a small number of processes that are regularly used to create a large number of words in a language. This understanding of how meaningful elements combine is defined as morphological knowledge because it is based on an understanding of morphemes, the smallest units of meaning in a language. In the intermediate grades and beyond, most new words that students encounter in their reading are morphological derivatives of family words (Aronoff, 1994: 120). In recent years research has suggested some promising guidelines for teaching the meanings of prefixes, suffixes, and word roots as well as for the ways in which knowledge of these meaningful word parts may be applied (Templeton, 2004: 54). Word roots such as *dict*, *spect*, and *struct* are meaningful parts of words that remain after all prefixes and suffixes have been removed but that usually do not stand by themselves as words: *prediction*, *inspection*, *construction*.

In an overview of Language Teaching Methods and Approaches and their relation with the teaching of vocabulary is necessary to evidence how these methods and approaches have banned the learning of vocabulary or make it as an inferential part of the learning process, where words do not play the role they should. It is important to paramount that few are the methods and approaches where vocabulary emphasis is made.

“...there is, as (Gebhard et al. 1990:16) argue, no convincing evidence from pedagogic research, including research into second language instruction, that there is any universally or ‘best’ way to teach. Although, clearly, particular approaches are likely to prove more effective in certain

situations, blanket prescription is difficult to support theoretically. The art of teaching does not lie in accessing a checklist of skills but rather in knowing which approach to adopt with different students, in different curricular circumstances or in different cultural settings (Klapper 2001:17).

Such pedagogic choices are most effective when underpinned by an appreciation of what support theory, or indeed the range of theories available, can bring to practice. But what experience of theory does the average higher education teacher of *ab initio*, or language teaching in general possess?

There is moreover wide divergence in the various aims of language teaching and learning. (Quist, 2000: 125) discusses a 'clash of cultures' in language teaching in secondary schools, between the liberal tradition which emphasizes the cultural and intellectual aims of language teaching and learning in Secondary Education, and the instrumental paradigm which emphasises 'real-world' skills with "an emphasis on speaking and interpersonal skills at the cost of writing or accuracy" (Quist, 2000: 131). The CRAMLAP questionnaire responses reflected this clash in aims and methodology in Regional and Minority Languages teaching and learning, broadly reflected within the 'Philological' and 'Communicative' traditions, but there was often little in the responses to suggest theoretical reflection.

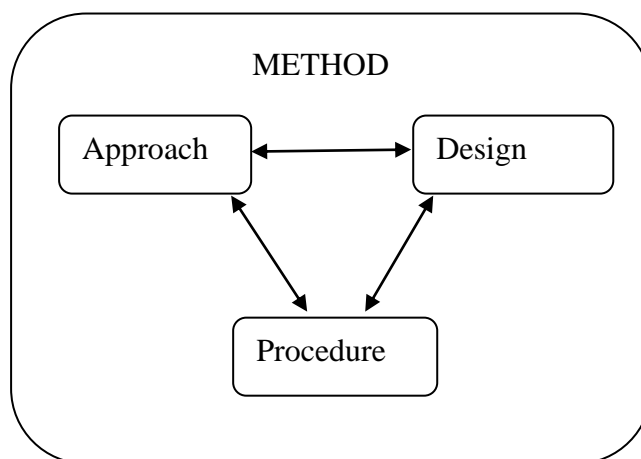
Given the gap between practice and access to theory, the work will now proceed to a summary of methods and theory in the expectation that it will help teachers in secondary education to ground their future practice

Debate and developments around the methods of language teaching and learning have been ongoing since the time of Comenius in the 17th century, if not before. The complexity of contexts and the greater appreciation of the issues lead us to the conclusion that the panacea of a single, universal, optimum method for teaching and learning modern languages does not exist. Instead, teachers now acknowledge the need to adopt an informed eclectic approach, incorporating elements from the range of methods available. Most language teaching today emphasizes oral communication, although many Education syllabi, including some CRAMLAP questionnaire respondents, place greater emphasis upon grammatical mastery and reading.

In attempting to define what 'method' is, it can consider Edward Anthony's tripartite distinction of **Approach, Method and Technique** (Anthony, 1963: 154).

This distinction was developed and recast by (Richards and Rodgers 1982, 1985) as **Approach, Design and Procedure**, encompassed within the overall concept of **Method**, "an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice" (Richards & Rodgers 1985: 16) where:

- *Approach* refers to the beliefs and theories about language, language learning and teaching that underlie a method;
- *Design* relates the theories of language and learning to the form and function of teaching materials and activities in the classroom;
- *Procedure* concerns the techniques and practices employed in the classroom as consequences of particular approaches and designs.



(Richards & Rodgers 1985:17)

There are many publications discussing the various language teaching methods employed over the years. It has been drawn here, inter alia, upon Chapter Two of H. Douglas Brown's *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (Longman/ Pearson Education, White Plains, New York, 2nd edition 2001).

(Brown, 1993: 15) draws a distinction between **methods** as “specific, identifiable clusters of theoretically compatible classroom techniques”, and **methodology** as “pedagogical practices in general...Whatever considerations are involved in ‘how to teach’ are methodological” (ibid.). ‘Methodology’ here can thus be equated to Richards and Rodgers’ ‘Procedure’.

Pedagogic approaches are typically informed by both a theory of language and a theory of language learning. For example, audiolingualism was informed by a structuralist model of language and by behaviorist learning theory (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 14-25).

The twentieth century saw new methods emerging with regularity in what (Marckwardt, 1972: 5) saw as a cyclical pattern of “changing winds and shifting sands” with each new method breaking from what preceded, while incorporating some of the positive aspects of its predecessors. This mortality of language learning methods, to use Decoo’s phrase can usually be attributed to the neglect or lack of one particular component (Decoo, 2001: 4.5)

A glance through the past century or so of language teaching will give an interesting picture of how varied the interpretations have been of the best way to teach a foreign language. As disciplinary schools of thought – psychology, linguistics, and education, for example – have come and gone, so have language-teaching methods waxed and waned in popularity. Teaching methods, as “approaches in action,” are of course the practical application of theoretical findings and positions. In a field such as ours that is relatively young, it should come as no surprise to discover a wide variety of these applications over the last hundred years, some in total philosophical opposition to others. (Brown, 2001: 17-18)

The Classical or Grammar-Translation method represents the tradition of language teaching adopted in western society and developed over centuries of teaching not only the classical languages such as Latin and Greek, but also

foreign languages. The focus was on studying grammatical rules and morphology, doing written exercises, memorizing vocabulary, translating texts from and prose passages into the language. It remained popular in modern language pedagogy, even after the introduction of newer methods. In America, the Coleman Report in 1929 recommended an emphasis on the skill of reading in schools and colleges as it was felt at that time that there would be few opportunities to practice the spoken language. Internationally, the Grammar-Translation method is still practiced today, not only in courses, including CRAMLAP respondents, teaching the classical older stages of languages (Latin, Greek, Old Irish etc.) where its validity can still be argued in light of expected learning outcomes, but also, with less justification, in some institutions for modern language courses. (Prator and Celce-Murcia, 1979:3) listed the major characteristics of Grammar-Translation:

- Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language;
- Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words;
- Long, elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given;
- Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words;
- Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early;
- Little attention is paid to the context of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis;
- Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue;
- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

Decoo attributes the grammar-translation method's fall from favor to its lack of potential for lively communication.

A greater attention to grammar (focus on form/ structure) has now re-emerged as well as appropriate integration by teachers of structures into content focused lessons. But the explicit teaching of grammatical paradigms in isolation is rare nowadays.

While Henri Gouin's *The Art of Learning and Studying Foreign Languages*, published in 1880, can be seen as the precursor of modern language teaching methods with its 'naturalistic' approach, the credit for popularizing the Direct Method usually goes to Charles Berlitz, who marketed it as the Berlitz Method. The basic premise of the Direct Method was that one should attempt to learn a second language in much the same way as children learn their first language. The method emphasized oral interaction, spontaneous use of language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammar rules. Richards and Rodgers, (2001: 12) summarized the principles of the Direct Method as follows

- Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language;
- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught;
- Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around questions-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small intensive classes;
- Grammar was taught inductively;
- New teaching points were taught through modeling and practice;
- Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, pictures; Abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas;
- Both speech and listening comprehension were taught;
- Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

Decoo identifies as its weakness the lack of insight into the reality of the classroom situation for most learners, in its aspiration to a mastery of the language that few could achieve.

Many of the elements of the Direct Method listed above will be familiar to teachers in Secondary Education, which, however, now includes more language use tailored to the needs and experiences of the students, and also a return to 'focus on form' (language structures)

The Audiolingual/Audiovisual Method is derived from "The Army Method," so called because it was developed through a U.S. Army program devised after World War II to produce speakers proficient in the languages of friend and foes.

In this method, grounded in the habit formation model of behaviorist psychology and on a Structural Linguistics theory of language, the emphasis was on memorization through pattern drills and conversation practices rather than promoting communicative ability.

Characteristics of the Audio-Methods:

- New material is presented in dialogue form;
- There is dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and over learning;
- Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis taught one at a time;
- Structural patterns are taught using repetitive drills;
- There is little or no grammatical explanation. Grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than by deductive explanation;
- Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned in context;
- There is much use of tapes, language labs, and visual aids;
- Great importance is attached to pronunciation;
- Very little use of the mother tongue by teachers is permitted;
- Successful responses are immediately reinforced;
- There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances;
- There is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content.

(Prator & Celce-Murcia, 1979: 154)

This resembles the Audiolingual approach as it is based on a structural syllabus but it emphasizes the meanings expressed by the linguistic structures, not just the forms, and also the situations or contexts chosen to practice the structures. It can be found in courses dating from the 1970s which are now criticized for not achieving the hoped-for results.

As they were based on behaviorist psychology (see below), the Audio-method and Oral-situational approach were limited by their neglect of cognitive learning. The drill-based approach in the classroom re-emerged in early Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) software where it was perceived to motivate pupils and develop autonomous study and learning. CALL is now more sophisticated and can foster cognitive learning as well.

Psychology is the scientific study of behavior. Since the middle of the 20th century, psychological views of teaching and learning have been dominated by Behaviorist and then cognitive theory. There is an abundance of sources describing and discussing these theories. An accessible website presenting theories of psychology and teaching and learning is maintained by Atherton and can be found at <http://www.learningandteaching.info/>

The behaviorist view of learning emphasizes the repetitive conditioning of learner responses. Behaviourism is based on the proposition that behavior can be researched scientifically. Learning is an automatic process which does not involve any cognitive processes in the brain.

Pavlov's "Respondent Conditioning" results from the association of two stimuli, such as causing dogs to salivate at the sound a tuning fork.

Skinner developed "Operant Conditioning" where the "Stimulus-Response" association is elicited through selective reinforcement (rewards or punishments) to shape behavior.

Behaviorist Learning Theory is a process of forming habits; the teacher controls the learning environment and learners are empty vessels into which the teacher pours knowledge.

Behaviorist Language Theory is based upon Structuralist Linguistics and is identified with the Audiolingual/ Audiovisual method, - associated with the use of rote learning with repetitive drills.

Behaviorists argued that teachers could link together content involving lower level skills and create a learning 'chain' to teach higher skills. Nevertheless, while circumstances and classroom practice might still benefit from such an approach, the limitations of behaviorism are apparent as it lacks recognition of problem solving and learning strategies.

As a reaction to behaviorism, the "cognitive revolution" in the 1950s combined new thinking in psychology, anthropology and linguistics with the emerging fields of computer science and neuroscience.

Cognitive Learning Theory emphasized the learner's cognitive activity, involving reasoning and mental processes rather than habit formation

Cognitive Language Theory emerged from the Chomskyan Revolution which gave rise in Language Method to Cognitive Code Learning, etc

Cognitive learning goes beyond the behaviorist learning of facts and skills, adding cognitive apprenticeship to the learning process. Learners are encouraged to work out rules deductively for themselves. It focuses on building a learner's experiences and providing learning tasks that can challenge, but also function as 'intellectual scaffolding' to help pupils learn and progress through the curriculum. Broadly speaking, cognitive theory is interested in how people understand material, and thus in aptitude and capacity to learn and learning styles (see Atherton). As such it is the basis of constructivism and can be placed somewhere in the middle of the scale between behavioral and constructivist learning.

Noam Chomsky is identified with the *Innatist* or *Nativist theory*. As seen in the discussion under the age factor, Chomsky claims that children are biologically programmed to acquire language, as they are for other biological functions such as walking, which a child normally learns without being taught. While the environment supplies people who talk to the child, language acquisition is an unconscious process. The child activates the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), an innate capability or blueprint that endows the child with the capability to develop speech from a universal grammar.

With the Chomskyan revolution in linguistics, the attention of linguists and language teachers was drawn towards the 'deep structure' of language and a more cognitive psychology. Chomsky's theory of Transformational-generative Grammar focused attention again on the rule-governed nature of language and language acquisition rather than habit formation. This gave rise in the 1960s to **Cognitive Code Learning** where learners were encouraged to work out grammar rules deductively for themselves.

Deductive Learning: Grammatical explanations or rules are presented and then applied through practice in exercises.

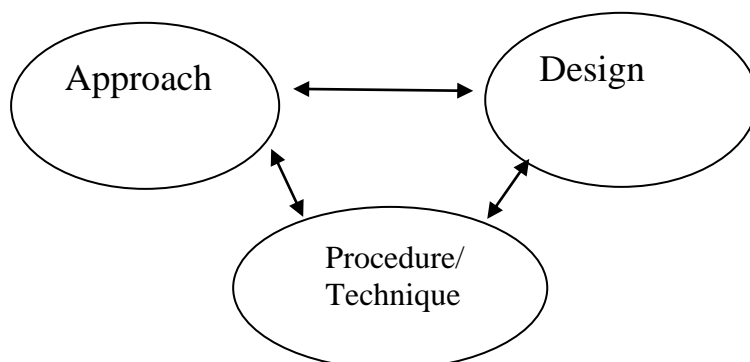
Inductive Learning: Learners are presented with examples. They then discover or induce language rules and principles on their own.

Cognitive code learning achieved only limited success as the cognitive emphasis on rules and grammatical paradigms proved as off-putting as behaviorist rote drilling.

The 1970s saw the emergence of some alternative, less-commonly used methods and approaches, such as **Suggestopedia; The Silent Way; Total Physical Response**. An overview table of these 'Designer' methods is provided by (Nunan, 1989: 194-195) and (Brown, 2001: chapter 2).

(Decoo, 2001: 4.2) makes the important point that new methods such as these may succeed initially when introduced by skilled and enthusiastic teachers or personalities and are delivered in experimental or well financed situations with well behaved, responsive and motivated students and small classes. Problems arise, however, when attempts are made to widen such methods out to less ideal situations, with large classes, low motivation and discipline issues. Nevertheless, such methods may continue to thrive in privileged circumstances with motivated teachers, as has been the case with the Silent Way or Suggestopedia, which continue to find supporters throughout the world.

If 'Method' involves a particular set of features to be followed almost as a panacea, it can be suggested that we are now in a 'Post-Method' era where the emphasis is on the looser concept of 'Approach' which starts from some basic principles which are then developed in the design and development of practice. Accordingly, the Richards and Rodgers model (1985) might be recast as follows, without the outer shell of 'Method':



The Natural Approach, with echoes of the 'naturalistic' aspect of the Direct Method, was developed by (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). It emphasised "Comprehensible Input", distinguishing between 'acquisition' – a natural subconscious process, and 'learning' – a conscious process. They argued that learning cannot lead to acquisition. The focus is on meaning, not form (structure, grammar). The goal is to communicate with speakers of the target language.

Krashen summarizes the input hypothesis thus:

We acquire language in an amazingly simple way – when we understand messages. We have tried everything else – learning grammar rules, memorizing vocabulary, using expensive machinery, forms of group therapy etc. What has escaped us all these years, however, is the one essential ingredient: comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985: vii).

Unlike Chomsky, moreover, Stephen Krashen's linguistic theories had a more direct relationship to language learning and acquisition, thereby bringing them to the attention of language teachers around the world.

Krashen, along with Terrell, developed the "input theory," which stresses maximum amounts of passive language or what (Krashen, 1979: vii) refers to as 'i+1' (input + 1), language input that is just a little beyond the learner's current level of comprehension. Krashen contends that through context and extralinguistic information, like a mother talking to her child, hence the 'natural approach', learners will climb to the next level and then repeat the process. The message is more important than the form. The input is one way, from the teacher, and learners will participate when ready.

Influenced by Krashen, approaches emerged during the 1980s and 1990s which concentrated on the communicative functions of language. Classrooms were characterized by attempts to ensure authenticity of materials and meaningful tasks.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged as the norm in second language and immersion teaching. As a broadly-based approach, there are any number of definitions and interpretations, but the following interconnected characteristics offered by (Brown 2001: 43) provide a useful overview:

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of communicative competence. Goals therefore must intertwine the organizational aspects of language with the pragmatic.
2. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus, but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
4. Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom. Classroom tasks must therefore equip students with the skills necessary for communication in those contexts.
5. Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning.
6. The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide, not an all-knowing bestower of knowledge. Students are therefore encouraged to construct meaning through genuine linguistic interaction with others.

The communicative approach was developed mainly in the context of English Second Language (ESL) teaching. The question must be asked, however, how universal can its application be? Decoo (4.3) points out that one can relatively easily reach a fair level of communication in English, which has a relatively simple morphology (e.g. simple plurals with 's', no adjectival agreement, no gender markers, etc). Neither is mastery of the highly irregular orthography of English a priority in an oral communication approach. French, for example, requires mastery of an enormously greater number of elements to reach a similar first year communicative level (different articles in front of nouns, gender, adjectival agreement, numerous verbal forms etc.). It is fatal for the progression

and motivation of the learner to ignore this complexity. With Irish, the apparently simple notion “Where do you live?” is not rendered by a simple question form of the verb ‘to live’, but by an idiom denoting state “Cá bhfuil tú i do chónaí?” (“Where are you in your living?”) Linking it not with a verbal construction, but with the other idioms denoting state by means of the preposition, personal adjective, and noun construction, “i do luí, shuí, etc.” This construction, and the other distinctive features of Irish, are not inordinately difficult when taught in structural context, but it is different to English and other languages and requires appropriate adaptation if the communicative approach is to be adopted. The same can of course be said about other languages as well.

The move from method to approach has also focused on syllabus design. The Notional/ Functional Syllabus (NFS) have been associated with CLT. The content of language teaching is organized and categorized by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of grammar and structure. The work of (Van Ek and Alexander, 1975) for the (Council of Europe and Wilkins, 1976: 160) has been influential in syllabus design up to the present day, and the Common European Framework (CEFR). The CEFR emphasizes that consideration must be given to the role of grammatical form in its delivery:

The Framework cannot replace reference grammars or provide a strict ordering (though scaling may involve selection and hence some ordering in global terms) but provides a framework for the decisions of practitioners to be made known. (Council of Europe 2001a: 152)

The breadth of possible applications of Communicative Language Teaching can lead to misinterpretations. In United Kingdom schools, for example, the National Curriculum introduced in 1988 led to a topic-based emphasis for modern languages subject teaching that sidelined the role of grammar, arguing from Krashen that comprehensible input alone was required. This ignored, however, the difference in context between transitional bilingual education for Spanish speakers in the USA and the few classes a week offered in British schools. Immersion education, on the other hand, recognized the positive potential of the CLT.

Responses to CRAMLAP questionnaires show a great diversity in models of ab initio teaching in Secondary Education, with some institutions emphasizing grammatical competence, others communicative, and others again a combination of both.

However, the belief that exposure to 'comprehensible input + 1' could be sufficient to ensure language acquisition is now challenged. We are now in a 'Post-Communicative' era, influenced by a Constructivist theory of learning (see below).

Krashen's theories on language acquisition have been challenged by researchers and theorists who recognize that while rich language input is necessary, it is not sufficient to create proficient speakers of the target language, even in immersion contexts, as Hammerly argued:

If 'comprehensible input' alone were adequate in the classroom, immersion graduates, after over 7000 hours of such input, would be very competent speakers of the second language – but they are not. They are very inaccurate (Hammerly, 1991: 9).

Language teaching and learning has entered a 'Post-Communicative' phase which takes a more constructivist view of learning emphasizing personal learning and discovery on the part of the learner, with more task-based, collaborative work between learners, and a more facilitating role for the teacher. Immersion programs in Canada were found to achieve good listening and reading comprehension in the target language, but relatively poor achievement in the productive skills of reading and writing (Genesee, 1987: 7); (Harley and Swain, 1984: 75); (Swain, 1985: 54). (Johnstone, 2002: 5) summarizes as follows:

Views about immersion pedagogy have changed over the years. Initially it tended to be considered good practice for the immersion teacher to use the immersion language extensively and for the pupils to focus on the subject-matter meanings that the teacher was transmitting. Underlying this was an

assumption that extensive Immersion Language input plus focus on meaning would trigger natural language acquisition mechanisms in children so that they intuitively absorbed the underlying structure of the language, i.e. they would not need to focus on form as much as on meaning. Research suggests however that whereas this has undoubtedly encouraged confidence and fluency it often leads to pupils reaching a 'plateau' (fossilisation') with recurrent problems in gender, syntax and morphology, rather than continuing to develop.

For learners, as is the case with Secondary Education, there is research evidence to suggest that instruction may be more effective at an age, from the end of elementary schooling on, when learners have the maturity and motivation to use or transfer appropriate learning strategies (Harley and Hart, 1997: 117); (Muñoz, 1999: 89); (Singleton, 1989: 75).

The view that input exposure to the target language is sufficient has been widely criticized. The lack of focus on form features strongly among Klapper's concerns with CLT (2003: 34):

- The embracing of a meaning-based pedagogy with little conscious attention to form, in direct contradiction of one of the classic statements of communicative competence cf. (Canale and Swain, 1980: 72); (Canale, 1983: 85); (in CLT) grammar is tied to certain functional contexts and learners have to rely on unanalyzed chunks of language without any real understanding of their structure;
- Forms appear independently of grammatical context; the resulting absence of a reliable frame of formal reference means learners' inaccuracies become systemic;
- The concomitant failure to build a generative language framework that enables learners to recombine linguistic elements and thus to create new or unique utterances.

While current approaches stress the need for a greater focus on form see e.g. (Doughty and Williams, 1998: 162), (Schmidt, 1994, 2001) argues however that this 'focus on form' should be on specific forms, rather than a global approach.

He emphasizes the noticing by learners of specific linguistic items as they occur in input, rather than as awareness of grammatical rules.

Merrill Swain, (1985: 43) argued that the failure to achieve native-like competence in grammar and other features may be due to the learners' lack of opportunities to actually use their target language. In a classroom environment, particularly where the emphasis is on rich input, the teachers do most of the talking while the pupils listen. Students tend to get few opportunities to speak and give short answers to questions. This is a crucial dilemma. If the teacher needs to supply substantial input, how can s/he ensure that individual learners have enough opportunities to speak and practice the input received?

Swain's 'output hypothesis' (1985: 87) maintains that opportunities for language production (the term now preferred to 'output') and practice need to be promoted to both written and spoken language with an emphasis on linguistic accuracy. Producing the target language, she claims, may force students to pay more attention to (or to 'notice') how the language is used and what they need to know in order to convey meaning, than does simply comprehending it. This triggers cognitive processes that might in turn generate new linguistic knowledge or consolidate their existing knowledge (Swain, 1995: 84), (Swain and Lapkin, 1995: 123), a constructivist process.

Swain, (2000a: 201-2) cites (Netten and Spain, 1989: 75-79) in support of this view. In an observation of three Grade Two French immersion classes, the weakest class (Class A) outperformed the stronger classes on a test of French reading comprehension. Observations in the classroom revealed that Class A "...were constantly using, and experimenting with, the second language as they engaged in communications of an academic and social nature with their peers and the teacher...", whereas in the supposedly stronger class students "...had limited opportunities to use the second language to engage in real communication acts (1989: 494).

In summary, therefore, output or production enhances fluency, but also creates students' awareness of gaps in their knowledge. Through collaborative dialogue (Swain, 1999; 2000b) they are encouraged to experiment but also obtain vital feedback on their performance which in turn encourages further effort.

Gass and Selinker, (1994: 90-95) have advanced the idea of 'intake', wherein the input, (vocabulary, grammar and expressions) needs to be internalized by the pupil before meaningful output is possible. The teacher needs to ensure that the input is 'taken in', that is, recognized, understood, and acquired by the pupils.

Long, (1996: 76) developed the Interaction Hypothesis which focuses on the notion of *interaction* as a stimulus for effective output. Genuine communication through interaction can clearly be linked to constructivist theory. In this hypothesis, the process of interaction when a problem in communication is encountered and learners engage in negotiating for meaning engenders acquisition. Input becomes comprehensible through the modifications from interaction. Again, feedback also leads learners to modify their output.

Activities to develop interaction include group and pair work. Swain's Dictagloss, where pupils collaborate to reconstruct dictated texts (Kowal and Swain, 1994: 84-93), (Swain, 2000: 76) is now well established as an interaction activity.

Interaction can be developed through a task-based approach which permits a "problem-solving negotiation between knowledge that the learner holds and new knowledge" (Candlin and Murphy, 1987: 1). The pupils interact with each other, and the teacher, thereby encountering new language which they can assimilate and then use. The role of the teacher is to provide suitable tasks to facilitate this process. An effective way of developing tasks is through use of exemplars or 'recipes' which can be adapted to particular needs. The task-based approach to language learning will be discussed later.

If we accept with (Mitchell and Myles, 2004: 261) that “there can be ‘no one best method’...which applies at all times and in all situations, with every type of learner”, we recognize that the diversity of contexts requires an informed, eclectic approach. To quote Nunan:

It has been realized that there never was and probably never will be a method for all, and the focus in recent years has been on the development of classroom tasks and activities which are consonant with what we know about second language acquisition, and which are also in keeping with the dynamics of the classroom itself (Nunan, 1991: 228)

Examples from the immersion or school contexts may not always be applicable to particular Secondary Education. Nevertheless, the CRAMLAP responses showed a full range of classroom environments in which the approaches to teaching and learning ranged from traditional grammar/translation to partial immersion.

Piaget (1952 *The Origins of Intelligence*) is concerned with how the learner develops understanding. Children’s minds are not empty, but actively process material. The role of maturation (growing up) and children’s increasing capacity to understand their world in terms of developmental stages is central to his view.

- Children are constrained by their individual stage of intellectual development. They cannot undertake certain tasks until they are psychologically mature enough to do so.
- There is an emphasis on discovery learning rather than teacher imparted information.
- The readiness to learn, when learners are to progress, is different for each individual.

- The idea of a linear development through stages has been widely used in the design and scheduling of school curricula.

While Piaget hypothesized that language developed to express knowledge acquired through interaction with the physical world, for Vygotsky, thought was essentially internalized speech, and speech emerges in social interaction.

Vygotsky and Bruner are identified with Social Constructivism which places more emphasis upon the role of language and how understanding and meanings grow out of social encounter.

“For Vygotsky, learning is a social, collaborative and interactional activity in which it is difficult to ‘teach’ specifically – the teacher sets up the learning situation and enables learning to occur, with intervention to provoke and prompt that learning through scaffolding “(Cohen & Manion, 2004: 168).

Vygotsky is identified with the theory of the “Zone of Proximal Development” (ZPD). ‘Proximal’ simply means ‘next’ and the ZPD is the distance or gap between a child’s actual level of development as observed when working independently without adult help and the level of potential development when working in collaboration with more capable peers or adults. The other person is not necessarily teaching them how to perform the task, but the process of interaction and enquiry makes possible new understandings or a refinement of performance. For Vygotsky, therefore, the development of language and articulation of ideas is central to learning and further development. The learner’s current level reflects the importance of prior influences and knowledge. The learner is ‘stretched’ and ZPD is about “can do with help”. The teacher’s role is to place learning in the ZPD.

Bruner is one of the key figures in the so-called ‘cognitive revolution’ that displaced behaviourism. Influenced by Piaget but later, and to a greater extent, Vygotsky (whom he is credited with having introduced to the West), he saw learning as an active knowledge-getting process in which learners construct new ideas based upon their current and past knowledge (Bruner *Acts of meaning* 1990) *Learning how to learn* is a central element, the process of

learning is as important as the product, and social interaction is crucial. While concerned primarily with young children, much of Bruner's theory holds true for adult learners as well.

Extending Piagetian theory, Bruner suggested three modes of thinking which increasingly overlap each other:

- The *Enactive*, where learning takes place through actions, manipulating objects and materials;
- The *Iconic*, where objects are represented by images which are recognized for what they represent, but can also be created independently;
- The *Symbolic*, words and numbers, which represents how children make sense of their experiences and language becomes an increasingly important means of representing the world, enabling thinking and reasoning in the abstract.

“Teachers need to be aware of the ways in which learning can be enhanced by using these three modes. At the inactive level, we can see the importance of the use of drama, play, total physical response and the handling of real objects. The iconic mode would be brought into play through the use of pictures, or words in color. At the same time, learners begin to use the symbolic mode as they use the target language ... to express ideas in context”

(Williams & Burden *Psychology for Language Teachers* CUP 1997: 26-27)

Bruner's term **Scaffolding** (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976: 86) has come to be used for the support for learning provided by a teacher to enable a learner to perform tasks and construct understandings that they would not quite be able to manage on their own as the learner moves towards mastery and autonomy, when the scaffolding is gradually phased out. It enables the teacher to extend

the pupil's work and active participation beyond his current abilities and levels of understanding within the ZPD.

Common elements of scaffolding include:

- defining tasks
- direct or indirect instructing
- specification and sequencing of activities
- modelling and exemplification; simplification
- reinforcing
- questioning
- provision of materials, equipment and facilities
- other environmental contributions

As well as scaffolding provided by the teacher, students collaborating in small groups can provide scaffolding for each other – ICT would be a prime environment for such work. This would exemplify and emphasise Vygotsky's view that learning is a social as well as an individual activity.

David and Heather Wood developed the theory of **Contingency** in instruction.

Contingency developed from work on face-to-face tutoring. It attempts to strike a balance between:

- ensuring that learners solve for themselves as many of the problems in a task as possible, and
- intervening when the task is too difficult in order to avoid prolonged failure

The goals of contingent tutoring in assisted problem solving are:

- * The learner should not succeed too easily
- * Nor fail too often.

The principles are:

- * When learners are in trouble, give more help than before (*scaffolding*)
- * When they succeed, give less help than before (*fading*)

Constructivism is a theory and as such is open to critique as differing little from common sense empiricist views, or as providing misleading and incomplete views of human learning (Fox, 2001: 34). An overly enthusiastic endorsement of

constructivism might reduce the teacher's role to that of a facilitator, with the students in 'discovery mode'. This is unlikely to be wholly satisfactory in Secondary Education, either for teachers or learners, and an element of instructivism is to be expected. Nevertheless, Fox acknowledges that "the greatest insight of constructivism is perhaps the realization of the difference made by a learner's existing knowledge and values to what is learned next, both in facilitating and inhibiting it (ibid. 33).

In a diagnose carried out in the school Orlando Nieto Sanchez in relation to the learning of vocabulary the following results were obtained: in the initial stage the study of the documents (annex 1) there was established the learning of vocabulary but not methodological guide lines are given to implement it or any procedure to work with it.

Among the analyzed documents for the Subject in eighth grade it was confirmed that it has nine units in which the work with the vocabulary development has not specific objectives for the treatment of word formation process. In the observation of the lesson plans of the teachers could be verified that they do not take into account the word formation processes as another component to the vocabulary development in the subject of this grade.

The Workbook offers different activities for the vocabulary development in the subject, but in no unit it is observed the work with the word formation processes as another component to enrichen the vocabulary increasement.

With the objective of confirming the work with word formation processes for the vocabulary development on the students selected as sample.

The authoress used an observation guide (Annex 2) proving that students were not motivated for the majority of the activities related to vocabulary learning mainly those which were related to word formation processes. It was also proved that there was not a use of procedures on their teachers' behalf to give treatment to the word formation processes. Students did not understand the new vocabulary formed from prefixes and suffixes.

The authoress used other instruments such as the Initial Pedagogical Test (Annex 3) with the objective to diagnose the development students had in

relation to the use of affixation as a way to increase their vocabulary in the English language. From this the following results were obtained:

The use of the right suffixes -ly-, -en-, -ness-, -y-, -ize-, -ate- and prefixes -un-, -dis-, -il-, -ir-, -in- to form new words: two (10%) students obtained the category G answered correctly all the items. Three (15%) students obtained the category R answered only a 50% of the exercises and the rest, it means fifteen (75%) students obtain the category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

The selection of the affixated words: Two (10%) students obtained the category G answered correctly all the items. Three (15%) students obtained the category R answered only a 50% of the exercises and the rest, it means fifteen (75%) students obtain the category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

The formation of new words from affixated ones: Two (10%) students obtained the category G answered correctly all the items. Three (15%) students obtained the category R answered only a 50% of the exercises and the rest, it means fifteen (75%) students obtain the category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

In the activity related to select from a text the affixated words and form new words from them the following results were obtained two (10 %) students were able to select more than sixty percent of the affixated words and form new words, three (15 %) were able to select at least the fifty percent of the affixated words and form new words from them and the rest fifteen (75 %) students obtain the category B could not reach the ten percent.

During the class observation the following results were obtained: in the item directed to the motivation of the students for the vocabulary development through the word formation process no teacher made use of it. No method or procedure was observed during the observation stage, only two students were able to comprehend the new vocabulary through word-formation, no teacher used any teaching aids to work with affixation, during the whole class words were introduced in isolation and most of the time through translation, no work was done with the affixated words, and of course no assignment related to affixation was oriented.

Before applying the pedagogical test the following results were obtained: question number one where students were supposed to derive antonyms from

affixated words, only two students could do it which represents the ten percent of the group.

In the question related to the construction of sentences containing affixated words only one students could do it well and another faced some difficulties, the rest could only affixate the words but they could not make sentences.

Characterization of teaching activities for the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Junior High School.

The teaching activities for the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Junior High School has as a starting point a diagnosis of the problems and necessities students have, it also includes eighth grade students' potentialities and weaknesses to determine what activities must be elaborated to improve the vocabulary development through word formation processes.

The general objective is aimed to achieve the oral expression development of the English Language in the eighth grade students and to improve the learning of this language.

Teaching activities are derived according to its difficulty and complexity level, and the levels of assimilation of the students, so some are for recognition, reproduction and production.

For the conception and application of the activities were taken into consideration some of the most up dated definitions in relation to it. In the consultation of the specialized bibliography on the topic the authoress ascribed to what Leontiev (1981) stated as activity, it is "like a certain real process that appears of an action set and operations by means of which the subject, asks for its necessities and they are related to the reality, adopting certain attitudes through it."(Leontiev, A. N., 1981: 223).

The authoress agrees with Leontiev, so each activity is determined by a motive and under certain conditions, they are played by means of actions to fulfill certain aims, keeping a narrow subject-object relation for the materialization of it, remarking the subject development in the society. Between actions and operations activities produce dynamic interrelations which involve the actions and activities". (González Maura, V., 1995: 46).

In relation to the same, it is also stated that teaching activities are the way to interact dynamically with the reality through which is established the real link between the man and the world he lives. Through activities, man influences over nature, objects and other people. (Petrovski, A.V., 1981: 197).

Besides, students in the activity assimilate the knowledge that guarantee intellectual development, it also demands the work with methods with which students dominate peculiar activities. (Danilov, 1986: 6).

So it can be stated that teaching activities consists in obtaining learning processes and knowledge, preparing man for life. The activity makes up a complex system that have certain components and different kinds of manifestations. (Pedagogía ICCP: 197)

Pedagogy ICCP, (200-201). The teaching activity is different to other ways of cognoscitive activities for having the following characteristics:

- It is carried out at school, institution in charge of its organization and supervision.
- It has a content previously defined on the study plans, established programs for each one of level of the different subsystems of education.

These activities are also characterized by its doability, adaptability, flexibility and enjoyability. Each activity is related to the ones before so they function as a system, for they are interdependable. In their conception this characteristic was taken into account to avoid memorization of behalf of the students and yet internalization as a productive process in the learning of a foreign language. The activities are to be done during the controlled and free practice lessons in each unit.

The activities are structured as follows, title, objective, procedure, evaluation and conclusion.

Activity 1

Unit 1: Back to school

Title: Forming new words.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 2

Unit 2: What do you like?

Title: Words Festival

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with likes and dislikes, and also the prefixes -dis-, -in-, -im-, -il-, -un-, -ir- meaning the opposite.

Now, let's form new words to enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words and in this way to reduce the use of the dictionary.

The prefix -dis- is used to form negative adjectives that characterize people personalities, for example: *honest-dishonest. Posada Carriles is a very dishonest man.*

2-Through the following prefixes form as many new words as you can. Write sentences with the formed words.

-dis- (disillusion), -in- (indiscipline), -im-(impossible), -ir- (irrelevant), -un- (unconditional), -il- (illogical).

3- Now select nouns and turn them into adjectives using prefixes.

4- Work in pairs and make a short dialogue using the new vocabulary learned in this lesson.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 3

Unit 3: Let's have a party.

Title: Forming new words.

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with food, and also the suffix -y- forming adjectives.

Now, let's form new words to enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words, in this case the suffix -y- to reduce the use of the dictionary.

4- Form new words using the suffix -y-. Make sentences with each one of them.

Salt, spice, flesh, pink, juice, smell, taste, hunger.

5- Now select nouns and turn them into adjectives. Example: rain-rainy, cloud-cloudy.

6- Work in pairs and make a short dialogue with the new vocabulary studied in the lesson.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 4

Unit 4: How can I get to...?

Title: Go to visit Lima.

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with historical places, and also the suffixes -ing-, -able- and -ful- forming adjectives.

Now, let's form new words to enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words, and in this way to reduce the use of the dictionary.

6- Select from the text all the adjectives formed by suffixes.

7- Find the correct suffix for the following words.

wonder, read, interest, pleasure, learn, comprehend, logical.

8- Select nouns and turn them into adjectives.

Come visit Lima!

Peru is a beautiful country located in South America. Its capital, Lima, is a city of eight million people who work to recapture the look of its glorious past. The old colonial heart of the city is being restored.

There are comfortable hotels and excellent seafood restaurants. It has a 140-year-old Chinese commercial district called China Town, where you can find clothes and food. It also has museums, but there are two of them that fall into

the must-see-category: the National Museum, in the suburb of San Borja, which gives an overview of 10000 years of Peruvian history, and the Gold Museum, which has a collection of pre-Columbian objects made from precious metals.

9- Work in pairs and make a short dialogue using the new vocabulary learned in this lesson.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 5

Unit 5: A visit to a Museum.

Title: Forming new words.

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with jobs, and also the suffix -er- forming nouns.

Now, let's form new words to enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words, in this way to reduce the use of the dictionary.

10- Complete the sentences using the correct suffixes. Form other words by your own and write sentences.

-Ricardo Arjona is one of the best _____ (sing) of the musical world.

-For many people Miguel Angel was an important _____ (paint) in the art history.

-Alicia Alonso became in one of the most outstanding Cuban _____ (dance).

- Jose Marti was a very outstanding _____ (write) in the Cuban history.

11- Select verbs and turn them into nouns.

12- Work in pairs and make a short dialogue using the new vocabulary learned in this lesson.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 6

Unit 6: Planning a weekend trip.

Title: Forming new words.

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with leisure activities, and also some suffixes known from the previous activities for forming new words.

Now, let's enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words, in this way to reduce the use of the dictionary.

13- Form new words using affixation where necessary and make dialogs in pairs with your classmate planning a weekend trip using the formed words.

Sleep, read, write, beach, movie, school, party, swim, travel.

14- Select verbs and turn them into nouns.

15- Work in pairs and make a short dialogue using the new vocabulary learned in this lesson.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 7

Unit 7: Preparing for the Olympic Games.

Title: Describing sports.

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with sports and games and some suffixes and prefixes learned from the previous activities to form new words.

Now, let's enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words, in this way to reduce the use of the dictionary.

16- How could you describe the following sports? Link them with the following words

1) Chess

logical

2) Baseball	smartness
3) Volleyball	peaceful
4) Gymnastic	boring
5) Box	interesting
6) Swimming	healthy
7) Tennis	athletic

a) Write at less five sentences with the couple of words that you found.

17- Select nouns and turn them into adjectives.

18- Work in pairs and make a short dialogue using the new vocabulary learned in this lesson.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Activity 8

Unit 8: At the hospital.

Title: Finding new words.

Objective: Students should be able to form new words through the use of affixation.

Procedures:

First step: To determine the vocabulary area teacher are to work.

Second step: To determine which affixation processes can be worked.

Third step: To exercise.

Forth step: Evaluate.

This unit deals with words related to health problems: illnesses and symptoms, and also some suffixes and prefixes learned from the previous activities to form new words.

Now, let's enrich the vocabulary through known words, for this, we will use a process called Affixation that consist in adding prefixes and suffixes to form new words, in this way to reduce the use of the dictionary.

19- Work in pairs. Prepare a doctor-patient interview. You may use the following information.

<u>Illnesses</u>	<u>Symptoms and parts of the body affected</u>
Flu	fever, headache, breathing difficulties
Cold	backache, sore throat, exhausted
Sore throat	cannot swallow, cannot open the mouth
High blood pressure	strong headache, heart disease
Toothache	headache, nervous
Stomachache	indigestion

You may use the following information:

I feel... (a little better, awful, much better, terrible, bad, good, fine, tired, all right, exhausted, okay, faint, great).

<u>Doctor</u>	<u>Patient</u>
1- Ask: What's the matter? How do you feel?	Answer
2- Ask: What are the symptoms?	Answer
3- Say: I see you. You should...	Say: thank you.
4- Say: Come and see me again tomorrow	Say: Good-bye

a) Select all the new formed words used in the exercise.

20- Form new words using affixation process.

Evaluation: It will be as follows, the more words students form, the greater the quantity of points, to stimulate them use affixation processes.

Result analysis of the effectiveness of teaching activities for the teaching of vocabulary through word-formation processes in Junior High School.

With the objective to check how is given treatment through English lessons to the word formation process for the vocabulary development on the selected students as a sample the authoress use the same observation guide that was applied in the initial diagnose (Annex 2) showing that students after to apply the teaching activities, they feel major motivation through the activities relating to the word formation process. Is used methods and procedures for teachers' side to give treatment to the word formation process in spite of it does not appear as a principal objective of the Program. Students show a better comprehension of the new vocabulary formed through prefixes and suffixes. Besides is used a final pedagogical test (Annex 4).

With the objective of verifying how to carry out the students development level through the use of affixation in the English language the following results were obtained:

The use of the right suffixes -ly-, -en-, -ness-, -y-, -ize-, -ate- and prefixes -un-, -dis-, -il-, -ir-, -in- to form new words: in the initial stage the following results were obtained two (10%) students obtained the category G answered correctly all the items. Three (15%) students obtained the category R answered only a 50% of the exercises, and the rest, it means fifteen (75%) students obtain the category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items. In the final stage the use of the derivational antonym of each of the words and adding negative prefixes, obtained the following results: Thirteen (65%) students obtained category G answered correctively all items. Four (20%) students obtained category R answered only 50% of the exercises in a correct way and the rest, it means three (15%) students obtained category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

In the activity related to the formation of new words from affixated ones: Two (10%) students obtained the category G answered correctly all the items. Three (15%) students obtained the category R answered only a 50% of the exercises and the rest, it means fifteen (75%) students obtained the category B answered

correctly less than 25% of the items. In the final stage to add prefixes and make sentences obtained the following results: Fifteen (75%) students obtained category G answered correctively all items. Four (20%) students obtained category R answered only 50% of the exercises in a correct way and the rest, it means three (15%) students obtained category B answering correctly less than 25% of the items.

In the activity related to select from a text the affixated words and form new words from them, the following results were obtained two students (10 %) were able to select more than sixty percent of the affixated words and form new words, three (15 %) were able to select at least the fifty percent of the affixated words and form new words from them, and the rest, fifteen (75 %) students could not reach the ten percent. In the final stage the formation of the opposite words and the use of affixes and prefixes, the following results were obtained: Thirteen (65%) students obtained category G answered correctively all items. Four (20%) students obtained category R answered only 50% of the exercises in a correct way and the rest, and the rest, it means three (15%) obtain category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

So, it shows the effectiveness of the applied activity and students felt much more motivated towards the study of the English subject. These results also show that some times teachers underestimate the possibilities students have to learn a new language and make a real use of it. Once the students learned to form new words were less dependable of the use of the dictionary and they were more daring in the vocabulary creation in all the lessons.

In the item directed to the motivation of the students for the vocabulary development through the word formation process teachers from the department began making use of it in their classes. They also began to use the communicative approach and linguistic methods and procedures to work on this area of the language, fifteen students were able to comprehend the new vocabulary through word-formation, teacher used many teaching aids to work with affixation, during the class words were introduced most of the time through affixation and antonyms and synonyms, a part of the class work was done with the affixated words, and of course the assignment was related to affixation.

After applying the pedagogical test the following results were obtained: question number one where students were supposed to derive antonyms from affixed words, thirteen (65%) students could do it which represents the ten percent of the group.

In the question related to the construction of sentences containing affixed words thirteen (65%) students could do it well and four (20%) faced some difficulties, the rest three (15%) could only affixate the words but they could not make sentences.

The formation of the derivational antonym of each of the words and adding negative prefixes -dis-, -un-, -il-, -im-, -in-, -ir-: Thirteen (65%) students obtained category G answered correctively all items. Four (20%) students obtained category R answered only 50% of the exercises in a correct way and the rest, it means three (15%) obtained category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

To add prefixes and the formation of sentences with the new words: Thirteen (65%) students obtained category G answered correctively all items. Four (20%) students obtained category R answered only 50% of the exercises in a correct way and the rest, it means three (15%) obtained category B answered correctly less than 25% of the items.

The formation of the opposite of the words and the use of affixes and prefixes: Thirteen (65%) students obtained category G answered correctively all items. two (10%) students obtained category R answered only 50% of the exercises in a correct way and the rest, and no student obtained the B category.

The comparison of the results in the class's observation between the initial and final stage allowed to measure the encrease in quality and quantity of the activities for the vocabulary development in the selected sample taking into account the word formation process. It was observed an increase in the students' motivation since these activities for the vocabulary development through the word formation process and better comprehension level on student's behalf from the new vocabulary through the word formation process.

The comparative results in the initial and final pedagogical test (Annex 9) show that the low level declined, because in the first stage two (10%) students

obtained the category G answered correctly all the items and in the second stage three (15%) students obtained category G answered correctly less than 25% of the items. Four (20%) students in the final stage reduced significantly the category R. The most significant result is in the encrease of students in the category G with fifteen students (75%) showing a total dominion of the use of prefixes and suffixes for the formation of new words demonstrating a revealing development taking into account word formation process.

During the class observation the following results were obtained: in the item directed to the motivation of the students for the vocabulary development through the word formation process teachers made use of it. Some methods and procedures were observed during the observation stage, thirteen students were able to comprehend the new vocabulary through word-formation, teachers used many teaching aids to work with affixation, during the class words were introduced through affixation, work was done with the affixed words, and of course, some assignments related to affixation was oriented.

Conclusions:

- The bibliographical revision permitted the authoress deepened into different approaches and methodologies to work with vocabulary in Junior High School specifically in eighth grade. It also allowed the authoress to analyze the perception of this problem in the dynamic of the communicative approach, where these processes are not conceived as a part of it. Besides, it permitted to focus the authoress on the most recent theories and approaches related to word-formation and its link to teaching activities.
- The diagnose permitted the design and redesign of the activities, where were taken into consideration the students' motivations, interests, needs and learning styles. The diagnose also permitted to adapt the activities to the reality of the students. In the bibliographical revision could be stated that few attempts to teach vocabulary have been done in what vocabulary teaching concerns, teachers do not have appropriate teaching strategies to teach vocabulary in Junior High School at least from a view point of the word formation specifically the use of affixation.
- The teaching activities applied are characterized by their doability, adaptability, flexibility and enjoyability. The activities are interdependable, varied and feasible to the students to achieve an effective development in the use of a wide vocabulary. The activities are also related to the levels of assimilation of the students.
- The validation of the teaching activities allowed to state that the teaching of vocabulary must be the fundamental base in the acquisition of a foreign language. They should be interdependable. The teaching of word formation processes should be part of the vocabulary teaching and be accompanied by situations clustered together to the students' potentials and their potentialities to use the new language. The pre-experiment permitted to verify the usefulness and effectiveness of the activities applied during this stage.

Recommendations:

The authoress recommends:

- 1- The development of new scientific works related to the introduction of the word building processes in the current teaching.
- 2- The enrichment of the postulates stated in this work in further research.

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ANNEX 1

Document analysis.

Objective: To confirm the treatment that is given to prefixes and suffixes in the subject.

Documents to be observed,

Eighth grade syllabus,

Methodological guide lines.

Workbook,

Lesson planning

ANNEX 2

Pedagogical test (initial)

Objective: To diagnose how students use affixation in the English language.

Questionnaire:

-Use the correct suffix to form new words.

Sharp (ly – en)

Honest (ness – y)

Clear (ly – ize)

Tall (ness – ate)

-From the following prefixes form new words.

un, dis, il, ir, in.

-From the following text select the affixed words.

Come visit Lima!

Peru is a beautiful country located in South America. Its capital, Lima, is a city of eight million people who work to recapture the look of its glorious past. The old colonial heart of the city is being restored.

There are comfortable hotels and excellent seafood restaurants. It has a 140-year-old Chinese commercial district called China Town, where you can find clothes and food. It also has museums, but there are two of them that fall into the must-see-category: the National Museum, in the suburb of San Borja, which gives an overview of 10000 years of Peruvian history, and the Gold Museum, which has a collection of pre-Columbian objects made from precious metals.

-Form new words from the affixed ones.

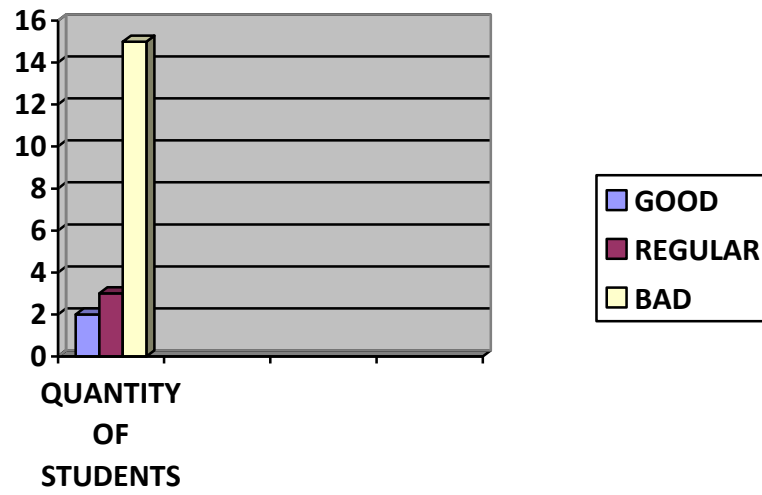
ANNEX 3

Quantitative analysis of the initial Pedagogical test for eighth grade students.

CATEGORIES	QUANTITY OF STUDENTS	PERCENT %
G	2	10
R	3	15
B	15	75

ANNEX 4

Graphic of the initial Pedagogical test for eighth grade students.



ANNEX 5

Classes' observation.

Objective: To confirm the treatment in the English lessons of the word formation processes to increase the vocabulary.

Aspects to observe:

1. Students' motivation for the vocabulary development through the word formation process.
2. Methods and procedures used for the teacher in the word formation process treatment for the vocabulary development.
4. Students' comprehension of the new vocabulary through word formation process.
5. Teaching aids used while teaching word-formation processes by the teacher.
6. Part of the class where word-formation processes are used.
7. Work with the affixed words.
8. Assignments related to affixation.

ANNEX 6

Pedagogical test (final)

Objective: To verify the level of development reached by the students after the application of the activities.

Questionnaire:

1-Form the derivational antonym of each of the words below, by adding a negative prefix dis-, un-, il-, im-, in-, ir-. (Occasionally more than one prefix is possible).

Accurate, active, restricted, able, modest, order, legal, comfortable, approve, hurt, arrange, union.

2-Add the prefixes in parentheses to the following English words. Form sentences with the new words.

Sane (in), moral (im), slave (en), voluntary (in), relevant (ir), visible (in), loyal (dis), balanced (un), certain (un), legible (il).

3-Form the opposite of these words as indicates above. Use affixes and prefixes.

Legitimate, pertinent, ability, constant, rational, material, limitable, human, responsible, complete, literate, definite, variable, sufficient, mobile, frequent, adequate.

Key for the instrument's measure:

G: when the student is able to answer correctly all the exercises.

R: when the student is able to answer correctly 50% of the exercises.

B: when the student is able to answer correctly less than the 25% of the exercises.

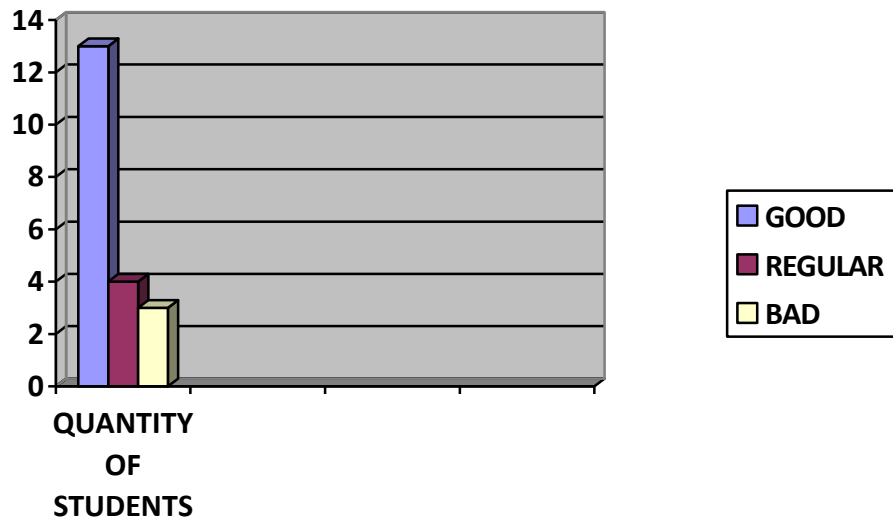
ANNEX 7

Quantitative analysis of the final Pedagogical test for eighth grade students.

CATEGORIES	QUANTITY OF STUDENTS	PERCENT %
G	13	65
R	4	20
B	3	15

ANNEX 8

Graphic of the final Pedagogical test for eighth grade students.



ANNEX 9

Table of comparison between the initial and final Pedagogical test for eighth grade students.

INITIAL PEDAGOGICAL TEST	CATEGORIES	STUDENTS	PORCENT (%)
	B	2	10
	R	3	15
	M	15	75
FINAL PEDAGOGICAL TEST			
	B	13	65
	R	4	20
	M	3	15

ANNEX 10

Graphic of comparison between the initial and final Pedagogical test for eighth grade students.

