


**Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First  
Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe East District**

**Ndivhudzannyi Michael Nndwamato**  
**Learner number: 9705128**

**Submitted to**

**The Department of English, School of Human and Social Sciences**  
**University of Venda**

**for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in English**

Learner name 

**Promoter: Dr Matodzi Nancy Lambani**

**Co-Promoter: Professor Ernest Klu**

**UNIVERSITY OF VENDA**

**2021**

## DECLARATION

I, Ndivhudzannyi Michael Nndwamoto, hereby declare that this thesis, **Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe District**, for the degree Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Venda, hereby submitted by me, has not been submitted previously for a degree at this or any other university, and that it is my own work in design and execution and that all references contained therein have been duly acknowledged.

Signed:



02 March 2021

---

NNDWAMATO NDIVHUDZANNYI MICHAEL  
9705128

---

DATE

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to:

- God the Almighty for being my source of knowledge, power, tenacity, and intelligence through which I could weather off all the storms that buffeted me as I undertook this huge assignment.
- My mother, Ntshengedzeni Emily Nndwamato, for her incessant encouragement and unwavering belief in the value of education.
- The late Vho – Jeremiah Thinashaka Budeli and his entire family for being my anchor in life. No words can express my gratitude in full.
- My wife and companion, Vuledzani, and our wonderful children - Uhone, Wanga and Uatshila for the incalculable sacrifices you made in allowing me to work on this study. Indeed, to love is to give.
- My siblings: Lufuno Diana, Fulufhelo Sarah, Thinawanga Junior and Ndivhuwo Salani - I love you one and all.

**TO GOD BE THE GLORY!**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful and thankful to:

- Dr MN Lambani and Professor E Klu for your unfaltering support and professional guidance.
- The School of Education in general and Professional Studies in particular.
- My uncle, ZR Siphuma and cousin Fulufhelo Siphuma for the motivation.
- Professor Muchativugwa Hove for proofreading and editing of my work.
- My friends: Dr AE Mukwevho, Dr IC Mulaudzi, Mrs. NC Ratshisevhe, Ms. TJ Thivhafuni and the late Mr. AM Muravha and NR Magadani.
- My data analysis team for your precision and diligence.
- The University of Venda for providing financial assistance.

## ABSTRACT

Teachers of English First Additional Language are critically important in the learners' vocabulary learning trajectories. Learners need a significant vocabulary repertoire for their academic commitments, comprehension of content and articulate expression of their responses, especially in tests and examinations. Despite these imperatives, Grade 12 learners' vocabulary level remains unsatisfactory, and this paucity explains their low performance in the English FAL. This study explored the vocabulary teaching strategies, resources, and vocabulary teaching activities used by teachers in the Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe East District. A parallel-convergent research methodology using pragmatism paradigm and mixed-methods approach was conducted to explore vocabulary teaching competencies of forty-six Grade 10 English FAL teachers in the Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe East District, Limpopo Province. As part of the quantitative research methodology, all 46 teachers responded to a questionnaire while 10 of these teachers constituted a purposive sample observed teaching vocabulary in class. Data were captured using an observation checklist. The same 10 teachers who were observed were further engaged in structured interviews which were recorded as part of the qualitative data. The research findings established that the majority of the participants were aware of the CAPS' expectations regarding the teaching of vocabulary. Participants were competent in using English as a medium of instruction throughout their lessons. Even though almost all the participants knew the effective vocabulary teaching strategies, had the resources and designed valid activities, only a few of these could translate their knowledge into practice. Most teachers preferred teaching vocabulary using synonyms and antonyms; they relied heavily on reading texts as teaching resources, and they engaged learners selectively in very short responses to predictable questions. Teachers did not exhibit dynamic teaching strategies for vocabulary development and extension, and it emerged that there were significant challenges in their intervention strategies. The study's conclusion was that Grade 10 English FAL teachers' vocabulary teaching competencies were not convincing. The teachers' limitations in teaching vocabulary effectively may be attributed to a lack of capacity regarding vocabulary teaching and in-service training sessions for teachers that could bridge the gap between knowledge gained from teacher training institutions and the latest trending practices. This study proposes that there should be regular intensive in-service training sessions for teachers designed to keep teachers abreast with trending teaching practices.

**Key words:** *vocabulary learning, comprehension, expression, low performance, strategies, resources, activities*

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	ii
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	iii
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	iv
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	v
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	xiv
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	xv
<b>ANNEXURES</b> .....	xvi
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</b> .....	xvii
<b>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY</b> .....	1
<b>1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY</b> .....	1
<b>1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM</b> .....	7
<b>1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY</b> .....	8
<b>1.4 STUDY OBJECTIVES</b> .....	8
<b>1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS</b> .....	8
<b>1.5.1 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION</b> .....	8
<b>1.5.2 RESEARCH SUB-QUESTIONS</b> .....	9
<b>1.6 DELIMITATIONS</b> .....	9
<b>1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS</b> .....	9
<b>1.7.1 ACQUISITION</b> .....	10
<b>1.7.2 COMPETENCE</b> .....	10
<b>1.7.3 PROFICIENCY</b> .....	10
<b>1.7.4 COMMUNICATION</b> .....	10
<b>1.7.5 LEARNING</b> .....	11
<b>1.7.6 TEACHING</b> .....	11
<b>1.8 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK</b> .....	11
<b>1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	12
<b>1.9.1 QUANTITATIVE METHOD</b> .....	13
<b>1.9.2 QUALITATIVE METHOD</b> .....	14
<b>1.10 RESEARCH SETTING</b> .....	14
<b>1.11 STUDY POPULATION</b> .....	15
<b>1.12 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES</b> .....	15
<b>1.13 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS</b> .....	15
<b>1.14 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY</b> .....	16
<b>1.15 DATA COLLECTION</b> .....	16

1.16 DATA ANALYSIS .....	16
1.17 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....	17
1.17.1 INFORMED CONSENT .....	17
1.17.2 AVOIDANCE OF HARM.....	18
1.17.3 VIOLATION OF PRIVACY, ANONYMITY, AND CONFIDENTIALITY .....	18
1.18 OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS .....	19
1.19 CONCLUSION.....	19
CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	21
2.1 INTRODUCTION .....	21
2.2 SHULMAN’S PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE THEORY.....	22
2.2.1 COMPONENTS OF SHULMAN’S PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE .....	23
2.2.2 CONTENT AND PEDAGOGY IN VOCABULARY TEACHING .....	25
2.2.3 PCK, TEACHING METHODS AND STRATEGIES.....	26
2.2.4 PCK AND TEACHING RESOURCES AND MATERIALS .....	26
2.3 VYGOTSKY’S SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY OF LEARNING .....	27
2.3.1 STAGES OF COGNITIVE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT .....	29
2.3.1.1 THE OBJECT-RESPONSE STAGE.....	29
2.3.1.2 THE OTHERS-INCLINED STAGE .....	30
2.3.1.3 THE AUTOMATIC LANGUAGE USAGE STAGE .....	30
2.3.2 A CLASSROOM AS A MINIATURE AUTHENTIC WORLD .....	31
2.3.3 THE CLASSROOM AS A PLACE OF ASSISTANCE.....	33
2.3.4 THE VALUE OF INPUT IN SCT .....	35
2.3.5 NON-PRESCRIPTIVE APPROACH OF SCT TO LANGUAGE LEARNING .....	36
2.4 CONCLUSION .....	36
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	37
3.1 INTRODUCTION .....	37
3.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY .....	37
3.2.1 VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION .....	38
3.2.2 VOCABULARY AND LANGUAGE PRODUCTION.....	39
3.2.2.1 BASIC LANGUAGE USER.....	40
3.2.2.2 INDEPENDENT LANGUAGE USER .....	40
3.2.2.3 PROFICIENT LANGUAGE USER .....	40
3.3 CLASSIFICATION OF VOCABULARY .....	41
3.4 WHAT CONSTITUTES KNOWLEDGE OF A WORD? .....	47
3.4.1 FORM, MEANING AND USE.....	49
3.4.2 LEXICAL RELATIONS .....	50

<b>3.4.2.1 SYNONYMS</b> .....	51
<b>3.4.2.2 ANTONYMS</b> .....	52
<b>3.4.2.3 POLYSEMY</b> .....	53
<b>3.4.2.4 HOMONYM</b> .....	54
<b>3.4.2.5 HOMOPHONY</b> .....	54
<b>3.4.2.6 COLLOCATION</b> .....	54
<b>3.4.3 REGISTER, DIALECT AND STYLE</b> .....	55
<b>3.4.4 DENOTATIVE AND CONNOTATIVE MEANINGS OF WORDS</b> .....	56
<b>3.4.5 LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE MEANINGS</b> .....	57
<b>3.4.6 COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS</b> .....	57
<b>3.4.7 WORD CLASSES</b> .....	57
<b>3.4.8 DERIVATION</b> .....	58
<b>3.4.9 PRONUNCIATION</b> .....	60
<b>3.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY TEACHING IN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT</b> .....	60
<b>3.5.1 VOCABULARY TEACHING APPROACHES</b> .....	63
<b>3.5.2 VOCABULARY TEACHING METHODS</b> .....	63
<b>3.5.3 VOCABULARY TEACHING TECHNIQUE</b> .....	64
<b>3.6 THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING</b> .....	64
<b>3.7 VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES</b> .....	67
<b>3.7.1 EXPLICIT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION</b> .....	68
<b>3.7.1.1 WORD CATEGORISATION</b> .....	69
<b>3.7.1.2 TEACHING VOCABULARY WITH FOCUS ON PRE-PLANNED WORDS</b> .....	70
<b>3.7.1.3 TRANSLATING UNFAMILIAR WORDS INTO LEARNERS' FIRST LANGUAGE</b> ..	72
<b>3.7.1.4 PAYING SPECIAL ATTENTION TO VOCABULARY</b> .....	74
<b>3.7.1.5 INCULCATING INDEPENDENT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES</b> .....	75
<b>3.7.1.6 ENCOURAGING INDEPENDENT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION</b> .....	76
<b>3.7.1.7 CREATING WORD ASSOCIATION</b> .....	78
<b>3.7.1.8 ANALYSIS OF WORDS STRUCTURES</b> .....	80
<b>3.7.1.9 TEACHING CONTEXT USE AS AN EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY BUILDING STRATEGY</b> .....	81
<b>3.7.1.10 TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH ROLE-MODELLING</b> .....	83
<b>3.7.1.11 MAKING VOCABULARY TEACHING A FREQUENT PRACTICE</b> .....	86
<b>3.8 VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS</b> .....	87
<b>3.8.1 TECHNOLOGY, VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING</b> .....	89
<b>3.8.2 TEACHING EFFECTIVE USE A DICTIONARY</b> .....	91



<b>3.8.3 USE OF PICTURES AND REAL OBJECTS</b> .....	93
<b>3.9 VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES</b> .....	93
<b>3.9.1 TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH READING OF TEXTS</b> .....	95
<b>3.9.2 EXPERIENCE MULTIPLE VOCABULARY RETRIEVAL OPPORTUNITIES</b> .....	95
<b>3.9.3 DEVELOPING WORD LEARNING INTEREST THROUGH GAMES</b> .....	96
<b>3.10 CONCLUSION</b> .....	98
<b>CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	99
<b>4.1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....	99
<b>4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM</b> .....	99
<b>4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	101
<b>4.3.1 QUANTITATIVE METHOD</b> .....	102
<b>4.3.2 QUALITATIVE METHOD</b> .....	103
<b>4.4 PRAGMATISM AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....	103
<b>4.5 RESEARCH SETTING</b> .....	106
<b>4.6 STUDY POPULATION</b> .....	106
<b>4.7 SAMPLING AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES</b> .....	107
<b>4.8 DATA COLLECTION</b> .....	109
<b>4.8.1 QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION</b> .....	109
<b>4.8.1.1 INSTRUMENTATION</b> .....	111
<b>A) QUESTIONNAIRES</b> .....	111
<b>a) CONSTRUCTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES</b> .....	111
<b>b) DISTRIBUTION AND COLLECTIONS OF QUESTIONNAIRES</b> .....	113
<b>B) OBSERVATION</b> .....	114
<b>a) CONSTRUCTION OF OBSERVATION CHECKLIST</b> .....	114
<b>b) PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN COLLECTING OBSERVATION DATA</b> .....	115
<b>4.8.2 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION</b> .....	116
<b>4.8.2.1 INSTRUMENTATION</b> .....	116
<b>A) STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS</b> .....	116
<b>a) INTERVIEWS GUIDELINES</b> .....	117
<b>b) PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN COLLECTING INTERVIEWS DATA</b> .....	117
<b>4.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH</b> .....	118
<b>4.9.1 RELIABILITY</b> .....	119
<b>4.9.2 VALIDITY</b> .....	119
<b>4.9.3 OBJECTIVITY AND NEUTRALITY</b> .....	120
<b>4.9.4 CREDIBILITY</b> .....	120
<b>4.10 PILOT TESTING</b> .....	120

<b>4.11 RETURN RATE</b> .....	121
<b>4.12 DATA ANALYSIS</b> .....	121
<b>4.12.1 ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA</b> .....	122
<b>4.12.2 ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA</b> .....	123
<b>4.12.2.1 FAMILIARISING ONESELF WITH ONE’S DATA</b> .....	124
<b>4.12.2.2 DATA CODING</b> .....	124
<b>4.12.2.3 DEVELOPMENT OF THEMES</b> .....	125
<b>4.12.2.4 REVIEWING THEMES</b> .....	126
<b>4.12.2.5 DEFINING AND NAMING OF THEMES</b> .....	126
<b>4.12.2.6 REPORT WRITING</b> .....	127
<b>4.13 DATA TRIANGULATION</b> .....	127
<b>4.14 ETHICAL CLEARANCE</b> .....	128
<b>4.14.1 INFORMED CONSENT</b> .....	129
<b>4.14.2 AVOIDANCE OF HARM</b> .....	130
<b>4.14.3 VIOLATION OF PRIVACY, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY</b> .....	130
<b>4.15 CONCLUSION</b> .....	131
<b>CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION</b> .....	132
<b>5.1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....	132
<b>5.2. PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA</b> .....	132
<b>SECTION A</b> .....	133
<b>5.2.1 PARTICIPANTS’ DEMOGRAPHIC, QUALIFICATION AND EXPERIENCE INFORMATION</b> .....	133
<b>5.2.2 ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS AND TEACHING EXPERIENCES</b> .....	135
<b>5.2.3 PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AND ENGLISH FAL TEACHING EXPERIENCES</b> .....	136
<b>5.2.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS ADDRESSED</b> .....	137
<b>5.2.4.1 SUB-QUESTION ONE: TO WHAT EXTENT ARE GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS AWARE OF THE CAPS EXPECTATIONS REGARDING VOCABULARY TEACHING?</b> .....	138
<b>5.2.4.2 SUB-QUESTION TWO: WHAT ARE THE TEACHING STRATEGIES GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS USE TO TEACH VOCABULARY?</b> .....	141
<b>SECTION B</b> .....	142
<b>PRE-TEACHING OF NEW WORDS</b> .....	142
<b>CODE-SWITCHING</b> .....	144
<b>USE OF NEW WORDS IN SENTENCES</b> .....	146
<b>NEW WORDS AND GRAMMAR TEACHING</b> .....	147
<b>DRAWING LEARNERS’ ATTENTION TO SPECIFIC WORDS</b> .....	148

<b>5.2.4.3 SUB-QUESTION THREE: HOW DO GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS USE APPROPRIATE RESOURCES WHEN TEACHING VOCABULARY?</b> .....	151
<b>USE OF DIFFERENT TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES</b> .....	151
<b>USE OF PICTURES AND REAL OBJECTS WHEN TEACHING VOCABULARY</b> .....	152
<b>5.2.4.4 SUB-QUESTION FOUR: WHICH ACTIVITIES DO GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS USE TO TEACH VOCABULARY?</b> .....	155
<b>LEARNERS READ A TEXT</b> .....	155
<b>LEARNERS CONSTRUCT THEIR OWN SENTENCES FROM IDENTIFIED WORDS</b> .....	157
<b>LEARNERS ENGAGE IN SOCIAL DISCUSSION IN THE CLASSROOM</b> .....	159
<b>TEACHERS USE GAMES TO TEACH VOCABULARY</b> .....	160
<b>SECTION C: HAVE THESE TEACHERS MASTERED THE VOCABULARY PRESCRIBED FOR TEACHING IN GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL?</b> .....	164
<b>TEACHERS' MASTERY OF ENGLISH SYNONYMS</b> .....	165
<b>TEACHERS' MASTERY OF ENGLISH ANTONYMS</b> .....	168
<b>TEACHERS' MASTERY OF ENGLISH SENTENCES</b> .....	171
<b>SECTION D: TEACHING OBSERVATION</b> .....	174
<b>5.2.5 PRESENTATION OF DATA COLLECTED THROUGH OBSERVATION</b> .....	174
<b>5.2.5.1 GRADE 10 TEACHERS OF ENGLISH'S UNDERSTANDING OF THE CAPS VOCABULARY REQUIREMENTS OF LEARNERS</b> .....	176
<b>5.2.5.2 ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES</b> .....	177
<b>THE TEACHER PICKS OUT UNFAMILIAR WORDS FROM READING TEXT AND WRITE DOWN THEIR DEFINITIONS ON THE BOARD</b> .....	177
<b>TEACHER'S USE OF CODE-SWITCHING WHEN TEACHING VOCABULARY</b> .....	179
<b>TEACHER'S USE OF VOCABULARY IN SENTENCES</b> .....	180
<b>TEACHER'S EXPLANATION OF MEANINGS OF WORDS USING SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS</b> .....	181
<b>WORKING OUT MEANINGS OF WORDS BY BREAKING THEM DOWN INTO DIFFERENT COMPONENTS</b> .....	182
<b>5.2.5.3 USE OF RESOURCES IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING LESSONS</b> .....	184
<b>THE TEACHER DRAWS VOCABULARY TEACHING WORDS FROM BOOKS, NEWSPAPERS AND PREVIOUS QUESTION PAPERS</b> .....	184
<b>REFERRING LEARNERS TO THE ENGLISH DICTIONARY TO SEARCH FOR DIFFICULT WORDS</b> .....	185
<b>USE OF PICTURES AND REAL OBJECTS WHILE TEACHING VOCABULARY IN THE CLASSROOM</b> .....	186
<b>USING TECHNOLOGY WHILE TEACHING VOCABULARY IN THE CLASSROOM</b> .....	187
<b>5.2.5.4 ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES</b> .....	188
<b>LEARNERS READ TEXTS ALOUD IN THE CLASS</b> .....	188

<b>CONSTRUCTING SENTENCES USING THE IDENTIFIED WORDS FROM THE READING TEXT .....</b>	<b>189</b>
<b>LEARNERS ENGAGE IN SOCIAL DISCUSSIONS IN THE CLASSROOM .....</b>	<b>191</b>
<b>USING GAMES TO TEACH VOCABULARY IN THE CLASSROOM .....</b>	<b>192</b>
<b>SECTION E: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS.....</b>	<b>193</b>
<b>5.3 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....</b>	<b>195</b>
<b>5.3.1 THEME 1: AWARENESS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY .....</b>	<b>195</b>
<b>5.3.2 THEME 2: KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY TEACHING .....</b>	<b>196</b>
<b>5.3.3 THEME 3: VOCABULARY TEACHING FREQUENCY.....</b>	<b>198</b>
<b>5.3.4 THEME 4: STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING.....</b>	<b>199</b>
<b>5.3.5 THEME 5: CHALLENGES RELATED TO EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING .....</b>	<b>201</b>
<b>5.3.6 THEME 6: INTERVENTIONS TO VOCABULARY TEACHING CHALLENGES .....</b>	<b>204</b>
<b>5.3.7 THEME 7: VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT MONITORING MECHANISMS.....</b>	<b>206</b>
<b>5.4 CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>208</b>
<b>CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS... 209</b>	
<b>6.1 INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>209</b>
<b>6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY .....</b>	<b>209</b>
<b>6.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS REVISITED.....</b>	<b>212</b>
<b>6.4 RESEARCH FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>212</b>
<b>6.4.1 TEACHERS' AWARENESS OF THEIR PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATIONS REGARDING VOCABULARY TEACHING .....</b>	<b>212</b>
<b>6.4.2 TEACHERS' VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES.....</b>	<b>214</b>
<b>6.4.3 TEACHERS' USE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES.....</b>	<b>215</b>
<b>6.4.4 TEACHERS' USE OF EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING ACTIVITIES .....</b>	<b>216</b>
<b>6.4.5 VOCABULARY TEACHING CHALLENGES AND SUBSEQUENT INTERVENTION .....</b>	<b>217</b>
<b>6.5 CONCLUSIONS .....</b>	<b>218</b>
<b>6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY .....</b>	<b>219</b>
<b>6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>220</b>
<b>6.7.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES.....</b>	<b>220</b>
<b>6.7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHER IMPROVEMENT .....</b>	<b>222</b>
<b>6.7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....</b>	<b>222</b>
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>223</b>
<b>ANNEXRUE A: QUESTIONNAIRE .....</b>	<b>283</b>

<b>ANNEXURE B: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST.....</b>	<b>289</b>
<b>ANNEXURE C: STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS QUESTIONS.....</b>	<b>292</b>
<b>ANNEXURE D: ETHICS CLEARANCE LETTER .....</b>	<b>293</b>
<b>ANNEXURE E: PERMISSION APPLICATION LETTER .....</b>	<b>294</b>
<b>ANNEXURE F: PERMISSION APPROVAL LETTER .....</b>	<b>300</b>
<b>ANNEXURE G: CONSENT FORM .....</b>	<b>301</b>
<b>ANNEXURE H: SUMMARY OF TRANSCRIPTIONS.....</b>	<b>302</b>
<b>ANNEXURE I: CERTIFICATE OF EDITING .....</b>	<b>313</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2: Demographics .....	133
Table 3: Academic Qualification .....	135
Table 4: Professional Qualification .....	136
Table 5: Vocabulary teaching activities .....	155
Table 6: Teachers' mastery of English synonyms .....	165
Table 7: Teachers' mastery of English antonyms.....	168
Table 8: Teachers' mastery of English sentences.....	171
Table 9: Understanding of CAPS vocabulary teaching requirements.....	176
Table 10: Definitions of new words .....	177
Table 11: Code-switching.....	179
Table 12: Use of new words in sentences.....	180
Table 13: Use of synonyms and antonyms in explaining meanings of words.....	181
Table 14: Breaking of words into different components.....	182
Table 15: Drawing new words from books, newspapers and magazines .....	184
Table 16: Use of English dictionary for vocabulary teaching .....	185
Table 17: Use of pictures and other real objects for vocabulary teaching .....	186
Table 18: Use of technology for vocabulary teaching.....	187
Table 19: Learners read texts aloud in class.....	188
Table 20: Learners construct sentences using words identified from reading texts	189
Table 21: Learners engage in discussions in the classroom .....	191
Table 22: Teachers use games to teach vocabulary .....	192
Table 23: Themes developed from the interview.....	194
Table 24: Research questions and matching themes .....	194

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Research setting map .....	106
Figure 2: Expected English teaching practices.....	139
Figure 3: Vocabulary teaching strategies .....	142
Figure 4: Vocabulary teaching and learning materials.....	151

## **ANNEXURES**

ANNEXURE A: Questionnaire

ANNEXURE B: Observation checklist

ANNEXURE C: Structured interviews questions

ANNEXURE D: Ethics clearance

ANNEXURE E: Application for Permission

ANNEXURE F: Approval letter

ANNEXURE G: Consent form

ANNEXURE I: Certificate of editing



## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

4IR	4 <sup>th</sup> Industrial Revolution
CA	Communicative Approach
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
DM	Direct Method
EFL	English First Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
FAL	First Additional Language
FET	Further Education and Training
GMT	Grammar Translation Method
IT	Information Technology
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MKO	More Knowledgeable Other
MMR	Mixed Methods Research
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
TPR	Total Physical Response
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Vocabulary is a critical component of language without which messages flounder in their intended meanings (Wilkins, 1972). Therefore, in countries where English is either a foreign or Second Language (L1), vocabulary teaching is an important consideration that must be treated with the utmost seriousness in order to garner the highest proficiency in articulating messages (Schmitt & Carter, 2000). Statistics show that there is a growing number of people worldwide seeking to learn the English language because there is overwhelming evidence that learning English makes good sense and proficiency in the language is a sought-after skill (StatsSA, 2003). Schmitt (2000) declares that the level of one's vocabulary measures the depth of one's knowledge of a language and its use. Lal Banga and Suri (2015) also view language as a complex system that functions because of words, structures, sound, etc. as its important elements; a process that involves grammar in general and specifically, its vocabulary. Knowing any language entails the ability to effectively apply these integrated skills, paramount of which is vocabulary, in all contexts (Cook, 2013).

Vocabulary is generally defined as the knowledge of words and word meanings (National Reading Technical Assistance Centre, 2010). Shanker and Cockrum (2010) also define vocabulary as the ability to go from the printed form of a word to its meanings. Vocabulary is a word within a language that is known to a person, which also develops with age and can be used by the person or understood when used (TutorVista, 2017). Allen (1993) explains that vocabulary is more than just the meaning of words in a dictionary but embraces the full understanding of the word as often required by the native speaker of the language. The deployment of words in one's repertoire demands that the user be aware of the context of use as some words certainly relate to the customs and attitudes of the native speakers of a language.

Texas Centre for Reading and Language Arts, (2002) also argues that knowing a word is not only knowing its definition but being able to use that word in speech and writing, entailing therefore the understanding of a text in which the word appears. In other words, there is no effective use of a language without the knowledge of its words (vocabulary) and how they function. In illustrating this point further, Allen (1993) uses

the word 'wall' which is common in every language. Many users of the word 'wall' perceive it as meaning 'protection of property' but the same word means 'unfriendliness' to most English-speaking communities. It could therefore be argued that vocabulary is the bedrock of semantics, suggesting in the same process that the correct usage and understanding of language becomes a desirable imperative.

Pikulski and Templeton (2004) debate that the greatest tools that can ever be given to learners for succeeding, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary and the skills for using those words. Kamil, Borman, Dole, Kral, Salinger, and Torgesen (2008) add that the knowledge of vocabulary, be it oral or written, has a critical positive bearing on the academic success of a child. Moore, Bradley, & Simpson, (2020) also admit that the amount of words that a child knows and whose meanings they understand has a direct bearing on the child's ability to comprehend and use words appropriately during the application of the language skills. Richardson (2009) also asserts that seeing, hearing and using vocabulary in different ways help learners in developing a deep understanding of words.

Vocabulary learning has been identified as an essential part of foreign language learning as the learning of new words is emphasised, whether in books or classroom interactions (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). Schmitt (2008) further explains that vocabulary learning is indispensable because it is a gauge of language learning, development and proficiency. Saengpakdeejit (2014) explains that vocabulary teaching plays an important role in language learning, especially in the context where English is taught as a foreign language. Koncara (2009) reports that in teaching English, vocabulary is one of the most important language skills besides the other language skills such as reading, listening and speaking because the vocabulary repertoire affects the appropriateness of the learner's written language.

Nation (2001) acknowledges that it is the knowledge of stored vocabulary, which facilitates efficient language use, and, conversely, the more one uses a language the more robust is one's vocabulary in that language. Wiser (2013) further stresses that vocabulary development helps learners learn the meanings of new words and concepts in various contexts and across all academic areas. On the other hand, Wiser (2013) concedes that limited vocabulary knowledge can negatively exert an impact on

the development of a learner's reading comprehension skills. Mohammed and Amponsah's (2018) study conducted in Ghana also reported that low vocabulary discourages learners from reading, and thus affects their scale of picking up their vocabulary level. It could therefore be argued that the learners' academic performance, especially in English, is dependent on their mastery of the English language in general and vocabulary specifically. As such, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (2011) views language as a tool for thought and communication and aims to instil such in all the learners since it is what enables the learners to rationalise their arguments and express such logically and convincingly.

The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) aims to produce learners who can collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information; communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/ or language skills in various modes (CAPS, 2011:5). The CAPS (2011) stresses the need to develop vocabulary in the English language and indicates that it is perhaps the single most important skill that enables a person to communicate well in the additional language. CAPS indicates that the FET band is a three-year programme, which starts from Grade 10 until Grade 12. In its overview of the language skills that must be covered in this band, the CAPS document emphasises the correctness of vocabulary and word choice as used in context. This document, which is the educational framework, further stresses that one's depth of vocabulary facilitates efficient language use.

The CAPS document also explains that the language level expected of learners in Grade 10 is that they should be reasonably proficient in the English FAL regarding both interpersonal and cognitive academic language skills. Amongst other requirements that could drive the whole teaching expedition towards that goal, CAPS has listed vocabulary items of language structures and conventions which should be taught in the FET, which include synonyms, figures of speech, idiomatic expressions, neologism, etymology and parts of speech. The two-week teaching plan for each grade starting from Grades 10 – 12 includes vocabulary teaching for all the 36 academic weeks with the time allocation of 45% and 10% shared between Reading and Viewing: Comprehension and Literature; and Language structures and conventions respectively. The teacher's expertise in the subject and the versatile teaching practices enable them to choose the relative language teaching skills and

activities which exert a direct positive bearing on the learners' development of their vocabulary.

The teachers' successful language teaching is dependent on all-encompassing vocabulary teaching planning. Nation (2001) suggests that vocabulary teaching should include all the four aspects of vocabulary learning which are: meaning-focused input – which comes through listening and developed extensive reading of rich vocabulary texts; meaning-focused output – which include productive activities like speaking and writing; language-focused learning – which equips learners with skills of using grammar for continuous independent vocabulary learning; and fluency development – which comes with activities which offer learners practise sessions. The idea is that vocabulary should never be itemised and treated as such but should be contextualised.

Becker (1977) explains that it is important to think about vocabulary teaching which when developed extends to deep processing, encouraging active learning, linking new words to the background, giving contextual information, providing a useful vocabulary-learning strategy, and enhancing learners' interest and motivation to learn new words. Allen (1993) states that what teachers want are useful ideas, suggestions, demonstrations, and examples of teaching techniques that are consistent with established theoretical principles and that others in the teaching profession have found to be expedient, practical, and relevant to real-life circumstances in which most teachers work. Koncara (2009) postulates that the traditional way of teaching vocabulary above elementary levels has mostly been incidental and limited to presenting new items as they appeared in reading or sometimes listening texts. Huyen and Nga (2003) also report that this uninteresting way of teaching vocabulary makes learners find it boring and equate it to the unending teacher's explanations of meanings and definitions, pronunciation, spelling and grammatical functions, the same point that Asyiah's (2017) study on Indonesia students upholds. The teachers' expertise is the most critical resource on which effectual teaching activities, be it of vocabulary, are built.

It is this context-relatedness of the suitability of words, which makes vocabulary teaching and learning, pose a serious challenge to both the teachers and learners

(Salih, 2015). A learner would see a word in a context, but he/she would be expected to determine and use another word from the same semantic field which should be used in a different context. It is on this background that the teaching of vocabulary in countries like Taiwan and Saudi Arabia has become the latest important topic for research (Chee, Yahaya, Ibrahim, & Hasan, 2017; Ishtiaq, Ali, & Salem, 2017; Shahbaz & Khan, 2017; Taj, Ali, Sipra, & Ahmad, 2017). Richards (2015) explains that the teachers' language proficiency should include: 'providing good language models', 'maintaining use of the English language in the classroom', 'giving explanations and instructions in English', 'providing examples of words and grammatical items', 'using and adapting authentic English-language resources in teaching,' 'monitoring one's own speech and writing for accuracy', 'giving correct feedback on learner language use,' providing input at an appropriate level of difficulty, and 'engaging in improvisational teaching.'

Although there cannot be any person who knows all the words in a language, teachers' English language proficiency remains crucial and critical in the development of the language of the learners in the classroom (Elder, 2001; Tsang, 2017). Teachers' language proficiency does not only define their expertise in the language and teaching thereof, but it is also central to the learning of the language by the learners (Andrew, 2008; Richards, 2015). Higher language proficiency is instrumental in the effective learning of the target language, especially with the provision of both the extensive and intensive language input for the learners (Vygostky, 1978; Krashen, 1985; Ellis, 2005; Kim & Elder, 2008). A study conducted by Kusumawardhani (2017) in Indonesia attests to the concept and debates that teacher training is the backbone on which quality teaching is realised.

On the other hand, Barnard (2010) is critical about the quality of English education for most African language learners on the basis that their teachers' educational and social background as L2 speakers of the language and claims that it should be something that puts limits on their vocabulary and that of their learners. A body of studies also found that some English language teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa suffer effective language deficiency due to a lack of proper training teaching in English teaching (Moussu & Llorca, 2008). It is on this ground that Parupalli's (2019) study conducted

in Saudi Arabia stresses that intensive, even if it is a short-term in-service training of teachers, has far-reaching positive results in the improvement of their quality of teaching in both subject knowledge and pedagogical skills. Other than the limitations and paucity in teachers' training, Songbatumis (2017) points at their inadequate mastery and application of effective teaching methods, their aversion and inadequate exposure to IT, and lack of professional development. Even though, the inadequacy is not something that can be blamed on the non-nativeness of the teachers of the English language since research reviews refute the perception that non-native speakers of English lack the necessary expertise to teach quality English as compared to native speakers (Merino, 1997; Tosuncuoglu, 2017).

Teachers with low language proficiency suffer anxiety when they teach the language (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004); which in turn demoralises them. Compromised language proficiency results in teachers' hesitation in the identification and correction of the learners' language errors (Farrell & Richards, 2007); failure of which would lead to persistent incorrect language use (Walsh, 2002); failure to engage learners in meaningful language usage, little or no clarification of points, no confirmation of correct language usage by learners, lack of confidence by the teacher (Cullen, 2002; Renandya & Van Cahn, 2017)'s American study confirm are among a litany of challenges that affect the acquisition and mastery of appropriate vocabulary amongst learners of a second language such as English.

Venter (2012) also complains about the inadequate knowledge of the teachers and claims that this perpetuates the learners' poor vocabulary. Additionally, in the study about conceptual teaching by Grade 7 non-mother language English teachers Lambani (2014) found that most teachers have just barely mastered the language usage concepts they should teach and therefore experienced difficulties in the concepts relating to literature, which is one resource for the vocabulary teaching. Studies report that a majority of EFL teachers experience lack adequate levels of language proficiency and consequently experience difficulties when teaching the English language in their professional careers (McGee & Phelan, 2004; Al-Mekhlafi's, 2007). Kömür (2010) reports that learner teachers who participated in their research admitted that they could not teach certain language aspects also because of a lack of language proficiency. Evue, (2013) and Ibrahim, Shafaatu, & Yabo's (2016) Nigerian

studies also add to the list of teachers whose limited experience affect their vocabulary teaching delivery.

Navsaria, Pascoe and Khathard's (2011) study shows that Grade 6 learners were not given enough reading and writing opportunities in the classroom. In this study on vocabulary teaching problems conducted in Ethiopia, Oljira (2017) found that little attention was given to the teaching of vocabulary; teachers stick to less effective vocabulary teaching strategies; explanation of difficult words was in L1; teachers displayed inept skills in developing vocabulary development skills in learners. Pretorius (2016) argues that regardless of what could be regarded as the strong points of one approach against the weaknesses of the other, they both remain effective for effective vocabulary teaching.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The importance of vocabulary in language learning and usage is indispensable, and so is its teaching. In the South African context where the first interaction with the English language for most learners is in the classroom, the expertise of the teachers of the language, especially ownership of the vocabulary in this language, plays a major role in language learning and development of the learners. Despite the veracity of this assertion, the teaching of this critical language aspect has not been at its best. The examination results, Grade 12 annual diagnostic reports over the past five years all point to the lack of vocabulary as the reason behind the poor results in English FAL (Department of Education, 2016).

The successful teaching of vocabulary is a multifaceted task, which rests on a number of factors such as understanding the expectations as per the subject framework, knowledge and appropriate application of teaching strategies, consideration and use of suitable resources and activities, and the skills to address any vocabulary teaching challenges that might arise during the process.

In light of this background, this study explores whether Grade 10 English FAL teachers in Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe District have the necessary competencies to teach English language vocabulary effectually, systematically and competently.



Based on the complexity of the problem investigated, the researcher used a parallel-convergent research methodology of the pragmatism research paradigm, coupled with Shulman's Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Vygotsky's Sociocultural theories. The former focuses on the teachers' understanding and transformation of knowledge of the subject matter for the benefit of learners, with the latter being concerned with social interaction as a strategy for the facilitation of language learning.

### **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of this study is to determine the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers of Thohoyandou cluster in Vhembe East District.

### **1.4 STUDY OBJECTIVES**

The study stands to:

- a) establish the extent to which Grade 10 English FAL teachers are aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching;
- b) observe the teaching strategies Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary;
- c) evaluate the resources which Grade 10 English FAL teachers use when teaching vocabulary;
- d) assess the activities Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary;
- e) investigate whether Grade 10 English FAL teachers have the necessary mastery of vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL;
- f) recommend additional vocabulary teaching strategies which could be applied for effective vocabulary teaching by Grade 10 English FAL teachers.

### **1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Based on the observation of recurrent and parlous Grade 12 English FAL results with the blame being apportioned to lack of vocabulary, the problem statement was translated into a research question. In order to respond to the complex question investigated here, the researcher designed questions related to the main one as indicated below:

#### **1.5.1 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION**

This study strives to answer the following research question:

What are the vocabulary teaching competencies teachers used in Grade 10 English First Additional Language of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe District?

### **1.5.2 RESEARCH SUB-QUESTIONS**

In its quest to answer this main question, the study also strove to respond to the following sub-questions:

- a) To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching?
- b) What are the teaching strategies Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?
- c) How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate resources when teaching vocabulary?
- d) Which activities do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?
- e) Have these teachers mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL?
- f) What are the challenges Grade 10 English FAL teachers encounter when teaching vocabulary and how do they surmount those?

### **1.6 DELIMITATIONS**

The study units of this research were only the Grade 10 teachers of English FAL in Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe District. Even though there were other teachers of English FAL in other grades and clusters in the District, the study focused on those ones only, also because of its geographical location and that it is mostly populated by L2 speakers of the language.

### **1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS**

What follows hereunder are the definitions of some important concepts in the study. Their explanation is meant to contextualise the vocabulary learning and teaching concept.

### **1.7.1 ACQUISITION**

The process of learning a language (Aarts, Chalker, & Weiner, 2014). Richards and Schimdt (2013) define acquisition as the learning and development of a person's language whereas the Concise Oxford Companion to the English Language (1998) explains communication as a term in linguistics for the process in which a child, in the course of normal development, learns a first language (or often two or more languages).

### **1.7.2 COMPETENCE**

A cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge, and skills that enable a person to act effectively in a job or situation (Coseriu, E. (1985). According to the *Aspects of the theory of syntax*, competence is the capacity an individual displays when speaking the language that the person has learnt as second or foreign language, (Chomsky, 1965)

### **1.7.3 PROFICIENCY**

The degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak or understand language (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). It is defined as having expertise or being very skilled or knowledgeable in a certain subject (Schempp, Manross, Tan. & Fincher, 1998).

### **1.7.4 COMMUNICATION**

Grimsley (2018) and Richards & Schmidt (2013) define communication as sending and receiving information between two or more people which could be done orally, in a written form or using body language. Merriam-Webster (2018) also defines communication as a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behaviour.

### **1.7.5 LEARNING**

A change in human disposition or capability that persists over a period and is not simply ascribable to process growth (Gagne, 1985). Bingham and Conner (2011) define learning as a process of taking in information that when internalised and mixed with what we have experienced changes what we know and builds on what we do. Clark and Mayer (2011) explain learning as a process which involves strengthening correct responses and weakening incorrect responses, adding new information to your memory and making sense of the presented material by attending to information, mentally reorganising it, and connecting it with what you already know. Knowles, Holton and Swanson (2011) define as a process of gaining knowledge and expertise.

### **1.7.6 TEACHING**

Teaching is an intimate contact between a mature personality and a less mature one which is designed to develop the education of the latter (Dewey, 1986). Gage (1964) defines teaching as a form of interpersonal influence which is aimed at changing the behaviour potential of another person.

## **1.8 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The issue of language learning has been the subject of extensive and intensive studies research for some time (Brown, 1997; Richards & Rodgers, 2000). Many research projects conducted on this subject have been expanded and sanctioned while others have been the subject of criticism (Nagi, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Schmitt, 2000; Nation, 2001). Scholars and researchers in language have carried out diverse studies on linguistic phenomena, linguistic rules and individual language users to explain learning and how people master languages. Amongst others, two such theories have been pedastalled in Shulman's Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and Vygotsky's Sociocultural theories and these two are used to frame this study on vocabulary teaching as part of the process towards language mastery.

These theories were chosen on the basis of their relevance to the topic under investigation and their ability to influence effective vocabulary teaching and learning. The PCK addresses an ideal English vocabulary teacher in terms of his/her subject-

content and pedagogical knowledge, and Vygotsky focuses on the appropriateness of the teaching strategies and materials which could yield the desired and skilful knowledge mastery of the English language.

## **1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This is a parallel-convergent design study, which explores the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers. The study used both the interactive and non-interactive modes of enquiry along the mixed-method routes, which include questionnaires, observations, and interviews. The design was influenced by the phenomenon of the relationship between the teachers' competencies and the academic results of the learners.

The study implemented a mixed methods approach. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define a mixed-methods approach as one where the researcher combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches and concepts into a single study. Sukamolson (2007) adds that MMR is a flexible approach determined by what we want to find out rather than by any predetermined epistemological position, which could be from either of the methodological components. Apart from this general level of consideration of what a mixed-methods approach is, Creswell and Creswell (2017) also contemplate its procedural level and usefulness in providing an opportunity for a more complete understanding of research problems, questions. MMR allows for comparing different perspectives drawn from quantitative and qualitative data and explaining quantitative results through qualitative follow-up data collection and analysis.

Amongst others, mixed methods are advantageous to either of the methods for a number of reasons. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) advocate that mixed methods research does not replace either the two approaches but rather draws from the strengths and minimises the weaknesses of each on its own in single research studies and across studies. It increases the comprehensiveness of the overall findings by showing how qualitative and quantitative data provide explanations for statistical data; it expands the dimensions of the research topic when the quantitative responses are investigated more broadly during interviews; it increases the methodological rigour

when findings in both phases could be checked for consistency, and it increases the generalisation of the results (Chow, Quine & Li, 2010, Hughes, 2016, & UK Essays, 2017). The researcher applied the convergent approach where each of the methods and its qualifying protocols was applied separately so that the results of each could be compared to establish if they confirm or disconfirm each other.

### **1.9.1 QUANTITATIVE METHOD**

Quantitative research methods use numbers in order to answer questions on relationships within measurable variables with an intention to explain, predict and control phenomena (Leedy, 1993). This is a type of educational research in which the researcher decides what to study; asks specific narrow questions; collects quantifiable data from participants; analyses these numbers using statistics; and conducts the inquiry in an unbiased, objective manner (Fisher, 2003).

According to Sukamolson (2007) quantitative methodology can be used with descriptive research: when we want to answer quantitative questions or when we want quantitative answers, when studying numerical changes, when quantifying qualitative results or opinions, attitudes, and behaviour; and also with inferential research when we want to explain some phenomena (e.g., what factors predict the general English proficiency, what factors relate to changes in learner achievement in English over time) and when we want to test hypotheses. Evered and Louis (1981) state that quantitative research is an inquiry from the outside (positivism) which tests hypotheses derived before the actual re-searching of the problem. The current study included the quantitative approach because, after statistical analysis of the results, a comprehensive answer is reached, and the results are legitimately discussed and generalised.

The researcher travelled to the sampled schools and administered a questionnaire to the Grade 10 teachers of English FAL. The questionnaire was divided into two sections; in the first section, candidates were required to provide biographical information while in the second section they responded to questions on vocabulary in the form of multiple-choice and matching question formats. The completed questionnaires were collected as soon as the participants had finished working on

them and then these were assessed by a statistician for further administration before final analysis by the researcher.

The researcher also accompanied sampled Grade 10 English FAL teachers to class and observed how they taught vocabulary from a reading-for-comprehension text. They were rated according to a predetermined checklist which captured the different vocabulary teaching techniques the teachers used in their classes.

### **1.9.2 QUALITATIVE METHOD**

Qualitative research seeks to explicate and understand some aspects of social life, and in general, the approach generates words, rather than numbers, as data for analysis (Patton & Cochran, 2002). It is research which is grounded on a philosophical position which is broadly interpretivist in the sense that it is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced, produced or constituted. Its data collection methods are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which data are produced (rather than rigidly standardised or structured, or entirely abstracted from real-life contexts). It is based on methods of analysis, explanation and argument building which involve understanding the complexity of detail and context. It is characteristically exploratory, fluid and flexible, data-driven and context-sensitive (Mason, 2002). Qualitative research probes into responses or observations as needed and seeks to offer more detailed descriptions and explanations of experiences, behaviour and beliefs (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In this study the researcher interviewed the sampled teachers on vocabulary-teaching-related questions to confirm if they could justify and defend the techniques they had used while teaching.

### **1.10 RESEARCH SETTING**

The research was conducted in schools in Vhembe District where learners are L2 speakers of English. Vhembe is one of the five districts of Limpopo Province and this province generally takes position one in the Grade 12 results. It is predominantly rural and has very few L1 speakers of English such that it is seldom to encounter an L1 speaker in the entire area. The teaching of English FAL in these schools is also not manned by native speakers of English. This essentially means that English FAL is

taught by teachers who are not native speakers of the language and almost all teachers therefore only use the language when they teach it in the classrooms.

### **1.11 STUDY POPULATION**

The study was conducted in the Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe District, Limpopo. The study units comprised all the 50 Grade 10 English FAL teachers in the 36 secondary schools in this cluster. None of these teachers is a native speaker of English. Correspondingly, they hardly speak the language other than when they teach it in class because you could rarely come across an English-speaking person in this area.

### **1.12 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

The study adopted a purposive sampling approach in order to engage participants with the relevant knowledge of the research question for the credibility of the results. Different numbers of participants were considered for the different methodologies. The quantitative sample size included all the 50 teachers of English FAL in Grade 10 in the Thohoyandou cluster and those observed were 20% which is 10 teachers; whereas the qualitative sample took 20% (which is again 10 teachers) of the population for structured interviews. This cluster boasts impressive Grade 12 results, explaining the District's position one in the Province over the past five years. Since the study was inaugurated because of the worrisome results in Grade 12 English FAL nationally, this academic achievement could be attributed to some laudable mastery and usage of the English language by the teachers in general. The choice of this location was influenced by the proximity of the cluster to the researcher. The sample is, among others, influenced by considerations of saving time, cutting costs and working with a manageable group of participants.

### **1.13 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

The study used triangulation through the interactive and non-interactive modes of enquiry which included questionnaires, observations, and structured interviews. All these instruments were used at different times and so were their analyses. At the time when all had been analysed, results were converged for more judicious interpretation.



The reason for the three approaches was to guard against the bias and/or shortcomings of any one of the methods and helped in the validation of the results of the study.

#### **1.14 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

Validity and reliability are two aspects that apply more to quantitative research. Validity is when the research instrument tests what it is intended to test and nothing else. The researcher administered the questionnaires to participants displaying the same characteristics and checked if the instrument yielded the expected results. On reliability, is established when the test gives the same results when it is applied to the same candidates but at different times and circumstances. The researcher first administered a pre-test to 6 teachers for quantitative and 4 teachers for qualitative instruments. Both these groups were teachers outside the population of the research. It was one way of guaranteeing the reliability of the instrument and/or results.

#### **1.15 DATA COLLECTION**

Data was collected through questionnaires and an observation checklist for the quantitative section. The questionnaires consisted of several closed items, in addition to some multiple-choice responses. In all these instances, the participants were asked to provide the most appropriate responses based on the questions. The researcher again observed the sampled teachers while teaching vocabulary-rich texts with a specific focus on how they taught vocabulary constructs. On the qualitative part of the study, the researcher interviewed the 10 sampled participants individually on vocabulary teaching-related questions.

#### **1.16 DATA ANALYSIS**

A sequential quantitative-qualitative data analysis model was used. Questionnaires were analysed with the assistance of a statistician using the latest version of the SPSS. The information was broken down into graphs, charts and tables for better and easy analysis. The researcher collected both the observation and interviews quantitative and qualitative data respectively. Observations were conducted directly from the field with the teachers teaching while interviews were conducted after the lessons.

Interview questions were developed around the importance of vocabulary teaching, how the subject is taught, the challenges that teachers experience with the subject and how such are addressed. Interview responses were transcribed and categorised according to emergent themes.

## **1.17 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

This research project was conducted within the ambits of the relevant authorities such as the University of Venda's Higher Degree Committee (UHDC), Limpopo Provincial Department of Education, and the schools where the participants were attached. Furthermore, participants were also asked for their consent before they took part in the project.

As it remains the responsibility of the researcher to restrict the research project within the acceptable research ethics, amongst others, the researcher has the charge to respect the integrity of the participants and therefore the researcher should inform the participants about the purpose of the study. Based on this information, the researcher adhered to the following ethical considerations.

### **1.17.1 INFORMED CONSENT**

There was no information related to the research was withheld from the participants. Williamson, Kent, Goodenough, & Ashcroft (2002) explain that all adequate information on the goal of the investigation, the procedures involved in the investigation, the possible advantages, disadvantages and any other harm that may be known and any information about the researcher should be made known to the participants before they decide to engage in the research or not. Throughout the research, participation by the participants was voluntary (Shahnazarian, Hagemann, Aburto & Rose, 2017). Dawson (2009) explains further that anonymity should be guaranteed by the researcher otherwise a contravention could result in the participants' suspicions and thus wrong and misleading responses.

Since this research involved adults, the researcher requested their consent to participate in the project. The research topic, the general aim and the accompanying research objectives, the methodologies and applications thereof, the guaranteed safety throughout the process were thoroughly explained to the participants. Participants were again told that their participation in the project could be terminated at any given time, and that would not be taken as a breach of any contract.

### **1.17.2 AVOIDANCE OF HARM**

Subjects of study should be protected from both physical and emotional harm throughout the research experience and such responsibility lies with the researcher since those have far-reaching consequences for the participants (Yopyop, 2014). de Vos, Strydom, Fouché, & Delpont, (2005) explain that the potential impact of the research which the researcher could foresee should be explained to the participants beforehand so that they should decide out of their own will to take part in the research, or else the researcher should change the nature of the research rather than expose the participants to the faintest possibility of any harm of which he may be aware. In response to the set guidelines on the aspect, the researcher was therefore opened to participants and guaranteed them a safe environment and participation in the research project.

### **1.17.3 VIOLATION OF PRIVACY, ANONYMITY, AND CONFIDENTIALITY**

Research should not expose anything personal about the participants, be it their identity and/ or the shared information, to the world without their approval. In other words, the participants should remain anonymous and there should not be anyway by which the participants and the responses could be matched by any other individual other than the researcher (Babbie, 1990). The researcher committed himself to the strictest confidentiality and did not in any way release and shared the research responses with anybody, groups, or members of groups. All the shared information was solely used for the purposes of this research and nothing else. The research instruments and any other documentations that were used in the research did not reflect the names and any other identities of the participants.

## **1.18 OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS**

The study is divided into six chapters aimed at exploring the competencies of vocabulary teaching of the English FAL Grade 10 teachers in Vhembe District.

Chapter one offers the introduction, outlines the research problem, research aims, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and defines the key operational terms.

Chapter two reviews relevant literature and justifies the theoretical framework on vocabulary acquisition/learning and teaching. It focuses on different approaches to vocabulary acquisition/ learning and teaching available. It discusses the types of vocabulary and their domains in language usage.

Chapter three presents the research methodologies. Detailed explanations justifying these choices and inclusion in relation to the current study and their relevance and applications are proffered. The chapter engages with the different research methodology components and the prescribed major ethical considerations.

Chapter four presents and discusses the findings of the study and each according to the methodology used and the associated instruments.

Chapter five interprets the results based on the theoretical framework and the existing literature on the subject. It is envisioned that the contribution of the study to the body of knowledge emerges from this section.

Chapter six covers a summary of the findings, conclusion, recommendations, and suggestions for future research.

## **1.19 CONCLUSION**

This chapter introduced the background to the study by explaining the importance of vocabulary teaching and learning for the learner. The chapter presented the problem statement, study objectives and research questions, theoretical framework and research methodology, ethical clearance, delimitations, definitions of key concepts

and outline of the chapters. The subsequent chapter gives a full discussion on the theories that inform this study.

## CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the background of the study, problem statement, research objectives and research questions, and a glimpse of the research paradigm, approach, design, sampling procedures, data collection and analysis and measures of trustworthiness; all of which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4 of the study.

This chapter presents Shulman's Pedagogical Content Knowledge Theory and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory as frameworks buttressing the research project. Many scholars and researchers in language have carried out varied studies on how the teaching and learning process could be enabled. Some theories concentrate on linguistic phenomena, linguistic rules, and individual language users as a way of learning and understanding how people learn languages. These theories were chosen to raise awareness amongst teachers of how they could successfully marshal these theories in vocabulary teaching and learning. The PCK discusses an ideal English vocabulary teacher and the significance of content and pedagogical knowledge; Vygotsky is discussed specifically within the ambit of the execution of teaching strategies and materials for vocabulary teaching and learning leading to proficient language mastery. The two theories were adopted in this study as they have an immediate bearing on the teaching of vocabulary; specifically the developmental trajectory of language learning.

Researchers uphold the view that teaching and learning are informed by theories. It is on this background that language teaching and learning have been the subject of extensive and intensive study over time (Brown, 1997; and Richards & Rodgers, 2000). It has been confirmed that language teaching and learning and, vocabulary learning, in particular, is buttressed by educational theories, despite the learner or the teachers' knowledge of it (Lambani, 2014). Krashen (1982) submits that language teaching methodology is influenced by the understanding of language acquisition theories, interest in the results of research, and getting to know what informs productive language teaching practices. Yilmaz (2011) also concurs that learning theories inform effective teaching in that they influence the language teaching methodologies and strategies and the application thereof. Nagi, Herman, & Anderson

(1985); Schmitt (2000); and Nation (2001) attest that many research projects have been conducted on this subject, some of which have been expanded and sanctioned while others have been critiqued.

## **2.2 SHULMAN'S PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE THEORY**

Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) is a concept that was developed by Lee S. Shulman in the 1980s, an American educational psychologist born in 1938. Shulman's (PCK) is concerned with the study of teachers' professional knowledge and knowledge of subject content. The former focuses on the application of professional knowledge in transforming particular subject matter for learner learning by taking into account the possible conceptions and/or misconceptions and learning difficulties; while SCK is the content expertise which goes beyond mere knowledge of the subject or topic into understanding its importance which in turn makes the teacher value it and strive towards its effective teaching.

Grossman (1990) defines Shulman's PCK as a combination of pedagogical knowledge, which is concerned with how teaching is practised; content, which is about what is taught, by the teacher in the teaching and learning process; and learners, which covers the prior knowledge that they bring into the classroom and evaluation of what they are capable of doing with it. Shulman views PCK as the ways teachers understand and express knowledge of the subject in a way that makes it comprehensible to the learners through 'analogies', 'illustrations', 'examples', 'explanations', 'demonstrations', and 'activities' that could facilitate teaching and learning. PCK requires that the teacher of the English language devote special attention to the minute items like parts of speech and vocabulary, something that others would not concentrate on other than message delivery. Shulman's PCK theory (1986) requires teachers to reflect on how they teach, assess if their teaching has been effective or not, determine what works for them and apply that when teaching.

### **2.2.1 COMPONENTS OF SHULMAN'S PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE**

Shulman's PCK is a combination of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. The content knowledge talks to the teachers' expertise in the subject matter as the basis for effective teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2008).

Content knowledge comes with the teachers' qualifications and this knowledge has a direct impact on learner performance. Washburn, Binks-Cantrell, Joshi, Martin-Chang and Arrow (2016) postulate that teacher qualification is a crucial component of content knowledge; that it has a bearing on learners' achievement. Content knowledge is the subject matter that teachers of a specific subject are expected to master before they can teach the subject.

Pedagogical knowledge, on the other hand, covers the teaching approaches (what is considered as effective teaching and learning practices); and how learning occurs in the classroom, which activities facilitate learning and teaching and how to foster the maintenance of classroom discipline and management (Hudson, 2007). Shulman regards pedagogical knowledge as the basis of teachers' understanding of effective teaching and its related dynamics (Shulman, 1987). The teacher's understanding of the curriculum makes it possible for the teacher to reflect on the learners' prior knowledge, which in turn makes the learner's learning not only possible but effective as well (Jones, & Moreland, 2015). The common features of the construct PCK include having a comprehensive understanding of the curriculum's aims and objectives and building one's lessons on those goals (Jones, & Moreland, 2015). Melnick, & Meister, (2008) purports that inexperienced teachers do not possess the necessary requisite experience which enables them to deal with pedagogical issues such as the development and interpretation of lesson planning, motivating the learners, in addition to effective time management.

Shulman (1987) explains teaching as a profession because it is more than just the transfer of content from the book straight into the learners' heads. Shulman reasons that teaching involves a lot of reasoning which goes with the understanding of curriculum, the content knowledge or subject matter, and pedagogical content knowledge, which covers content and pedagogy, professional understanding which talks to teaching methods and/or strategies, adequate use of teaching materials or



resources and the application of the suitable teaching activities. Grossman (1990) states that it is the PCK that the teacher requires in order to determine how a topic should be taught at a grade level of study. In other words, it is this knowledge that helps with the pacing of the teaching content at the appropriate grade level for learners. Shulman stresses that for effective teaching, it should be analysed against these competencies.

Pedagogical knowledge is the expertise and cumulative wisdom of the teacher which helps them when teaching and learning knowledge, subject matter, learners, and their academic challenges (Solís, 2009). Pedagogical knowledge measures teachers' competence and differentiates teachers from one another (Faisal, 2015; Xu, 2015; König, Lammerding, Nold, Rohde, Straub, & Tachtsoglou, 2016). Pedagogical knowledge entails also the teachers' decisions regarding how they would want to create an ideal learning environment based on their subject expertise and professional practices. Kultsum (2017) equates Shulman's PCK to teachers' competence. It could be concluded that teaching experience is regarded as an important component towards the envisaged product learners are expected to display, even though this experience is not permanent since it fades out with time (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, Rockoff, & Wyckoff, (2008). However, Maphoso and Mahlo (2015) hold a different view in that they do not see any link between teacher qualification and the learners' achievement. It could be concluded that subject content knowledge leads to subject expertise, while pedagogical knowledge produces teaching competence.

The notion of PCK is also backed by research that argues that teacher knowledge plays a major role in the teaching and learning developments in the classroom (Calderhead, 1987; Freeman, 2002; Van Driel, De Jong, & Verloop, 2002; Borg, 2003). Kultsum (2017) posits that pedagogical knowledge addresses teaching practices and strategies that are used in the delivery of content knowledge. Grossman (1990) states that pedagogical knowledge helps the teacher to have some knowledge about the learners; their prior knowledge and challenges; what the curriculum expects regarding the content; the frequency at which the content should be taught; and the teaching and learning strategies that could be used to deliver the content in the classroom context. It is that acumen required by every teacher which helps them with decision-

making on how the content is presented in each context. It levels the ground before the lesson takes off, and catalyses learning throughout the lesson.

With CAPS as the subject curriculum framework which spells out how English as a subject should be taught, it is fundamental that any teacher of vocabulary in English should also keep oneself abreast with the understanding of all its requirements. This framework does not only list the content that should be taught, but it also defines the level at which it should be taught, interpretation of which calls for the teacher's expertise.

### **2.2.2 CONTENT AND PEDAGOGY IN VOCABULARY TEACHING**

Based on the definitions and explanations of the two components, content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, it is clear that none of them can exist independently of each other. Both these components are interrelated in that, experience in the profession improves teachers' knowledge in the content knowledge and thus improves the teachers' efficacy in teaching (Gatbonton, 2008). Possession of good subject content and understanding of PCK is the cornerstone for one to becoming a good teacher (Veal, 1999; Daehler and Shinohara, 2001; Halim & Meerah, 2002; de Jong & van Driel, 2004). Hattie's (2009) work attests that the quality of the teachers is equivalent to the quality of their education, either in subject knowledge or pedagogical expertise. Shulman's PCK model is interested in how these two knowledge bases, on their separate standings and/or a combination thereof, impact the vocabulary teaching competencies of the English FAL Grade 10 teachers as set out in the CAPS framework of English FAL. The subsequent sections of the chapter draw connections between Shulman's PCK theory and the CAPS's vocabulary and language teaching expectations.

The teaching strategy that a teacher may follow in a classroom has the potential to touch on many CAPS goals at a time. For example, when learners are engaged in a discussion, they are offered an opportunity to develop their listening and speaking skills – when they take turns; construct sentences; apply suitable words in the context of the discussion. All these activities deepen the vocabulary learning and development of the learners.

### **2.2.3 PCK, TEACHING METHODS AND STRATEGIES**

PCK provides teachers with the best practices, leading to effective teaching and learning (Abell, 2008). Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education) (2008) argues that the teacher's PCK helps with the adoption and application of suitable teaching strategies which could facilitate learning in the classroom. Bucat (2005) also adds that it is not only good knowledge of the subject and the topic that matters, but the strategies that accompany the teaching thereof. Effective teaching is the teacher's ability and capacity to influence the learners' mastery of a specific discipline and its constituent constructs. Ball (2000) states that the teacher's most critical attribute for teaching determines the level of teaching which would make such teaching easier for the learners, but without compromising the standard as determined by the curriculum. It remains the teacher's creativity to decide on the use of various examples to make them appeal to all the learners (Chick & Harri, 2007). The theorists maintain that the success of the lesson is on the teaching strategies adopted by the teacher.

It could be reasoned that PCK does not promote one teaching strategy over the others but equips the teacher with the knowledge and confidence to decide on what could be useful at a given time and context. It is about taking learners on board by selecting alternative strategies for the effective teaching of the curriculum. Again, this strand of knowledge allows the teacher to professionally identify the learners' difficulties in the learning of content and/or topic.

### **2.2.4 PCK AND TEACHING RESOURCES AND MATERIALS**

PCK regards teaching materials as important components in the effective teaching and learning process of all subjects. A complementary approach to improving science education in both the classroom and out-of-school settings, for instance, is for educators to use instructional materials that help improve their PCK. Pompea, & Walker's (2017) study established that the use high-quality teaching and learning materials coupled with the right teaching strategies guarantee effective teaching of any subject. Davis & Krajcik (2005:3) refer to teaching and learning materials that are effective "educative curriculum materials." Despite the effectiveness of instructional

materials, it is their selection that is not an easy task for most teachers. Amongst others, the learners must relate to the teaching resources because of their authenticity and familiarity, while at the same time they should address realistically the topic and the academic level of the learners involved (Davis, Palincsar, Arias, Bismack, Marulis, & Iwashyna, 2014). The selection of instructional materials should activate the subconscious mind both for the storage of new words for future use and reference.

### **2.2.5 PCK AND TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES**

It is the teaching activities and implementation thereof which anchor learning in the classroom. Before any teacher walks into the classroom, they must have made up their mind regarding what should happen in the classroom. Brophy & Good (1986) emphasise the use of teaching activities and teaching content that are relevant to the academic level of the learners concerned. Where teachers' subject knowledge is weak, confidence levels are low, leading to restricted classroom practices (Harlen, 1999). Despite the impromptu teaching and learning activities that could respond to the learning environment, teachers must always have predetermined instructional activities for the classroom. Whatever the teachers are tempted to include in the lesson should be an added opportunity towards realising the intended goal.

### **2.3 VYGOTSKY'S SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY OF LEARNING**

Sociocultural Learning Theory (SCT) is the brainchild of Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934), a Russian teacher who is considered a forerunner in learning in social contexts (Vygotsky, 1962). Vygotsky's SCT establishes that social interaction involving communities through peers, adults, teachers, any other mentors, plays a central role in people's cognitive development, including language learning.

Vygotsky's SCT defines human learning as a process that involves one's social interactions which helps with the development of one's intelligence in the area of learning (Vygotsky, 1962; Fosnot, 1996). SCT is founded on the belief that social interaction underpins the cognitive development of learners. In other words, Vygotsky views learning as a process that takes place at two levels: first at the social level

(*interpsychological*) through interaction with others, and then at the individual level (*intrapsychological*) when information is processed further in the individual's cognitive structure (Vygotsky, 1962; 1978). In other words, SCT regards cognitive development and language development as intertwined and symbiotic.

Based on the definition of Vygotsky's (1962) theory, it could be determined that SCT advocates for a social environment where linguistic input prompts language learning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In other words, no matter how intelligent the child could be, objects and words would not mean anything to the child without learning by seeing and hearing what other people, especially what adults say or do about them. This is also because words mean different things to different people in different contexts, something which calls for sharpened thinking competence. Even though the social environment is rated highly in language learning, SCT regards children as active participants who should work out meanings of words as they interact in their social environment, without which there can never be significant language learning (Anning, Cullen & Flear, 2009). In this respect, language development is the product of social interaction and cognitive development.

Through social interaction, the role of a teacher is to help with the creation and development of instructional strategies that support growth in the classroom setup. Teachers provide leadership in the classroom; they create and monitor a collaborative learning environment; they direct thoughtful classroom discussions which facilitate focused and meaningful discussion amongst learners. In other words, the role of the teacher in the SCT-oriented classroom is to enable learning by directing the dialogue and validating the utterances of the and thereby them to grapple with language and vocabulary mastery.

According to SCT, not only do children learn language from adults and the world around them, but language also offers them an opportunity to strengthen cognitive development. The SCT propagates social interaction as an important aspect in cognitive development since cognitive development facilitates both language acquisition and language learning (Vygotsky, 1978). The reasoning is that social interaction, which could be through any form of instruction, produces new, elaborate, and advanced psychological processes that are unavailable to the individual working

in isolation (Vasileva & Balyasnikova, 2019). It could be argued that a developed language increases the children's interest in the language, which in turn broadens their world of language through interaction which comes through listening and speaking more and at the complex level. The individual also picks up the vocabulary that is frequently used and appropriates this for meaningful communicative purposes. When a child gets instructions from the teacher in the classroom, that experience drives the learner to engage with the language, and that helps in mastering the language input.

### **2.3.1 STAGES OF COGNITIVE LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT**

The SCT sees children as being on a cognitive language development journey. The theory perceives that this journey is characterised by continuous mental engagement where the child solves problems both within and outside their immediate world (Wertsch, 1980; Frawley & Lantolf, 1985). According to this theory, these engagements transform children into independent individuals who are fully conscious and in control of their world (Vygotsky, 1978). This stage happens after children have passed through the three levels of responses to the objects, other individuals and the self (Zhang & Du Wanyi, 2013) as discussed in the subsequent sections. What remains critical though for the optimal development of the learner is the role of the teacher in the supply of language-learning objects. These objects and the availability of the teacher both facilitate the necessary ambiance for language learning and mastery through deliberate and purposeful interaction.

#### **2.3.1.1 THE OBJECT-RESPONSE STAGE**

At an object-response stage, the child's mental world is controlled by the environment around him/her. Whatever the child does is a direct response to the objects within their environment and locale. Even though, the successful response to the presented object is not a guarantee of the mastery of the response and the functional utilisation which could yield the desired success if a similar situation were to be encountered by the child in the future (Wertsch, 1979b). This is also because there is no element of independence that would make the child stand their ground firmly. In a classroom context, the SCT equates this stage to the traditional teaching practices in which learners are presented with regular texts and exercises which even after responding

positively to them, the learners do not transcend the positive responses in the real world of practical language usage (Zhang & Du Wanyi, 2013).

### **2.3.1.2 THE OTHERS-INCLINED STAGE**

At this second stage, the learner relies on other people, especially those regarded as knowledgeable others (the parent, teacher, or any other experienced adult) then the learning child in a shared social context (Zhang & Du Wanyi, 2013). During this time the child's activities are guided by someone who might be available to offer assistance in terms of naming and describing the child's universe. What the child says is largely a response to the other person's reaction. The child's utterances are enhanced either by the approval or disapproval of the more knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1962). In other words, the child is not yet confident of his/her utterances if he/she still depends on this mediated assistance (Foley, 1991).

Again, the SCT associates this stage with the traditional classroom situation where learners' linguistic utterances are only within the direction of the teacher and nothing more (Zhang & Du Wanyi, 2013). Long and Crookes (1987) state that at this stage, the interaction is only between the teacher and the learner or vice versa. The learner answers only what has been asked and if the construction is wrong, the teacher offers the correct terminology after which the child repeats the utterance. Unfortunately, this practice does not develop an independent language user who would face the world on their own.

### **2.3.1.3 THE AUTOMATIC LANGUAGE USAGE STAGE**

The third and final stage is characterised by full control of one's linguistic consciousness. At this stage, the person can say everything about anything as they have control over their environment; and the learner does not need any assistance nor approval by anybody to trust the correctness of their linguistic utterances (Antón, 1999). The learner has mastered the language appropriate in any given context. The learner can now engage many people at a time and direct them or respond satisfactorily to their linguistic utterances. The SCT regards this stage as self-

generated and acknowledges that it is the ultimate summit of language learning (Cook, 2007). The theory further acknowledges the contributions of the other two stages on this journey towards language mastery and therefore insists on the need for any classroom activities to be geared towards achieving this final automatic language usage stage by stretching the learner's development from one level to the other.

In this regard, in order to prepare the learners for this ultimate independence stage, teachers should not only supply objects to learners in the classroom and expect them to react in a defined manner, but the supplied objects should stretch beyond the presentation phase. The final stage of the SCT, therefore, suggests that teachers ought to desist from the mere presentation of objects and prescribed interaction practices but strive towards more practical language teaching approaches that reflect the authentic language use and active engagement of learners. The idea is that learners should be trained to engage with the objects just as they would engage with them in the real world. Whatever engagement learners are exposed to should be aimed at developing them from one cognitive level to the other, as defined in the CEFR discussed in the earlier sections (3.2.2.3), and Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) which follows in the subsequent section.

### **2.3.2 A CLASSROOM AS A MINIATURE AUTHENTIC WORLD**

The SCT suggests that classroom teaching should reflect what learners are likely to experience in a real-life environment (Yilmaz, 2011). Based on this imperative, the SCT encourages that classroom instruction should be as authentic and real as possible so that what has been learnt in the classroom could be transferred into real-life contexts. In other words, the classroom should be a miniature real world, offering learners an opportunity to be exposed to the world by making them deal with activities that are relevant to their level of development yet socially meaningful as well. The language teacher should bring the outside world into the classroom through the teaching materials, the examples offered, and the problem-solving activities which all should resemble the child's everyday life environment (Wadworth, 1996). Not only does the practice offer the learners a chance to see what the real life looks like, but it also gives them the required confidence to confront the world, making them everlasting constructors of their own knowledge rather than everlasting recipients of an already



constructed knowledge repertoire. This growth happens through the Zone of Proximal Development.

Vygotsky (1978) defines the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as ‘the difference between the actual cognitive development as determined by the individual’s reactions to problems and the potential level of development as the individual could attain if offered the necessary guidance and assistance by adults or the more knowledgeable other (MKO)’. The SCT regards the ZPD as the transition from one stage of linguistic development to the other (Lantolf & Appel, 1994), until such time the envisaged potential development which is the ultimate linguistic summit is attained. Vygotsky’s ZPD consists of two points: the first is the actual ability of what the learner can do with the language in terms of expressing him/herself without any form of assistance from another person; the second represents the potential level of development that a learner could attain if offered the right assistance by the experienced adult (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000).

According to Vygotsky (1978), these two levels do not remain static if there is some learning taking place. Once the child learns something they did not know and internalises it such that they could perform it without help, such act becomes their actual development. In the same way, the more interaction that the child has with an adult makes them crave for more learning, thus pushing the potential level of development a little bit further (Zhang & Du Wanyi, 2013). This stimulation and expansion of the linguistic repertoire of the learner can be achieved when someone steps in to guidance guide on the learning journey of the child. It is therefore important that teachers of the English language should create an interactive classroom context so that there is more internalisation of concepts by the learners while creating ever-new potential levels of language development.

The success of this process demands that a child is taken out of the comfort zone into the deeper and more language-demanding-usage context with the teacher alongside supporting the language development by offering the necessary cues and therefore extending new horizons of the language usage of the child (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The process helps with the learner’s independence by determining the appropriate language usage in the context, which then helps the learner to cognitively imitate the

same when faced with a similar or different context. The idea is that the child becomes aware that certain word classes follow a similar pattern and as such the learner would, in the future, try out these patterns.

Since most of the second language learning takes place in a classroom, the SCT has its own conducive classroom practices for its language teaching/learning approaches. Creating such a classroom and teaching context informs the logic in what Lantolf and Thorne (2006) believe could be extended to cover the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) where learners could pick up the target language from a classroom environment that is a microcosm of the larger world.

### **2.3.3 THE CLASSROOM AS A PLACE OF ASSISTANCE**

The learning environment is ideally intimidation-free to encourage optimal learner-teacher, learner-learner and learner-materials interaction (Padilla, Lynch, Diallo, Gore, Barraco, Kavak & Jenkins. (2016). Classroom teaching should offer the learners assistance with what they struggle to comprehend so that they master the concepts. The teacher's role is that of a facilitator who takes learners through the paces in a miniature world created inside the classroom. The teacher, as an experienced adult, showcases how the language functions in the world and gauges the appropriateness of the learners' usage of that language by creating different contexts which require context-dependent language usages (Vygotsky, 1962; 1978).

Throughout the teaching expedition, appropriate teaching methods which have the potential to engage learners among themselves and with the teacher; which also heighten mental engagement could be sought and applied. Amongst other strategies, the teacher demonstrates concepts by defining, explaining, offering quality used, describing, giving examples, providing synonyms and antonyms, acting out, etc. (Yilmaz, 2011). These strategies offer modelling, coaching, articulation, reflection, exploration and scaffolding to the learners (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989; Wilson & Cole, 1991; Wilson, Jonassen & Cole, 1993). At the same time, these strategies take each learner on board based on their level of language development.

Vygotsky (1978) views scaffolding as the assistance that is offered to the learning child by the experienced adult as a way of taking them through the ZPD journey. Greening (1998) further explains scaffolding as a broad term that embraces 'any form of learning support and a wide range of services provided for learning.' In any language learning context, the teacher is there to assist learners to carry out linguistic tasks which they would not have managed without intervention. The sole aim of scaffolding is to nurture independent language users who could display linguistic mastery by interacting beyond formative linguistic development in the initial stage of language learning (Mercer & Fisher, 1993). From this explanation of scaffolding, assessment of the learner's initial level and determination of the kind of assistance relevant in each situation remains critical for any kind of learning. It is the appropriate pitch of assistance that holds the learners' attention and thus takes them on board.

This is what Vygotsky (1962) considers as taking the learners on a journey towards the envisaged destination with the learners as mentees and the teacher as a mentor. During these processes, learners have multiple chances of interacting with the concept which in turn maximises their comprehension and encoding the meanings of the word(s). In order not to dominate the lesson, the teacher is expected to constantly create a variety of opportunities for learners to demonstrate their comprehension of the concepts as SCT advocates for the active participation of the learners in the learning process (Wenger, 2007).

This theory regards learners as individuals whose development cannot be generalised as each learner exhibits and is an embodiment of different mental capabilities, needs, interests and backgrounds (McLeod, 2003; Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005). The teacher should create an appropriate learning environment that is stimulating while being thought-provoking at the same time. The teacher should capitalise on this vision and encourage these learners with multiple intelligences to work together in constructing knowledge for their mutual benefits. Goh and Silver (2004) regard the interactive classroom environment as one that provides reciprocal teaching, promotes open dialogue between learners themselves and the teacher which goes beyond a simple question-and-answer session.

### **2.3.4 THE VALUE OF INPUT IN SCT**

Even though all learning stems from the social world, the SCT prescribes that learners should be engaged actively in the 'culturally organised activities in order to achieve that learning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This call for culturally organised activities could be supported by the fact that people have different specialties based on their exposure to certain inputs, and their interests therein. In a classroom situation, the social community comprises the learners themselves together with the teacher. This is where the Proverbs 27:17 principle emphasising that iron sharpens iron comes into effect in that one learner learns from the utterances of their peers since others do from their utterances too. This whole process of learning from others happens from the teacher as well. The SCT promotes concurrent language acquisition and language learning processes in that everyone involved in the social learning context becomes a teacher of the language.

Since it is assumed that the learners are in the L2 class and have an intrinsic interest in mastering the language, the onus then lies upon the teacher to constantly provide relevant primary input at an appropriate grade level (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Lantolf and Thorne (2006) further explain that secondary input is from all the other texts which are available to learners, which may include written and technological texts. This happens when the teacher breaks the wall of the classroom to attract and accommodate the world for direct observation of and interaction amongst the learners. During this process, learners determine the linguistic behaviours attached to how language and words are used in different contexts; written and spoken, formal and informal, etc. (Ohta, 2001). This in turn stimulates their confidence and spurs them on to begin imitating some of those usages and then appropriate these for ownership. In this case, learning of new words and their application becomes a continuous process where the learners go beyond the classroom to use these overtly and covertly through social engagements and intra-communication respectively (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This awakens and drives the learning zeal within all learners as they would not want to be left behind. However, the productivity of all these depends on the availability and creativity of the teacher and through their teaching approaches and the ready supply of relevant language learning materials and the creation of near-authentic classroom contexts.

### **2.3.5 NON-PRESCRIPTIVE APPROACH OF SCT TO LANGUAGE LEARNING**

Based on its disposition to a social context learning approach embedded in the natural context, SCT has no predetermined steps or activities (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In other words, it does not follow a systematic order. The SCT avers that whatever activities are carried out now, whether intentionally or incidentally, if they could result in successful language learning, which is always the summit of the learning expedition, such should be promoted. The theory regards learning the meaning of a word as a primary activity and using the word in communication as a secondary activity (Lantolf, 2000). However, the theory does not prescribe that one should first learn the primary activity before switching over to the next level. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) further add that there is no incidental learning of a language but there is learning which always involves the learners and cannot, therefore, qualify learners as passive.

The assumption is that every time some learning is taking place, be it primary or secondary, the learner is always engaged. It is for this reason that the learning process should be through reading a text so that learners determine how words are functionally used. In other words, it does not matter whether language learning is explicit or implicit; what matters is that there is some language development that has taken place through the teacher's assistance.

### **2.4 CONCLUSION**

Two theories and their influence on vocabulary teaching and learning were discussed in detail. Vygotsky's ZPD is concerned with the teacher's subject and pedagogical knowledge, while SCT focuses on the creation of suitable vocabulary teaching and learning environment, provision of input, and application for effective teaching and learning. The role of the teacher in both instances is to direct the learning trajectory so that each cycle is an ever-expanding one. The next chapter examines literature related to the main aim and the accompanying sub-questions of the study.

## **CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter dealt with the two theories; Shulman's Pedagogical Content Knowledge Theory and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory, which together form the study's framework. The Chapter also expounded the relations of each of the theories to the effective teaching and learning of the English vocabulary.

This chapter discusses the importance of vocabulary, what constitutes the knowledge of vocabulary, the importance of vocabulary teaching to the learners' language learning and use, effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies, resources, and activities. Throughout this discussion, the chapter examines the constructive and progressive role that the language teacher plays in successful vocabulary learning. In addition, the chapter also highlights and discusses some challenges regarding vocabulary teaching in second language classrooms.

A literature review is a study and interpretation of the recent and relevant literature that addresses the current research focus (Aveyard, 2010). It investigates published research such as books, scholarly articles, etc. related to the research topic (Rhoades, 2011). The literature reviewed provides an explanation, summary, and critical assessment of these works concerning the topic studied (Arlene, 2014). It helps the researcher to contextualise the study, leading to an informed understanding of the conundrum.

### **3.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY**

Vocabulary is critically important to learners who need it for communicative purposes and cognitive academic literacies. For learners, vocabulary is the foundation for learners' academic success (Cameron, 2001; Harmon, Wood, & Keser, 2009). Learners need constant and consistent vocabulary development if they are to cope with the academic demands in the English language as much as in the rest of the curriculum specifications, which require them to comprehend what they read, and

express what they have read, orally and in written form (Linse & Nunan, 2005). CAPS as a policy document envisages to produce learners who can use all the language skills needed for effective and appropriate communication in all contexts; use the language for academic learning and functioning; think critically in the language and express their points successfully (CAPS, 2011).

It is on this background that vocabulary teaching and learning has recently become the flagship of language teaching strategies (Coady & Huckin, 1997; Schmitt, 1997; Read, 2004; Schmitt, 2000). The importance of vocabulary and its impact on learners' language development is dependent on the involvement of the teachers through active teaching and learning processes. Amongst others, the CAPS document specifies that in Grade 10, teachers should provide learners with the necessary support while also providing suitable curriculum content that could enable learners to attain the expected language levels (CAPS, 2011).

### **3.2.1 VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION**

Vocabulary is crucial for successful reading comprehension. It is the primary mediator between text and reader. Therefore, success or failure of the reading process may depend on knowledge of vocabulary or the absence of it (Nation & Meara, 2002; Stockwell, 2010; Kang, Kang, & Park, 2012; Hirschel & Fritz, 2013; Barrot, 2013; Birch, 2014). Vocabulary is such an important factor in the reading process that its instruction cannot be left out of the teacher's consideration. Evidence suggests that breadth of vocabulary is more important than depth of vocabulary in the reading comprehension process (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004; Moinszadeh & Moslehpour, 2012) but this study recognises that both breadth and depth are equally important.

An extensive vocabulary is a key to the comprehension of written texts more so because there are no immediate non-verbal cues that could elucidate the meaning of the words. Huckin (1995) confidently states that there is no comprehension possible without extensive vocabulary knowledge. Nation (2001) claims that readers need to

know at least 97% of the vocabulary in a text for an adequate understanding of the text.

Viera and Rodriguez (2017) also estimate that SL learners need more than 95% of their vocabulary to understand written texts. Since vocabulary is built from the reading of many texts, the desire to read many texts is also dependent on the vocabulary size of the reader which in turn encourages them to read more and more. In contrast, poor readers read less and acquire lesser vocabulary consequently becoming poor in comprehension of written texts.

### **3.2.2 VOCABULARY AND LANGUAGE PRODUCTION**

The language production of every speaker is the measurement of the amount of active vocabulary the speaker possesses. A large vocabulary makes communication easier as the speaker can identify the correct word to express the meaning or concept based on that context (Alqahtani, 2015). Schmitt (2010) sees a large vocabulary as a mobile dictionary that the learner carries along for effective and successful language use. Vocabulary knowledge and language use are interconnected and influence one another. Since vocabulary knowledge enhances language use, on the other hand, language use – which is the enabling context – results in the increased knowledge of vocabulary (Nation, 2001). In other words, vocabulary use is the output that rests on the input which is vocabulary comprehension.

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages has divided language into three broad levels depending on the need and mastery of the language for that particular person, where A represents the Basic Language User, B the Independent Language User, and C standing the Proficient Language User (Council of Europe, 2001). These three are further split into two groups each: A (Basic Language User) is broken into A1 (Breakthrough) and A2 (Way stage), B (Independent Language User) is divided into B1 (Threshold) and B2 (Vantage), and the last class C consists of C1 (Effective Operational Proficiency) and C2 (Language Mastery).



### **3.2.2.1 BASIC LANGUAGE USER**

According to the CEFR divisions, a person at level A1 is considered able to communicate and simply exchange information; which could include 'asking for someone', 'asking for directions' and 'understanding simple instructions.' A person at this level cannot use the language for everyday communication. At the Way stage level (A2), the speaker has the ability to negotiate their way and can deal with simple language, though in broken language. The speaker can debate minimally on simple topics. This person can pass examinations even though experiencing significant difficulties in using the language effectually on their own (CEFR).

### **3.2.2.2 INDEPENDENT LANGUAGE USER**

At the Threshold level (B1 of the independent language user), the speaker can express himself/ herself, though in a limited way and could only survive in a familiar place where he/she is also not new. The level allows the speaker to use the routine language he/she might have learnt from others, and nothing beyond that. If this person could be engaged seriously, language would fail them to an extent of embarrassment. On the other hand, the Vantage level B2 makes the speaker self-expressive on a range of topics. At this level, there is some language mastery which allows the language user to listen and communicate with others.

### **3.2.2.3 PROFICIENT LANGUAGE USER**

Effective Operational Proficiency C1 is that level at which the language user is aware of the different registers of the language. The user can use language appropriately, exercising some caution where necessary. The speaker has accumulated some vocabulary which allows them to replace words with the most suitable ones based on the context. Mastery level C2, on the other hand, is the pinnacle of language learning and usage. The language user can deal with material that is both academically and cognitively demanding. This is the level at which a person can use the language admirably at any given platform.

According to the CEFR framework, the number of words should increase with the level of study of the learner. Milton and Alexiou (2009) add that such increment should include the number of words acquired and their complexity as this determines the comprehension and communication productivity of the language learner. Staehr (2008) further posits that the amount and complexity of the learner's vocabulary are what takes them through the CEFR levels and increases their communicative competence. Even though there is no person who knows all the word forms and their inflections, knowledge of the identified words is what enables accurate guessing of the word's meaning in an unknown context (Schmitt, 2008).

### **3.3 CLASSIFICATION OF VOCABULARY**

Choosing the right vocabulary for appropriate communication which satisfies the standards of the occasion does not just come automatically, and thus remains a challenging task for many. There are certain words that remain key in the development of learners' vocabulary, so much so that if teachers were aware of those, their teaching of vocabulary would be a success story (Nation, 2009). Clendon (2006) confesses that vocabulary selection challenges even the best of professionals of the language, including trained teachers. Read (2004) and Nation (2016) maintain that selection of suitable words to teach is what facilitates vocabulary learning. Amongst some criteria, choosing which words to teach for vocabulary development should be founded on the regularity of the word, usefulness, occasion, and the level of difficulty (Laufer & Nation, 2012). However, Clendon and Erickson (2008) admit that for learners to develop into mature language users, they need to be exposed to varied vocabulary by these teachers. Unfortunately, many language users are unaware that there is a range of vocabulary suitable for use in different places that they might not have been exposed to in their learning.

Unless these dynamics of language are brought to the attention of the learners of the language, the study of the language remains a significant challenge. The choice and type of words a speaker or writer picks up when using the English language are determined by several factors, including the level of mastery of language by the recipient/ listener, the medium of communication the speaker has decided on, the

purpose of communication, etc. All these aspects suggest different vocabulary as identified and explained in the next sections of the study.

Beck and McKeown (1985) and Thaashida, Hutton and CCC-SLP (2008) classify vocabulary into three tiers: Tier 1, Tier 2, and Tier 3. Tier 1 are words which usually do not have multiple meanings, do not require explicit instruction, and include sight words, noun, verbs, adjectives and early reading words. These are words that mean exactly what everybody would know as their meanings. They represent simple concrete concepts used in everyday life and thus have a high frequency. They are words that most learners would be familiar with and therefore they do not necessarily require explicit instruction. Some of the examples include 'car', 'book', 'door', etc.

Tier 2, on the other hand, could be words that are grouped based on their frequency, usefulness and learnability (Laufer & Nation, 2012). It is these criteria that a teacher of the English language should bear in mind when teaching vocabulary. Nation (2013) explains high-frequency words as those words which often appear in many different contexts and media. They are general academic words that are important throughout the grades for comprehension of oral and/or written texts (Nation, 2013a, 2016). These words have a large impact on the everyday functioning of language and present challenges to learners who primarily meet them in print. They have certain distinct characteristics which make them play an important role in direct instruction: they usually have multiple meanings; they are used in a variety of subject areas; they are necessary for reading comprehension, characteristic of a mature language user, and descriptive words that add details. They cover words like cluster, sympathy, estimate, etc. Schmitt (2010) puts the responsibility of identifying and teaching these words on the teachers.

High-frequency words could also be determined by their usefulness in terms of language comprehension and production. The selection of words should be based on the high significance attached to learners knowing how to use them effectively (Marinak, Moore, Henk, & Keepers, 1997; Flanigan & Greenwood, 2007). Laufer and

Nation (2012) debate that an L2 learner does not need to know all the words in the target language, and so should be what he/she is taught in the classroom; it should be well selected. Although words useful in each context may not necessarily be frequent words in English, Laufer, and Nation (2012) and Martinez and Schmitt (2012) assert that the skill to determine their usefulness, which can sometimes cut across the Tier 3 words, should reside with the teacher, and it is this knowledge that helps the teacher determine which words to teach and how effectively such should be taught.

The third aspect which Laufer and Nation (2012) highlight as another criterion for the appropriate selection of words to teach is the level of difficulty of the word. Laufer (2014) and Laufer and Nation (2012) divide word difficulty into two types which are: 'inter-lingual' and 'intra-lingual' where the former involves interactions between the L1 and the L2, while the latter talks to interactions between new words and familiar words in the L1. Amongst other aspects to study along the difficultness of words are the grammatical components which could cover how words are pronounced, spelt, their parts of speech, their formation and composition, which entails their denotative and connotative meanings (Ellis & Beaton, 1993; Nation & Webb, 2011). The successful teaching of words along the difficulty line requires significant practice by the learners more than the linguistic explanations by the teacher.

Tier 3 words consist of words that practical use and frequency is low; particularly so because they are domain-specific and are used for brief periods when someone is studying a particular content like medicine, law, mathematics, etc. When encountered for the first time, they may not express a clear statement even to someone studying a particular subject. In other words, they often require explicit instruction in class.

Words could be grouped and taught based on how often they are used in the language. Henriksen (1996); Grigg (2012); Kaufmann (2017) and TutorVista (2017) divide vocabulary into active and passive; where the former is referred to as working or functional vocabulary which consists of words a person uses for speech or writing, as they fully understand the meaning of the words. They are working words because they

work for the speaker as they help the agent with what to say or request. It is what makes the speaker of the language use the apt word and not trying to explain or describe what it is that he/she is talking about. It is also called free active vocabulary and it is characterised by spontaneous use of a word in any given context. It is built from passive vocabulary and gets better and better as one speaks the target language often. Stuart (2005) refers to this class as productive vocabulary and explains that they are the words that the learners understand and use correctly and meaningfully in both their written and spoken texts.

The process of producing this type of language user from amongst the learners takes the competence of the teacher who should know what to do and how to do it. Nation (2005) states that the teacher must create an environment that creates, supports and promotes the word learning process that transforms passive vocabulary into active vocabulary by offering them purposeful repetition opportunities. Key to such a process entails exposing the learners to the various uses of a word in different contexts and sharpening all their skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Maskor & Baharudin, 2016).

Kacani (2015) also suggests that the designed activities should appeal to the learners. Giving examples of how words are used in a practical sense and asking learners to answer and explain concepts have been consistently used in sharpening the vocabulary development skills of learners (Doff, 1988).

The latter consists of listening and reading vocabulary that learners encounter in a newspaper and editorials or in speech. These could also be unfamiliar words that can be assessed from the context of use (Stuart, 2005; TutorVista, 2017). These are words that the speaker can only recognise when they have been used by someone else while the learner cannot use them, a point that Laufer & Paribakht (1998) calls controlled active vocabulary. The pronunciation of words could also be a problem to the learner. It is a sign that the learner is still at the initial stage and is grappling with adequate control over the word's access, but not necessarily that they do not know the word

(Henriksen, 1999). It could be possible that when the learner sees these words, they can tell what they mean at that stage.

It could therefore be inferred that even though the active vocabulary is formed by productive language skills and it is what makes one a language expert, passive vocabulary falls under reproductive language skills and cannot be discounted since it is the basis on which active vocabulary is constructed.

Hollingsworth and Ybarra (2013) further classify vocabulary into academic, content and support categories. They explain that these are words that are not tied to any particular course or content area and they regularly appear in academic texts and tests. These words may not be explicitly taught. They are also called the skills words and are often used in stating the Learning Objectives of different subjects such as distribute, establish, indicate, recognise, and identify.

Coxhead (2000) explains that academic vocabulary is vital for learners studying at an English-speaking university, particularly for reading and writing. Academic vocabulary determines the level of formality because it defines the correct word usage in a given context. Academic vocabulary refers to words that are used in academic discourse, both written and spoken and that traditionally have been identified from a corpus of academic texts (The Meadows Centre for Preventing Educational Risks, 2010). Learners may be fluent in conversational English relatively quickly, but it takes considerable time to develop the vocabulary needed to succeed in school (Collier, 1989; and Fillmore & Snow, 2000). This vocabulary is different from everyday vocabulary and it is what one should possess for one academic life and it develops with one's development in learning the English language.

Because of its specialty, this stream of vocabulary poses a challenge to many people, including those that are in the academic field. Al-Dawsari's (2017) study reports that every one of the 16 participants studied struggled with academic vocabulary, variously

in several academic settings and across all four language skills. Al-Dawsari (2017) also suggests that purposeful vocabulary learning must be grounded in sound learning strategies that avoid frustration and loss of motivation.

Content vocabulary includes words specific to a given domain/ subject area and are found directly in the content standards presented as concept words in the Learning Objectives of such subjects. Harmon and Hedrick (2005) admit that content vocabulary is a challenge to many learners in those fields also because of their low frequency in everyday language usage. In other words, the fact that even after having being introduced to those words in a classroom situation, the learner might not have the avenue to practice using the words outside the classroom, which would have assisted with the fortification of the domain-specific words. Harmon and Hedrick (2005) further state that another challenge could be more evident with a learner who when he is still struggling with the normal language vocabulary, and he is again expected to master the content vocabulary which also comes with its own weight on the learner.

Support vocabulary entails any remaining words the English learners (and all other learners) need to know to understand a particular sentence/ phrase used in a lesson. These words are not related to grade-level concepts and skills, but help learners understand the meaning in the context of the lesson.

Montgomery (2007) gives four types of vocabulary as listening vocabulary – the words we hear and understand; speaking vocabulary – the words we use when we speak; reading vocabulary – the words we encounter when we read texts; and writing vocabulary – the words we can retrieve when we express ourselves through writing. This categorisation of vocabulary is hierarchical, and so the development of one leads to the development of the other. According to Montgomery (2007), the first two constitute spoken vocabulary with the last two constituting written vocabulary. Classification of language as either spoken or written is central to how and for what purpose it is used, the context in which it is used, and the subject that is addressed by the speaker or writer (Chafe & Danielewicz, 1987). The teachers of the English

language must be endowed with this knowledge and be ready to transfer it to the learners they teach.

Vocabulary differs across languages in many respects. When learners come to school, they bring their L1 spoken vocabulary and quite limited written vocabulary. Spoken language may be characterised by common more simple words, use of vague references (e.g. soon, in time), dialects, and regional words; whereas written language has to be strictly formal, relies on content words, uses more precise and compound words (Speech New Zealand, 2008). The teachers' role goes beyond identifying and presenting the two vocabularies to the learners to nurturing the development of the two language systems in tandem.

Kacani (2015) states that correct pronunciation is the key to understanding spoken words, correct spelling, and understanding of English the English language. Montgomery (2007) further explains that listening vocabulary is the most vocabulary to almost everyone followed by the reading vocabulary, especially of people who are active readers, which is then followed by speaking vocabulary and lastly the writing vocabulary.

Considering all these, it could be determined that the teaching of vocabulary is a serious and demanding exercise that calls for the broader knowledge of what vocabulary entails. Knowledge of different vocabularies helps teachers to know the correctness of the language use based on contexts. Even though, a deeper understanding of words and their constitution, as discussed in the subsequent sections, is still key in effective vocabulary teaching.

### **3.4 WHAT CONSTITUTES KNOWLEDGE OF A WORD?**

The classification of vocabulary as discussed in the preceding sections offers the understanding of vocabulary at face value. A more profound understanding of vocabulary is necessary, and this section extends this understanding. Vocabulary is a



multidimensional aspect, combining many items which do not immediately become comprehensible when a word is mentioned, including meaning and organisation of the word; word form and grammatical knowledge (Crystal, 2008). McNeill (1994) and Nation (2001) further adds that some of these components extend to pronunciation, word families, word formation, polysemy, synonyms, lexical fields, style and register.

Carter (2012) further explains that knowing a word entails several abilities such as using the word both in spoken and written contexts, determining its relations to other words of related meaning, using it correctly in phrases, clauses, and/or sentences, and in any other ways. The meaning of a word alone also does not talk to the different contexts in which the word could be used, and if such is not addressed accordingly, learners could apply incorrect approaches. These aspects of words are what constitute vocabulary knowledge and as such the teaching of vocabulary should be equal to this challenge by embracing words and unpacking them for the development of the target language contextually.

Grammar and vocabulary are intertwined and so are their teaching for successful learning by learners. Grammar plays an important role in vocabulary teaching and language development because it helps learners realise that words do not exist in isolation and neither can they just be used haphazardly. Rather, words should be systematically arranged to build meaningful sentences (Mart, 2013). Azam (2014) emphasises the correct choice of teaching methods of both grammar and vocabulary. In other words, despite grammar and vocabulary being items that can be itemised for effective language learning, Azam (2014) believes that the versatility of the teacher generates the learners' interests and this makes teaching more engaging.

CAPS lists the following language and grammatical structures as part of the items to be taught in the context of reading and writing: synonyms, antonyms, paronyms, polysemes, homonyms, homophones, one word for a phrase, figures of speech and parts of speech (CAPS, 2011). For the sake of this study, a few such components of vocabulary are discussed in the subsequent sections. This is not exhaustive of all the

components a teacher could teach under the rubric of vocabulary in a classroom, but the most common ones in English language lessons.

### **3.4.1 FORM, MEANING AND USE**

Vocabulary knowledge entails being familiar with both the receptive (which is more about recalling and recognising multiple aspects of the word knowledge in reading and listening) and productive (which is about using the several aspects of the word knowledge in writing and speaking) characteristics of a word. Through task-based language teaching, learners should be made aware that words have two critical components; form and meaning, none of which should be favoured over the other (Foster & Skehan, 1999; Skehan, 2001, 2003). Receptive vocabulary considers 'collocation', 'register', and 'word-grammar' to be the backbone of language since it is form-sensitive (Palmberg, 1987); whereas Nation (1990) and McNeill (1994) regard vocabulary as active knowledge which could be displayed through correct spelling, pronunciation, grammar and collocation.

The form of words links them to pronunciation (spoken form), spelling (written form) and other word components such as prefixes, roots and suffixes (Nation, 2001). A learner is deemed to know a word when they can define the meaning of the word upon hearing the word used in a spoken text; when they can read the word used in a written text; and also when they can write the word with ease. In other words, knowing a word should help the learner use the word functionally in a variety of situations.

Meaning, on the other hand, covers denotative or connotative aspects, what the word suggests when it is mentioned or seen, or 'any association that comes to mind when people think about a specific word' (Nation, 2001:3). Words have different meanings based on how they are used in each context. That ability to establish the correct meaning of a word from the multiple possible contexts of use of the word qualifies the learner as knowing the word.

Mastering denotation and connotation cannot be accomplished by learners only; they need a knowledgeable other to take them through. Once mastered, this knowledge assists them to identify incorrect usage of the word. The learner should again be able to suggest the near-meaning of words and identify those that could be interchangeably used in its place. Another question is whether a learner can read the word and establish its meaning when used in a specific context. When the learner reads it, the pronunciation will also confirm the learner's certainty of the meaning of the word and its usage in a text. This should again make the learner explain the appropriateness of that word in a specific context. Knowledge of meaning is determined when a learner demonstrates the correct usage of form and meaning in a sentence.

Lastly, use is the 'grammatical functions associated with the word or phrase, collocations that normally go with it, and any constraints on its use in terms of frequency and level' (Nation, 2001:3). This aspect helps to determine if the person can write the word accurately and in the correct spelling.

### **3.4.2 LEXICAL RELATIONS**

Lexical relations in vocabulary learning look at how words relate to each other in terms of meanings (Kenworthy, 1991). This is a systematic examination of word relations in a language (Dobrin, 2009). Malik (2017) maintains that lexical relations are the most important semantic relations in pursuit of understanding the meanings of words in the language. In lexical relations, meanings of words are studied by looking at the meanings of other words which have some relation with the ones studied. Different lexical relations exist in the English language as when two different words have close meaning or when words have meanings that stand at the extreme opposite of each other (Malik, 2017). It is another way of building vocabulary in that it facilitates the understanding of words by focusing on features which anchor meanings of words as alternatives and better explanations could be offered (Yule, 2020).

A few lexical relations are discussed below to explain what this aspect entails. Examples are offered to deepen the understanding of the distinctions of these classes of words.

### 3.4.2.1 SYNONYMS

In semantics, synonyms refer to a major type of sense relation between lexical items: words that have the same meanings though such meaning could not be identical and interchangeable in all contexts but communicate identical in connotations. Synonymy allows only one of the range of words to be chosen in some contexts. For example; 'instance', 'sample', 'specimen', 'illustration', etc. (Crystal, 2003; Kostadinovska-Stojchevska, 2018) have similar connotations but one could only be used in a particular sense and context.

Even though words have similar meanings or fall within the same word class, some elements of their meanings could still set them apart (Yule, 2020). For example, the words 'jog' and 'run' could be misinterpreted as meaning the same activity. When these words are looked at closely, their meanings are slightly different, and it is this difference that the teaching of vocabulary should set apart for the correct choice and appropriate use in the real context.

It is on this ground that Bucă (1971:30) classifies synonyms into four types which are:

- a) 'Complete interchangeability' – words which could be changed for one another in all contexts;
- b) 'Partial interchangeability' – words which replace each other successfully but only in some contexts, and not all;
- c) 'Absolute interchangeability' – words which when used interchangeably, do not affect the context from meaning and affective aspects and also style; and
- d) 'Relative interchangeability' – it can result in some changes in meaning, affect and style based on the context.

### 3.4.2.2 ANTONYMS

A term used in semantics to highlight opposite meanings of words (Pyles & Algeo, 1970; Watson, 1976; Lyons, 1977; Leech, 1981; Hu, 2001; Gjergo & Delija, 2014) which could be gradable as in 'hot' and 'cold'; complementary as in 'dead' and 'alive'; and relational as in 'high' and 'low.' Though the importance of antonyms might not immediately be visible in language, Gjergo & Delija, (2014) express that it is their misunderstanding which comes with impeding communication that makes them significant.

Antonyms have a special role to play in the acquisition, learning and development of the English language by the learners (Gao & Zheng, 2014; Gjergo & Delija, 2014). Knowledge and usage of antonyms constitute a positive step towards the mastery of the English language. Kostadinovska-Stojchevska (2018) puts antonyms, synonyms and homonyms in the same basket in terms of their importance in the English language. It is further argued that one's depth of the English language is related to the number of synonyms, antonyms and homonyms represented in one's language usage (ibid). Inversely, Kostadinovska-Stojchevska (2018) still explains that antonyms are different from synonyms in that one word can only have one antonym. It is on this ground that antonyms are the simplest words to learn, use and remember.

They foster faster vocabulary learning because of their nature which is essential in the realm of definition of words (Gao & Zheng, 2014). For example, 'ugly' means something that is not attractive, presentable, admirable; 'impunity' suggests being free from a warranted or deserving punishment, free from the unpleasant consequences. These words are also used for such figures of speech as in oxymoron, paradox, and irony (ibid). Lyons (1977) and Kagan (1984) advise that antonyms should preferably be presented to learners in pairs, as they are mostly found in the text and this enables learners to easily remember them. For example: What is good for the goose is good for the gander.

Egan (1968:32) lists seven different types of antonyms which are as follows:

- a) 'Contradictory antonyms' - words which do not necessarily have the first and second elements in the binary pair; for example: possible and impossible;
- b) 'Opposite antonyms' – these are words which appear directly opposite each other in meaning, though they share certain elements in between them; for example: high and low;
- c) 'Reverse antonyms' – words which oppose each other by reversing certain actions, state or quality of one of them; for example: colonise and decolonise;
- d) 'Contrasting antonyms' – words which do not necessarily fall within the same comparative set and do not appear as direct opposites of each other; for example: hot and warm;
- e) 'Incompatible antonyms' – words which have arbitrary oppositeness and do not fall within the same semantic field; for example: honest and hypocritical;
- f) 'Converse antonyms' – words which suggest meaning of those words they oppose; for example: master and slave;
- g) 'Complementary antonyms' – words with reciprocal meaning; for example: question and answer.

Rusiecki (1985) argues that antonyms should: a) be gradable; b) belong within the same semantic field; c) not be compatible; and d) be fully or partially reciprocal.

### **3.4.2.3 POLYSEMY**

Polysemy is a term in semantic analysis which refers to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings sharing some elements of commonality in them (Crystal, 2003). Nordquist (2019) explains polysemy as the relatedness of two or more meanings of a particular word or phrase. The word polysemy is derived from the Greek word 'poly' which means "many signs" (ibid). For example, the verb 'to bear' could mean 'to tolerate a situation, 'to carry a load.' In this case, both meanings have an element of discomfort.

#### **3.4.2.4 HOMONYM**

Crystal (1997) defines homonymy as “a term used in semantic analysis to refer to [two or more] lexical items which [happen to] have the same form, but differ in meaning” Jha (2017) further states that a homonymous word is spelt and pronounced the same but has more than one but unrelated meanings. Homonyms can be broken into two segments which consist of a prefix and a suffix; with the prefix part being ‘homo’, which means ‘the same’ and the suffix ‘nym’ meaning ‘name’. Simply stated, a homonym is the same word but has both different and unrelated meanings. An example of a homonym could be; ‘left’ which could mean ‘the opposite of right’, and the other meaning being ‘having departed the place’.

#### **3.4.2.5 HOMOPHONY**

Ogura and Wang (2006) define homophone as a term used in semantics to refer to words that could have almost the same pronunciation even though some of them might present different spelling and meaning as in ‘meat’ and ‘meet’, ‘heir’ and ‘air’. Homophony is also divided into two - prefix and suffix; and ‘homo’ means same while ‘phony’ means ‘voice’ or ‘utterance’. On the other hand, some homophones have the same spelling and pronunciation but differ in semantic characteristics (e.g. ‘bat’ as a nocturnal creature and ‘bat’ as in a tennis game). Homophones exist in two groups which consist of those which fall within the same grammatical parts of speech – which are also fewer in number (e.g. ‘flower’ and ‘flour’), and those which belong to different word classes and are also many (e.g. ‘meat’ which is a noun and ‘meet’ which is a verb) (Lyon, Nehaniv, Warren, Dickerson, & Baillie, 2003).

#### **3.4.2.6 COLLOCATION**

Collocation is a term used in lexicology by linguists to refer to words that are habitually used together with one next to the other in sentences such that when a person sees one he/she could predict the subsequent words even before he/she sees them (Gablasova, Brezina, & McEnery, 2017). This aspect illustrates the ‘tendency of words to occur together in sentences’ (Chen, & Baker, (2010).

The teaching of collocations makes learners realise the importance of word relations when constructing sentences. Again, this practice helps with speed and accuracy when constructing sentences.

### **3.4.3 REGISTER, DIALECT AND STYLE**

Hudson (1980) explains that register, dialect and style are different ways that linguists use to label language diversity. Even though they are different, their variances are blurred since they overlap and the use of one cannot completely lose the intended meaning of the speaker (Spolsky, 1998). They are all aspects of language learning which focus on the relationship between language and society (Budiarsa, 2017). They are used by different people of different social stratifications, and those from different places, and they may be used as the medium of communication in their different contexts (ibid).

The register is the variety of a language as defined according to its use in a social situation which might cover a profession, religion, political arena, royalty, etc. (Crystal, 1991). Spolsky (1998) further describes register as jargon that is usually used in specific contexts and by particular people who understand it. This is about the appropriateness of certain words in a given context (Nordquist, 2019). For example, words could be arranged according to them being formal, informal and neutral; written or spoken language; and old and current language. Nordquist (2019) further explains that register also dictates the behaviour of the speaker when speaking to different people like when talking to a friend and talking at a formal dinner meeting or in a job interview. In other words, the register is determined by factors such as context, purpose and the audience addressed. Register cuts across all forms of communication be it written, spoken, and sign language.

Budiarsa (2017) explains dialect as a deviation from the standard language which is also called the official or standard language. Hudson (1980); Hornberger & McKay, 2010) explain standard language as language that is used in government offices and informal situations like in education, banks, etc., while dialect is a language that



reflects different language rules used by different people who represent various social contexts. This language variety is therefore the non-standard use of a particular language or a language that is spoken by a group of speakers and it is identified by systematic markers such as syntactical, phonological, grammatical markers (ibid). Wardhaugh (2010) further describes dialect by associating it with language that is confined to a particular social group. Chesihire (1982) states that dialect is user-inclined, and it could be defined as ‘varieties according to the user.’

Lastly, style refers to a particular way in which other people tend to use register or language in a particular context (Crystal & Davy, 1969). Hudson (1996) suggests that since one’s dialect points where one comes from and your register shows your profession; your style, on the other hand, describes your thoughts as being either friendly, errant, vulgar, etc. In other words, the style of one’s language is what could pave the way into being accepted as a good person or rejected as a bad person by society.

#### **3.4.4 DENOTATIVE AND CONNOTATIVE MEANINGS OF WORDS**

The meanings of words are far beyond what the words communicate at their face value. This is also because people create new words every time they feel like and give these words context-bound meanings based on the ideas, feelings, etc. that they want to express at that time (Bixby, 2000; Rao, 2017). This makes words convey meanings that are standard and others that depend on cultural context (ibid). It is this reason which makes learning a language not a simple but a complex matter. Words have denotative and connotative meanings.

The denotative meaning of words refers to the basic literal meaning expressed as the first or primary meaning in an English dictionary. This meaning is not influenced by any other external factors beyond what the word means. This meaning is expressed by Tier 1 words. Conversely, connotative meaning relates to the associations made with the word which could be cultural and limited to a particular geographic area, personal and limited to individual experiences (Omar, 2018). For example, the word

'dog' could mean something bad or loyal depending on the individual's experiences with dogs. Connotations are mostly used in newspapers and if they should not be correctly interpreted, the whole intended meaning could be distorted.

### **3.4.5 LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE MEANINGS**

Even though the literal meaning of a word is the first meaning to what is expressed by the letters; figurative language is concerned with the abstract meaning of words which lies beyond the face-value meaning of that word. There are many examples of figurative language in everyday language. Amongst them, they include; metaphors, idioms, similes, etc. Even if a person might not be an expert in using them every time he/she uses the language, but their interpretations could be compelling. Cieslicka (2015) claims that some English clauses which are figurative, like 'time is money' have become daily expressions because of their frequency.

### **3.4.6 COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS**

The English language has a lot of commonly confused words which either look or sound alike, or even look and sound alike even though they have completely different meanings. Learners should be taught that certain English words could appear similar in form and meaning whereas they cannot be used interchangeably across contexts. And in such cases, learners should be made aware of the reality that when using words, their expressions could be misinterpreted. For example, the words 'intervene' and 'interfere'; 'continuously' and 'continually'; 'issue' and 'matter'; 'receive' and 'get'; and 'can' and 'may' could be confused as synonyms. The teacher's intervention and explanation of the differences are critical for the vocabulary development of the learners.

### **3.4.7 WORD CLASSES**

Parts of speech is a linguistic category of words considered as the foundation of the English language. They consist of groups of words; phrases, clauses, and sentences; which are similar in function according to the contexts they are used in. For example; 'nouns', 'pronouns', 'verbs', 'adverbs', 'adjectives', 'prepositions', 'articles',

'conjunctions', 'interjections' (Altenberg, & Vago, 2010). These words are also called lexical categories, grammatical categories, or word classes (Lehmann, 2013). Word classes are composed of two classes which are open classes or content words which list; nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs; and closed classes or function words that list articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Lack of knowledge of word classes could result in haphazard usage of words which would distort the intended meaning.

Affixes through suffixes can also transform words from one-word class into the other. When certain suffixes are used together with other words, a new word is formed with its own different meaning and word class. For example, 'printable' is an adjective formed from the verb 'print' and the suffix '-able' which means 'can be'; 'intimidation free' is formed from the noun 'intimidation' which expresses something unwanted to something opposite and wanted; and '-ly' could form a new adjective added to a verb as in 'lively' which means full of life and zeal (Cieslicka, 2015).

### **3.4.8 DERIVATION**

The derivation is a term used in morphology to refer to one of the two main categories or processes of word-formations (derivational morphology) and the other being (inflectional) (Crystal, 2003). Arbain (2017) submits that derivation is the unavoidable process of language development which always comes with the development of human beings. This is possible when people invent new words which talk to their state of being more appropriately (O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, & Aronoff, 1989). Amongst others, English creates new words by adding certain word parts, also called 'prefixes' or 'suffixes', to the already existing words; which would result in another word that can be different from the original one even in terms of the category (word class), and/or sometimes the meaning (Arbain, 2017).

Some prefixes such as '-un', '-in', '-im', '-dis', etc. are added to certain words like nouns and adjectives and turn them into their opposite. For example, 'employment' becomes 'unemployment', 'advantage' turns 'disadvantage'; and 'correct' becomes 'incorrect',

and 'possible' becomes 'impossible'. In all these examples, it could be noted that it is only the meaning and not the category which has been affected. However, there are certain prefixes which when added to certain word classes that turn those into a different class altogether like in the following examples: a) adjectives are turned into verbs, 'large' becomes 'enlarge', and 'little' becomes 'belittle' (Erich, 1995).

The affixes, on the other hand, can change both the category and meaning of the affected word as shown in the given examples: a) suffixes which derive nouns from nouns and verbs: 'empowerment' from the verb 'to empower', 'fatherhood' from the noun 'father' etc.; b) suffixes which are used to derive adjectives as in, '-some' for 'handsome', '-ish' for 'skirmish', '-al' for 'additional', etc.; suffixes which derive verbs as in, '-ify' for 'edify', '-en' for 'broaden', etc.; and d) suffixes which derive adverbs as in, '-ly' for 'deeply', '-ward' for 'eastward', '-wide' for 'worldwide', etc. (Williamson, 2004).

Learners should be made aware that certain words are a combination of certain morphemes which, amongst others, include prefixes. They should be conversant with meanings of certain prefixes such that whenever they see them in a word, they should be able to work out meanings of such words, even if they could have been their first encounter with those words. For example, the preposition-based prefix; 'over' means 'excess' as in 'overprotected'; 'cover' as in 'overshadowed'; and 'over' as in 'overnight' (Cieslicka, 2015). This is the technique that learners need to be equipped with for their continuous independent vocabulary development.

The knowledge of derivatives and inflections and their application is a skill that learners need to possess. Amongst others, it could help with the understanding of words and their formation. Once attained, it could empower the language user to disassemble a new word and thus be able to work out its new meaning as used in that context.

### **3.4.9 PRONUNCIATION**

Pronunciation refers to how a certain sound is produced in a spoken language which also influences how the hearers understand the meaning of the word (Yates & Zielinski, 2009; Pourhosein, 2012). Pronunciation plays a very critical role in the learners' language mastery and its usage. Morley (1998) argues that inadequate pronunciation skills pose challenges to learners' self-esteem, limit their social interactions, make it difficult for their determination of a speaker's trustworthiness and further limit their likelihood for academic success. The English language poses a serious challenge to L2 speakers, also because it has many words which do not exist in their own native languages. Many English words do not display a simple relationship between their spelling and sounds, words and sentences have strong and weak parts (Fraser, 2000; Gelvanovsky, 2002). The English language also displays characteristics of assimilation, which is the process in which the sounds of certain words become silent when such words are spoken quickly, a feature that is distinctly dissimilar to many other languages.

In the English language, the dynamics of homonyms, polysemy, homophony, homographs, etc. as discussed in the previous sections; also contribute to the pronunciation frustration. Unfortunately, all these discrepancies are not what exists in other languages of the world, and this makes the mastery of English word pronunciation a serious challenge to many speakers. Even though, the teaching of pronunciation cannot be left for the teachers to gamble. Wong (1987) has identified 'stress', 'rhythm', 'adjustment and reduction', 'logical stress', and 'intonation' as some pronunciation elements and stresses their importance in the English language communication which surpasses that of the individual word sounds. With the emergence of more holistic, communicative methods and approaches to L2 instruction, pronunciation is addressed within the context of real communication.

## **3.5 THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY TEACHING IN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT**

The first question that needs to be answered accurately is whether vocabulary and language are two separate entities. In other words, does a teacher develop a lesson

plan for vocabulary teaching and another for language teaching; or whatever he/she has in hand could be used to teach either aspect? Both these questions could be answered satisfactorily when a clear explanation about the relations between the two has been offered.

There seems to be a common understanding about the importance of vocabulary to learners, between researchers and teachers even though the importance is not enough without the proper vocabulary teaching which should match it. A large vocabulary is what chiefly facilitates learners' learning (Alqahtani, 2015). An increased vocabulary has relations to the learners' academic performance in that they will be able to listen, speak, read and write successfully (Gu, 2003). Vocabulary anchors communication (Viera & Rodriguez, 2017); be it oral or written, and so limited vocabulary hampers communication (Alqantani, 2015).

Viera and Rodriguez's (2017:97) study maintains that vocabulary knowledge is what provides learners with a wider 'ability to produce well-structured written texts and enables comprehension of utterances.' Limited vocabulary, on the other hand, affects both 'the knowledge of word meanings and the ability to access that knowledge efficiently in reading and listening comprehension, and speaking and writing fluency (Ferreira, 2007). A person's comprehension and communication abilities are as good as the amount of knowledge they have of that language.

Therefore, the performance of learners in their English language examinations is a reflection of their knowledge – in terms of their comprehension and production – of the English language and vocabulary. With wrong grammar, it is different because meaning could still be established but with the wrong choice of word, meaning is distorted and different meaning – wrong answer – could be the result. It could, therefore, be concluded that there is no language without vocabulary and no vocabulary without language. Vocabulary teaching is consequently synonymous with language teaching since language teaching is vocabulary teaching.

Research confirms that good command of the English language cannot be attained without sufficient vocabulary knowledge (Astika, 2015). The question is how that vocabulary knowledge could be achieved. Nation (2002), argues that the teaching of English vocabulary should be done systematically. Formal education is all about the application of pedagogy, which is a combination of theoretical lenses and the application of practices related to teaching and learning (Dorgu, 2015). Hunt and Beglar (2002) explain that vocabulary teaching should be accompanied by the well-thought approaches, methods, and techniques.

Effective vocabulary teaching, like any other formal education, is a systematic order which runs from the theory, goes to the approach, the method, and then the practical application which culminates in techniques (Brown, 1997). An explanation of these terms is given below. However, research still confirms that many English language teachers in the world still prefer the use of traditional teaching practices which compel learners of language to 'analyse, memorise, and translate structures and chunks' of the language instead of allowing learning the language through communication (Celce-Murcia, 2014). Effective teaching places significant importance on the teacher, which starts from the interpretation of the curriculum and the understanding of the accompanying teaching philosophies, principles, techniques against the envisaged objectives (Dorgu, 2015). In other words, what the teacher does in class encompasses knowledge, wisdom and art put together for the success of the project.

CAPS, which is the subject framework, also determines how the English language, especially vocabulary should be taught (CAPS, 2011). This document emphasises direct or explicit vocabulary teaching which should cover word choice, spelling, sentence construction, punctuation, paragraph writing, revision of grammatical structures studied in the earlier grades, and introduction of new grade-equivalent language structures.

### **3.5.1 VOCABULARY TEACHING APPROACHES**

Vocabulary teaching approaches entail the views, ideas and beliefs about different theories regarding the nature of language and how languages are learnt (Richards & Schmitt, 2013). This term refers to central viewpoints and theories about what constitutes language, how it is learnt and acquired, and the way it is taught (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). In other words, the teaching approach looks at the theories involved and integrates them with all the other aspects involved until a practical language teaching and learning process is generated. This is an art that a teacher should not only possess but must be able to put into practice. It calls for a broad mind of a teacher and requires of him/her an eye for detail with regards to theories, methods and techniques. CAPS states that teaching language and vocabulary should take the text-based approach, communicative approach, and process approach (CAPS, 2011).

### **3.5.2 VOCABULARY TEACHING METHODS**

A teaching method is a practical application of approaches, which include the sets of strategies and activities in the delivery of classroom instruction through diverse materials and techniques (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The teaching method is defined as the strategies used for classroom instruction through which a teacher delivers knowledge of the subject matter to the learners based on the teaching objectives to promote learning (Buseri & Dorgu, 2011).

The teaching method is a systematic plan for learning the second language that the teacher deploys, which talks to the learning objectives being pursued (Hoque, 2016). A teaching method facilitates learning and helps the teacher with communication of skills, knowledge, values and attitudes. It implies an orderly set of logical steps (Hoque, 2016). It is more procedural. Unfortunately, there are no predetermined methods that are readily available to teachers which guarantee effective teaching of any subject, if not the combination of the available of the diversity of methods of teaching. CAPS emphasises that teaching vocabulary should be characterised by diverse activities aimed at awakening and developing learners' vocabulary learning and mastery.



### **3.5.3 VOCABULARY TEACHING TECHNIQUE**

The technique is well-defined process in classroom activities that is aimed at accomplishing specific objectives of the curriculum (Hoque, 2016). Brown (1997) lists strategies which include: context-drills, games, mini-presentations, dictionary consultation, role-playing and blended-learning; as activities that promote and enhance the language learning process. It could be seen from this list that successful vocabulary teaching activities make classroom teaching learner-centred by much engagement of learners. These techniques defy the traditional order of imparting knowledge and promote active learning involving all learners in the classroom.

Based on the specified language teaching approaches of the CAPS, teachers should expose learners to the English language through listening and reading. Grammar and vocabulary teaching should be executed through interesting activities, with learners offered multiple opportunities to use the language for various purposes through speaking and writing. Both grammar and vocabulary should be delivered in the context of writing (CAPS, 2011).

### **3.6 THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

English Language Teaching (ELT) has had a long journey of development characterised by various approaches, methods and techniques (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The changes have been accompanied by relevant theories at that time, and those have shaped the teaching methods for effective language teaching. Throughout, ELT has passed through three stages of language teaching approaches and methods: the traditional methods stage, the modern approach stage, and the post-modern stage (Celce-Murcia, 2014). Amongst others, the failure of an approach to yield the expected results justified the changes and adoption of newer approaches (Wright & Cervetti, 2017; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Each of these stages has developed and contributed its own language teaching focus.

The first stage included several teaching approaches like the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), the Audio-lingual Method, Total Physical Response (TPR). The GTM aimed to produce learners who could read and translate texts into the L2. In other words, this method focused on reading and writing skills only, and vocabulary was not a principal concern. Whatever vocabulary could be taught, it was based on the reading texts presented in class.

The Audio-lingual Method had pronunciation – phonology, morphology and syntax (sentences and sound patterns) as its chief targets with a limited vocabulary that was learnt through memorisation and imitation, offered contextually in a linguistic and cultural context – with no explanations given (Rivers, 1964 & Brown, 1980).

The TPR is built around the coordination of speech and action (Bowen, 2013), and verbal inputs are offered to accompany the physical movements; gestures or facial expressions the teacher makes to reinforce the learner's understanding. Learners could be expected to mimic what the teacher has done while repeating the words said by the teacher or vice versa. Listening and performing are developed first while reading and writing come later. Learners do not use their own creativity, as it would have been the case in the natural setting, to learn the language (Winitz, 1981). Selected vocabulary is used as instruction of what the learners should do. And such are repeated until learners get familiar with them to a point that they can carry out the given instruction by the teacher.

The DM placed attention on phonetics but it strives to address all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing in a natural order. Vocabulary is taught using demonstration, real-life objects, and other visual materials but without explanation and translation being offered. In other words, vocabulary is taught implicitly through teacher-learner dialogues.

The second stage which is called the Communicative Approach (CA) was a little bit modernised and strove to translate what was learnt in the class into the real-life situation, and included Content-Based Language Teaching, and Task-Based Language Teaching, (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The CA aimed to develop learners who could communicate efficiently in the authentic target language in different contexts. In other words, these learners should pick up the meaning of the same word even if it has been used several times in different contexts, and they also should be able to use words in different contexts. This approach targets all four language skills because of their connectivity in functional communication. Vocabulary is taught implicitly based on the situational context given. Meaning of words is considered as the intention and expression of the writers and speakers, so vocabulary taught is drawn from and built on authentic and interesting materials to the learners.

The third and last stage is called the post-method era (eclectic approach) and was conceived to solve the weaknesses of those methods concerned with atomising language studies (Prabhu, 1990). Prabhu, (1990) and Schmitt (2000) further explain that there is no better nor super method for vocabulary teaching as each method has its own different teaching and learning settings and common soundness (Celce-Murcia, 2014). De Groot (2006) also adds that academics, researchers and teachers still grapple with what forms the best way of teaching and learning vocabulary. Even though vocabulary teaching features in the English language syllabus, prescription on how it should be taught, and the supply of the teaching resources do not reach the teachers of the language. Despite all these shortcomings, there must be a way to deal with this challenge, and an eclectic approach is one such.

The eclectic approach incorporates everything from all the methods and approaches of teaching and learning the target language (Kumar, 2013). It thus draws language learning activities from the different spectrum and orientations (Mellow, 2002). It calls for a teacher who knows all the methods and approaches of teaching and learning the language, but who could never be enslaved by any one of them. It draws its success from the advantages of all the other teaching and learning methodologies and approaches. It is a way of teaching language without using any prescribed method/

approach. Its success rests on the teacher's initiatives in understanding what to teach, how to teach it, what materials to use to the learner learning the language, without being confined to a singular successful language learning strategy (Gao, 2011). The teaching of language is subject to the teacher's own choice or decision, which is informed by the ability of the learners. It does not rely on a one-size-fits all approach.

Additionally, the eclectic approach argues that successful and productive vocabulary teaching requires classroom instruction designed on pedagogical and language teaching and learning principles which include maximized learning opportunity for learners, facilitated learner interaction, fostered language awareness by learners, contextualized linguistic input offered to learners, integrated language skills, promoted learner autonomy, ensured social relevance (Celce-Murcia, 2014). With the English language being a practical subject whose learning is judged against its performance, these principles are essential for its effective teaching. In other words, this is what all the teachers of English should strive to achieve in their classes.

### **3.7 VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES**

Teaching strategies are subcategories of teaching methods, which are a combination of various techniques (activities) that a teacher uses in the development of their lesson aimed at accomplishing specified goals (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). The effectiveness of vocabulary teaching depends on the learning strategies that the learners develop. Gbamaja (1991) identifies the following as some principles that enable vocabulary learning in a classroom situation: strategies that actively involve learning activities, encourage learners and help build their self-worth through an enhanced learning environment, pace learning in a way that has something to offer to the learners in the classroom, embrace both the explicit and eclectic vocabulary teaching approaches, and include explicit vocabulary teaching strategies and eclectic vocabulary teaching approach. Both should cover cognitive, affective and psychomotor development methods.

### 3.7.1 EXPLICIT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

Explicit vocabulary instruction is when the learner is aware of what takes place in the classroom. Curtis and Longo (2001) see vocabulary instruction as deductive in that learners are presented with the meanings of words further explanations of which are done using examples, opposites, synonyms (echoic) and visual aids (iconic). In this teaching strategy, the teacher plays an active role in explaining and illustrating the meanings of the words with the learners listening and looking at the illustrations the teacher presents to the class. The strategy focuses more on the retention and not the usage of the new words. In other words, it a combination of echoic and iconic vocabulary learning strategies.

Vienna (2003) still debates that even with explicit acquisition, there is still consciousness involved because learners are actively engaged in processing the information. Alemi and Tayebi (2011) equate this to intentional vocabulary learning in that the learner is first told what they should learn. Shakouri, Mahdavi, Mousavi & Pourteghali, (2014) explains that the goal of this viewpoint is to direct learner's attention to vocabulary learning. Shakouri, Mahdavi, Mousavi & Pourteghali, (2014) further explain that even though it might appear different from the implicit processes, its end product is implicit because learners still work out the meanings of words on their own.

Khojastehmehr & Takrimi (2009) outline three steps that teachers should follow when teaching vocabulary explicitly. Firstly, teachers should prioritize the learners' understanding by clarifying the material using different means like using pictures, easy explanation before translation; providing examples of own or others, if textbook examples are insufficient or ambiguous. The same Khojastehmehr & Takrimi (2009) further state that teachers should try establishing links between language and learners' needs outside the classroom, familiarizing learners with outside texts suitable for the level of class, guiding and monitoring group activities in class, using simple poetry, short story, jokes or music to promote learning. They close by stating that there should be a promotion of independent learning which could include encouraging dictionary use, attending to individual differences in class activities, presenting material first

orally and then in written form, integrating testing into teaching, and encouraging learners to use sentences rather than one-word answers by learners (ibid).

Secondly, they should have good communication skills, such as making learners interested in the English language, cheering up the class, advising on accurate pronunciation. Teachers should keep the class orderly, show enthusiasm for teaching EFL, and have a reasonable competition with other effective EFL teachers. Ultimately, they should have a good personal characteristic (flexible, supportive toward learners, kind and friendly, has a lovely character, cheerful and smile often, fair in attending to all learners, communicate with uninterested learners, allow mother tongue use when it facilitates learner participation). These same teachers must have a lot of knowledge in the use of the computer and educational software in teaching, the internet to improve own teaching methodology and/or consulting with peers, speaking the language fluently, and researching new teaching methods in the classroom.

CAPS prefers direct or explicit vocabulary teaching which takes the learners through active vocabulary learning engagements with basic language structures like grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation (CAPS, 2011). This document again encourages a teaching environment in which learners are continually exposed to the target language and offered numerous opportunities to apply the language through reading, speaking and writing. In other words, whatever language teacher does in the classroom should have exposed the language and its components and ultimately drive learners into engaging practically with the same language in an authentic context.

### **3.7.1.1 WORD CATEGORISATION**

This is the strategy that Brooks, (2010) refers to as the process of teaching specific words based on their categories of importance. Even though there are many categories into which words could be classified, certain words in a text are more important than the others in terms of the comprehension of the text and it is the latter that should be prioritised. Chief of these categories are the word tiers. Mintz, Wang, &

Li (2014) debate that categorisation of words is central in the acquisition of language, even though words are not used with their marks or names.

The application of this method calls for the teacher to be conversant with those classes to group them per their importance. In other words, it is this knowledge that will dictate the choice of words to be prioritised and those others teaching of which could be delayed. During this strategy, the teacher evaluates all the words from the three different Tiers and selects those that he/she wants to use in that situation. Armbruster, Lehr. & Osborn, (2001) state that even when teaching those unknown words to learners, it cannot be every one of them the teacher should bring forth, but some should be left out for the learners to engage with them on their own. (Tier 1 Words are simple words that name almost everything that a person can think of in everyday life; Tier 2 Words are more complex than Tier 1 Words and they deal with abstract aspects which help with the comprehension of the texts; while Tier 3 Words do not always appear in texts and could be unknown to most learners).

The teacher could further give the learners the carefully selected words from the tiers and requests them to construct meaningful sentences using the given words from all the tiers. The simplicity of the Tier 1 words would be for the advantage of the learners while the unfamiliarity of the Tier 3 words would be watered down by the former; and in this way, a route the sentence could follow which stems from the complex and subject-related nature of the Tier 2 words could be established. In this case, the correct meaning of the Tier 2 words could be easily guessed because of the text-context clues. Despite the advantages that come with contextual vocabulary teaching, de-contextualisation, if properly used, is still a strategy that has got its benefits in vocabulary teaching.

### **3.7.1.2 TEACHING VOCABULARY WITH FOCUS ON PRE-PLANNED WORDS**

The Pre-teaching vocabulary strategy is aimed at clarifying some words for the learners which are believed to can pose a challenge in comprehension of the text (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2008). This strategy rests on the competencies of the

teachers to assess the learners' level of vocabulary and match it with the standard of the words used in the text; so that focus could be put on certain unfamiliar words familiarity with would unlock text comprehension. Not only does this strategy increase comprehension, but it also encourages learners to read more and thus gather more words which are used as tools for independent vocabulary acquisition (Hall, 2004).

This method mainly uses a word list, gloss or dictionary by looking at words as individual language units that could stand on their own. Some theorists still campaign for its use and explain that its consciousness approach to learning vocabulary is good for learners' knowledge and storage of new words (Schmidt, 2007). This is a de-contextualised way of learning vocabulary. With this approach, learning is prescribed and confined only to the pre-planned words with which the teacher wants the learners to interact. What has considered key is when learners would mime meanings of words even if they would not be able to apply them in a real conversation.

During this method, three ways of presenting words could be applied which are; a) words drawn from textbooks would be presented to the learners with no given context except that "a simple presentation or synonyms" could be offered in the target language or in the learners' native language, b) simple explanation which could be supported by simple example like of sentences found in the dictionary could be offered to the learners, c) words drawn from written texts which will have a better context than the previous two. Shen (2003) argues that this method is rote learning which is efficient only for a short period.

Even though, some scholars believe that it could be considered a base for early vocabulary teaching and learning stages (Nation & Hwang, 1995). Vaughn, Swanson, Roberts, Wanzek, Stillman-Spisak, Solis, & Simmons, (2013) and Swanson, Wanzek, Vaughn, Roberts, & Fall, (2015) argue that if applied in the correct manner, which amongst others could cover allowing learners to work with vocabulary terms by suggesting their synonyms, antonyms, and constantly constructing new sentences which feature the words, pre-teaching vocabulary strategy could be the most effective vocabulary teaching approach. Effective vocabulary learning takes place when learners constantly see and productively try to apply the new identified words (Laufer



& Hulstijn, 2001; Nation & Webb, 2011). Minarik and Lintner (2011) expound that it is not the pre-teaching method that does the magic, but the activities that are used to foster the understanding of the pre-identified words and their practical application in a real-life situation.

Some of the other advantages of pre-planned vocabulary instruction are that it facilitates information processing by learners by drawing connections between prior knowledge and the new word (Stott, 2001; McCollin, O'Shea, & McQuiston, 2010); and it again enhances text comprehension (Minarik & Lintner, 2011; Vaughn et al., 2013). The idea that is being propagated is that there are no new and old ways of teaching vocabulary, but it is the innovation that should go with the approach that steers the act which impacts the results. However, the expected novelty by the teacher cannot surpass his/her competencies.

### **3.7.1.3 TRANSLATING UNFAMILIAR WORDS INTO LEARNERS' FIRST LANGUAGE**

Translation of words from one language into the other when teaching is called code-switching or code-mixing (Jamshidi & Navehebrahim, 2013; Mazur, 2016). During this strategy, a word or an expression from one language is used to illustrate the meaning of words of another language which might have impeded comprehension of what might have been said to or is being read by the learners (Wardhaugh, 1990). Research has it on records that code-switching could be used as an effective tool for effective second language teaching and learning (Celik, 2003; Jamshidi & Navehebrahim, 2013; Kim, 2015). This strategy is used as a vocabulary teaching technique, especially in situations where the teachers realises that learners seem to suffer from insufficient vocabulary which could assist with comprehension (Oxford & Crookal, 1990; Nishimura, 1995). Code-switching has become a popular vocabulary teaching method even in South African schools (Maluleke, 2019). Lin (2013) proclaims that code-switching awakens learners' cognitive drive which then facilitates and enhances active vocabulary learning of L2. Mazur (2016) and Cook (2013) explain that its effective execution relies heavily on the well-thought-out planning by the teacher.

Poplack, (1980) proposes three types of code-switching which are: 'tag switching', 'inter-sentential switching', and 'intra-sentential switching'. On the other hand, Auer (2009) even goes further and debates that there are four types of code switching and labels those as 'insertional', 'alternation', 'discourse related', and 'participant related'. Hurst and Mona (2017) state that the most popular code-switching method is 'translanguaging'. Proponents of this approach stress that the fundamentals of languages are related such that the learners' L1 still plays a pivotal role in the learning of L2 vocabulary (Atkinson, 1993; Auerbach, 1993; Cole, 1998; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997; Weschler, 1997). Code-switching saves time and makes it easier and convenient for both the learners and the teacher (Cole, 1998); it draws all the learners on board by accommodating even the struggling ones and make them form part of the vocabulary learning class; something which boosts their confidence and makes them feel that they too can still learn the target language (Atkinson, 1993).

Even though the teaching vocabulary in the classroom through the translation of the new word from the target language into the native language remains a contentious debate even today (Alroe & Reinders, 2015). Some scholars give space to this approach but emphasise that it should be practised limitedly (Auerbach, 1993; Schweers, 1999; Cook, 2010; Council of Europe, 2001). Prince's (1996) study admitted that the weaker French learners learning English as a second language would do better if subjected to translation into the second language; one of the recommendations of the study by the researcher has been that the learners should be equipped with skills to utilise context for the meaning of unknown words. Alroe and Reinders (2015) displayed discontentment with code-switching and claim that it robs learners the opportunity to explore the comprehensible input towards long-lasting vocabulary acquisition. Abdali (2010); and Mazur, Rzepka & Araki (2018) blame code-switching for the learners' poor spelling.

Based on this debate, it could be reasoned that code-switching should never be an unguarded gate as that could result in L2 being offered through L1 for the entire duration of the class. Harmer (1991) indicates that prolonged use of code-switching

could be abused when learners might not want to engage in the L2. Even though there cannot be a super vocabulary teaching method that should be held higher than the rest, code-switching must be applied with great caution, or else the intended result could never be attained.

#### **3.7.1.4 PAYING SPECIAL ATTENTION TO VOCABULARY**

One other role of a teacher of the English language is to make learners aware of the importance of words in texts as that results in learners realizing how much benefit they could reap out of that process (Swain, 1993). This strategy helps take the web off the learners' eyes and thus activate the comprehensible input theory of Krashen. The teacher of the English language could draw the learners' attention to new words by giving them a reading text which contains some unfamiliar words with a direct bearing to the comprehension of the text, and ask them to identify those words they do not have immediate knowledge of; or the teacher could highlight those words or write them down on a separate list (Folse, 2006a; 2008). One of the characteristics of the highlighted words should be that they contribute to the comprehension of the text and/or that they are words one could likely come across in everyday life (Folse, 2008).

Though it might appear insignificant in vocabulary learning, this practice helps learners notice and pay special attention to words, something they would not have done without the teachers' assistance (Schmitt, 2007; Nation, 2013). When learners pay attention to words in this way, words exist in isolation and their relations with those they appear with is not important (Nation, 2013). However, this practice has its own advantages, which amongst others is to make learners notice words, something which could elude without someone awakening the skill. The learners can fly over new words they do not necessarily understand their meanings and chase text comprehension as this does not necessarily over require the knowledge of all the words in the text (Nation, 2013). However, this approach could rob learners of the chance to increase their vocabulary. When they are made to repeatedly read the identified sentences in the text, they might come to spot out those words and that could make them magnify them (Grabe, 2009).

### **3.7.1.5 INCULCATING INDEPENDENT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES**

Research confirms that vocabulary development also lies in vocabulary learning strategies some of which involve cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and social strategies (Schmitt, 1997; Nation, 2001). Cognitive vocabulary learning strategies constitute several ways like using context to comprehend certain words, analysing word structures, creating word associations and learning words in the group, etc. as means of categorising, understanding and storing words in the long-term memory (Schmitt, 1997; Hedge, 2000). More light on these techniques and attached strategies will be shed in the subsequent sections of the studies.

The primary goal of teaching new words is to help learners retain the learnt words over time by storing them in the long-term memory and be able to retrieve them when needed for use and be able to use such words effectively in all contexts. However, research reports that it is easier to forget the word when a person has only encountered it less than six times (Rott, 1999; Zangwill, Cobb & Spada, 2001). Beck, McKeown & Omanson (1987) believe that learners should even be offered a minimum of twelve times the exposure in order to master the accurate word production. Multiple exposures coupled with authentic language use practice that could be between six and twenty times in different contexts foster the understanding of new words or else the teaching endeavour would remain allusive (Rott, 1999; Zangwill, Cobb & Spada, 2001). These exposures reinforce the residence of new words in the long-term memory so that they should not be flushed out as being unimportant and obsolete because of the arrival of new ones.

Another way of exposing learners to a new word is by giving multiple examples of the word in various contexts. Such examples would again make learners notice the different forms of the words (e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc.) and their correct usage in contexts (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, NICHD, 2000). Each word has some features which are associated with it which could be expanded through componential analysis of words. For example, a dog is a domestic animal with four legs, furs, a tail, and barks at strangers mostly at night. The knowledge of these features helps with the broad knowledge of the word and also

suggests the contexts the word could be used in. These features also help in determining the real concept referred to in that context.

It is therefore important that teachers of the English language should expose learners to certain words several times until the learners could master them. This multiple exposures must always be accompanied by active learner engagements which could be acts of making learners construct own meaningful sentences using the learnt words, making learners give examples, etc.

### **3.7.1.6 ENCOURAGING INDEPENDENT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION**

Vocabulary development of learners cannot be an activity that only exists in a classroom or with the assistance of the teacher alone. Despite the teacher's critical role in the language development of the learners, language teaching is temporary with language learning as a lifelong activity, hence the need to develop learners who could sustain themselves beyond the classroom interactions. The teacher's expertise in the subject is not the sole guarantee of the vocabulary development of the learners, but the learners' inspiration to learn it is.

Words will never be of any importance to learners unless such interest would have been stirred up. Antonacci and O'Callaghan (2011) argue that an effective vocabulary teacher is the one who makes learners realise that words do not just fall into a text but are selected for a certain reason. It is this awareness that will make learners to be very interested in words and always wanted to know the role played by words in the given texts. Practice will again awaken the curiosity of the learners which in turn will make them not only wanted to check others' words, but they will also be conscious of how they use words, which words to use in different situations in order to have the correct meaning conveyed to the listeners or readers.

Therefore, an effective vocabulary teacher is the one who equips the learners with skills that would sustain their vocabulary development endeavour even at times when they encounter the word being alone. Tell learners to read texts while at home and create time for each one of them to relate the story to their colleagues in class (Linan-

Thompson, & Vaughn, 2007). Though teachers could be comfortable with a particular teaching strategy, learners should be made aware that those are not the only successful vocabulary strategies in existence (Folse, 2004; Sanaoui, 1995). Teachers should view a classroom as a mini world and exploit any other ways that could be available to learners to develop and intensify their vocabulary learning while providing the necessary assistance they could need consistently.

Ghazal (2007) explains the importance of training learners into becoming independent vocabulary learners by instilling confidence which would make them aware that they have the capacity to pursue language development on their own learning. Viera and Rodriguez (2017) explain this process as the strategy in which the teachers encourage learners to grow their vocabulary on their own through the use of contextual clues, formation of new words by use of suffixations, and dictionary. Viera and Rodriguez (2017) further expound that depending on the individuality of the learners, the assistance offered by the teacher would be the springboard from which the learners would activate their different vocabulary learning strategies. According to this strategy, learners could play around the given words in the text and be able to work out different word forms.

Hismanoglu (2000) believes that if well trained, learners could boost good harvest from independent vocabulary learning strategies also because these learners could try many capable ways of language learning strategies. In other words, this strategy could help learners realise that language learning should be more of their own task than the teachers'. Learners would be made aware that words that go together in a sentence have some relations which if capitalised on, could help with the comprehension of the sentence in particular and text as a whole. Hunt and Beglar (2004) explain that teachers should point to learners that context could be beneficial in guessing meanings of unfamiliar words in a sentence as provided by the collocation and grammar of the sentence. In this way, learners would be able to use the context of the accompanying words to infer the meaning of the unknown words, decompose words into different small units or lexemes and consider the meanings of the isolated units

for a better understanding of the newly-formed words, establish the word classes and the correct way of looking up meanings of words in a dictionary.

### **3.7.1.7 CREATING WORD ASSOCIATION**

Teaching vocabulary in an organised way helps learners with the storage and retrieval of such words from their long-term memory (Rose, Buchsbaum & Craik, (2014). Learners should be made aware that no words exist in isolation and when words are associated with each other, a network of interrelated meanings is created, which then facilitates not the retrieval of such words but influences fluency in speaking (Hulme, Maughan & Brown, 1991). The way words are grouped in terms of certain relations, it is how they are stored in the learners' minds (Anderson, Anderson, Lynch, Shapiro & Kim, 2012). This pattern creates a background which learners heavily rely on when dealing with new words in texts.

Research proves that understanding of a reading text relies on what learners already know related to the text (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Hirsch, 2003). When explanations of new words are offered to learners that will always remind the learner about another word, he/she knows which will be associated with the new word in one way or the other (Smadja, (1993)). It is believed that if a stronger association could be established, the new word will be remembered by the learners (Gökhan, (2017)). This is the reason why teachers should always be ready to offer learners some explanation related to new words before learners could be asked to sit what they think could be the meaning of the word.

Associations could be 'paradigmatic' in that the explained word could be an example of something already known by the learner. In the paradigmatic association, words are grouped per class which could be like; furniture – chairs, tables, cardboards, beds; meals – breakfast, lunch, brunch, dinner; etc. (Meara, 1983). Not only does this association allow learners to add other words which fall within the already known classes, but it also makes word retrieval easier and faster.

On the other hand, 'syntagmatic' is that which reminds learners about the relationships of words in terms of how closely they work together for a proper meaning (Francis, 1972). Examples could include 'ride a bicycle, 'work out a solution, 'divide between', etc. This association is collocation related.

When teaching vocabulary, the teacher should try to give as many associations as possible when trying to explain new words and concepts. As a way of getting learners involved in their language learning, more of such examples could be requested even from the other learners, something which in turn will fortify what the learners already know and help in creating a participative classroom environment. The learners' examples should be requested in context as that is how language is used in the real practical sense

The proof of vocabulary learning is when the learner uses the language, which is why Alqahtani (2015) advocates for vocabulary teaching which involves learning new words, practicing using the learnt words and revising the former two steps as a way of retrieving the learnt words. Vocabulary teaching should be about helping learners grow and improve their vocabulary by; increasing the number of words they know and helping them choose and use appropriate words in a natural setup. Viera and Rodriguez (2017) point out that vocabulary is learnt both incidentally and intentionally. In other words, successful vocabulary instruction should be what offers the learners opportunities to use the new words in practical language use.

In the first instance, learners should be encouraged to read extensively working out the meanings of those difficult words which could have been included in the text, whereas on the other hand, the same learners should be asked to explain the meanings of words by using them in sentences of their construction. This could be done by asking learners to share with their classmates what they have read beyond the class time. The teacher could also provide cuttings to the class and group learners to read and discuss the contents, after which any members of the group would be chosen to explain the text and answer the posed questions. Another motivating way could be by telling the learners what you, as their teacher, are reading (Texas Centre for Reading and Language Arts, 2002). This is teaching vocabulary by modelling,



which when coupled with the mastery of vocabulary that the learners look up to, would stir up their interest and make them want to be like the teacher.

### **3.7.1.8 ANALYSIS OF WORDS STRUCTURES**

This is a morphological strategy and it is the study of the process of word formation in a language (PREL, 2008). It helps the language user to know that individual independent word parts have meanings on their own and as such their consideration could help in determining the meaning of the word they are infused to (Baumann, Font, Edwards, & Boland, 2010). For example, the word postnatal consists of the prefix 'post' which means after and the adjective 'natal' which means related to birth. It is when this methodology shall have been established that the learners would determine the meaning of the entire word also because of relating it to the context it has been used in. Kieffer & Lesaux's (2007) on grades 4 and 5 learners attest that knowledge in morphology is the basis for successful text comprehension. In other words, what is suggested here is that learners must be able to break down and assemble a word according to all the components used to make up that word.

Learners should be made aware that words consist of parts that could be broken down into word parts – the root parts and affixation and checking the preceding and – the words as context clues, and also looking up words in a dictionary. Words consist of free morphemes – which are also called individual units of meaning of words and this can stand on their own and have meanings; bound morphemes – which is an attachment which could be added to another morpheme which cannot stand on its own and have meaning; and compound words – which is a combination of two or more free morphemes added together (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2004). It is another critical strategy of working out meanings of words in a text. It is claimed that more than fifty percent of all words in English contain familiar affixes; both in prefixes and suffixes (Stahl & Kapinus, 2001). When words could be broken down into individual components and be assembled, their meanings could be established.

During this strategy, the teacher should assist learners to develop skills that will make their vocabulary development a continuous exercise that could be activated every time a new word is encountered by the learner. The teacher should make learners be exposed to the identified words and be made aware that certain words could be built by adding others onto them based on the message the speaker or writer wants to convey with that new word. Some of the added components of the words could be prefixes, suffixes and the basic word is called the root word. When learners understand the strategy, the teacher could identify those words which could be good examples to this principle and give them to the learners to analyse them by disassembling them into different components, which in turn will help them understand meanings, even of the unknown words in context. It is again important that such components should be presented to learners, and learners should also be asked to apply them in context so that the new meanings and word parts could also be explained.

### **3.7.1.9 TEACHING CONTEXT USE AS AN EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY BUILDING STRATEGY**

Research considers contexts as paramount in helping learners learning new words, recognising the surrounding and contextual meanings, retrieving words, storing them in long-term memory and having appropriate lexical use in language skills (Newton, 1995). According to Shen (2003), contextual strategies “are used for lexical input and output” whereas consolidating strategies “are used to restore words”, full explanations of which are in the subsequent sections.

Llamosas (2014) declares that vocabulary teaching is about ‘how words are used in context (grammar), when is it proper to use them (its function), and how they sound and pronounced (phonology). Vocabulary is, therefore, a comprehensive task and so should its teaching be. Any form of vocabulary teaching which deliberately or otherwise undermines one or two of the aspects should not be considered for a successful vocabulary teaching expedition. Since vocabulary learning is not about the definitions of words in the text only, but their appropriateness in that text, context always forms part of good vocabulary teaching. A rich text is a good tool for vocabulary teaching and learning. This should be a text that is not below the levels of the learners

since it is not also beyond their comprehension. A text is rich when almost all the words could offer a learning platform to the learners of vocabulary in that they provide a rich context for the establishment of the meanings of the new words. The effectiveness of the vocabulary teaching strategy is what could also be gauged on whether it could aid learners to use it beyond the normal classroom environment for successful incidental vocabulary learning.

Reading is still regarded as the best of the four skills in increasing learners' vocabulary "through incidental, indirect and subconscious learning" (Joe, 1998 & Zimmerman, 2009). Reading offers more opportunities to learners to work out meanings of words by using the surrounding clues more than any of the other skills. Words, phrases, clauses, paragraphs, accompanying pictures, and other text features are what form the context clues to be considered for the meaning of the new and unknown words in the text (Graves, 2016). In other words, learners do not only know the meanings of the target words, but also the meanings of the surrounding words, clues, and how the new words relate to those they go with. Shen (2003) claims that reading texts offers learners the native-like contexts which then improves the learners' receptive and productive language – grammatical skills – as it helps with the understanding of the form and meaning of the words in context. Texas (2002) advises that reading texts should be at different levels. Challenging texts help learners infer meanings of unknown words, which in turn help with the internalisation of the meanings whereas simple texts reinforce vocabulary meanings of known words by providing different contexts.

With vocabulary being the knowledge of meanings of words in contexts, reading is a platform, learners should be encouraged to explore also because of the wealth of context opportunity it offers to them (learners). Not only does it offer authentic context for vocabulary learning and development, but it also improves the learners' abilities to read more (Texas, 2002). Effective instructions on improved reading are essential for the vocabulary development of learners. There should be a way by which teachers of the English language could pick up the reading skills of the learners for continuous vocabulary encounters.

However, it could again be argued that teaching and learning vocabulary is a process that takes time also because of the aspects embedded in that process. At times, it could be an extension of what the learners already know whereas at other times it will be like getting new information about that word which the learners would have never thought about. This is what is also referred to as ‘the degree to which the word may differ’ (Antonacci & O’Callaghan, 2011). For example, knowing the meaning of the word might not be new to the learner, but knowing the part of the word and knowing that the word has multiple meanings in different contexts could be. In such instances, the teacher should read the sentences within which the word features to check if there could not be any clues to point out its meaning. Hence, the teacher should reread the sentence with the new word which is thought to be the correct word in the context and determine its suitability. Another strategy of using context clues is when the teacher writes a list of words that could substitute certain words in the text and ask the learners to replace the original text words with those on the list; consideration of which should be more context-based. Pictures that could be matched with the meanings of certain words used in the text could also be attached.

### **3.7.1.10 TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH ROLE-MODELLING**

Learners pick up vocabulary based on the exposure they have. Those who will constantly be exposed to conversational language would pick up conversational language which is considered illiterate in the academic field whereas those who are exposed to higher quality academic vocabulary would accumulate literate vocabulary. Teachers themselves must present such academic language to their learners using formal language during class discussions when they issue instructions and also during one-on-one interactions. Teachers could be the paragon of correctness in terms of the language they want their learners to develop. When a teacher uses a word, which is above the learners’ comprehension, a synonym or its explanation could be provided in order to explain the contextual meaning of the original word. This practice would give the context to the learners, alternative words which could be used in the context and also stimulate the learners to repeat the construction when confronted with the

situation, and that would inculcate, deepen and reinforce the meaning and the use of the word.

Ellis (1994a, 1994b, 1994c, and 1997), as the founder of explicit/implicit learning processes of incidental vocabulary acquisition, believes that they are both agents of vocabulary acquisition and language learning. Ellis explains explicit and implicit vocabulary learning processes as complementary even though he further distinguishes them on consciousness. It could be argued that no matter how better one route of vocabulary teaching might be to the other, the best outcome can still be the result when the two have been combined. Yali (2010) advocates that incidental and intentional vocabulary instruction of vocabulary teaching is good for the development of learners' receptive vocabulary knowledge. Al-Darayseh, (2014). articulates that a combination of explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies are effective in increasing the vocabulary size and the reading skills of learners. In a classroom situation, the choice on whether to use this or that or a joint venture is what should be determined by the teacher of the language after having assessed the level of vocabulary knowledge of the learners. The expertise or deficiency of the learners should be what determines which strategy should be used in that situation.

Gersten & Baker (2000) and Biemiller (2001) further argue that teachers of the English language should always remember that the best vocabulary teaching approach is what covers both the direct (explicit) and indirect (implicit) ways. The idea is that vocabulary teaching should aim at increasing learners' vocabulary knowledge, which should not only be by equipping learners with skills to recognise words when in use, but it should make learners functional in the target language. This is a feat that could be achieved when vocabulary teaching will be more than giving the definitions of words and will include 'systematic, direct teaching of words as found in authentic written texts' (Gersten & Baker, 2000; Biemiller, 2001).

Vocabulary teaching has its own challenges, which even though some of them could be institutional, educational contexts, and learner-related; others can be apportioned

to teachers and their teaching philosophies (Bavi, 2018). Sibanda and Baxen (2016) proclaim that despite the list of what should be taught, and the prescriptions thereof as outlined in the CAPS document, vocabulary teaching calls for innovative skills from the teacher which should be consistent with the learners' needs. Kebiel's (2012) study has found that both teachers and learners do not understand the importance of vocabulary teaching and learning; and as such most teachers and learners lack suitable vocabulary teaching and learning strategies as they are not included in the English language curriculum.

Teachers' expertise in the execution of their professional obligation is not always absolved. Recent research shows that most teachers have not been equipped with the best vocabulary teaching practices, and as such lack confidence (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). Most teachers of the language still rely on the teaching methodology practices they acquired some years back from their professional training. Teaching a language should always resemble the natural order pattern and should begin with teaching words, thus vocabulary (Thornbury, 2002), before sentence construction practice could be pursued. Teaching itself is a delicate task that becomes even worse with vocabulary teaching because of its vast openness (Alqahtani, 2015; Susanto, 2017), earlier neglect and inappropriate readiness of the teachers.

Another challenge is that there are no clear rules learners could be equipped with for an easy but successful vocabulary learning class. There is no prescribed list of new words that learners should be introduced to in order to prepare them either for examinations or social language usage. Whatever exposure learners should have to the English language in terms of knowledge of new words it is not what is exhaustive of what will be required of the language users in the practical language usage. Teaching is a functional activity that cannot always be informed by what is contained in some manuals, but it should also call for creativity on the side of the teachers. Words pick up meanings depending on how they have been used in context; thus making vocabulary teaching a mammoth task (Oxford. & Crookall, 1990). If all these meanings were what teachers should teach their learners, they would be expected to master all

the contextual meanings and have the appropriate teaching strategies that would help deliver the lesson interestingly to the learners (Alqahtani, 2015).

Teachers and their teaching of vocabulary can never be left out in the picture of the language development of their learners. Inappropriate vocabulary teaching has its detriments on learners' vocabulary development which could include learners a) having limited vocabulary or even false equivalents, b) who do not understand and cannot use collocations, c) obtaining non-differential concepts, and d) who use uninteresting methods to learn" (Yu, 2010). Sanaoui (1995) also reports two cases of inappropriate vocabulary teaching in which firstly, the teachers did not know about planned or unplanned teaching and thus relied mainly on incidental learning with much focus on meaning and not forms and usage, and secondly, the teachers were mainly interested in proving their knowledge of vocabulary by pointing out learners' mistakes and correcting such, thus making the lessons teacher-centred. Shen's (2003) study on vocabulary teaching has found that many teachers still use decontextualized methods like "decoding the word meaning or providing synonyms". In most cases, language learners reflect the teaching environment they come from and the teaching techniques they were exposed to.

### **3.7.1.11 MAKING VOCABULARY TEACHING A FREQUENT PRACTICE**

Language is for daily use, and as such, new words would always be encountered daily too. Therefore, its teaching and learning cannot be postponed to another date, but it should be a daily routine for both the teacher and the learners of the language. The regularity should also be accompanied by a variety of teaching approaches, or else it would be tedious. The vocabulary learning process should always be a journey in which learners are accompanied, every step of it, by the teacher, especially at an infant stage of vocabulary learning (Robbins & Ehri, 1994). During this process, learners should be offered an opportunity to put into practice what they have learnt, by being encouraged to interact with their colleagues and the teacher (Robbins & Ehri, 1994). Studies confirm that people remember new words easier when they can relate them to certain individual experiences and when they have tried to use them in authentic-like contexts that were meaningful to them (Willingham, 2003).

### 3.8 VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS

Teaching materials are important in the teaching and learning of a foreign language and their correct usage forms the basis for the successful facilitation of the whole programme (Rondon & Vera, 2016). Visual aids are believed to have more power in making vocabulary teaching not just effective but interesting as well (Davies & Pearse, 2000). This implies that the importance of teaching materials leaves no choice on teachers to decide if they would want to have and use them or not, but mandatory. Bušljeta (2013) adds that if properly used, teaching and learning resources should surpass the attractiveness and interesting stage of the lesson to creating active learning which comes with the development and growth of different language skills and the adoption of interest in the everlasting language learning desire.

Teaching and learning materials or resources are anything that could be used in a teaching and learning process to facilitate learning (Spratt, Pulverness & Williams, 2005). The challenges that learners experience when learning the English language dictate that teachers should try using as many resources in as many ways as they could (Harsono, 2007). The idea that is being purported is that certain teaching and learning resources have more potential to facilitate language learning than others. Moon (2003) states that teachers have three options for considerations regarding teaching materials they could use which include; first, prescribed textbooks; second, course books and available accompanying resources (Kilickaya, 2004; Tamo, 2009); and third, production of own materials which could be due to lack of readily available materials and resources or out of self-innovation.

Teaching and learning materials may include course books, supplementary resources, and technology. A complete course book is a package that typically includes the learner's book, the teacher's book, and other supplementary resources like audio and/or video recordings (Diyanti, 2010). CAPS (2011) states that learners should use both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries for English language development. Supplementary resources, on the other hand, include skill development practice



supplies like vocabulary, grammar, and phonology practice materials); an assortment of communicative activities and teachers' resource materials; authentic language sources like newspapers and/or magazine articles, video, audio-visual, etc.), and any of those materials that could be downloaded from the internet (Spratt et al., 2005). Technological resources cover media resources, as something that learners could keep interacting with even at home in the form of auditory and audio-visual platforms, can sustain teaching beyond the classroom environment.

Schmitt (2008) admits that there are no books on how teachers could approach this delicate aspect; except what is available in research work which again is not what most teachers could access because of lack of resources like internet connection. Even though knowledge of what constitutes teaching materials is not enough, but the correct choice which is informed by suitability and application thereof is key to successful teaching. Amongst others, teaching material choices should not only be based on availability but they should take into account the age of the learners, the ability to arouse the learners' interest, and recognition of the capacity of the learners to digest and understand their usage towards the development of the learners' language (Harsono, 2007; Diyanti, 2010; Harwood, 2010; Tomlinson, 2012; Rondon & Vera, 2016). It remains the teachers' responsibility to decide on what forms the best materials to use when teaching certain subjects or topics in the subject, and how best the readily available materials could be transformed to meet the expectation level of the learners.

Based on the above notion, it can be determined that teaching materials may not always be readily available; and that the readily available materials may not always appeal to the learners, so much that a need to develop or adapt what is on offer may not be avoided for a successful vocabulary teaching exercise. When such a route is considered, the teachers' creativity would be the chief determinant factor. This is what Diyanti (2010) calls personalising teaching materials. As one of the materials innovation strategies, the teacher may decide to accompany the available materials with the use of gestures, realia, simulations to make them more interesting and livelier (ibid). One advantage of using self-tailored materials is that they could be drawn from the learners' environment, something which could stimulate learning.

Bušljeta, (2013) stresses the importance of using visual illustrations and audio-visual and auditory resources in today's language teaching since the learners are always surrounded by media such as television and the internet. The Internet is these days regarded as very prominent teaching and learning resource. Its advantages, which include being a combination of auditory, visual and audio-visual characteristics; and having a lot of information as quickly available as requested, make it a necessity in the teaching of vocabulary (Bušljeta, 2013).

From this debate on language development resources, it could be determined that language development should be considered as something that goes beyond what is contained in the prescribed books, and so should be its teaching approach. Inversely, Rondon and Vera (2016) warn against the careless use of authentic materials and emphasise that they should be checked and graded as they could be frustrating to the learners. The best language teaching materials are those that are drawn from all spheres of life learners are likely going to interact with (Diyanti, 2010). This is just another way of improving learners' language development while solidifying their language structures too.

Chief amongst this is that teaching materials go with what the teacher would determine as his/her teaching methods to apply in each lesson (Ellington & Earl, 1998). Proper use of learning materials is dependent not only on their availability but the diversity of the teacher in terms of the use of suitable teaching strategies. A teacher who depends on one teaching strategy may fail to improvise and turn what is available into useful teaching material. The teachers' understanding of teaching materials and the use thereof should go beyond what has been presented to him/her but talk to how those could tailor the teaching strategies.

### **3.8.1 TECHNOLOGY, VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING**

Ma (2017) proclaims that the era of technology has come with a lot of advantages around vocabulary teaching and learning which if teachers were to capitalise on,

greater would be the academic harvest. Dudeney and Hockly (2007) also argue that the use of technology in the teaching environment is as old as the birth of formal education which started with the use of blackboard or any other kind of recording instrument. What could be debated is that technology has come to stay, and it also has a lot of benefits human beings in their different spheres of life could enjoy. Technology offers unlimited language resources through its various learning software and applications which to a large extent enables quick learning of L2 vocabulary (Chapelle, 2007). However, Chapelle (2007) further regrettably admits that despite all its advantages, technology also poses some challenges, especially to the teachers when they could not utilise it in their vocabulary classes.

In this day and era, technology has risen beyond the use of computers only but includes smartphones, tablets, the Internet and all other contemporary tools compatible with the 21st century and the 4th Industrial Revolution (4IR). Most technological tools offer extra services to what they have been made for, of which language is one of them. Saettler (2004) argues that the introduction of these tools in education can enhance teaching more so because most learners of today are technologically privy. Saettler (2004) further states that teachers need to accommodate and utilise technology while teaching vocabulary in order to improve the old unappealing methods. However, research reports of teachers who come from the non-digital era and who generally exhibit a negative perception towards the use of technology in the classroom as compared to the younger ones who grew up with digital technology (Skenderi, & Skenderi, 2017).

Various scholars advocate for the use of computers with the belief that computers can present information in wide-ranging circumstances which in turn intrigues learners and promotes learning (Hirschel & Fritz, (2013). It is also strongly believed that knowledge gained using computer-assisted learning has the potential to last longer in the memory of the learner than knowledge that came through other methods (Lin, Hsiao, Tseng, & Chan, 2014). The fact that computers and most other technological devices come with an Internet connection is another advantage that makes them useful vocabulary learning agencies (Mustafa, Sain, & Razak (2012). Even though, most experienced

teachers lack computer expertise while novice teachers could be considered good users of technology in their teaching and learning process, despite their lack of teaching experience (Ghavifekr, Kunjappan, Ramasamy, & Anthony, 2016).

Jones, & Durrant, (2010) debates that knowledge is not only confined to traditional resources like texts, such as, books, but can now be drawn from technological tools such as sound, video, and many other devices which if used properly could produce knowledge and meaning in the classroom. One other advantage of turning the learners' mindset to using technology as a vocabulary learning instrument is that it extends the learning time even beyond the normal period there could be an engagement with the learning within the four corners of the classroom. Undoubtedly, the best usage of modern technologies makes learners learn on their own without any influence of a teacher. This practice will eventually introduce learners to plenty of online websites which could provide a variety of learning activities with which these learners can interact for the benefit of their vocabulary learning and development.

Even in situations where teachers are equipped with adequate training, English language teaching could be a challenge if no proper resources were provided. In the South African context where most learners only interact with the English language in a classroom, the teacher of English FAL is the first available resource to the learners. The teaching innovation should be tailored so that the classroom teaching environment and resources are turned into interesting teaching activities that could capture the learners' interest and drive them towards the expected vocabulary mastery and usage goals. Some English language teachers display low oral proficiency in the English language and lack appropriate skills of using technology to teach the language (Khajloo, 2013).

### **3.8.2 TEACHING EFFECTIVE USE A DICTIONARY**

Despite this strategy having courted many criticisms from scholars, the use of a dictionary remains a useful tool for vocabulary teaching (Sedita, 2005). Research still encourages the correct use of dictionaries in vocabulary building which should be an

act beyond definitions of new words (Texas Centre for Reading and Language Arts, 2002). The effectiveness of the dictionary use strategy is a skill that should be developed in learners, or else learners could resort to the first meaning of the word which appears on the list or the else what appears as the shortest definition. Learners should be taken through the abbreviations used in a dictionary to mark different entries so that the correct word to suit the context could be picked up.

Another challenge goes with the right choice of good dictionaries. A good dictionary comprises entries such as pronunciation, different definitions in various contexts, grammatical aspects like parts of speech, vocabulary building components like synonyms, words derivations, phrasal verbs, register, etc. Amongst others, the definition of a word should go beyond a single line which only expresses what that word means. It is also a broad concept that involves many aspects such as the primary and secondary – figurative meanings of the word; guidewords – the common phrases which are always used with that word and the plural forms of the word; word family – which consists of all the words which can easily be understood by knowing the headword; compound words – which are formed by adding a word or more to the primary word; and examples of the word.

The obligation lies with the teacher to bring all this information to the learners and help them know how to transfer knowledge drawn from a dictionary into everyday practice for better understanding and usage of the target language. The teacher must provide learners with dictionary entries of a few selected words from the text. Learners could be asked to identify the correct definitions, related to the context, from a few listed under the entries. In this way, the focus will not only be on the definition, but the context will play a significant role in determining the meanings of the words. The definitions offered to learners should not only be tailored to the level of the understanding of learners but such should again be drawn from the learners' contexts (Graves, 2006; Pacific Resources for Education and Learning (PREL), 2008). Learners would again be asked to check for other vocabulary-building components like synonyms, antonyms, and different examples of the use of words in sentences and collocations.

### **3.8.3 USE OF PICTURES AND REAL OBJECTS**

Carney, & Levin, (2002) states that some learners remember words better when those had been presented to them employing pictures and real objects more than when they have only heard about them. It is a very useful performance to teach vocabulary to learners with low vocabulary acquisition. Amongst others, it helps with the teaching of names of new things to learners by which comes with showing them the real objects. In other words, it focuses more on Tier 1 words. Learners come to have a real experience and sense regarding the object shown. When this approach has used the idea of the teacher should be to take the level of the lesson to a higher level by asking learners to say something about the objects, which could include saying what they know about the objects. This practice is cheaper and easy to apply in every classroom.

### **3.9 VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES**

Vocabulary activities cover those tasks in second language learning which focus on language output through language interaction by the learners (Swain 1993). Amongst them are those activities that make learners focus on the vocabulary, experience multiple vocabulary retrievals strategies, and develop and enhance effective vocabulary learning strategies (Folse, 2008). Unless learners have been afforded a chance to practice what they have learnt through class exercises or activities, what they have learnt is passive vocabulary and remains to be forgotten in no time (Thornbury, 2002). Thornbury (2002) further explains that vocabulary learning is believed to have taken place when the new word that has been learnt was successfully transferred from short-term memory into long-term memory and that only happens when a learner has been given time to play with the new word.

Laufer (2005) advocates for vocabulary teaching activities which includes explicit attention on the following reasons: the active engagements that learners have with the words that make them not focus on particular words; it is misguided belief to think that learners can correctly guess meanings of words when they do not know meanings of 98% of the words in the text; it is hard for learners to easily remember words they have seen once in a text; learners need active engagement with the words in order to

remember them and be able to apply them in their language production, and unfortunately not many learners learning English can read that much.

Different researchers have various vocabulary teaching and learning activities which, they believe if they were to be applied explicitly, they would yield amazing results: giving examples of the identified words and trying using them in sentences (Horst, Cobb, & Nicolae, 2005); translating the target word into the learners' L1 and asking them to use it in a sentence, (Webb, 2005); asking learners work out different parts of speech and constructing own sentences out of those (Barcroft, 2007); explaining meanings of the read text using other words with near-meaning to those exactly used in the text (Joe, 1998); etc. Some other practical exercises which can help make learners more familiar with words they have just learnt include: matching pictures or objects to words, matching parts of words with other related ones, using suffixes to develop new words from given words, classifying and listing related items, filling in grids, crossword puzzles, diagrams, filling in clozes (Scrivener, 1994). Similarly, Thornbury (2002) divides activities that can be used to move words into long-term memory into five types: 'identifying', 'selecting', 'matching', 'sorting', and 'ranking and sequencing'.

Folse (2008) reports that research on second language vocabulary has it on record that classroom activities that work towards these goals have a positive bearing on vocabulary learning. They also have the potential to stimulate prior learnt vocabulary and facilitate their application though the contexts might not always be similar. Vocabulary is learnt faster and effectively when learners are active participants in the learning environment by trying out the application of the newly learnt words (Senechal, Thomas, & Monker, 1995; Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Penno, Wilkinson, & Moore 2002).

CAPS, in support of its language teaching approaches, encourage reading, viewing and text analyses, and learners engaged in social interactions which involve skills like; listening, speaking, reading, and writing; as these are believed to be good at helping

learners choosing and applying appropriate vocabulary in contexts (CAPS, 2011). From the above discussion and all these suggested activities, it could be determined that vocabulary learning is faster when learners are active participants rather than passive recipients who wait to be fed meanings of new words.

### **3.9.1 TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH READING OF TEXTS**

Research promotes text reading activity and explains that it remains an important vocabulary development activity of learners' language and other vocabulary-related skills (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998; Mol, Bus, & de Jong, 2009; Marulis & Neuman, 2010). Texts like books usually offer a near-authentic context for vocabulary learning and development, which no other sources, including teachers, would have provided learners with (Mol, Bus, deJong, & Smeets, 2008).

### **3.9.2 EXPERIENCE MULTIPLE VOCABULARY RETRIEVAL OPPORTUNITIES**

Vocabulary learning can never be a success and its sustainability cannot be guaranteed only on a single encounter. Folse (2006a) states that multiple vocabulary retrieval opportunities are essential for deep-rooted knowledge of words. The aim of this vocabulary teaching and learning goal is to engage the learner in versatile vocabulary learning ways so that at the end, these learners should have determined the different forms and usages of words in various contexts (Atkins & Baddeley, 1998; Folse, 2008). Some of the activities which could be used should cover all the aspects which constitute knowledge of a word.

The social discussion which could resemble group work amongst learners might be another way of creating a chance for these learners not only to interact in an authentic language learning environment, but it could be a way of having multiple vocabulary retrieval opportunities for learners (Vygotsky, 1978; 1986). Activities like this could expedite vocabulary learning and development in many ways. When learners communicate in social groups, it exposes them to different contexts which in turn calls for different word forms; and this makes learners realise that the form of the words is dependent on the context in which they are used (Ohta, 2001; Swain, 2002; Storch,



2005; Dobao, 2014). During this process of social interaction, the learner encounters the new words when hear them being used by colleagues. In this way, the learners would not just appreciate the words but could be pushed to emulate them when alone.

Vocabulary engagements facilitate retention of what has been learnt before (Schmitt, 1997). It is the translation of the word form into the word-meaning which that should be compliant with the requirements of the social contexts and the lexical information like pronunciation, parts of speech, etc. (Pavlenko, 2009; Nation, 2013). It is a good practice when teachers strive to create as many activities as possible which offer many opportunities to the learners to engage in language usage.

This practice is what Nation (2013) explains as applying the newly learnt word in different contexts from which it was encountered previously. Nation (2013) further explicates that this practice helps the learners to apply the words within the correct contexts which, amongst others, might require the correct grammatical aspects such as collocation, persons and numbers, tense, consideration of multiple meanings, etc. it again fosters its retention and sharpens its correct application (Leow & Mercer, 2015; Baddeley & Hitch, 2017).

### **3.9.3 DEVELOPING WORD LEARNING INTEREST THROUGH GAMES**

No learner should be left out in a vocabulary classroom. Effective vocabulary teaching; which would be inviting to learners, and effectual in remembering the learnt words; remains the teacher's main task and such should be sought and implemented in all English language teaching classes. Amongst others, vocabulary teaching strategies could include task-designing, games, reciprocal learning, short quizzes, competitions, meaningful dictations, informal interactions, etc. activities. When this fun-vocabulary teaching route is pursued, extensive and intensive vocabulary learning could take place without too much strain. This approach also helps learners to have an opportunity to see how words are used in their relevant contexts.

Research testifies for the importance of games as effective vocabulary teaching activities. Not only do they create a comfortable and competitive environment, but they

are educative too (Huyen & Nga, 2003; Alemi, 2010; Anil, 2011). Gruss (2016) argues that teaching a foreign language should be made interesting, using games, so that it should appear entertaining to the children. Games offer learners a chance to use words in different contexts and that makes lessons enjoyable (Tuan, 2012).

Larsen-Freemen (1986) further suggests five kinds of language teaching techniques, which are: a) reorganising jumbled sentences, b) playing language games, c) conceiving stories around pictures, d) playing out imaginative roles, and e) interacting with authentic language material. Anil (2011) adds visual, pronunciation, just opposite, one word = many games, etc. as techniques that could foster vocabulary learning in an entertainment-oriented manner. Hadfield (1998:102 - 104) suggests the following forms of vocabulary games: '*information gap*', '*guessing games*', '*search games*', '*matching games*', '*matching-up games*', '*exchanging games*', '*collecting games*', '*arranging games*'. Good vocabulary development activities are those that would cater for the learners of different bits of intelligence, which could include '*identification*', '*selection*', '*matching*', '*sorting*' and '*ranking*' of words (Thornbury, 2002:76).

In selecting the vocabulary learning activities, special care regarding multiple intelligences in the classroom should be key so that all the learners should be catered for 'linguistic' – activities which stimulate thinking and debates; 'logical' – mathematical activities which make learner deal with patterns and relationships, classification and categorisation of objects; 'spatial' – working with pictures; 'bodily-kinaesthetic' – learning through movements of body parts; 'musical' – rhythm and sound patterns; 'interpersonal' – working with others; and 'intrapersonal' – working on information individually (Gardner, 1999). When a teacher settles on a teaching activity, these characteristics of different learners in a classroom should have been considered, otherwise, the envisioned goal would never be realised.

Games have several advantages to learning language vocabulary Bradley, Lindstrm, & Rystedt, (2010), some of which are listed in the following segment. Firstly, games have the power to attract all the learners and engage them in the learning process. This, again, helps learners to gauge their standards, appreciate the achievements of others and finally want to work to the level of their colleagues in group or/and class. Secondly, games bring learners together for peer mentoring and tutoring towards

vocabulary learning. Lastly, games make vocabulary learning fun yet effective and productive.

Effective vocabulary teaching requires teachers to use various and most recent teaching techniques (Susanto, 2017). However, Shen (2003) claims that most teachers of the English language lack deep awareness of research findings related to what they teach. For example, these teachers do not know the expected level of the vocabulary of learners when they are at different grades; how they could help develop the learners' vocabulary level and how much improvement could be measured. Susanto (2017) asserts that a learner who does not possess sufficient vocabulary size will not perform at the expected level in all aspects of language. Oljira's (2017) study further reports that little was done regarding vocabulary teaching and learning by both the teachers and the learners respectively; the vocabulary teaching techniques employed by the teachers were not what could produce the expected results in that they did not offer opportunities to learners to apply knowledge of what was learnt; lessons were more teacher-centred than learner-centred; and vocabulary instructions were also not clear and as such learners remained confused and silent and did not know what they were supposed to do.

### **3.10 CONCLUSION**

This chapter clarified the importance of vocabulary and teaching, both to the life of the learner, the components of vocabulary teaching upon which teaching ought to focus upon, effective teaching strategies, resources and activities relevant for vocabulary teaching. The chapter explicitly interrogated the role that teachers in the language development of learners through their understanding of vocabulary and all the related matters regarding the appropriate vocabulary for a particular context, their mastery of the English language and delivery. The chapter explicated their understanding of how learners learn the English language. On the whole, the review of literature focused on some normative practices in the teaching of vocabulary, estimating the current contributions of research to the development and mastery of this aspect of L2 strategies. The following chapter examines the research methods adopted to engage with the principal research questions in this study.

## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter reviewed literature relevant to the study. Amongst others, such literature addressed the importance of literature and its teaching towards the language mastery by the learners; what constitutes appropriate vocabulary teaching and learning, literature and the accompanied effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies, resource materials and activities. The Chapter further exposed the importance of the role played by the teacher in the learners' vocabulary development.

In this chapter, the research paradigm, research approach, design and methodology, together with the justifications for the choices are presented. The subsequent sections of the chapter are on the procedures of collecting, analysing and reporting the research findings alongside the quantitative and qualitative methods. Other important research components like quality assurance and ethical considerations are interrogated and highlighted in this section of the study.

Research methodology is the planning and presentation of data for the study in a manner relevant to the research purpose (Ram, 2010). It combines the plan, structure, strategy of investigation which are all brought together with the one purpose of obtaining answers to the search question (Borwankar, 1995). Schwarzt, (2007) defines research methodology as a model on how research should be conducted. Research methodologies explain and describe research problems and their worthiness for investigation based on: the nature of the research problems; the hypotheses to be tested; whether the problem can be investigated using particular designs and procedures; and the selection and development of the most appropriate ways of collecting data (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Schwarzt, 2007).

### **4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM**

Social research has a defined way in which the whole enquiry process should be held, which is termed "paradigm" (Kuhn, 1970:175). This is the pattern which defines the basic set of beliefs that direct the steps and actions a researcher should follow in order to produce credible research (Lincoln, Lynham. & Guba, 2011). Paradigm creates

parameters of the shared 'generalizations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists regarding the nature of reality and knowledge' (Kuhn, 1970:39). For many years in the history of research, qualitative and quantitative approaches have been at the disposal of researchers. The two paradigms apparently lie in diametrical opposition in terms of approach and method. The quantitative paradigm is objective and positivist, while the qualitative paradigm advocates for subjectivity and interpretivism (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Ma, 2012; Creswell, 2014a). This has resulted in a long-lasting debate on which one is better between the two; with each group claiming that their approach was legitimate.

Pragmatism was introduced to reject the notion that social science enquiry can be realised using only through one scientific method (Maxcy, 2003). This pragmatic paradigm considers social research as a broad assignment which is complex to understand when viewed only from a singular perspective (Morgan, 2014a). According to Morse (1991), pragmatism stands to obtain a full 'understanding of the behaviour and experiences of individuals, groups, communities and institutions by using more than one method within the research study'. Pragmatism claims to harmonise the two opposing paradigms by bridging the gap between them and also by not prescribing a particular orientation as the superior research approach (Creswell & Clark 2011). Instead, pragmatism accommodates qualitative and quantitative paradigms and their not-near-similar research questions.

Pragmatists are convinced that human actions and their past experiences are inextricable; and so are the convictions conceived from those experiences (Kaushik, Walsh & Lai, 2019). Pragmatism but focuses on providing practical solutions to authentic problems, hence its two philosophical principles of 'scepticism' and 'fallibilism'. In other words, people take certain actions anticipating certain possible consequences, and they again take certain actions with reference to the consequences of their past actions. This paradigm encourages researchers to use any philosophical and/or methodological approach that yields the best results in particular research (Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998). It could therefore be stated that actions influence change and such should be pursued as long as there are human beings in the world (Maxcy, 2003; Goldkuhl, 2012; Morgan, 2014a).

Pragmatism rests on three widely shared ideas which highlight its focus on experiences; unlike other philosophies which emphasise the nature of reality (Morgan, 2014a). In other words, pragmatism's focus is fluid and dependent on what is happening at that time. Below are the explications of the three views:

- a) Pragmatists believe that actions are married to the situations and the contexts in which they occur (Morgan, 2014a). This is to say that people behave the way they do because of what is happening around them. It can therefore be argued that there is no universal action which can cut across all situations such that it could be used as the basic measure of human action. According to pragmatism, human actions translate into their belief and inversely; their beliefs elicit their actions (Morgan, 2014a).
- b) Pragmatists' second idea is that actions and consequences are reciprocal (Morgan, 2014a). According to this notion, every human action is influenced by what is viewed as the consequences in that situation. In other words, there is not any permanent action to a particular situation even if it were to repeat itself.
- c) Finally, pragmatists argue that people's experiences can never be exactly identical and as such, they see and respond to the world views differently; even though that does not rule out the possibility of sharing similar beliefs at other times (Morgan, 2014a). The pragmatist believes that in as much as worldviews could be socially shared, they are, however individually unique.

This study is one of its nature because it was triggered by the observation of recurrent poor performance in Grade 12 English FAL. This problem is deeply rooted and there is a need to establish what could be amiss; the study asks questions which called for both the quantitative and qualitative designs, which cannot be satisfactorily answered by either of these two alone. Looking at the problem from only one side would have been a shortcut; talking about the problem without understanding the context could be misleading. Based on this backdrop, the researcher decided on pragmatism as the appropriate paradigm for this study.

#### **4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Research methodology is systematic investigation (Schwardt, 2007). Research methodology explicitly spells out the strategy pursued from the time a problem worth investigation has been identified up to the stage when analysis of the collected data is

made (Burns & Grove, 2001). It is a system of unambiguous rules and procedures on which research is conducted (Ojo, 2003). As a parallel-convergent triangulation design research, this study implemented a mixed-methods approach.

#### **4.3.1 QUANTITATIVE METHOD**

Quantitative research explains phenomena by ‘collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods, statistics in particular’ in order to answer questions on relationships within measurable variables with an intention to explain, predict and control phenomena (Leedy, 1993; Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002). This approach allows the researcher to use strategies such as surveys, which does not make the researcher interfere with and influence the data sought since it employs predetermined instruments (Creswell, 2003). In this study, the researcher decides what to study; asks specific narrow questions; collects quantifiable data from participants; analyses these numbers using statistics; and conducts the inquiry in an unbiased, objective manner (Fisher, 2003).

Amongst others, quantitative research uses methods which produce reliable data which again can be quantified and generalised to a large population (Marshall, 1996). With the poor vocabulary evident in many learners constituting a crisis in the whole country, it could be argued that the results of the study have the potential to shed light on what could alleviate this challenge.

According Bashir, Afzal, & Azeem, (2008) quantitative methodology forms part of the triangulation research methodology because of its nature which allows the researcher to provide deep awareness into a specific problem which might have been going on for a long time. In other words. With the Department of Education has identified lack of vocabulary as the culprit for poor results in English FAL Grade 12 examinations, it is apparent that a study which intends to understand the persistence of the problem and the causes thereof should be pursued. This methodology offers the researcher an opportunity to gather information on how vocabulary is taught. In other words, the researcher tests the assumption that there is a direct causal relationship between the way vocabulary is taught in the classroom and the results of the learners.

### **4.3.2 QUALITATIVE METHOD**

Qualitative research is characterised by its aims, which relate to understanding some aspects of social life, and its methods which (in general) generate words, rather than numbers, as data for analysis (Patton & Cochran, 2002). This approach is interested in investigating issues and offering an explanation around phenomena in their natural settings (Newman & Benz, 1998). It is research grounded on interpretivist philosophy and is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood, experienced, produced, or constituted. Its data collection methods are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which data are produced (rather than rigidly standardised or structured, or entirely abstracted from real-life contexts). It is based on methods of analysis, explanation and argument building which involve an understanding of complexity, detail and context.

It is characteristically fluid and flexible, data-driven and context-sensitive (Mason, 2002). The qualitative method can probe into responses or observations and obtain more detailed descriptions and explanations of experiences, behaviour and beliefs (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The qualitative research approach presents an opportunity to read the participants' feelings, opinions, and experiences; so much that the researcher could attach meaning to all these attributes (Rumsey, Thiessen, Buchan & Daly, 2016; Rahman, 2017). It is on this basis that complex issues and other hidden dynamics are sufficiently understood (Flick, 2011).

### **4.4 PRAGMATISM AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Research methodology is a plan for a study which spells out the overall framework on how data is collected, analysed and interpreted (Leedy, 1997; Burns & Grove 2001). McMillan and Schumacher (2001) further add that research methodology explains the selection of participants, research setting, and the procedures adhered to when collecting data so much that the research question investigated could be convincingly answered in order to give credibility to the research findings. Research methodology offers the researcher an opportunity to see into the envisaged future so that the correct path is followed until all the research questions garner the most correct results (Durrheim, 2004).



The choice of a research methodology should be informed by the full knowledge of what needs to be done, and how such research would be conducted. Research methodologies are indicative of the model a particular research project has adopted which is restricted within the procedures of that model. Pragmatism identifies the research methodology informed by the types of research questions developed for the study. If it could be established that the study has questions drawn from both the designs, pragmatism creates harmony between the two by drawing closer the two ends of those designs. Once it kicks in, it overrides all the philosophical beliefs and protocols associated with either of the designs. Pragmatism embraces multiple methods to capture data, disregarding their known divergences.

Pragmatism's endorsement of a mixed-methods approach comes with its own uncontested advantages. Mixed-methods approach is better than any of the other two methods in that it affords the researcher the 'ability and freedom to answer research questions' that none of the approaches would; it offers results which are contextual; and lastly, it presents tested results which cannot be contested and accused of having being found wanting by any of the other methodologies (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003; Creswell, 2014; Molina-Azorin, 2016). The results of either the qualitative or quantitative research cannot stand the test of time in that they cannot be generalized in other contexts in as much as they do not reflect the local social understanding respectively (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004)

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define a mixed-methods approach as when the researcher combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches and concepts or language into a single study. Sukamolson (2007) further adds that it is a flexible approach where the research methodology is determined by what we want to find out rather than by any predetermined epistemological position. Apart from this general level of consideration of mixed methods, Creswell and Creswell (2017) also consider its procedural level based on fundamentals which provide an opportunity for a more complete understanding of research problems such as comparing different perspectives drawn from quantitative and qualitative data.

This design allows for the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data at some stage during the research process within a single study with the view of getting

a better understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Because of its nature, it also privileges triangulation which could cover a) data triangulation where heterogeneous data sources are merged; b) methodological triangulation; c) theory triangulation which is concerned with the use of more than one theoretical framework within the same study, and d) investigator triangulation where more than one researcher is involved in one study.

Different scholars agree that triangulation should be promoted amongst researchers. Morse (1991) states that triangulation targets to obtain different research findings which could be used 'to complement data on the same topic' which could be used for the best understanding of the research problem. It has the advantage of bringing together the strengths of different methods and limiting the weaknesses of each of the methods (Patton, 1990). It is best for comparing quantitative and qualitative findings (Creswell, Fetters, & Ivankova, 2004); Creswell, Klassen, Clark, & Smith, 2011).

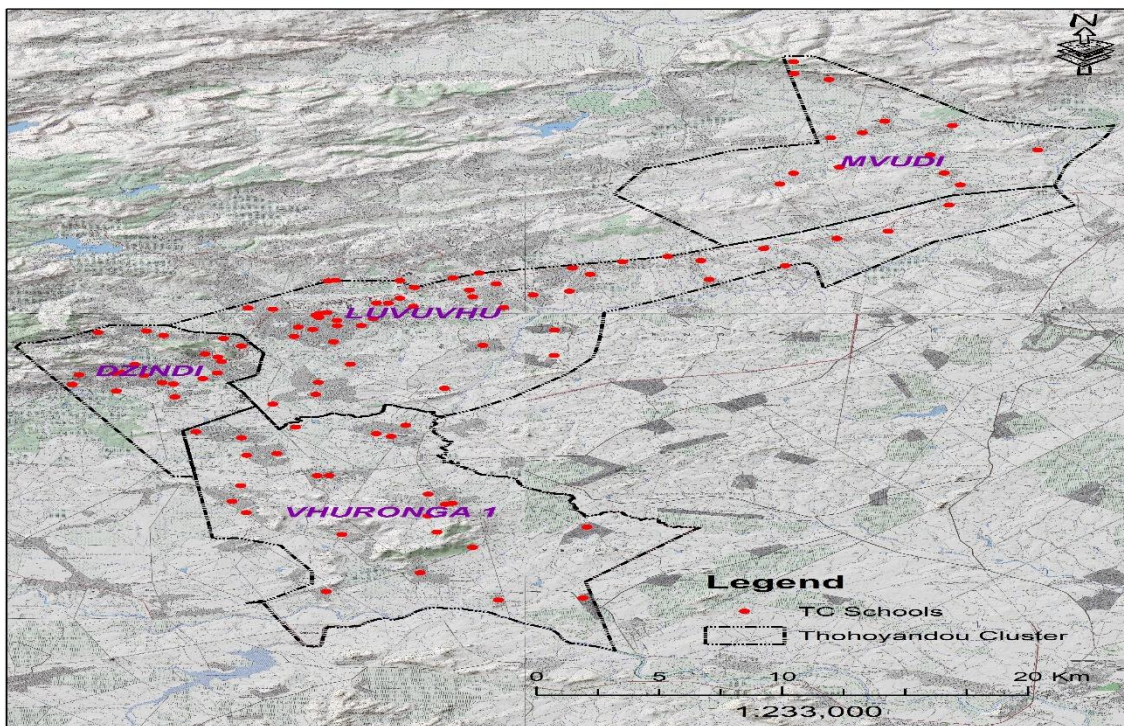
Based on the research type and the embedded advantages of using a pragmatic research paradigm, the researcher settled on a parallel-convergent research design. In this study, triangulation of different aspects was adopted. The researcher adopted the theory, methodological, and data triangulation. For example, Shulman's (1986) Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural theories were used to buttress the study, quantitative and qualitative methods and questionnaire, observation checklist and structured interviews were used as research instruments. These instruments were used each at its own time and so was their analyses. However, their findings were brought together either to corroborate each other or to display their divergent findings.

This is also because each data collection instrument has its own strengths and weaknesses such that total reliance on one instrument can also have its own disadvantages which could be in terms of incompleteness or partiality (Richards, 2001). The use of multiple data-gathering instruments offers the researcher an opportunity to verify the genuineness of the information provided by the participants during the application of the other instrument. For example, observation can be used to gauge the effectiveness of one's teaching by determining the involvement of the

learners in the lesson, something that a questionnaire alone would not have offered the researcher.

#### 4.5 RESEARCH SETTING

A research setting is a natural or controlled location in which a research project takes place (Burns & Grove, 2001). It is the place where research data are collected. This study was conducted in four circuits in Thohoyandou cluster which falls within Vhembe East District of Limpopo Province in South Africa. Vhembe East District is found in the northern part of the Limpopo Province. It constitutes villages which were part of the former Venda homeland.



**Figure 1: Research setting map**

#### 4.6 STUDY POPULATION

Polit and Beck (2004) define a population as the collective number of whatever fits the description and specification of the participants and objects studied. It is the total group of objects, individuals or events the research engages (Reaves, 1992). Dixon, Singleton, & Straits, (2016) describe the population as the target set of individuals the

researcher seeks to make generalizations. These are the group of individuals who form the focus of the research study, and to whom the results of the study apply.

In the case of this study, the target population comprised 50 Grade 10 English FAL teachers in the Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe East District in the Limpopo Province. Vhembe District has more female population representatives than the male counterparts. The 2016 national census presented the female population of 55% against 45% for males; the population of 51% comprised of citizens between 18 – 64 years of age with a median age of 21 years (StatsSA, 2016). Lambani and Nengome's (2017) study reported a population of 65% male teachers and 35% female in the district. Even though, Taqi, Al-Darwish, Akbar. & Al-Gharabali, (2015) argued that gender had no impact on language teaching despite the learners' mystic preference for a female teacher of language

In line with Dixon, Singleton and Straits (2016) who stress that the researcher must explicitly specify the standards for selection, inclusion and exclusion, the researcher chose Grade 10 English FAL educators. The reason was that this study was triggered by the poor results in Grade 12, and the entire blame was apportioned to lack of vocabulary as displayed in the learners' responses. With Grade 12 being a three-year programme, which begins at Grade 10, the researcher felt that this was the appropriate target group for the study. The idea was to ascertain the quality of vocabulary teaching learners are exposed to as they enter the Further Education and Training (FET) phase, and Grade 10 is the entry class. All the Grade 10 teachers in Vhembe East District are non-native English speakers.

#### **4.7 SAMPLING AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

Sampling results in a sample which is a subset of the population studied (Basson & Uys, 1991; Polit & Beck, 2004). Sampling is the process of selecting a manageable group out of a whole population and conducting the study on such a miniature representation (Budhal, 2000; Monareng, Jooste & Dube, 2009; Rossouw, 2003). It is the way of getting cases from which to generalise the defined population examined (Boeijie, 2010). It is the identification process of a portion of an operational population in order to understand the phenomenon investigated (Clark & Creswell, 2008). The

selected part must have the same characteristics as the population they represent and they should again have the capacity to produce the expected results as what could have been the case had any other member of the population been given a chance.

In view of the above qualification, Vhembe District is considered as the education hub of the Province. This is the District which has taken position one in the national Grade 12 results, for so many years. The same accolades go to some of the circuits in this study. Two of the circuits have already taken position one in the Province. It was on this backdrop that the context was found the fertile environment for a study which aims to explore the English FAL teachers' teaching competencies of vocabulary.

In this study, which adopted the mixed-methods approach, two sampling techniques were used. Guest, & Namey, (2015) explain sampling technique as how an appropriate sample is determined. Sampling techniques uphold certain criteria which ultimately make it possible for other members of the population to be considered as part of the study over the other (Burns & Grove 2001). It is an acceptable way of discriminating against some members of the population so that the researcher remains with a sizeable number without compromising the results.

In the quantitative part of the research, the whole population of 50 educators from the 36 schools was sampled. In other words, the researcher preferred the total population sampling. Crossman (2020) explains total population sampling as a type of purposive sampling technique where the researcher chooses to study the total population, also because of it being small, sharing those common characteristics which form part of what is studied. The researcher considered 50 as a manageable number, especially for quantitative research which uses questionnaires. It was again realised that all these teachers were teaching English FAL in Grade 10.

Again, the qualitative research section applied purposive sampling. Polit and Beck (2004) explain that a qualitative research sample is designed, and the sample is chosen depending on the aims of the researcher. According to Creswell (2003), purposive sampling is preferred by researchers because of its potential to offer participants and the researcher the most feasible ways of understanding the problem. Palys (2008) states that purposive sampling is the best-suited technique for qualitative

research. Purposive sampling is characteristically used in qualitative research and identifies participants who are information-rich and expert in the field (Bernard, 2002; Creswell, et.al., 2011)

Ten Grade 10 English FAL teachers took part in the observation and interview components of the study. These comprised teachers were taken from the 2019 Grade 12 best 2 schools in the four identified circuits and one from the two larger circuits. The assumption has been that, these teachers from these schools got the best results also because of the capacity of teachers in the schools in terms of vocabulary teaching.

#### **4.8 DATA COLLECTION**

Creswell (2008) defines data collection as a linear process of identifying, selecting participants for a study, obtaining their consent to take part in the study and using different but relevant instruments to collect information. Data collection is a systematic process of gathering and measuring research information that seeks to answer the research topic by offering answers and the hypotheses tested through a reputable way (Welman, Kruger, Mitchell & Huysamen, 2005; Kabir, 2016). Even though different research fields call for different methods, data collection is not optional in any. Marshall and Rossman (2006) state that it is the type of information sought that should determine the instrument used to collect such data. The success of the whole research project rests on this assignment since the gathered data is analysed and interpreted to inform the results of the study. Kabir (2016) stresses that appropriate data collection instruments should be used for credible research findings.

In a study like this which has adopted a mixed-methods approach, it is fundamental that different instruments appropriate for particular approaches should be used and an explicit explanation offered as per the subsequent subsections.

##### **4.8.1 QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION**

The quantitative study explains phenomena by collecting numerical data which are analysed using statistical approaches (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002). It is an approach

in which the researcher uses tactics of investigation which include experiments and surveys, and gathers data using predetermined instruments like questionnaires (Creswell, 2003). It is an attempt to investigate problems and offer answers to the questions such as how many, how much, to what extent are the problems studied (Rasinger, 2013). The greatest strength in quantitative research is that its methods produce reliable and it yields quantifiable data that can potentially be generalized to a large population (Marshall, 1996). In addition, it is suitable to test and validate already constructed theories about how and why phenomena occur.

In the study, the quantitative method was used to determine the vocabulary teaching competencies of English FAL Grade 10 teachers. Questionnaire and observation checklist which consisted of closed-ended questions which could be completed by ticking a box or selecting the response which best matched the suggested options were used. This format which qualified the instrument as quantitative since participants were grouped according to their characteristics as revealed by their responses to a particular question and quantified. Monette, Sulliva, de Jong (2008) believe that quantitative research encompasses quantifying of phenomena, and as such, it is a methodical procedure in which statistical data are organised and measured and interpretations are made thereon which help with the understanding of the world.

During the questionnaire data collection stage, the researcher visited all the identified schools and issued the questionnaires to all the English FAL Grade 10 teachers. The participants were allowed three days to work on the questionnaires. The allocated time allowed the participants to complete the questionnaire at their own time and with the utmost care and diligence. The questionnaires required the teachers to share their experiences regarding how they teach vocabulary in terms of strategies and activities. The questionnaire also requested the participants to furnish their biographical information. The logic behind the inclusion of the latter section was to determine if the reasons which informed the teachers' classroom practice could be related to their teaching experiences. Upon their collection, the questionnaires were given to a statistician for analysis.

#### **4.8.1.1 INSTRUMENTATION**

A closed-ended type of questionnaire and observation checklist were the only two data collection instruments used for quantitative data. Details pertaining to what each is, their constructions, distribution and collections for questionnaires and procedures for the administration of the observation checklist, have been explained in full in the subsequent sections.

#### **A) QUESTIONNAIRES**

A questionnaire is defined as a document which contains a set of questions, and other types of items about the participants; which are designed to seek information related to the topic under study (Babbie, 1990:). It is a structured data collection instrument which tries to consolidate the expected experiences into a predetermined range of responses (Kabir, 2016). Roopa, & Rani, 2012) define a questionnaire as a set of questions that the participants should deal with which aim to search for answers on a topic or group of topics.

Questionnaires have many advantages in quantitative research. Amongst others, they are standardised and easy to manage, as they are issued to many participants at a time. They are easily summarised, compared and their findings could be generalised. They are impersonal and do not pose any threat of bias created by the influence of the researcher. The confinement prescribed by the questions limits the responses only to the relevance of the topic studied. Finally, they are easy to complete as they do not need any specialised skills.

#### **a) CONSTRUCTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

A closed-ended type of questionnaires was used as the instrument for quantitative data collection. The construction of the questions of the questionnaire was informed by the objectives and the questions of the study together with the collected literature. The following six rules as suggested by DeFranzo (2011) were the guidelines in the development of effective survey questions:

- Questions should talk to the aims and objectives of the study.
- Make the questions short and clear for better understanding.



- Avoid using emotions-evoking language.
- Questions should be arranged logically and systematically from top to bottom.
- Each question should have only one correct answer.
- Questions should be designed with the response in mind.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section (Section A) was the personal information of the participants which other than the biographical information, covered the questions around the English FAL teaching experience, and the highest qualifications. The reason for including these questions was to get some information about the descriptive profile of the participants, especially in relation to their gender, age, race, primary language, teaching experience, academic and professional qualifications. The researcher strove to establish a correlation between the biographical data of the participants and the research results.

The second section of the questionnaire consisted of statements where participants chose a number on a five-point Likert scale representing the best opinions of the participants. Joshi, Kale, Chandel and Pal (2015) explain that the Likert scale allows for the transformation of the participant's subjectivity into an objective reality. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) confirm that this type of research question determines the attitude, thoughts, opinions and feelings of the participants. It is a technique for measuring a person's reaction to something. Other advantages of the Likert scale are that it is easy to understand; the responses are quantifiable despite their subjective nature; participants respond without being forced to identify with the topic. Bosma, Jones, Autio, & Levie, (2007) state that the scale takes several declarative statements with many response categories such as totally disagree, not sure, disagree, agree, and totally agree after each statement.

This section covered questions which were related to the first four research questions which talked to teachers' awareness about CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching, vocabulary teaching strategies, resources, and activities used by the teachers for effective vocabulary teaching.

The last section (Section C) tested the teachers' mastery of the English vocabulary using the ordinal scale of responses. The participants were expected to choose the

best alternative out of the four provided potential responses. This section strove to determine if the Grade 10 English FAL teachers had the capacity to teach vocabulary they are supposed to teach or not (Brown, & Renshaw, 2000; Kyeyune, 2003; Fakeye, 2012; Beukes, 2015). The complexity of some of the words also demanded of the teachers to consult the English dictionary in order to work out the correct responses. This type of question was intended to determine if Grade 10 English FAL teachers considered the dictionary as a valuable easy-to-get and use the resource as identified in and amplified by the CAPS document.

#### **b) DISTRIBUTION AND COLLECTIONS OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

The study targeted 36 secondary schools which offered English FAL in the Thohoyandou cluster of circuits. Based on the different sizes of the schools where some schools have more than one teacher for the subject; the expectations were that there would be more than 36 teachers involved in the study. In this study, a closed type of questionnaire which sought to explore the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers, was used to collect data.

Copies of the questionnaires were hand-delivered by the researchers to all the schools within the identified circuits. Upon the arrival at the schools, the researcher issued the permission letter from the Province to the principal; and requested permission to talk to the teachers concerned. These teachers were given the informed consent form to study and accept their participation in the study. A total of 50 questionnaires were issued out as some schools had more than one teacher offering the subject. These questionnaires were collected after three days. A total of 46 questionnaires were collected which translated into a return rate of 92%. Reasons for non-return of some questions ranged from an unwillingness by the teachers, lack of time to attend to the questionnaires due to time constraints, and the uncertainty about what would happen to the teachers based on the furnished information. The collected questionnaires were given to a statistician for analyses.

## **B) OBSERVATION**

Observation is a research process in which the researcher comes to learn about the subject being investigated through exposure to or getting involved in the activities of the participants in the field of research (Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011). Amongst others, observation allows the researcher to collect data as it happens. The researcher gets a chance to sift information as he/she would deem fit, and only takes data which are accurate to the topic under study. In the case of this study, it was not only the behaviour of the teachers which was under scrutiny but also the reactions of the learners to approaches, strategies, resources and activities which were used for vocabulary teaching.

Vocabulary teaching is an activity which takes place in a classroom, so are its successes and failures. It is apparent that the study about processes around this subject should also be concerned with the classroom environment, and the authentic teaching activity. The researcher used the direct observation approach, where the participants were observed in the authentic environment but without the interference of the researcher, even though they were aware that they were being observed. Observation further enabled the researcher to obtain detailed information about the classroom settings in which real vocabulary teaching and learning processes took place (LeCompte, & Schensul, 1999b). It was a window through which the researcher could see and compare the reliability of the data which had been collected through questionnaires so as not just rely on what the teachers said they did (Sheppard, 2004).

### **a) CONSTRUCTION OF OBSERVATION CHECKLIST**

The quality of the information provided by the observation checklist is equivalent to the quality of their construction (Menold & Bogner, 2016). When constructing the observation sheet, amongst others, the content should be packaged in a way that the collected data should be presented systematically as the research objectives and questions. The content therein should be guided by what forms the focus of what is being studied and not everything that happens in the setting (Kawulchi, 2005 and Ogletree, & Kawulich, 2012). Menold and Bogner (2016) state that the observation checklist should reflect those aspects which form the specific criteria that the

researcher wants to collect data on so that whatever judgment would be made based on the data should be valid in terms of the abilities of the observed.

The following tips, as suggested by Menold and Bogner (2016), were used for the construction of the observation guideline:

- The listed descriptors should talk to the research objectives.
- The descriptors should be clear, specific and observable.
- They should adopt a simple format to avoid long notes.
- There should be provisions for short notes or comments.
- Arrangements of descriptors should be systematic to the objectives.
- There should be graded scales against each descriptor.

#### **b) PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN COLLECTING OBSERVATION DATA**

Lichtman (2010) indicates that the observation method consists of two stages which are the planning and the administration phases. According to this understanding, at the planning phase, the researcher pre-decides what to observe and works out a checklist which spells those aspects out. The development of the checklist also helped with the systematic organisation of the information. The developed checklist should not be what could intimidate the observed participant by its nature and also its administration. The administration phase is when the researcher scores what he/she observes as the phenomena which answer his/her research questions. If possible, when being administered, the process should not create an impression that the observed participant is being ripped into pieces, especially if the researcher constantly visits the checklist whenever he/she notices an anomaly. The researcher should not leave out critical information relevant to the study, especially during the writing of the study findings (Gay & Airasian, 2003).

The researcher went to the 30-minutes class with the participants and sat at the back of the classroom. The researcher collected the observation data by marking against the descriptors which qualified the participants' recognition of vocabulary teaching expectations by the CAPS; the teaching strategies, resources, and activities used by the teachers when delivering their vocabulary lessons. The researcher observed maximum throughout the lesson when marking the checklist and making notes.

## **4.8.2 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION**

The study dealt with qualitative data collection. In mixed-methods research, the role of the qualitative approach is that of filling in the information gaps by providing useful information which solidifies and enhances the understanding of the quantitative data. In this study, only structured interviews were used to collect the qualitative data.

### **4.8.2.1 INSTRUMENTATION**

Only one type of instrument in structured interviews was used to collect the qualitative related data; details of what it entails, and the procedures for implementation for correct and relevant information collection are explained in the subsequent sections.

#### **A) STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS**

The interview is a social encounter in which the interviewer and the interviewee interact sharing information about their past and/or future actions, experiences, feelings and thoughts (Seale, Gogo, Gubrium & Silverman, 2004). McNamara (2006) argues that interviews are always a good data collection instrument in that they reveal the story behind the presented responses offered by the participants. McLeod (2014) further adds that the interview method has the advantage that the researcher can quickly pick it up when the participants struggle to comprehend the question so that such could be downgraded to the level of the participant.

Based on the nature of the study which is a short-term field work confined only to the aspects of vocabulary teaching; the researcher chose structured interviews. Corbin and Morse (2003) and Corbin and Strauss (2008) define semi-structured interviews as in-depth interactions in which the participants are subjected to predetermined questions which are aimed at exposing the truth being investigated. Semi-structured interviews are conducted through a one-off session of less than one hour where all the participants concerned are asked the same questions presented exactly in the same order. During this process, the interactions are recorded by a voice recording machine with a few hand-written notes which could be used as a backup.

In this study, structured interviews were conducted with 10 teachers of Grade 10 English FAL. These interviews were conducted on the day of observations and immediately after the class observations. The responses of the participants were recorded on a voice recorder and presented as raw data for the study. This instrument was used to access the hidden information like the opinions, experiences and challenges that these teachers encountered when teaching vocabulary, which could not have been known otherwise. The whole interview session was guided by the predetermined interview schedule. To achieve the intended mission, the interview questions were open-ended, something which made it easier for the interviewee to express themselves fully and genuinely.

#### **a) INTERVIEWS GUIDELINES**

Because of the delicacy of interviews, the following guidelines as suggested by McNamara (2006) were observed as preparations for the interviewing session:

- Inform the interviewees about the interviews beforehand and ask for their involvement.
- Use a limited predetermined list of questions which addressed the research objectives and questions.
- Place simple questions at the beginning of the interview list to illicit interviewees' interest.
- Use simple language for the understanding of the research questions by all.
- Try to be as natural as possible throughout the interview and not distract the session.

#### **b) PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN COLLECTING INTERVIEWS DATA**

The interview session is an exercise which involved interactions between the researcher and the interviewee. The delicacy around interviews calls for absolute care and appropriate conduct by the interviewer or else the process would fail. It is by this embedded intricacy that the researcher should have mastered the interviewing procedures by heart.

All the interview sessions were set according to the agreement between the researcher and the interviewee and were conducted in a safe space for the comfort

and relaxation of the participants. The interviewer started with small talk to get the interviewees open to the process. The researcher gave a brief explanation about the topic of the study, the aim, background, and the reasons which triggered the study. The interviewees were assured that the collected information would be treated with the utmost confidence. They were again told that their identity would never be aligned to the information in that they would be allocating pseudonyms. With the permission of the interviewees, data were recorded using a voice recording machine with some supplementary notes taken by a pen. Even though each participant was interviewed individually, all the participants were asked the same set of questions with the same order observed.

After the interviews, the collected data were reviewed and transcribed verbatim. The tape and the notes were kept as records for future reference. Throughout the whole process, the researcher never appeared judgemental of the supplied information; instead, the researcher kept on creating a friendly and inviting atmosphere so that the interviewees felt more encouraged to share information about their vocabulary teaching experiences.

#### **4.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH**

Reliability and validity are the bases of research (Mery & Newby, 2010). Both are equally important to both the qualitative and quantitative research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011).

In order to increase the validity of the study, purposive sampling for both the qualitative and quantitative methodologies was the option. This was done to get the desired results which could answer the research aim and questions.

Triangulation was also used as another way of establishing reliability and validity in this study. Three forms of triangulation could be traced throughout the study and such are: methodological; where qualitative and quantitative methods were used; theoretical, in that Shulman's Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory were employed; and data triangulation which involves more kinds

of data sources such as questionnaires, observation, interviews and a literature study was also used.

#### **4.9.1 RELIABILITY**

In research, reliability is apparent, or else the whole project becomes futile. Henning (2004); Bryman (2008); Bryman and Bell (2011) explain reliability as the consistency of the research instruments which is guaranteed when the instruments yield the same or near-the-same results when they are applied to the same candidates but at different times and circumstances. Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee (2006) explicate reliability as those basic features a research instrument should possess. Kvale (1996) further escalate it to the point of delicacy the researcher should display throughout its implementation, starting from the data collection stage up until the analysis stage. It is, therefore, important that the researcher should ward off any undue influences which he/she knows could impact the analysis of the results (O'Connor, & Nancy, 2003). The researcher should throughout the research practice, stay out of the play.

In order to put to test the reliability of the instruments and to determine the acceptable parameters for the objectivity of the researcher; a pilot testing project was executed with teachers who offer English FAL but were not part of the research. Whatever actions were dimmed to have any influence on the research; such were toned down and/or eradicated.

#### **4.9.2 VALIDITY**

Validity is when the research instrument tests what it is intended to test and nothing else (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Babbie and Mouton (2001) further expound that it is the accuracy of the results which reflects the concept of validity. The way the researcher handles the instrument influences the results of the instrument. Schopper, Doussantousse, & Orav, (1993) posit that the researcher should, throughout the data-handling stage of the study, handle the research collection stage with the delicacy it deserves for those credible results. It could, therefore, be stated that validity is not a one-off event which displays itself as an after-analysis thing but pervades the whole research undertakings up to the end.



The research instruments passed through many research bodies like the promotion team, the School and University Higher Degrees Committee and the Limpopo Provincial Research Monitoring Unit as a measure to determine their validity. Amongst others, all these bodies evaluated and passed the instruments after they were found to be accurate and specific for their intended purposes.

#### **4.9.3 OBJECTIVITY AND NEUTRALITY**

Objectivity and neutrality are critical in research. They both guarantee the trustworthiness of a research project. They assure the replica of the results even if the same participants would be subjected to the same research assignment by a different researcher in a similar context (McGrath, 2007). The researcher has tried to create a conducive environment by not being biased and judgemental in any way. All the responses of the participants are free from any undue influence of the researcher.

#### **4.9.4 CREDIBILITY**

Credibility questions the authenticity of the research findings (Pitney & Parker 2009). It remains the primary role of the researcher to present the findings in a convincing way, which could be through making available all the raw collected data as true evidence of the study. Research findings from different instruments should corroborate each other; and where differences exist, such should be within a reasonable range or else that would create doubts of the results.

#### **4.10 PILOT TESTING**

Research piloting is the process of subjecting the research instruments to a particular situation which resembles the environment from which data is going to be collected. Usually, this involves a limited number of participants. This was done to test the reliability and the validity of the instruments in being the best for the intended purpose, to determine the feasibility of the intended study, and to establish the trustworthiness of the participants in offering the expected data. This practice involved administering an imitation research questionnaire to six Grade 10 English FAL teachers and observing and interviewing three of such teachers. This approach helped to tighten

the research techniques by identifying and eliminating the unforeseen research problems which were likely to be encountered and allowing the researcher an opportunity to make address all the identified shortcomings before the real data collection expedition. During this stage, the researcher involved the services of a statistician who assisted with the construction of dummy research results.

#### **4.11 RETURN RATE**

Data were collected using both the quantitative and qualitative instruments; questionnaires and observation, and interviews respectively. These instruments were aligned with the research paradigm, design and methodologies chosen for the study, and this was informed by the research aims and questions. It was only the questionnaires which were given to the Grade 10 English FAL teachers to handle; with the other two having been administered by the researcher. Questionnaires were hand-delivered to the participants who were then allowed three days to attend to the questions. The researcher went back to the schools to collect the same. During the distribution and collection processes, all ethical prescriptions were observed. 46 of the 50 distributed questionnaires, which translates into 92%, were returned. All 10 of the targeted participants, which made 20% of the quantitative whole population sample, were observed as part of the second stage of the qualitative data collection process. It was this number of 10 participants again which was subjected to the interview process as part of qualitative data collection.

#### **4.12 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis is a process of organising the mass collected data into a unified meaningful structure which could be handled easily for better understanding and interpretation (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). LeCompte and Schensul (1999b) define data analysis as the way that the researcher follows to handle, reduce and organise data for better interpretation. It is the stage at which the researcher explains explicitly how the collected data were managed, organised for an unambiguous interpretation and analysis as a preparation for the presentation of the research results (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee, 2006). Patton (1990) identifies three stages of data analysis as: organisation, reduction through summarisation and categorisation of data, and

identification of related data grouping of such per patterns and themes. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) explain that data analysis is 'the ways in which the researcher moves from what is the case to an explanation of why what is the case is the case'. It could therefore be summed up that data analysis is that convincing logic that the researcher follows and applies in the study which helps him/he arrive at what could be considered as the credible findings of the pursuit enquiry.

With the study having adopted the mixed-methods approach, namely quantitative and qualitative methods, which are characterised by positivism and interpretivism as the research frameworks respectively, the analysis and interpretation thereof represented the deductive and inductive logics of research.

#### **4.12.1 ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA**

Quantitative data analysis allows the researcher to generalise the research findings to a larger population which shares the same characteristics as the interested sample studied (Bless, et al., 2006). During this process, the collected data are enumerated so that they could be simply manipulated according to their mathematical properties for better understanding and interpretation of what they mean (Monnette et al, 2008). This is done in order to establish whatever relations exist amongst data so that similar data could be grouped and analysed separately but also in line with the research questions Kothari (2004). Statistical data analysis also helps with the investigations of variables, their effects, relationships and their patterns of involvement (Welman et al., 2005).

The researcher grouped data into different distributions with each class consisting of related variables. Discrete variables which mostly covered the biographical information were considered as a single frequency distribution. Such data were presented in graphs, development of which was guided by Welch and Comer (1988)'s general rules which state that each graph should:

- have a title with the information presented;
- have labels for columns and rows;
- have appropriate categories;
- be simple to read and interpret;

- present data which is contained in any forms in the study;
- clearly shows any similarities or differences of data presented; and
- be accurate in a visual sense.

In this study, the services of a statistician were sought for the quantitative data analysis. Collected data were coded, enumerated and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21. The researcher defined and categorised variables so that the statistician found it easy to convert the information into number of cases. Descriptive statistics were developed, and such provided simplified data presented in the form of tables and graphs. The statistical data covered such information as the frequencies and percentages, and these helped with the establishment of comparisons and differences of the collected data.

#### **4.12.2 ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA**

Qualitative data analysis is the attempt by the researcher of deciphering meaning from the participants' utterances and/or actions and trying to group such interpretations into related themes, categories and regular similarities (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Qualitative data analysis is how the mass and mixed up collected qualitative data is being transformed into simple and understandable information which now bears meaning to the reader (Gibbs, 2007). It is the endeavour to search for meanings and relations drawn from the statement of the participants and interpret such and present it according to the researcher's understanding but without exaggerating (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) explain data analysis as an ongoing process which links all the research components as per the underlying adopted research framework.

Attride-Stirling (2001:386) sees qualitative data analysis as consisting of three stages which are: a) the 'reduction of data', b) the 'exploration of text', and c) the 'integration of the exploration'. Braun and Clarke (2006) further divide qualitative data analysis into a six-steps-linear process which runs throughout the study following steps which include: familiarising oneself with one's data, data coding, themes development, themes reviewing stage, defining and naming adoption of themes, and then report writing stage (ibid).

It was because of its easily interpretable and short description nature that this thematic analysis approach was adopted. Amongst others, it is compatible with the participants' views or opinions, experiences and beliefs. This means that the choice of a qualitative approach comes with its own package and the researcher should observe all those identified different steps and the related procedures and processes, or else the credibility of the study would be jeopardised. Explanations of the embedded steps have been addressed below.

#### **4.12.2.1 FAMILIARISING ONESELF WITH ONE'S DATA**

All qualitative data, despite their generated source which could either be through a personal interview, focus group discussion, observations; need to be recorded either through writing, tape or video recorder, etc. so that important and relevant data should be preserved (Akinyonde & Khan, 2018; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2008). During this stage, the researcher captures almost everything that happens without judging the credibility of any data but holding the view that these data will be needed later in the study. Transcription, on the other hand, is the process of writing down all the collected data; and it needs to be carried out immediately after data recording and before the researcher forgets what could have been regarded as important data. When writing down these notes, the researcher/ transcriber needs to follow the chronological sequence of how things developed as this helps with the categorisation of related ideas and ultimate development of themes (Akinyode & Khan, 2018). This process allows the researcher to have the unlimited time of engaging with data until such time familiarity could be ascertained.

In this case, the researcher as the primary qualitative data collector recorded all the interviews conducted with the targeted participants. In order to make it easy and simple to manage the collected data, the researcher followed the chronological order of the research questions; and that was the way the responses were also arranged.

#### **4.12.2.2 DATA CODING**

This stage entails the process of identifying and highlighting constantly repeated ideas, language and other related information which could be linked (Marshall & Rossman,

2011). Repeated words and how they have been used reveal the participants' feelings, perceptions, attitudes about something, and they should as such be identified and amplified for a better analysis. O'Connor, & Gibson, Nancy, (2003) state that it is for this reason that the developed transcript gets as close to the actual words used by the participants. Identified and grouping of most constantly used words or phrases or any other developed pattern should lead to coding and categorisation of ideas and concepts into themes.

Because of the nature of the interviews which were structured, all the responses shared by the participants were very direct to the questions asked. There were, therefore, no unfamiliar and unexpected utterances which the researcher had to deal with during the transcription and the analysis stages. Even though, the transcripts reflected the actual words used by the participants when responding to the research questions.

#### **4.12.2.3 DEVELOPMENT OF THEMES**

This is the process of drawing links and identifying similarities between the collected data (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Miles & Huberman, 1994). This process allows related ideas and concepts to be grouped into themes (Creswell, 2007; 2014). The procedure also grants the researcher opportunity to determine where data could be placed for better organisation and comparison; especially data which were collected using different instruments. This whole process helps to reduce and consolidate data into manageable units of related ideas (Akinyode & Khan, 2018). Analysis is easier, reliable and valid when data which relate to a particular question is put together and arranged systematically and also according to the research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). O'Conner, Gibson & Nancy (2003) advise that at this stage the researcher should be able to sift the collected data until only he/she remains with what is relevant to the study in general and question in particular. During this process, the collected data and the research questions should remain placed alongside each other. Organised data facilitate the location of relevant themes whenever new data emerge. Themes were developed alongside the research questions as shown in section 5.3. Nonetheless, those questions which had intervention measures involved were split

into two themes. Despite this separation, related themes were still placed alongside the question they intended to answer as shown in Table 5.25.

#### **4.12.2.4 REVIEWING THEMES**

Qualitative research could present a bag of mixed findings which results in different theme-destinations which could be categorised as: expected, unexpected and hard-to-classify themes (Creswell, 2014). New themes come with the way participants could have expressed themselves during the data collection stage. It remains imperative that the researcher should always verify the findings of the study by checking them against the consulted literature in order to determine the status of the findings against the developed themes. Whatever the results, the researcher should handle that professionally as it could diversify the study and set the tone for further and new studies on the topic. However, some dissent themes could be ignored and be discarded as those could stray the study off the track.

In this study, there were no disarray responses that were recorded and experienced. All the responses fell within the expected category, and as such, there were no new themes beyond what had always been expected. Participants' responses were guided by and confined within the asked research questions.

#### **4.12.2.5 DEFINING AND NAMING OF THEMES**

During this stage, researchers revisit the developed themes and check what each of them is all about, after which a determination will be made if that theme is in line with what is being studied (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Amongst others, the content and relevance of what has been captured during the collection stage will determine the validity of that theme, or else it would be discarded or merged with some other existing related themes (Pope, Ziebland, & Mays, 2000; Braun & Clarke, 2006). At this stage, data are moved around to check their dependence on the existing themes. This should be an ongoing practice until such time when all data shall have been classified and satisfaction arrives at that, whatever remains isolated does not belong to the study. This stage closes with the final definition of all the themes and the development of their logical sequence which spells out the story of the analysis.

Only the originally developed themes were maintained throughout the data capturing and analysis stage. As already discussed in the preceding sections, the structured nature of the interviews kept the themes intact.

#### **4.12.2.6 REPORT WRITING**

This is the final stage of qualitative data analysis and it culminates in research report write-up (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As explained in the previous stage, this is what tells the whole research story, and as such, great delicacy should be the norm for a 'concise, coherent, logical, nonrepetitive, and interesting account of the data within and across themes' (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017). Report writing is a vigorous exercise which is more than the descriptions of the themes. This phase determines the credibility of the study and it should therefore be presented in an authentic manner which reflects, amongst others; the direct but short quotes of the participants' responses the trustworthiness of the used methods for the capturing of data (Halpren, 1983 & Thorne, 2000). These quotes are imperative as they also determine the analytical skills of the researcher and the understanding of the relevancy of the literature used to confirm the analyses (Halpren, 1983; Braun & Clarke, 2006). The inclusion of sections of literature helps to draw networks which joins every part of the study into a system which either confirms or questions the findings, thus creating credibility. Credibility also requires the researcher to cover sections that might have been found irrelevant to the study as such could ignite another research interest (Co't'e & Turgeon, 2005). The write-up presents the pursuit research results.

The research findings were presented as authentically as possible. Direct quotes were presented with the analysis. The qualitative research findings were put beside the quantitative findings to determine where there were corroborations due to the established similarities, whereas differences were also identified and discussed.

#### **4.13 DATA TRIANGULATION**

Based on the nature of the study which aimed to understand the teaching competencies of the Grade 10 English FAL teachers, the researcher capitalised on



the multiple methods as well as the different forms of data collection and analysis of the parallel-convergent mixed-methods study design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In this study, three triangulation methods, namely; methodological, theoretical and data, were used. The data collection and analysis phases were confined to a particular methodology for separate interpretations and explanations; and then a discussion about the results from the two separate phases was then pursued. The purpose of this design has been to confirm the findings of the different methodologies through the convergence of the different perspectives. Themes and/or categories of the studies were brought together for the adoption of common ones and elimination of the others.

Based on the number of advantages attached to triangulation which include arresting the bias and weaknesses of one instrument, complementing the instruments, providing more comprehensive data results, etc.; different instruments which represented the qualitative and quantitative methodologies such as; observation and personal face-to-face interviews and questionnaires, were used. Two methodologies; qualitative and quantitative, were also used as explained in the previous sections of the study.

Fifty Grade 10 teachers of English FAL from the four circuits in the Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe East District completed the questionnaires as part of quantitative data collection, while ten of these took part in the qualitative data collection. During this stage, the researcher observed these teachers while teaching own chosen texts which enabled vocabulary development and also engaged them in personal face-to-face interviews. Data from the three data sources were analysed and interpreted separately, after which the results were brought together for deep scrutiny and interpretation.

#### **4.14 ETHICAL CLEARANCE**

Research ethics are those principles and guidelines which confine the researcher within the acceptable research parameters in order to uphold practices regarded as valuable (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). These are the characters which determine the conformability of researchers' behaviour to the code of conduct as set out in research practice (Bless, Higgson-Smith & Kagee, 2006). Ethics in research serve to safeguard the participants, be it human or otherwise, by restricting researchers from

exposing them to any form of harm which could have adverse consequences from the research activities (Trochim, 2006). Research ethics reminds researchers about the rules of being moral when conducting research (Gomm, 2008).

It, therefore, remains the responsibility of the researcher to restrict the research project within the confinement of acceptable research ethical considerations. The researcher had ethical clearance certificates and permission from Higher Degrees Committee of the University of Venda and the Limpopo Provincial Department of Education. Participants also signed the consent forms before they took part in the project. Amongst others, the researcher has the charge to respect the integrity of the participants and therefore the researcher should inform the participants about the purpose of the study. Therefore, the researcher adhered to the following ethical considerations:

#### **4.14.1 INFORMED CONSENT**

There should not be any information related to the research which should be withheld from the participants. Williamson, Kent, Goodenough, & Ashcroft (2002) explain that all possible or adequate information on the goal of the investigation, the procedures involved in the investigation, the possible advantages, disadvantages and any other harm that may be known and any information about the researcher should be made known to the participants before they should decide to engage in the research or not. Throughout the research, participation by the participants should be voluntary (Rose, Aburto, Hagemann, & Shahnazarian, (2009). Dawson (2009) explains further that the anonymity of the researcher could result in the participants' suspicions and thus wrong and misleading responses.

Since this research involved adults, the researcher issued them with a consent form requesting their voluntary participation in the project. The most critical aspects of the research which included the research topic, the general aim and the accompanying research objectives and questions, the methodologies and applications thereof, the guaranteed safety throughout the process were all explained to the participants. Participants were again told that their involvement in the project was voluntarily and that they could terminate it at any given time with no consequences since it was not a contract.

#### **4.14.2 AVOIDANCE OF HARM**

Participants in study should be protected from both physical and emotional harm throughout the research experience and such responsibility lies with the researcher since those have far-reaching consequences for the participants (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011). de Vos, Strydom, Fouché, & Delpont, (2005) explain that the potential impact of the research which the researcher could foresee should be explained to the participants beforehand so that they should decide out of their own will to take part in the research, or else the researcher should change the nature of the research rather than expose the participants to the faintest possibility of any harm of which he may be aware.

In response to the set guidelines on the aspect, the researcher avoided any questions which could have harmed the participants in any form, psychologically or otherwise. The behaviour of the researcher was that of respect to the participants throughout the study. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected from the school premises where utmost security prevailed. No participant raised any issue related to their safety, even though they were encouraged to bring it up if encountered.

#### **4.14.3 VIOLATION OF PRIVACY, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY**

Research should not expose anything personal about the participants; be it their identity and/ or the shared information, to the world without their approval. In other words, the participants should remain anonymous and there should not be anyway by which the participants and their responses could be matched by any other individual other than the researcher (Babbie, 1990). Anderson (2009) explains confidentiality as the way by which the researcher puts control to information access and the assurance that the collected data will not be made available to some other unauthorised people. In a research project, it remains the responsibility of the researcher to ascertain the participants that the collected data will remain with the researcher and they will be used only for the purpose they were collected for (Flick, 2007).

In this study, the researcher commits himself to the strictest confidentiality and did not, in any way, release and share the research responses with anybody, groups or members of groups. Not even the names of the schools' participants were drawn from were disclosed and so was the case with the participants themselves. All the shared information was solely used for this research and nothing else. The research instruments and any other documentation that were used in the research did not reflect the names and any other identities of the participants.

#### **4.15 CONCLUSION**

The chapter focused on data presentation and explained explicitly the research methodology used, including the sampling and sampling techniques, data collection through questionnaire, interviews, classroom observation. Measures of quality control in validity and reliability for quantitative and objectivity and neutrality for qualitative methodologies were also outlined. Data analyses and the procedures relevant to the methodologies were also explained in detail. Procedures of dealing with research ethics were also guaranteed. The next chapter focuses on data interpretation, discussion and analysis.

## CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined.....This chapter presents the results of the study, followed by a discussion thereof. Two types of results data are presented based on the methods involved in collection and analysis. Quantitative data reflects the responses as summarised by the statistician based on the participants' responses to the questionnaire, and what was recorded by the researcher based on observation of how they conducted their vocabulary teaching. These results are presented in figures and tables. On the other hand, the qualitative data is presented verbatim as recorded from the participants' interviews. Analysis of the latter is done thematically following the patterns established from the participants' responses.

The study worked from an understanding that vocabulary teaching competencies relate to *the practices observed by teachers when teaching vocabulary; vocabulary teaching strategies employed; vocabulary teaching resources and activities utilised*. It was on this framework that the study sought to explore the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers in Thohoyandou cluster in Vhembe District by offering answers to the following additional sub-questions: *To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching? What are the teaching strategies Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary? How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate resources when teaching vocabulary? Which activities do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary? Have these teachers mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL? What are the challenges Grade 10 English FAL teachers encounter when teaching vocabulary and how do they surmount those?*

### 5.2. PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

Quantitative data were collected using questionnaires and an observation checklist. Questionnaires were completed by Grade 10 English FAL teachers; while the checklist was completed by the researcher while observing the teachers teach vocabulary. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: personal information, vocabulary

teaching knowledge, and practice, and the teachers' mastery of vocabulary in the English language. The observation checklist concentrated on the vocabulary teaching knowledge and practices.

## SECTION A

### 5.2.1 PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHIC, QUALIFICATION AND EXPERIENCE INFORMATION

This section describes the participants based on their demographic information, academic qualifications and cumulative teaching experience. This also caters for the professional qualifications and the embedded English FAL teaching experience as presented in Table 1 below:

**Table 1: Demographics**

Variable	Attribute	Frequency	Valid Percent
Gender	Male	23	50.0
	Female	23	50.0
Age	21-30	1	2.2
	31-40	5	10.9
	41-50	25	54.3
	51-60	12	26.1
	61-65	3	6.5
Race	African	46	100.0
	Coloured	0	0.0
	Indian	0	0.0
	White	0	0.0
Language	Tshivenda	38	84.4
	XiTsonga	7	13.4
	Sepedi	1	2.2
	Afrikaans	0	0.0
	English	0	0.0

Participants' description (n=46)

The findings show that both genders had an equal representation of 23 (50%) participants. This is contrary to Lambani and Nengome's (2017) study at Vhembe, within which Thohoyandou cluster is found, which reported more male (65%) Grade 7

English FAL teachers than their female counterparts (35%). The 2016 national census, on the other hand, recorded the female population of 55% in Vhembe District. The results here defy the population of the District within which the study area is found in all respects. Nevertheless, Taqi, Al-Darwish, Akbar & Al-Gharabali, (2015) study claims that that gender has no impact on language teaching despite the learners' mystic preference for a female teacher of language.

Most participants (54.3%) were between the ages of 41 and 50 years, followed by those within the age group of 51 – 60 which had a representation of 26.1% of the sample of 46 (100%) of participants. The least (2.2%) of the population's age was between 21 and 30 years old. All in all, 40 (86.9%) of the participants were between 40 and 65 years of age; while only 6 (13.1%) were below 40 years. Based on these figures, it could be inferred that most Grade 10 English FAL teachers are seasoned teachers. However, StatsSA (2016) shows the South African median age 21 years. The argument could be that there is no new employment of new English FAL teachers in the Thohoyandou East cluster.

The conclusion drawn from these results is that these teachers have vast experience which could again be beneficial for their teaching of vocabulary as a component of language learning as claimed by Shulman (1986). However, another view could be that the ages of the teachers have the underlying factor of teachers who rely on traditional vocabulary teaching practices that are not the best to talk to the current challenges. Teachers who come from the non-digital era generally exhibit a negative perception towards the use of technology in the classroom as compared to the younger ones who grew up with digital technology (Skenderi, & Skenderi, 2017). Age is another positive factor associated with the use of technology in the new education dispensation.

All the participants were Africans and non-native English speakers with the majority (84.4%) being Tshivenda speaking; and the rest being XiTsonga (13.4%) and Sepedi (2.2%). These findings do not come as a surprise as Vhembe, where Thohoyandou cluster is located, is mostly a Vhavenda area with only a few Tsongas. Again, there are no schools that enroll white learners in the area. These findings also suggest that for the Grade 10 learners, English is a language that they encounter and experience

in the school, meaning they do not have any social interaction with speakers of the language outside the school premises. Nonetheless, the demographic characteristics of the area are not transposed for any links with the quality of the teaching. Research reviews refute the perception that non-native speakers of English lack the necessary expertise to teach quality English as compared to native speakers (Merino, 1997; Tosuncuoglu, 2017). The teacher's ability cannot be connected to native-ness and non-nativeness.

## 5.2.2 ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS AND TEACHING EXPERIENCES

\* Experience Cross-tabulation

			Experience				
<b>Table 2: Academic Qualification</b>			1-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	Total
Academic Qualification	Degree	Count	6	10	4	4	24
		% of Total	15.0%	25.0%	10.0%	10.0%	60.0%
	Honours	Count	1	8	3	2	14
		% of Total	2.5%	20.0%	7.5%	5.0%	35.0%
	Master's	Count	1	1	0	0	2
		% of Total	2.5%	2.5%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%
Total		Count	8	19	7	6	40
		% of Total	20.0%	47.5%	17.5%	15.0%	100.0%

Table 2 indicates a cross-tabulation of the academic qualifications with teaching experience of the participants. Most (24) of the participants were degree holders who also happened to have the most teaching experience, followed by Honours degree holders (14), while Master's had the least (2) participants and the least teaching experience of 20 years. The six who do not feature here only possess a Standard 10 certificate as their highest academic qualification.

The content knowledge garnered from the teachers pursuing higher academic qualifications is one of the two chief components of Shulman's (1986) PCK theory. It is commendable that many of the participants had academic qualifications beyond the Standard 10 certificate. Even though these findings do not explicitly designate the subjects these participants majored in, but this could, at least, be interpreted as a



pointer to the reality that these teachers value improved qualifications as a factor for improved content knowledge that subsequently has a bearing on quality teaching. The findings ratify those of Hattie (2009) who suggests that the quality of the teachers is equivalent to the quality of their education, either in subject knowledge or pedagogical expertise.

### 5.2.3 PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AND ENGLISH FAL TEACHING EXPERIENCES

\* English Teaching Cross-tabulation

English Teaching

<b>Table 3: Professional Qualification</b>			1-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	Total
Professional Qualification	JSTD	Count	0	1	0	0	1
		% of Total	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	2.3%
	STD	Count	7	12	5	1	25
		% of Total	16.3%	27.9%	11.6%	2.3%	58.1%
	UED/PGCE	Count	4	5	4	1	14
		% of Total	9.3%	11.6%	9.3%	2.3%	32.6%
	Other	Count	1	1	0	1	3
		% of Total	2.3%	2.3%	0.0%	2.3%	7.0%
Total		Count	12	19	9	3	43
		% of Total	27.9%	44.2%	20.9%	7.0%	100.0%

NB: The other qualification is JSTC

More tests are possible for section A, but these do not necessarily address the objectives of this study.

Shulman's (1986) PCK values both pedagogical and content knowledge as the cornerstone for effective teaching. Kusumawardhani (2017) attests to the concept and argues that teacher training is the backbone on which quality teaching is realised. Teacher experience has a direct correlation with the learners' performance as it improves pedagogical knowledge, teaching skills and teaching competence (Andrews, 2008; Kim & Elder, 2008; Richards, 2015). Teachers' qualifications should be augmented with relevant experience in the teaching of a particular subject

(Kusumawardhani (2017). The same notion is also held by Veal, (1999); Daehler & Shinohara, (2001); de Jong & van Driel, (2004) who maintain that experience and higher qualifications are instrumental to an improved teaching of the content. Despite Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, Rockoff, & Wyckoff, (2008)'s belief that experience is production-effective in the early years of teaching, but fades out with time; Maphoso and Mahlo (2015) hold a different view in that they do not see any link between teacher qualification and the learners' achievement.

Intensive and in-service teacher training are believed to be instrumental in the improvement of the teaching quality of the English language teachers (Parupalli, (2019). As with experience, the belief is that even though novice teachers could be considered good users of technology in their teaching and learning process, they, however, lack experience and this deficiency could work against them in producing good results (Ghavifekr, Kunjappan, Ramasamy, & Anthony, 2016). Melnick, & Meister, (2008) further claim that novice teachers do not have the requisite experience to deal with pedagogical issues such as the development and interpretation of lesson planning, motivating the learners, in addition to effective time management.

#### **5.2.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS ADDRESSED**

The study was designed to ascertain whether the Grade 10 English FAL teachers have the necessary competencies to teach the English vocabulary. In pursuit of this goal, the researcher developed a questionnaire divided into categories of sub-questions, responses to which are presented in the next sections of the study. This instrument sought to gauge the participants' competence level:

- a) To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching?
- b) What are the teaching strategies Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?
- c) How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate resources when teaching vocabulary?
- d) Which activities do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?
- e) Have these teachers mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL?

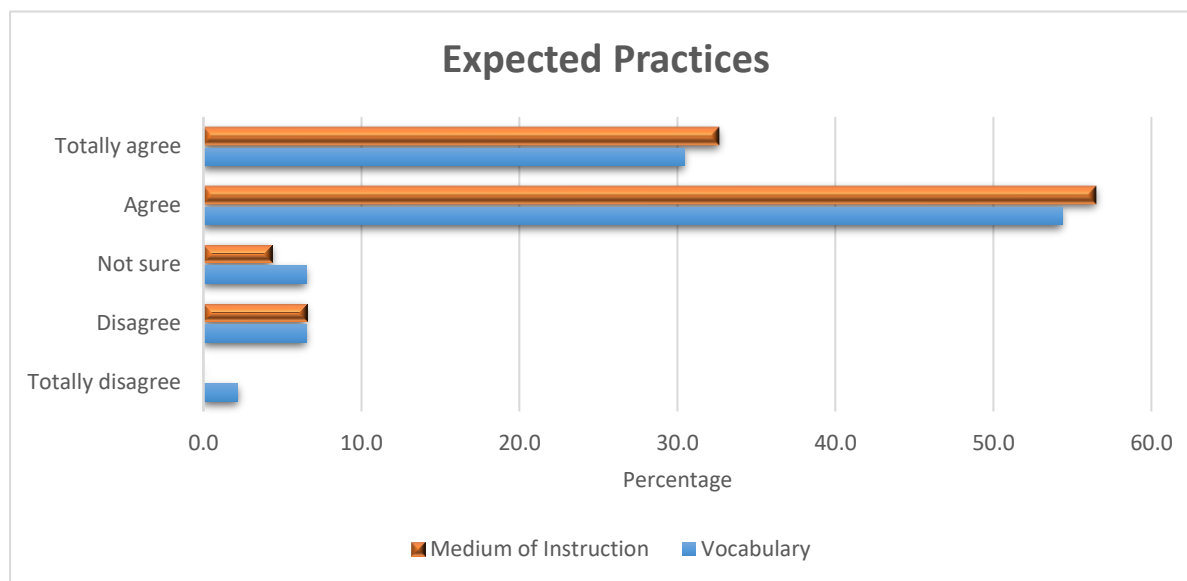
- f) What are the challenges Grade 10 English FAL teachers encounter when teaching vocabulary and how do they surmount those?

The findings for the above research questions are analysed and discussed in the subsequent sections.

#### **5.2.4.1 SUB-QUESTION ONE: TO WHAT EXTENT ARE GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS AWARE OF THE CAPS EXPECTATIONS REGARDING VOCABULARY TEACHING?**

This question was designed to determine the Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers' pedagogical understanding, interpretation and application of the CAPS document and its requirements as a guiding tool for effective teaching of English. According to Shulman's (1986) PCK theory, effective teaching entails understanding, interpretation and application of the subject curriculum (CAPS) and the mastery of the subject content (vocabulary). Shulman (1999) stresses that curriculum prescriptions also define how a certain topic should be taught. The researcher wanted to verify if the teachers were conversant with vocabulary teaching as determined by the subject framework. The researcher tested the validity of the data using the observation checklist during the class visits as presented in the section on quantitative data analysis.

## Teachers' awareness of their English professional practices for effective vocabulary teaching



**Figure 2: Expected English teaching practices**

The study further established that 41 (89.1%) of the participants agreed that they used English as medium of instruction during their English language classes as opposed to 3 (6.5%) who did not. It was 2 (4.4%) of the participants who were not sure if they always used the medium of instruction.

The results ratify the requirement in the CAPS (2011) document which stresses the crucial nature of vocabulary in the learning and development of the learners' language; and consequently expects the teachers' mastery and usage of the language (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004) in the realisation of that dream. It is commendable that majority of the teachers of the English language subscribe to being the agent in the language learning process as indicated by Saengpakdeejit (2004) who highlights that the English language, as used by the teachers in the classroom serves as the springboard from which learners begin mastering the language. The teachers' mastery of the language and correct use thereof talks to Vygotsky, 1978; Krashen, 1985; Nation, 2001; Che & Wang, 2004; Andrew, 2007; Kim & Elder, 2008; Richards, (2015)'s meaning-focused input which aims to produce the CAPS' envisaged effective language users.

The teachers' aptitude in the English language is considered a positive attribute in stimulating the learners. Cummins (2006) and Anyiendah (2017) advocate for adequate exposure to the English language and stress its importance in the language development of the children. The use of the medium of instruction could assist in arresting the challenge of learners who even after many of years of the English language learning still find challenges in expressing themselves in the language.

Even though, the results still demonstrate that there are a few participants who have issues with the expected language practice by the CAPS document. It could be reasoned that the failure by teachers to use the medium of instruction throughout their English classes deprives learners of the opportunity they would have cherished as they do not always have the chance to interact with the English language outside their classes (Sedita, 2005). It is again, therefore, worrisome that some teachers of English choose not to follow the prescription of the FET CAPS document which emphasises that the English language should be learnt through the medium. The possibility that some teachers of the English language might not be conversant with the language itself can also not be completely ruled out. This claim is backed by Heidi (2017)'s findings which report that some teachers lack the necessary expertise of the English language and the skills to teach it.

According to Vygotsky (1978), learning depends on the input and its comprehensibility as presented to the learners. In the context of this study where learners do not always interact in the language besides what they hear from the teachers, it is obvious that the teacher is that input (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). It is, therefore, important that teachers must have the necessary knowledge of the English language so that their learners emulate them. It is the same expertise that also equips teachers with confidence by which they provide wordlists to the learners; provide adequate corrections to the learners whenever such a need arises; and engaging learners through the language that not only stimulates the learners' desire to learn the language but consolidates words and skills learnt earlier.

The study further found that 39 teachers, which constituted (84.7%) agreed that they always taught vocabulary in their English language lessons, while only 1 (2.2%) indicated otherwise. However, 3 (6.5%) reported that they were not sure if they always

included vocabulary teaching in their everyday English language lessons. Lastly, there were 3 (6.5%) other participants who chose not to respond to this question.

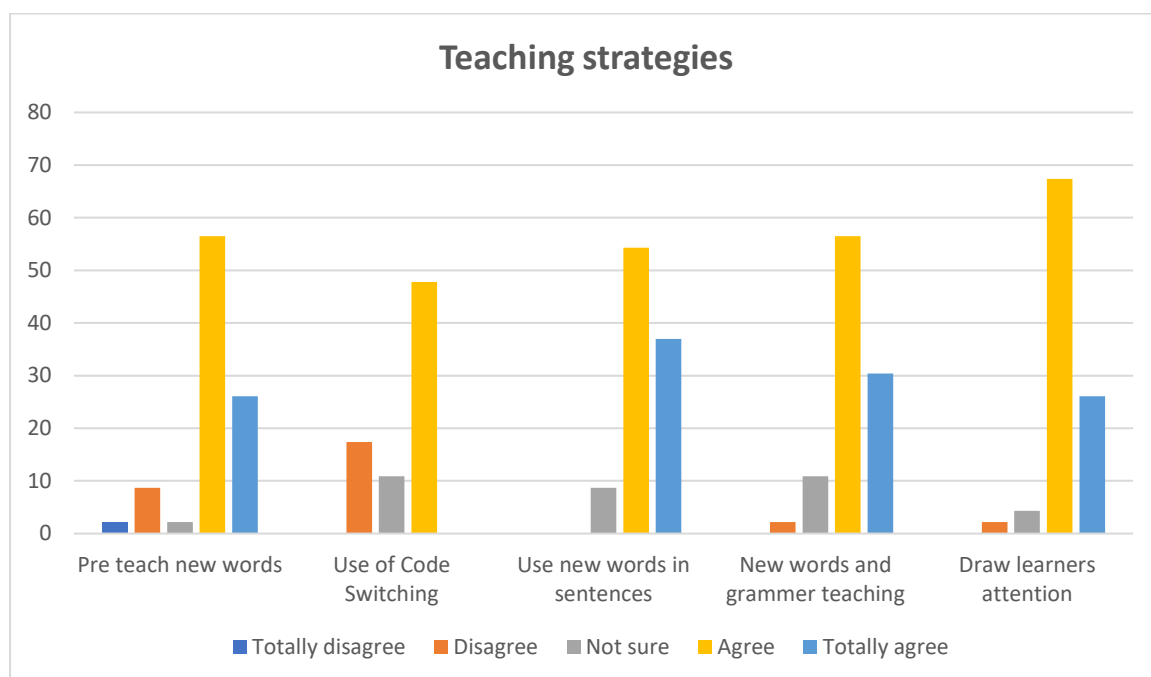
These findings justify what scholars have found significant in continual exposure to a high level and proficient vocabulary. Wilkins (1972); Cook, (2013) believe that immersing learners inconsistent vocabulary teaching is worth the while for the learners. Schmitt and Carter (2000) also emphasise that teaching vocabulary should be treated with the highest level of seriousness if the language development of the learners is to be ensured. Allen (1993); Texas Education (2002); and TutorVista (2017) also admit that learning the English language requires a lot of dedication and expertise from the teachers of the language. Pikulski and Templeton (2004) claim that the large vocabulary that learners could gain from their teachers could affect the language development and mastery by the learners.

From this discussion, it is submitted that vocabulary learning is integral to the full mastery of the target language. The teacher's presence and assistance play an important role, especially for children in disadvantaged areas such as those in this study setting. Since there is no distinct lesson, as prescribed by the teaching framework, which should be aimed at teaching vocabulary, it is the teacher's consideration of the importance of vocabulary which should push them into teaching vocabulary every time such an opportunity arises. Teachers need to be reminded that they are role models to their learners, and when they teach the subject earnestly, learners begin to value its importance and always want to impress by learning the language.

#### **5.2.4.2 SUB-QUESTION TWO: WHAT ARE THE TEACHING STRATEGIES GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS USE TO TEACH VOCABULARY?**

This question was designed to establish the versatility of the teachers of English in terms of the vocabulary teaching strategies they employed and to determine their effectiveness (Beck, McKeon & Kucan, 2008). Several explicit vocabulary teaching strategies were identified and presented to the teachers to engage with. The approach to entertain the explicit vocabulary instruction was prompted by several scholars' claim that different learners preferred explicit vocabulary instruction (Saragi, Nation &

Meister, 1978; The National Reading Panel, 2000; Sedita, 2005). These teachers' responses are captured and discussed in the next section.



**Figure 3: Vocabulary teaching strategies**

## SECTION B

### PRE-TEACHING OF NEW WORDS

Most of the participants (82.6%) indicated that they first identified new words and focused on those before teaching a reading text, while 10.9% expressed that they did not select any words but focused on the text as a vocabulary teaching medium. Only one participant, constituting 2.2% of the participants, did not want to commit to any of the approaches elicited. Two participants, which constituted 4.3%, decided not to respond to this specific question.

The findings show many participants preferred the strategy which is in line with scholars such as Schmidt (1990); Nation & Hwang (1995); Laufer & Shumeli (1997)'s preferences. The popularity of this strategy in this study, as represented by the number of participants, is inconsistent with Shen's (2003) claim that the strategy promotes rote learning and its efficacy is short-lived. Despite the transitory nature of the strategy, many of the participants still find it an ideal vocabulary teaching strategy. It could, therefore, be debated that the participants' approaches to teaching vocabulary, using

the pre-planned words approach, talk to the traditional approaches most of them were inducted. The biographical information, as presented earlier on, indicates that 89.1% of the participants are over 40 years old and come from disadvantaged rural settings. It could be contended that it is not accidental that many of them are convinced about the practicality of the instruction as this might have been the vocabulary instruction method which was used during the participants' school days such as the Grammar Translation and the Direct methods (Richards, 1976; Asyiah, 2017). It could again be maintained that the teaching of vocabulary in isolation is a novel approach that they find challenging to apply in their classrooms.

The fact that there is a higher number of vocabulary teachers who are selective of the words that they teach shows that these teachers are aware that vocabulary teaching is the core to language development and mastery (Viera & Rodriguez, 2017); it is not every word in a language which could consolidate language development (Laufer & Nation, 2012; Martinez & Schmitt, 2012; Nation, 2013a); and vocabulary teaching should reflect its importance (Wilkins, 1972; Schmitt, 2000; Koncara, 2009; Saengpakdeejit, 2014).

The reason for the higher number of participants being word-cautious could be attributed to their experience as shown under the biographical information. These teachers have gathered vast experience along their teaching journey and are aware that competent vocabulary teaching rests on the proficiency of the teachers, specifically the knowledge of what to teach. It remains to be seen if the teachers' selection of vocabulary speaks to the suitability of these words based on their frequency, usefulness and level of difficulty.

Even though only 1 participant indicated that they did not select any words for vocabulary teaching, while the other 2 did not think that selection of special words could result in successful vocabulary teaching; it could be assumed that all these 3 participants were not concerned with the distinct words as key to successful vocabulary teaching and learning, despite the total dependency on the teacher by the learners for improved language development and mastery (Richardson, 2009; Saengpakdeejit, 2014).



A pre-planned vocabulary teaching strategy has room in the vocabulary classroom if well planned and executed. It offers one the opportunity to select words based on their importance in the text which is gauged through listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabulary, (Montgomery, 2007); word tiers, (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002); active and passive (Kaufmann, 2017; TutorVista, 2017); academic, content and support, (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013). The reason many participants indicated that they preferred the pre-planned vocabulary teaching could be that they know how to apply it progressively for increased vocabulary acquisition and application (Minarik & Lintner, 2011; Vaughn et al., 2013; Swanson et al., 2015). In other words, the participants concede that a teaching strategy is a key determinant in what gets taught and what gets mastered.

This strategy helps with the magnification of words and their importance in the development of one's language. It is the same point raised by Banga and Suri (2015) who argue that words and language cannot be treated as separate entities as a language functions because of words. When applied correctly, instruction in vocabulary makes learners pay special attention to words, striving to amplify them every time a new word is encountered, their meanings and suitability in that context. Essentially, a word presented to the learner has the potential to be a comprehensible input for the learners (Krashen, 1985). The findings support Pretorius, (2016)'s debate that both explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies could yield the desired results depending on how they are deployed. Therefore, the expertise of a language teacher is not only in the knowledge of a teaching strategy, but it goes with the knowledge of when to blend them.

### **CODE-SWITCHING**

Regarding the question on whether participants taught vocabulary using code-switching as a teaching strategy, 71.9% agreed, while 17.4% disagreed, and the other 10.9% did not want to commit themselves to the use of code-switching.

These findings confirm Maluleke's (2019) study which highlights that the strategy used in most schools in South Africa is good at vocabulary teaching. Most of these participants subscribe to the notion as highlighted by Kim (2015) who argues that

code-switching promotes effective learning of the target language. It could be reasoned that it bridges the gap between teachers and learners; especially when learners interpret the switch as a move by the teachers to come to their level. In this way, learners feel accepted and their languages acknowledged in the classroom, thus allowing for the nurturing of confidence.

The other portion of the participants who disapproved of the use of code-switching see the practice as one that interferes with successful vocabulary teaching and learning as it denies learners the opportunity to interact with the comprehensible input for successful vocabulary acquisition. Some also see code-switching as promoting unnecessary spelling mistakes (Addali, 2010; Mazur, Rzepka & Araki, 2018).

However, it must be noted that there might not be any strategy that enjoys 100% efficacy. When judging what to do in any given situation, one should go with the scale of success; meaning that the positive should outweigh the negative effects. In this situation, the participants must have chosen their positioning based on what yields the most expected results more than the weaknesses. The competence of the teacher rests upon interventions proposed and implemented in addressing the shortcomings of a given strategy while capitalising on its positive aspects. The relatedness of the fundamentals of language as shown by Atkinson (1993); Weschler (1997) and Cole (1998) could have been the other characteristics participants should have considered when making their choices. Harmer (1991); Cook (2001) and Mazur (2016) feel that code-switching succeeds as a strategy when used with caution against abuse and careless application. The reasoning is that the teachers should not be confined to other peoples' prescriptions but should rely on innovative teaching.

Even though every strategy could be considered based on the balance of scale of success, precautions might still be shared to avoid trial and error. It should be remembered that despite teaching and learning a language as an exercise that takes place within the classroom, its effects have far-reaching consequences. Amongst others, learners need to be independent language users, what is offered to the learner by the teacher does not produce skilful language users, the translation could be word-bound and thus deny the learners the opportunity to consider word association. The correct strategy must be considered rather than just giving it accolades.

## USE OF NEW WORDS IN SENTENCES

The findings indicate that a majority, 42 (91.3%) of teachers preferred using new words in sentences as a way of modelling how such unfamiliar words should be used. It was only 4 (8.7%) indicated that they did not use the new words as illustrations.

It could be determined that almost all the participants (42 of the total 46) acknowledge that the best vocabulary teaching should involve practical use of words by the learners as proposed by Nation (2001). This researcher states that the knowledge of words by learners should be based on the functional and practical use of words in various contexts. It is the same notion that is upheld by Malik (2017) who emphasises that practical use of words in a language offers an opportunity to determine the lexical relations of words in real communication.

When words are practically used in class by both the learners and the teacher, the language productivity level of the learners also gets higher while they (learners) become seasoned active users of the new words (Alqahtani, 2015). Since language is practice more than theory, it is understandable that the more learners get a chance to interact with language, the more reinforced would be their language mastery and language production. Willingham (2003) also emphasises that giving learners opportunities to interact with new words helps them remember those words when the need arises. It is commendable when a teacher constantly engages learners in the use of the language in a classroom as this stimulates developing proficient language users (Council of Europe, 2001).

Effective vocabulary teaching and learning are never complete without paying attention to the correct pronunciation. The teaching of pronunciation is possible when learners are given a chance to practice uttering those new words which they have not come across in their everyday language usage. When the learners' pronunciation improves, so is their self-esteem heightened (Moley, 1998). Better esteem of the language user places them in a better space to want to participate more in the language and thus deepens and broadens the language development. When new words are regularly used by learners, it transforms them into active vocabulary

development (Stuart, 2005; Kaufmann, 2017). In essence, when teachers introduce new words they allow room for the encouragement of the learners to enhance their pronunciation while taking control of their language learning journey.

The vocabulary teaching approach which is embraced by the other four (8.7%) participants is theorizing language teaching. It is the traditional way of looking at language teaching which is not production-centred and should not be promoted. This is what Stuart (2005) and TutorVista (2017) see as focusing on passive skills such as listening and reading. Even though the number of the proponents for the strategy is low compared to the other group but getting the reasoning behind the practice and determining how they exercise vocabulary teaching in the real classroom situation could be important, and as such should be pursued.

### **NEW WORDS AND GRAMMAR TEACHING**

The study found that most teachers, 40 (86.9%) taught vocabulary by focusing on new words and by teaching grammatical aspects of those words. It was only one (2.2%) participant who indicated that she did not do that. Five (10.9%) of the participants did not indicate their choice.

These results attest to Crystal's (2008) proposition that vocabulary is broader than just the meaning of the word but covers grammatical aspects of language. The Communicative Language Teaching Approach also emphasises the teaching of both grammar and vocabulary for successful language learning which could thrive in an authentic environment. It would therefore not be sufficient to just tell learners what the words mean, and not equip them with the lifelong skill they would require dealing with other new words they may come across in their language learning endeavour. It could have been on this ground that Mart (2013) postulated that the knowledge of grammar and that of vocabulary learning are connected and that these two aspects help learners realise the interconnectedness of words in expressing meaning. The same notion is upheld by Carter's (2012) deduction that vocabulary knowledge is never complete without the learners' understanding of the words' relations to other words. It is this relatedness of words that is critical in language mastery.

In other words, grammar has its role in the teaching and learning of vocabulary. When grammar is taken as an aspect of vocabulary teaching, learners come to pay attention to the components of the highlighted words, and the inclusion of the new words. In that way, learners try to use those words to determine the meaning by inferring their understanding of the surrounding words to this new word. Consequently, the teaching of vocabulary could benefit from the inclusion of grammar.

The assertion that grammar could be used for successful vocabulary teaching warrants evidence from research that addresses grammatical components which aid the teaching of vocabulary. It supports Skehan's (2001; 2003) form, meaning and style; Malik's (2017) lexical relations' debate; Hudson's (1980) register, dialect and style; Cieslicka's (2015) prefix and creation of new words and suffix and change of word classes; Easy Pace Learning' (2020) word classes; Arbain's (2017) words derivations; and Pourhisein's (2012) which purport that learners must be made aware of grammar and its importance.

Looking at some of the scholars who support the concept of grammar and vocabulary teaching, it could be debated that the notion still has life even in the latest vocabulary teaching era. The reason behind these participants' thinking is therefore justifiable and has a concrete backing.

The other four participants' choice has its trajectory as well. The audio-lingual method's conception is that the understanding of words is not a priority if it does not cater to the acquisition of grammatical patterns. When analysed closely, the audio-lingual method seems to recommend grammar over vocabulary, meaning that the two cannot go together in the teaching of language.

### **DRAWING LEARNERS' ATTENTION TO SPECIFIC WORDS**

This study reports that most of the participants, 32 (69.9%) agreed that they teach vocabulary by drawing the learners' attention to certain unfamiliar words. However, another large group, 12 (26.1%) of the participants did not adopt this approach of vocabulary teaching. The last two (4.3%) were not sure if they used the approach or not.

These results ratify Nation's (2016) notion that it is not the teaching of every available word which builds a successful and sustainable language development. A teacher of the language should be practical and know that success in communication does not necessarily need the listener or reader to know the meaning of every word, but must rely on the few words which anchor the message. Though the participants' choice is justifiable, they can choose and teach such words which guarantee efficacious vocabulary teaching and learning. The effectiveness of the teachers in this regard paves the way for the learners' future and independent vocabulary learning strategies.

Vocabulary teaching is more than just exposing learners to new words, even if it would mean presenting them with opportunities to exercise their learnt knowledge. The findings again concur with Beck, McKeown and Kucan' (2002) concept that different words have different weights and importance in the development of the learners' vocabulary. It is therefore imperative to note that a fruitful vocabulary teaching expedition requires the expertise of the teacher. The selection of words that the learners should master ought to be guided by frequency and practice. Even though the participants' expertise in identifying those words is not what can be determined at this stage, it is, however, something that gives hope that the participants are capable teachers of vocabulary.

The findings feed to Clendon and Erickson's (2008) conviction that there is a range of different vocabulary that learners should be made aware. It is this vocabulary's diversity that shows the astuteness of the teacher in taking learners all over the language teaching shore so that they could be exposed to vocabulary in its variety. In other words, a classroom in which vocabulary teaching takes place should be viewed as a miniature world featuring all the demands of efficacy and efficiency in expression in the real world. When the teachers deal with the learners, their interaction should not be a planned classroom activity that views and addresses language teaching from a predetermined angle, but it should be broad and prepare learners for functionality in the world.

CAPS still regards the creativity of the teacher and teaching strategies adopted as the driving force behind the success of vocabulary teaching. According to CAPS

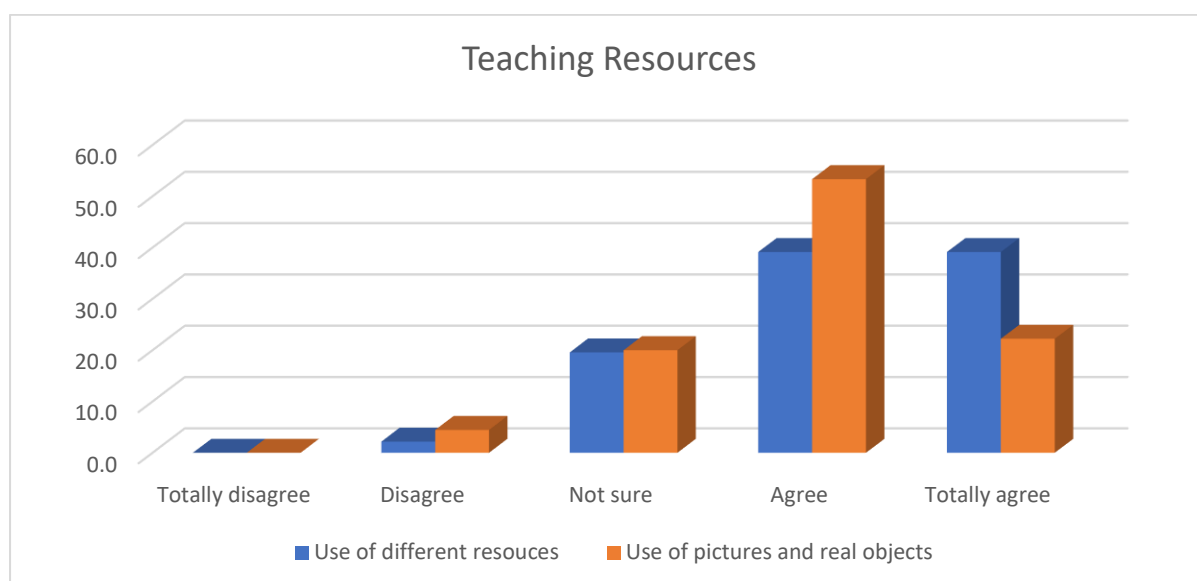
guidelines, learners' development depends on the teacher who should always be there to take the learners through the suitable curriculum; choosing the right explicit vocabulary teaching strategy; and be conversant with the language and grammatical structures for reading and writing (CAPS, 2011).

One other reason why Krashen (1981; 1982) still discusses language learning, especially with Second Language learners, is that if it could be well presented; it could generate positive results than the total immersion with no support offered to the learners. Krashen argues that the quality of the comprehensibility of the input talks to the skills of the teacher in the identification of the input, the presentation style adopted and awareness of the levels of the language of learners (Krashen, 1980; 1981). The different explicit vocabulary teaching strategies that teachers apply when teaching language are meant to highlight the input the teachers perceive as important for language development, breaking down such input so that it becomes useful to and for all the learners. Successful vocabulary teaching requires the teacher to take every step of the language learning alongside the learners, identifying what could be profitable, and giving the necessary support.

The teachers' responses were weighed against the parameters of Shulman's (1986) PCK theory regarding teaching methods and strategies. All the responses as offered by the teachers support effective teaching strategies for vocabulary. The strategies were presented to the teachers to check if teachers displayed a preferred strategy over the others. PCK stresses that the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter alone is not enough to realise effective teaching, but the teacher's combination of capacity (knowledge) and ability (strategies) is. The findings support Chick and Harri (2007) who emphasise that the teacher's creativity in terms of the teaching method and/or strategies is equal to the intended results. According to this theory, teaching is not prescriptive and rigid, but flexible and responsive to the teaching context. The purported idea is that what the teachers go to class having planned might be abandoned for what yields the best results.

### 5.2.4.3 SUB-QUESTION THREE: HOW DO GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS USE APPROPRIATE RESOURCES WHEN TEACHING VOCABULARY?

This question strove to determine the teachers' consideration of the importance of teaching and learning resources in the development of language learning, especially vocabulary growth; and the knowledge and understanding of the appropriate teaching and learning resources in the facilitation of learners' language development as expressed by certain scholars.



**Figure 4: Vocabulary teaching and learning materials**

#### USE OF DIFFERENT TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES

The study found that most of the participants, which represents 78.2%, used different resources to facilitate the teaching of vocabulary in the English language development, with only one participant at 2.2% who indicated that they did not use any resources. The other nine which represented 19.6% were not sure if they used such for vocabulary teaching.

These findings corroborate Bušljeta (2013); and Rondon and Vera (2016) who both magnify the importance of teaching and learning materials in the teaching of a foreign language. This implies that teachers are aware of the importance of teaching and learning materials in the teaching of the English language. The statistical



representations of the results also challenge the notion that most rural schools are underprivileged and might not have teaching and learning resources as suggested by Diyanti, (2010); UniProject.net, (2020).

Based on the numbers, this higher number of teachers who subscribe to the importance of teaching and learning resources do not always have them readily available but let the need exceed scarcity they invent and improve what is available for an inspiring teaching and learning context. In other words, teaching and learning of vocabulary and the use of teaching resources should not be a replica of what transpired in another classroom, but it should be versatile, and context-based. The teachers must be familiar with the content to teach, the calibre of the learners, the time for such teaching and what resources are needed for fusion into the specific lesson. Not only do the correct responses to all these questions make it easier for the teacher, but it also makes the teacher own the lesson and modify it towards the envisaged goal.

It was only one participant who registered that she did use teaching and learning resources when teaching vocabulary, with the other nine also not being sure. The peculiarity of these responses makes it difficult for the researcher to fathom the reasoning of the participants. This is because teaching and learning resources are not something special, but the list includes a coursebook that covers both the learners' and teachers' books (Diyanti, 2010). This is something that every school would possibly have. Other than that, reference to other resources like newspapers, television, etc. by the teacher is another way of engaging teaching and learning resources. It cannot be true and possible that these participants did not use any resources. What could be deduced is that participants elevated the meaning of teaching and learning resources into something complex beyond what it is. In simple terms, the participants might not have understood what was expected by the question.

### **USE OF PICTURES AND REAL OBJECTS WHEN TEACHING VOCABULARY**

This question wanted to find out if participants used pictures and other real objects to make their teaching of vocabulary easier, near-real and fascinating to learners (Harwood, 2010; Tomlinson, 2012; Rondon & Vera, 2016). The reason for the

identification of these resources was based on their inexpensive availability, familiarity to learners and easy-to-use by teachers.

The findings of the study confirm that most of the participants, 34 (73.9%) of the 46, agreed that they used pictures and real objects when teaching vocabulary. There were only two participants (4.3%) who indicated otherwise. The other 9 (19.6%) did not know if they used such resources. The last participant (2.2%) didn't respond to that question.

Based on the findings, it could be inferred that the study supports the need to incorporate authentic materials for vocabulary teaching. Authentic materials augment content and yield wondrous results when creatively utilised (Rondon & Vera, 2016). Not only do these resources intrigue the learners when they are brought into the teaching environment, but the effect has far reaching benefits to the learners. This argument backs Diyanti, (2010)'s assertion that teachers should consider drawing teaching and learning materials from all spheres of life of learners for them to make the real association of what is learnt in the classroom with an authentic life. This continuous association that learners might experience with the resources outside the classroom captivates their attention and makes them relive the lesson. In other words, whenever the learner sees the object, they are reminded about the words which were used alongside it and that extend the application of words to other pictures and/or objects.

What is interesting though is the resemblance of the numbers of the participants who indicated that they did not use pictures and real objects for teaching and learning resources, to those who had indicated that they also did not use various teaching and learning resources in the previous question. Even though there are no facts that suggest that these are the same participants, the relatedness of the questions could have influenced the same responses from the same participants. It is not the matter of the resources, but lack of recognition of the use thereof which is debatable. The same could be said about the other participant who did not choose aside.

CAPS does not offer a list of resources that teachers could use for successful teaching lessons; except referring to dictionary use. There is a general concession that English

teachers have the necessary knowledge and skills to offer the language successfully, also making use of relevant and productive resources in line with the adopted text-based, communicative and process approaches.

The PCK, on the other hand, regards highly the use of teaching resources or materials for effective teaching. However, the theory admits that choosing of suitable instructional materials is not easy for most teachers. The theory regards effective instructional materials as those that appeal to the learners because learners find them familiar; so that it should not be the teaching content and the struggle to remember the material that was used in class which becomes a double blow to the learners (Davis, Palincsar, Arias, Bismack, Marulis & Iwashyna, 2014). The PCK contends that when something familiar to learners is brought into the classroom, it has the potential to stimulate vocabulary processing. It could therefore be argued that the teachers' competence in vocabulary and language teaching could also be gauged against the teachers' consideration and use of complementary aids.

#### 5.2.4.4 SUB-QUESTION FOUR: WHICH ACTIVITIES DO GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS USE TO TEACH VOCABULARY?

**Table 4: Vocabulary teaching activities**

Activities	Totally disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Totally agree
Learners take time to read	0.0%	0.0%	8.7%	39.1%	52.2%
Learners constructing sentences from identified words	0.0%	6.5%	6.5%	63.1%	23.9%
Learners engage in social discussion forums	0.0%	4.4%	4.4%	33.4%	57.8%
Using games to teach vocabulary	0.0%	4.3%	32.6%	52.2%	10.9%

This question wanted to determine if teachers were mindful of the importance of teaching and learning activities and the benefit of using these in vocabulary teaching and learning (Folse, 2008). Without limiting the number and examples of teaching and learning activities to what is listed herein, the study focused on the following parameters: asking learners to read a text; asking learners to repeatedly read identified sentences and phrases; constructing own sentences from the identified words; allowing learners some time to engage in practical language usage; and using games to teach vocabulary. The analysis of each of these parameters is discussed in the following segment.

#### **LEARNERS READ A TEXT**

Many of the participants 42 (91.3%) indicated that they engaged learners by asking them to read a text when teaching vocabulary with only four at 8.7% who were not sure if they allowed learners to read. There was not even one participant who shied from making learners read.

Navsaria, Pascoe and Khathard's (2011) study found that teachers did not offer enough classroom reading time to their learners, a fact that is contested in this

particular study. Nation's (2001) perception of what constitutes effective vocabulary teaching is that this ought not to be accidental but pre-planned and should consider activities that cover meaning-focused input like reading rich vocabulary text which could enable learners to gather new words and reignite those that were learnt before. This is exactly what this current study confirmed and established. Reading has an added advantage in vocabulary teaching because it offers words in context and that makes learners master a word's relations to other words (Huckin, Haynes & Coady, 1993; Joe, 1995; 1998; Zimmerman, 2009; Blachowicz, 2005; Graves, 2006).

Teaching vocabulary through the reading of texts should not be a debatable option, but mandatory as suggested by Richardson (2009) who encourages that learners should be offered opportunities to see, hear and use new words in different contexts. This is necessary in situations where English is the second language and one where interaction is rare outside the classrooms, and where the teachers' expertise in the use of the language is a challenge. Reading a text is a readily available productive strategy that any teacher could adopt without much demand expected from the teachers. It could compensate for the teachers' low oral proficiency (Khajloo, 2013; Mohammad & Amoozegar, 2014), lack of appropriate vocabulary teaching strategies (Songbatumis, 2017 & UniProjects, 2020), lack of good teaching resources. It is therefore significant that the participants ascribed value to reading as a vocabulary teaching activity. What should be pursued though is whether the activities used to talk to the strategy.

The effectiveness of a strategy depends on the expertise of the teacher in administering those strategies and activities. The efficacy of every strategy is far beyond the mere activity of allowing learners time to read the text. Oljira's (2017) study also criticised vocabulary teaching which would not involve learners more than the teachers and proclaimed that such lessons did not help learners with the development of their vocabulary. Vaughn and Lina-Thompson's (2004) study, on the other hand, emphasises the engagement part in which learners focus on new words until they can construct meaningful sentences of their own. Functional vocabulary teaching should develop gradually from word recognition, pronunciation, correct spelling, knowledge of lexical relations, to the construction of sentences. It is on the same ground that

Koncara (2009) regards incidental reading which is not reinforced by a serious engagement as the traditional way of teaching vocabulary.

Looking at the ages of the teachers and the time of their professional training, it is not surprising that they overemphasise literal reading over practical vocabulary teaching (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). What is regarded as a modern, current and most effective way of vocabulary is what should be instilled in teachers. Susanto's (2017) study explains that there is no single strategy for teaching vocabulary, but the combination of strategies and their activities should. According to the eclectic vocabulary teaching approach, the exercise should be inclusive of all the methods and approaches and capitalise on the successes of what has been tried and tested. Teachers should capacitate themselves with the modern vocabulary teaching approaches.

Despite the minimal number of participants, the four participants who indicated that they were not sure if they asked learners to read texts during vocabulary teaching poses some questions. You would not know if they responded to the question genuinely or if they understood what they were saying. Looking at the simplicity of the question, and the number of those who chose only one affirmative response, one could conclude that they might have responded to the question for the sake of getting rid of the questionnaires.

### **LEARNERS CONSTRUCT THEIR OWN SENTENCES FROM IDENTIFIED WORDS**

Most of the participants 40 (87%) reported that they asked their learners to construct their sentences using the identified words when teaching vocabulary, whereas three (6.5%) showed that they did not expect them to construct any sentences. The other three (6.5%) reported that they were not sure if they used the strategy in vocabulary teaching.

The study upholds Schmitt's (2000) opinion that the vocabulary level of a person should be measured by the standard of the language usage of that person. TutorVista (2017) also qualifies the use of the learnt words when needed as what should be considered the knowledge of vocabulary. Despite Wilkins' (1972) idea that vocabulary is central to communication, it could again be argued that proper language usage is

the fruit of thorough vocabulary knowledge. Texas Education Agency (2002) explains that the learners should develop the proficiency to use the newly learnt words in various ways and different contexts. It is for this reason that the South African curriculum framework also aspires to produce learners who are effective and active language users (CAPS, 2011).

Vocabulary teaching is not the eventual goal for language teaching, but the practical language usage, characterized by successful sentence construction. Therefore, any act and exertion by the teacher during the English language teaching and learning should aim at developing functional learners in the use of the language. Two of Nation's (2001) four aspects of vocabulary teaching and learning talk to 'meaning-focused output' which seeks to produce learners who can speak and write in the language; 'language-focused learning' which desires to equip learners with all the skills necessary for operative language usage.

The effects of practical language usage which could be offered to the learners in the classroom, even if it could be for a moment, cannot be underestimated. Folse (2008) feels that this practice offers learners many opportunities to retrieve words they have learnt while trying various ways to put their knowledge into exercise. Multiple exposure and real language practice counteract forgetfulness which comes with idle vocabulary learning (Rott, 1999; Zangher, Cobb & Spada, 2001). It is this knowledge and its application that should be promoted amongst all English teachers. Practical language usage does not only reinforce but it bolsters their confidence as independent language learners.

With vocabulary learning as preparation for real language use in an authentic context, not helping these learners construct sentences in the classroom can never be an acceptable practice as it does not fully prepare them for such a demanding task. Teachers who adopt this infamous practice are either in contradiction of their profession and the recognition of the set and expected objectives or are good examples of professionals whose teaching practice is outmoded. The excuse of saying that one cannot remember if he/she practices the strategy, also does not have any room to hide in. teaching is a delicate practice that requires sober preparations which

no one can claim not to remember if it happened or not. In short, this is tantamount to not doing it.

### **LEARNERS ENGAGE IN SOCIAL DISCUSSION IN THE CLASSROOM**

The findings reveal that most of the participants, 42 participants representing 91.2% of the total 46 participants, were reported agreeing that they allowed learners to engage in practical language usage. The other four (8.8%) participants did not believe in the strategy and indicated, in two groups apiece that they would rather not offer learners some time to engage in practical language usage, or they could not remember if they used that strategy or not.

The fact that many participants favoured the strategy in line with Willingham's (2003) conclusion that learners should be allowed to try and use the language in a natural setup area. These findings also corroborate (Ohta, 2001; Swain, 2002; Storch, 2005; Dobao, 2014)'s assertion that learners' communication in groups presents them with an authentic framework of language usage; and that the discussion allows words to be presented not in a rigid and rehearsed manner. It could therefore be reasoned that this vocabulary teaching and learning approach has more benefits to the learners and should be encouraged and employed by the teachers. The teachers' predetermined vocabulary teaching plan lacks that authentic feel. There is no way that teachers can go around all the words' aspects within a thirty-minute class, even if it is one hour, more than what could be offered in a discursive environment for that same period. During the discussion, there are no few words that constitute the vocabulary lesson, but everything that colleagues say in the group comes with its own weight and importance to the members.

The findings also promote the learners' status from that of being inactive language recipients into lively language users. This again is congruent to Schmitt's (1997); Leow and Mercer's (2015); Baddeley and Hitch's (2017) reasonings which point out that language discussion facilitates vocabulary retention, sharpens vocabulary's correct application and expand knowledge of those words encountered prior the discussion. When these engagements are properly planned, they could coerce all members to express themselves, even if it could be limited; and that way even the weakest



members would have to revisit their vocabulary bank and say something. This test will help with what (Nation, 2013) called word translation from form to meaning. In other words, what the learner has always known about the word is now becoming functional when it conveys his/her thoughts.

Vocabulary learning in a social platform increases the number of encounters learners have with certain words as they constantly feature in the discussion. This is the same notion as held by Beck, McKeown & Omanson (1997; Rott (1999; Zanhari, Cobb & Spada (2001) who all avow that learners must interact with words for as many as between six and 12 times respectively in order for them to come to master the word and all of its grammatical aspects. Even if one discussion session cannot guarantee the prescribed minimum number of times as suggested by these scholars, it is laudable that there are teachers who give value to this credible vocabulary teaching activity. With time constraints as another challenge in the teaching of vocabulary, whatever attempts teachers could pursue towards engaging learners in a practical language learning expedition should be admired and fortified.

Contrariwise to all these submissions which favour this vocabulary teaching activity, there are still 8 other participants whose perceptions about the activity are different. Unfortunately, there seems not to be any modern vocabulary teaching theory that defends this practice. This disreputable style contradicts Allen's (1993) viewpoint that teachers should stick to tested useful philosophies, propositions, and practical examples of teaching procedures that are in line with established theoretical principles. The researcher, therefore, finds no room for this practice in the modern vocabulary teaching era which is based on language functionality more than vocabulary repertoire.

### **TEACHERS USE GAMES TO TEACH VOCABULARY**

The study found out that out of 46 participants, only 29, which represents 63.1%, preferred using games as vocabulary teaching activities, with only two at 4.3% who felt otherwise; while 15 (32.6%) did not want to choose a side.

These findings are in support of many researchers' view that games are a good vocabulary teaching and learning instrument which teachers could opt for effective vocabulary teaching (Lee, 1995; Ersoz, 2000; Orlick, 2006; Sahar, 2016). Research has many reasons to support this vocabulary teaching route, and chief amongst those is the view that the learning environment has a direct impact on actual learning. Learners enjoy playing and when such fun is brought into the classroom, they could derive joy out of it, yet learning about this most critical language component in return. This is the point that is also held by Huyen (2003) who feels that games create a relaxed environment which in turn makes learners feel free to talk about different matters. This freedom and willingness to engage in language learning breed independence and self-reliance in future vocabulary development. If this could be followed up on, and constantly applied by the teachers of vocabulary, it might yield the desired results.

With many schools in rural areas being disadvantaged, teaching resources could have been another hurdle to deal with. The use of games, on the other hand, does not talk to the background of the learners if not the creativity and invention of the teacher. Anil (2011) also promotes games in the teaching of vocabulary and argues that they incite the learners' interest. It is therefore on this background that the researcher supports the argument that games should be played out in the classrooms by all learners as that carries more benefits in vocabulary learning and development.

The atmosphere which prevails when games are in use is conducive for vocabulary learning and promotes its sustainability even beyond class time. Sahar (2016) propagates that games of their nature are full of fun and have the potential to kindle the yearning to encourage learners to join in the activity and contribute towards what is being said and done. It is this fanaticism that pushes learners to make sentence construction and consequently tests the applications of the learnt words in the new context as per the game underplay and the angle of the response and/or contribution. The multiple engagements convert passive and receptive vocabulary into an active and productive language which when triggered by any situation could be drawn successfully from the long-term memory and be bail out the learners. This is the same debate that is also held by Ashraf, Ghanei and Salamic (2014) who opine that fun

activities like games expedite vocabulary learning and networking with other lexical items.

Despite all these celebrated benefits of games in vocabulary teaching, their benefits are tied to the teacher's creativity, or else their unplanned application could ruin the intended results. There is a danger that learners could misinterpret the reasons for using games for fun and relegate the vocabulary learning endeavour to the backseat. Again, if not monitored thoroughly, the class could turn chaotic with learners not sticking to the language of learning (Saha, 2016). Different games should be introduced and applied at different times so that the learners' interests should be kept at their best all the time. It is befitting to state that glorious as games maybe, this vocabulary teaching activity could be heavy a challenging to hold on, and as such this may require the teacher's expertise and competence.

Even though the number of those in favour of the practice is higher than that of the opponent, it is however the number of those who are in the middle that is worrying. The qualifications of these teachers are not what could make them not to be aware of what they are doing. Also based on the number of years they have been in class teaching the subject, their indecision on whether they should use games has no root to anchor it. The benefits of using games when teaching vocabulary outclass any other debate that could be raised. It could therefore be reasoned that these teachers could have to try to conceal something from the researcher.

CAPS indicates that English lessons should be dominated by a lot of activities that could awaken the learners' vocabulary learning and development interests. Amongst them, CAPS has only alluded to spelling games and quizzes but might not have listed all the activities that teachers could introduce in their English language lessons. The highlighted approaches are accommodative of as many teaching activities as what the teachers could come up with, as long as those would facilitate effective vocabulary teaching.

According to PCK, it is not only the input that has the magic to turn on vocabulary teaching and learning but the teachers' creativity which could be validated by the interesting vocabulary teaching activities (Shulman, 1986). Shulman's PCK advocate

for practical classroom activities. Shulman believes that the practicality and liveliness of the teaching environment are equal to the teachers' knowledge of the subject matter and the teachers' creativity (Harlen, 1999). Shulman's theory explain that teachers should always have activities they intend to use in their classrooms, but also leaving a room open to accommodate other spontaneous activities which also could work towards involving all the learners in the class.

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, on the other hand, emphasises activities which when applied in the classroom would create an interactive social environment that would work towards developing independent language users who could deal with any new environment they could find themselves in (Vygotsky, 1978). What is purported in this theory is that vocabulary could be picked up by learners and broadened when they interact with their peers. Teachers of vocabulary should strive to initiate and engage learners in activities that would allow them to talk, either when responding to questions, or issuing instructions to what the next move of the other learner(s) should be. Certain activities can lighten up the learning environment such that even the timid learners could come out of their cocoons and begin to display what they have learnt, a situation which makes everyone around to be a teacher who could provide mentorship or correct incorrect utterances. Vygotsky states that a classroom should be a workshop of language learning with everyone, including timid learners, being spurred into active participants. This is the environment that teachers of the English vocabulary should work towards.

Based on the findings of the study under this section, it could be purported that all these teachers are acquainted with effective vocabulary teaching activities as portrayed by both Shulman and Vygotsky. This conclusion talks about the competence of these teachers which is there. The teachers understand that language is learnt with ease when learners are active members of the learning environment. These teachers also know that their role is to create an inspiring environment that is not only conducive but is also inviting such that it could stir up the learners' interest and thus persuade them to fall in love with what is being done.

## **SECTION C: HAVE THESE TEACHERS MASTERED THE VOCABULARY PRESCRIBED FOR TEACHING IN GRADE 10 ENGLISH FAL?**

This section presents and discusses the participants' mastery of synonyms, antonyms parts of speech, and the provision of the most suitable word which completes the sentence correctly. Participants were presented with multiple choice questions in which they were to identify the most appropriate synonyms, antonyms and words in the given contexts of the sentences; and a summary of their choices has been captured as per the tables below.

## TEACHERS' MASTERY OF ENGLISH SYNONYMS

Table 5: Teachers' mastery of English synonyms

Question	Correct		Incorrect		Incorrect Responses
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
His learners regard him <b><u>odd</u></b> .	44	96%	2	4%	Dangerous
It is <b><u>futile</u></b> to go shopping when you are broke.	45	98%	1	2%	Challenging
He made one last <b><u>futile</u></b> effort to convince her ...	32	69%	14	31%	Difficult Firm Favourable
The actress had to raise her voice to be <b><u>audible</u></b> ...	45	98%	1	2%	Musical
Dictators do not <b><u>tolerate</u></b> opposition of any kind.	36	78%	10	22%	Justify Understand

Table 5 reflects that many of the participants responded to the items correctly. The highest number (44) of such responses was recorded at **98%** which represented participants who successfully chose '*useless*' and '*heard*' as the correct synonyms for '*futile exercise*' and '*audible*' respectively; followed by **96%** which represented the correct choice of the word '*strange*' for '*odd*'. The second least correct responses

were '**permit**' for '**tolerate**' and '**ineffectual**' for '**futile exercise**' which represented **78%** and **69%** respectively. Though the numbers look impressive on paper, it is that hidden information, which is a cause for concern, especially in the context of the teaching profession. The findings corroborate Lambani, (2014)'s the conclusion which found that many teachers had not mastered the same concepts they were expected to teach to their learners. Similarly, Buttle, (2004, McGee & Phelan, (2004; Al-Mekhlafi, (2007; Kömür, (2010); Khajloo, (2013); Mohammad & Amoozegar, (2014) also report of teachers who face challenges when teaching certain components of language due to compromised language proficiency.

Vocabulary teaching is such a critical exercise whose realisation depends on the teachers' i extensive and intensive knowledge of the language. Though there are no words which are the same in all respects, synonymous words in different contexts abound and such is the information that the teacher needs when broadening the learners' vocabulary knowledge. Unfortunately, the study's findings do not speak to the importance allocated to vocabulary. The fact that there were 10 to 14 participants who could not respond positively to these items on Tier 2 synonyms clearly shows that these teachers did not use the English dictionary as expected of an English language teacher. CAPS has recommended the use of English dictionary and it could be assumed that the teachers can only encourage learners to use this resource when they can count on it. It is, therefore, obvious that these findings as displayed by the participants thwarts the CAPS's aim of producing learners with reasonable language proficiency (CAPS, 2011).

Synonyms form part of the language teaching items that should be taught to the learners. It could be inferred that the Department of Education pins its hopes on the English language teachers to get this goal achieved. The failure by as many as 22% to 31% of teachers should be the least that the Department would expect from these professionals. Notwithstanding the source of the low proficiency, this is a serious challenge. The inappropriateness of some of the chosen responses does not suit both the qualification and experience of the participants.

Some of the incorrect responses were recorded as follows: '**dangerous**' for '**odd**'; '**challenging**' for '**futile shopping exercise**'; '**difficult**', '**favourable**', and '**firm**' for

*'futile effort'*; *'musical'* for *'audible'*; and *'justify'*, and *'understand'* for *'tolerate'*. These responses do not present a good picture of the participants' view towards the subject of vocabulary; and this, in turn, compromises their expertise to teach it progressively. The participants were ignorant of the importance of the accompanying words which if considered would have dispelled some of the responses paraded as correct in the contexts of the sentences. The findings are incongruent to the belief of many scholars (Nation, 2001; Alqahtani, 2015) who argue that words do not have the definite meaning in isolation; and (Crystal, 1997; Fromkin, et al., 2003; Saeed, 2007) who emphasise that no words can be interchangeable across the different contexts. This is the knowledge that every teacher of the English language is expected to know and apply when teaching the language.

An English language classroom is considered as a place of assistance for learners (Vygotsky, 1962; 1978; Krashen, 1982; Greening, 1998) while they march towards their independent language usage environment (Texas, 2002; Blachowicz, 2005; Graves, 2006; Llamosas, 2011). The teacher is regarded as an experienced adult who aims to foster the same independence to the learners, he/she teaches. One crucial duty of the teacher is therefore to help learners by presenting them with words in different contexts and explain how they could explore the context in determining the correct word in the situation. Once this skill is learnt, learners would have been empowered to deal with any other situation which they might come across, for an independent language user as envisaged by the CEFR. However, this goal could remain a mirage with this crop of teachers.

The very same incorrect responses that the participants shared with the researcher is the information they share with the learners in their private classes daily. The participants' rate of correct responses should have been better, more so when they had worked on the questionnaire at their own time, where many resources could have been employed to make better the situation. In this situation, it is not only the numbers that matter, but the truth that is hidden behind the numbers. The effect of one incorrect information that could be shared in a classroom of learners is not what can be underestimated.



## TEACHERS' MASTERY OF ENGLISH ANTONYMS

This section presents and discusses the participants' responses regarding their mastery of the English language antonyms.

**Table 6: Teachers' mastery of English antonyms**

Word	Opposite	Frequency	Valid Percent (%)
Impartial	Hostile	5	10.9
	Biased	32	69.6
	Dislike	4	8.7
	Worried	5	10.9
	Total	46	100.0
Heartfelt	Loving	7	15.2
	Unhealthy	1	2.2
	Humorous	2	4.3
	Insincere	36	78.3
	Total	46	100.0
Expect	Attend	2	4.4
	Regret	8	17.8
	Despair	20	44.4
	Loathe	15	33.3
	Total	45	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		46	
Abridge	Shorten	9	19.6
	Extend	34	73.9
	Stress	2	4.3
	Easy	1	2.2
	Total	46	100.0

In all these items, the majority of the participants demonstrated mastery of the English language antonyms. However, the concern is the low numbers of those who responded positively to the questions. The highest of such participants was recorded at **36 (78.3%)**; who are the participants who chose '*insincere*' for '*heartfelt*'; followed

by **34 (73.9%)** who successfully chose '*extend*' for '*abridge*'; **32 (69.9%)** chose '*biased*' for '*impartial*'. What is even more serious is the **20 (44.4%)** participants who correctly chose '*despair*' for '*expect*', with the least being **16 (35.6%)** who picked up '*wane*' for '*abate*'.

On the other hand, the incorrect choices range from **15 (33.3%)** of '*loathe*' for '*despair*'; **12 (26.7%)** of '*augment*' for '*abate*', **10 (22.2%)** of '*provoke*' for '*abate*' **9 (19.6%)** of '*shorten*' for '*abridge*'; **7 (15.2%)** of '*loving*' for '*heartfelt*', and '*free*' for '*abate*'; **5 (10.9%)** of '*hostile*' for '*impartial*'; **4 (8.7%)** of '*dislike*' for '*impartial*'. From all these responses, it could be assumed that the participants would have mistaken antonyms for synonyms. These findings attest to the assumption that antonyms come second after synonyms. It is this familiarity that could have influenced the participants' thinking, or else participants would not have realised they were dealing with antonyms.

Antonyms remain special in the language learning and development of learners, and as such their use in a language-learning class cannot be left to the mercy of the English language teachers. In other words, teachers cannot decide not to use antonyms in class because they have challenges with their mastery (CAPS, 2011). Rather, it is the benefits that the use of the subject comes with to the clients that should dictate their use. It is, therefore, lamentable that teachers struggled with antonyms; though antonyms have the greater potential to be the best instruments of language learning than synonyms because of their phrasal descriptive nature (Gao & Zheng, 2014; Kostadinovska-Stojchevska, 2018). Participants should have cherished teaching antonyms as these offer opportunities to explain meanings rather than just giving single words.

The teachers' vocabulary teaching competencies should embrace how they approach the teaching of antonyms as another component of vocabulary. The fact that only 78.3% can be recorded as the highest percentage of the correct response with 33.3% as the highest incorrect response does not portray a good picture about the quality of the English language teachers and their eagerness to improve the situation. Despite the level of difficulty, the items might have posed to the participants, participants could have exploited the time they had at their disposal when responding to the questionnaire and done some research. It could be argued that the teachers of the

English language have developed despondency which counteracts their teaching competency.

The teaching of synonyms and antonyms, amongst other grammatical structures of the English language, is essential towards successful language learning (CAPS, 2011). However, the execution thereof depends heavily on the teachers' knowledge of the subject.

## TEACHERS' MASTERY OF ENGLISH SENTENCES

**Table 7: Teachers' mastery of English sentences**

Sentence Link	Selected word	Frequency	Valid Percent (%)
Dying man	Indiscreet	4	8.9
	Nonchalant	2	4.4
	Incoherent	37	82.2
	Impotent	2	4.4
	Total	45	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		46	
Many years	Illiterate	6	13.3
	Impunity	8	17.8
	Inflexibility	7	15.6
	Imprudence	24	53.3
	Total	45	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		46	
Nuclear war	Inevitable	36	78.3
	Illicit	4	8.7
	Disconcerting	4	8.7
	Impossible	2	4.3
	Total	46	100.0
Miraculous	Unscathed	28	60.9
	Uncanny	8	17.4
	Irreparable	3	6.5
	Illiterate	7	15.2
	Total	46	100.0
Civil war	Uncompromising	10	21.7
	Incalculable	24	52.2
	Unchanging	8	17.4
	Infallible	4	8.7
	Total	46	100.0

Data were captured as follows:

The highest number of participants who responded positively was **37 (82.2%)** out of 46 for the response, '**incoherent**' speech' of a dying man; followed by **36 (78.3%)** for

**'inevitable'** nuclear war, then **28 (60.9%)** for **'unscathed'** miraculous escape of a fallen child, before the least **24 (53.3%)** for both **'imprudence'** and **'incalculable'** for careless spending and serious harm respectively.

On the other hand, the highest number of incorrect responses was by **10 (21.7)** of the 46 participants who chose **'uncompromising'** for serious harm; then **8 (17.8%)** who chose **'impunity'** for inconsiderate spending; **'uncanny'** for miraculous escape; and **'unchanging'** for unavoidable civil war, followed by **7 (15.6%)** who went with **'inflexibility'** and **'illiterate'** for inconsiderate spending and miraculous escape respectively, which was followed by the **6 (13.3%)** who chose **'impunity'** for inconsiderate spending, followed by **4 (8.7%)** who chose **'indiscreet'** for the incoherent speech of a dying man and **'illicit'** and **'disconcerting'** both for unavoidable nuclear war; and **'infallible'** for serious harm, followed by **3 (6.5%)** who went with **'irreparable'** for miraculous escape; then the least being **2 (4.3%)** who chose **'nonchalant'** and **'impotent'** both for the incoherent speech of a dying man, and **'impossible'** for unavoidable nuclear war. Only **1 (2.2%)** of the 46 participants did not choose both the **'incoherent'** speech of a dying man and many years of inconsiderate spending.

At face value, the picture looks good because the number of participants who responded positively exceeds those with incorrect choices. However, it is the underlying problem that is represented by the various strange incorrect choices. Looking at the incorrect responses, it could be determined that the participants would not have considered the context when they made such choices. It is this inconsideration of this critical aspect in determining the correct word choice which makes the results incongruent to what scholars emphasise as the benefits of using context to determine the correct word for the sentence (Beck, et al., 2002; Blachowicz, 2005; Graves, 2006; PREL, 2008; Llamosas, 2011; Alqahtani, 2015). If these participants did not use this skill themselves, it is apparent that they cannot transfer it to the learners.

Unfortunately, the CAPS document, which is the educational framework emphasises the correctness of vocabulary in their contexts, seems not to be followed duly in the teaching contexts here. Vygotsky (1962) also considers language learning as a social

activity characterised by interaction with the language in context. The use of context is so important that it appears compulsory in vocabulary learning and should not, therefore, be the teacher's choice. It is this status that renders any attempt by the teacher to teach new words without aligning it to the context futile in many respects. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) also explain that words could mean different things when used without the consideration of their contexts.

Four things stand out about the supplied responses:

- a) There is not even a single item that has recorded a 100% correct responses;
- b) Some correct responses are as low as 52.2%; and
- c) The incorrect responses registered as higher as 21.7%; and
- d) All the five items registered three different incorrect responses.

These categories of responses prove that these participants have challenges regarding the mastery of words based on their context; some participants' choice of the correct words never considered the importance of the supplied context to that effect, hence the variety of responses. This dearth displays incompetence of the participants not only in the mastery of vocabulary but the chief of it, it's teaching.

PCK's viewpoint stands on the three strands of knowledge which are: the subject content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and curriculum knowledge. Inasmuch as all the three are interdependent, it is obvious that the absence of the first strand of knowledge renders the other two futile.

It is the same sentiment that is held by Vygotsky's sociocultural theory which talks to automatic language used as the stage at which the person successfully uses the language unconsciously (Vygotsky, 1978). It is the stage that Vygotsky advocates that teachers should work towards achieving. There is no teacher who would want his/her learners to reach that stage while he/she lags. The theory presumes that all language teachers have already attained that stage and are leading the class through the same route.

Both PCK and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory uphold the view that language mastery by the teacher is crucial and beneficial to the language learning and development of the learners. It can therefore not be disputed that the teachers' competence in teaching

vocabulary should also be judged based on the level of the teachers' mastery of the language.

## SECTION D: TEACHING OBSERVATION

### 5.2.5 PRESENTATION OF DATA COLLECTED THROUGH OBSERVATION

This section presents data that was collected using an observation checklist with the focus on how Grade 10 teachers of English observe and apply vocabulary-related aspects when teaching. The observation was used as another quantitative data collection instrument in addition to questionnaires. Ten Grade 10 sampled teachers of English agreed to be observed while teaching lessons that talk to vocabulary learning and development. These teachers were sampled based on their schools having taken position one in the 2019 Grade 12 results, while the other two were included on the sizes of their circuits. These teachers had observed teaching lessons that involved new words.

The researcher wanted to have a better understanding of how vocabulary is taught in an authentic environment. It was another way of comparing data already gathered with the use of questionnaires. The researcher found it important that the competencies of the teachers should be determined also based on the reaction of the learners to the strategies, resources, and activities applied during a vocabulary teaching exercise. There could not have been any other better environment than a classroom to ascertain the competencies of teachers on vocabulary teaching. The observed aspects were inclined to the objectives of the study which covered: compliance to CAPS vocabulary teaching expectations; vocabulary teaching strategies used by teachers; resources used for vocabulary teaching; and teaching and learning activities used when teaching vocabulary. Those aspects of the instrument were clear, specific and observable; simple to implement; had spaces for notes and comments; arranged systematically with the objectives; and were accompanied by the rating scales.

The observation checklist had four rating scales: **Scale 4:** The teacher exceeds the expected responsibilities, consistently producing exceptionally high-quality work that

optimises learners' vocabulary development; **Scale 3:** The performance of the teacher consistently fulfils the expected responsibilities resulting in quality work that impacts learners' development in vocabulary learning; **Scale 2:** The teacher inconsistently meets the expected responsibilities resulting inadequate work performance and poor learners' development in vocabulary; and **Scale 1:** The teacher does not adequately fulfil the expected responsibilities, resulting in work performance lacking quality that negatively impacts on learners' vocabulary development.

The researcher captured data by completing the checklist through marking against the aspects that the teacher developed while teaching. Aspects were not marked according to the number of times the teacher had referred to them. Only the rating scale scored the expertise related to the application of the aspect during the lesson. The researcher also made accompanying notes and comments based on the observations captured during the lesson. All the teachers were observed while teaching vocabulary explicitly. The observed lessons involved introduction and explanation of new words extracted from different media like comprehension passages, literature texts, cartoon analysis, summary writing, etc. The researcher also wanted to observe the reactions of the learners to how vocabulary was taught.

The findings were captured, analysed and discussed as follows:



### 5.2.5.1 GRADE 10 TEACHERS OF ENGLISH'S UNDERSTANDING OF THE CAPS VOCABULARY REQUIREMENTS OF LEARNERS

**Table 8: Understanding of CAPS vocabulary teaching requirements**

		Frequency	Percent
1.1	The teacher always uses the medium of instruction.	10	100.0
1.2	The teacher uses Tier 2 words when teaching English vocabulary.	10	100.0
1.3	The teacher uses the language understandably to communicate with all learners by grading it (scaffolding).	10	100.0

From the above table, the observer found that all 10 (100%) teachers consistently fulfilled the expected requirement in terms of the teachers using the medium of instruction. The observer further noticed that all these teachers consistently fulfilled the expected responsibilities in terms of using Tier 2 words when teaching English vocabulary. Some of the words used in some of the lessons were: **'conceived'**, **'perceive'**, **'audiences'**, **'inspire'**, **'mourning'**, **'passion'**, **'experts'**, etc. Lastly, the observer noted that 100% of the teachers consistently fulfilled the expected requirement in terms of using a language that is understandable to communicate with all learners.

These findings are congruent with the results reported at the questionnaire stage in which 41 (89.1%) of the participants indicated that they used the medium of instruction when teaching the English language. With these participants being a sample of those who responded to the questionnaire, it is possible and understandable that all these teachers could be representing the 89.1% group, hence the 100% score of compliance.

With the English language being a subject that should be taught to learners at school and also a language of teaching and learning which should be used as the medium of

instruction in class, it is imperative that the teachers of the language should be people who are experts and can model the language to the learners. In short, it could be argued that the mastery of and articulation in the English language is the first and necessary step towards the teacher's competence in teaching the language. In other words, these findings support the notion purported by Shulman' (1986) PCK theory which advocates for expertise in the subjects that teachers offer. It is commendable that all the teachers of the English language in Grade 10 can stick to the use of the language throughout their lessons, are conversant of the appropriate words which should be encouraged in an academic environment and lastly, are aware of the standard of their learners' language competence and use the language cautiously in order not to fly above the learners' heads.

#### **5.2.5.2 ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES.**

#### **THE TEACHER PICKS OUT UNFAMILIAR WORDS FROM READING TEXT AND WRITE DOWN THEIR DEFINITIONS ON THE BOARD**

***Table 9: Definitions of new words***

		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Valid	Consistently applies the strategy	1	10.0
	Inconsistently applies the strategy	9	90.0
	Total	10	100.0

The observer noted that only 1 (10%) teacher consistently picked out vocabulary from the reading text and explained their meanings by writing down their definitions and translations on the board while almost all 9 (90%) of the teachers did not apply the strategy when teaching vocabulary.

During this stage, all the teachers issued learners photocopied reading texts, some of which were from past examination question papers, excerpts from other reading texts, etc. All the teachers offered learners chances to read aloud the texts to the class. However, the differences were on the strategies used for the teaching of words suspected to be new to the learners.

It was only the teacher who identified certain words from the reading and wrote them down on the chalkboard, and those were captured as follows: **'excited'**, **'unique'**, **'suspicious'**, etc.

The findings are contrary to what was confirmed as the preferred strategy of teaching vocabulary by the Grade 10 teachers of English during the questionnaire stage. The number of teachers who had indicated that they used pre-teaching of new words as a vocabulary teaching strategy (82.6%) is now almost equal to the number of teachers who did not practise the strategy (90%) while being observed by the researcher. It could be reasoned that these teachers who favoured the strategy as reflected in the questionnaires knew the effectiveness of the strategy, but were just ignorant to use it in their lessons or else they did not know how best to practise the strategy, hence this inconsistency.

What has again been observed, even with this one teacher, was that the strategy was not executed at its best planning and application as expected by (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002; Montgomery, 2007; Kaufmann, 2017; TutorVista, 2017; Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013). There was no convincing trend that could be followed, nor a thorough explanation which could make the strategy progressive and results bound (Minarik & Lintner, 2011; Vaughn *et al.*, 2013; Swanson *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, there were no clarifications of the relations between the explanations of the identified words and the context and content of the reading text. In other words, no special words were targeted as those that could help with the general understanding of the text being read.

These findings, therefore, prove Pretoius' (2016) assertion correct which maintains that both explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies could result in the anticipated result only if the teacher's competence could go beyond the knowledge of the teaching approaches that could be used, into the correct application thereof. In other words, there would not be anyone who could judge the functionality of the strategy on its name because its integrity is on the competence of the teachers who could render it effective or ineffective. In this case, even though the teacher believed in the efficacy of the strategy and even tried using the strategy, it was the teacher's lack of full understanding regarding the application thereof which failed the success of the strategy.

## TEACHER'S USE OF CODE-SWITCHING WHEN TEACHING VOCABULARY

**Table 10: Code-switching**

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Valid	Consistently applies the strategy Examples	4	40.0
	Inconsistently applies the strategy	6	60.0
	Total	10	100.0

From the above table, the observer noted that 4 (40%) of the sampled ten teachers translated unfamiliar words into the learners' native language, while the other 6 (60%) of the teachers never practised code-switching as a vocabulary teaching strategy throughout the lessons. A few of the translated words are as follows: '**mourning**' = '**u lila hu u humbula muthu o lovhaho**', '**conceived**' = '**u vha na thumbu**', etc.

The findings show that the teachers who preferred code-switching constituted 40% while those who did not use the strategy made up 60%. Again, these findings are contrary to what was reported in the questionnaire where 71.9%, indicated that they preferred code-switching for vocabulary teaching. What is not certain is whether these teachers do use code-switching when teaching vocabulary.

Nonetheless, some of those who did not apply the code-switching strategy had a way of explaining the meanings of new words to the learners in the target language. In some other cases, examples that illustrated such meanings were used successfully. For example, the word '**grief**' which is a synonym for '**mourning**' was introduced and used to explain the meaning of the word to the learners. Still, others did not use either the available means of meaning explanations, despite the researcher's perception that some words used in the texts could have been difficult for the learners to comprehend their meanings.

However, scholars like Kim (2015); and Maluleke (2019) argue that code-switching has a place in language teaching and learning, if well managed. The researcher observed that the teachers used the strategy moderately without turning the lesson into an L1 class. It was again noted that every time L1 was infused, almost all the

learners were active and participated fully. Despite the teacher's use of the native language, responses from the learners were in the target language, something which proved that the learners themselves knew that English should be the medium and target of learning. This practice supports Harmer (1991; Cook, 2001; Mazur, 2016) who warns against the inconsiderate use of code-switching. In this study, teachers resorted to code-switching as part of regaining learners' attention and generating interest in the lesson

## TEACHER'S USE OF VOCABULARY IN SENTENCES

**Table 11: Use of new words in sentences**

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Valid	Consistently fulfils the expected responsibility	1	10.0
	Inconsistently fulfils the expected responsibility	9	90.0
	Total	10	100.0

The observer witnessed that only 1 (10%) of the teachers who adequately met the responsibilities in terms of explaining new words by using them in sentences, whereas all the other 9 (90%) did not demonstrate how new words could be used in different sentences. One example of such a sentence is: *'During apartheid, black **audiences** were not allowed to watch movies in white-only theatres.'* In this sentence, the use of the word **'audiences'** could be interpreted as meaning people who watch a play.

The findings demonstrate the direct opposite of what was found during the questionnaire stage of the study where 90% of the teachers specified that they used sentence construction to highlight meanings of unfamiliar words to learners with only 10% stating otherwise. These results, yet again, display another discrepancy between what Grade 10 teachers of English know should be done to enhance the learners' vocabulary development and what they actually do when they teach the language to the learners. Based on the expertise of the teachers evident in their use of the English language as the medium of instruction, it could be argued that it is not the content aspect of the PCK that is failing them, but the pedagogical side of the theory.

The term vocabulary is a multi-layered word, which embraces a few hidden yet critical aspects. The use of new words in sentences by the teachers would have reinforced the meanings of the identified words in the right contexts, presented the correct pronunciation, etc. Again, this practice presents words in their correct association, something these learners might not always have the benefit of witnessing, especially when used by good language users like teachers who consider the correctness of the language when they use it.

## TEACHER'S EXPLANATION OF MEANINGS OF WORDS USING SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

**Table 12: Use of synonyms and antonyms in explaining meanings of words**

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Valid	Does not adequately fulfil responsibilities	1	10.0
	Consistently fulfil expected responsibilities	9	90.0
	Total	10	100.0

It was observed that 1 (10%) of the teachers does not meet the responsibilities in terms of explaining the meaning of the new words by supplying their synonyms and antonyms while on the other hand, 9 (90%) of the teachers do. Examples of some of those words used are as follows: **Synonyms: 'conceive' = 'become pregnant', 'purpose' = 'aim or goal'; Antonyms: 'expensive' = 'cheap', 'sweet' = 'sour or bitter'.**

Teaching vocabulary using synonyms and antonyms proved an effective strategy. This strategy offers the teachers an opportunity to explain and give examples (Yilmaz, 2011). Carter (2012) explains that using synonyms and antonyms helps to determine the word's relation to other words of related meaning. It further helps learners know that no matter how related in meanings words are in a language, some elements of their meanings could still set them apart (Yule, 2020; Lynch & Anderson, 2012), especially when these words are closely interrogated. The use of this strategy requires that the teacher play an active role in explaining and illustrating the meanings of the

words so that the same learners after listening and looking at the illustrations the teacher could also come up with their own examples of similar words and their application in sentences. When teachers consider teaching vocabulary with a focus on synonyms and antonyms, learners access the same capacity to interrogate many other words as they encounter them in speech and text. A full understanding of antonyms strengthens the mastery of the English language (Gjergo & Delija, 2014), a failure of which impedes language development.

Based on the facts in the previous paragraph, it could be argued that the importance of teaching vocabulary using synonyms and antonyms outweighs whatever reasons teachers could hold against the strategy. It is therefore laudable that almost all the teachers subscribed to working in this paradigm. It was good to witness the application of this strategy by some teachers who went beyond the word-teaching stage and engaged learners at the sentential phrase by requesting the learners to construct sentences using some of the identified words. It was the best way synonyms and antonyms could have been used in vocabulary teaching endeavours.

## WORKING OUT MEANINGS OF WORDS BY BREAKING THEM DOWN INTO DIFFERENT COMPONENTS

**Table 13: Breaking of words into different components**

		FREQUEN CY	PERCEN T
Valid	Does not fulfil the responsibilities	9	90.0
	Inconsistently fulfils the responsibilities	1	10.0
	Total	10	100.0

In the last part of the observation checklist, the researchers noted that 9 (90%) of the teachers do not meet the responsibilities in terms of explaining the meaning of new words by breaking them into different components, while only 1 (10%) of the teachers inconsistently met the expected responsibilities. This strategy puts more weight on teaching vocabulary through a strict grammar approach. An example that was captured is the word, '*unwillingly*' which was broken down as follows: 'willing

meaning having interest or intention’, ***‘un- ‘the prefix which suggests the opposite of what the word means without it’***. However, the suffix part of the word ( ***‘-ly’***) was left without any mention of it made.

These results contrast what was indicated as the most preferred vocabulary teaching strategy by Grade 10 English FAL teachers. The questionnaire stage of the study indicated that 86.9% of the teachers were in favour of this teaching approach. Thus, teachers of the English language need to realise that vocabulary forms part of grammar (Carter, 2012; Mart, 2013). If teachers are aware of this connection, their teaching of vocabulary would be broader in perspective.

All the teachers but one did not know that words are more than literal construction and meaning. One advantage of taking learners through the grammar route is that it equips them with the skill to deconstruct words when they encounter new words outside the classroom. If well practised, this deconstruction strategy produces life-long learners of vocabulary. This is the most effective explicit vocabulary teaching strategy which should be promoted to nurture independent learners of vocabulary and word composition.

Failure by this high number of teachers to model it and the inconsistent application thereof by the only teacher who tried the strategy in a vocabulary-focused lesson demonstrates the skewed nature of teaching vocabulary in Thohoyandou schools. What even backs this notion further is the fact that these teachers are aware that words have grammar aspects in them, hence their indication, as per their questionnaires, that the teaching of vocabulary should not be treated lightly. When teachers fail to put it into practice, it becomes clear that it is the most confounding teaching strategy.

Amongst the items to be considered for language teaching in CAPS, synonyms, antonyms, parts of speech feature predominantly. The flexibility of this document is not what would have excluded the teaching of vocabulary within what has been listed and presented to the teachers as what is contained in this study. CAPS accommodate any reasonable teaching strategy that the teacher invents as long as that produces the expected results. Similarly, the PCK also has confidence in the expertise of the



teacher, and as such places significant interest in the envisaged product than in the route to the destination.

### 5.2.5.3 USE OF RESOURCES IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING LESSONS

#### THE TEACHER DRAWS VOCABULARY TEACHING WORDS FROM BOOKS, NEWSPAPERS AND PREVIOUS QUESTION PAPERS

**Table 14: Drawing new words from books, newspapers and magazines**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Consistently fulfil expected responsibilities	10	100.0

From the above table, it was observed that all the 10 (100%) teachers consistently fulfilled the expected requirement by making sure that lessons draw vocabulary items from texts, newspapers and magazines. In this research, words were extracted from the reading books, photocopied extracts and previous question papers only.

These findings concur with the results presented under the question on the assortment of resources that teachers resort to when teaching vocabulary. Even though it was not every teacher in this study, 78.9% affirmed that they preferred and applied different materials in teaching vocabulary. In this case, the participants who were observed extracted words for vocabulary teaching from the reading texts in the form of books and photocopied texts.

From these findings, since it could be debated that these participants might not be innovative enough, they are aware of the benefits of using different materials when teaching vocabulary as suggested by (Rondon & Vera, 2016). It is therefore the consideration of the sources and uses of resources for vocabulary teaching by these participants which is creditable. Had these teachers been aware of any other vocabulary teaching resources that could have been used for the possible effectual results, they would have opted to use them.

## REFERRING LEARNERS TO THE ENGLISH DICTIONARY TO SEARCH FOR DIFFICULT WORDS

**Table 15: Use of English dictionary for vocabulary teaching**

		FREQUEN CY	PERCE NT
Valid	Does not fulfil the responsibility	6	60.0
	Adequately fulfils the responsibility	4	40.0
	Total	10	100.0

The researcher observed that 6 (60%) of the participants do not fulfil the expected responsibility in terms of directing learners to refer to the English dictionary to look up meanings of new words, with only 4 (40%) on the other hand doing it.

Despite criticisms levelled against dictionary use as a traditional de-contextualised language teaching resource in the English classes, certain scholars (Schmidt, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Laufer & Shumeli, 1997; Sedita, 2005) still advocate for its consideration but urge that its effectiveness and ineffectiveness is not on the resource, but its application by the language teachers. These scholars again feel that the blame is not on whether the resource is useful or not but on how the teachers model and encourage correct use so that learners could also emulate these (Texas Centre for Reading and Language Arts, 2002). CAPS also encourages the use of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries.

Good dictionary use is a skill which if not trained cannot be acquired. A classroom remains a good place for the training and development of this skill. It is good that certain teachers are aware of this need, though the number and the appropriateness are worrisome. From what was observed, the dictionary was used primarily for the meaning of words. This practice is what many scholars do not approve of and call it an outdated way of using a dictionary. When dictionaries are used in the class under the supervision of the teacher, learners learn the different types of dictionaries based on their usefulness; the best uses of dictionaries go beyond translation and explanation of words (Beck et al, 2002; Graves, 2006; PREL, 2008).

Looking at the ages of most of these teachers as shared under the biographical section of the study, it could be reasoned that most of them are not aware of the modern considerations for improved use of dictionaries as a resource in vocabulary learning and development. This inconsistency also talks to the need for qualifications upgrade of the teachers, especially in line with their subjects of specialisation.

## USE OF PICTURES AND REAL OBJECTS WHILE TEACHING VOCABULARY IN THE CLASSROOM

**Table 16: Use of pictures and other real objects for vocabulary teaching**

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Valid	Does not fulfil responsibility	10	100.0

The researcher observed that all the 10 (100%) teachers did not fulfil the expected responsibility of using pictures and real objects to accompany their teaching of meanings of new words.

The findings contradict what was obtained during the questionnaire stage when a huge number of the participants at 73.9% reported that they used pictures and real objects as aids towards teaching vocabulary.

Despite the teachers' non-use of these readily available resources, these teachers relied on their word of mouth explanation, despite the scholars' declaration that these resources make easier the explanation of new words, decrease the gap between words and real meaning (Diyanti, 2010; Rondon & Vera, 2016); thus making vocabulary learning a fascinating exercise. The teacher's snubbing of this opportunity is not what can be attributed to anything if not their own attitude towards the application of the resources, or lack of the acknowledgment of their worth in vocabulary teaching. The teachers' consideration of this practice remains a litmus test to their competence.

## USING TECHNOLOGY WHILE TEACHING VOCABULARY IN THE CLASSROOM

**Table 17: Use of technology for vocabulary teaching**

		FREQUE NCY	PERCEN T
Valid	Does not fulfil responsibility	10	100.0

Lastly, the researcher noted that all the 10 teachers did not fulfil their expected responsibility of using technology in vocabulary teaching and learning.

These results confirm Chapelle's (2007) study which found that teaching using technology poses a challenge to many teachers of the English language. Again, these findings ratify the challenges encountered when relatively older teachers refuse to adopt technology for vocabulary teaching because they have not been exposed to such gadgets for effectual deployment in classrooms. On the other hand, many scholars give much credit to technology as an enabling resource for effective vocabulary teaching (Mustafa, Sain & Razak, 2012; Lin, Hsiao, Tseng & Chan, 2014; Ma, 2017). It is, however, regrettable that even in this 4<sup>th</sup> Industrial Revolution Era the teaching of the English language has not attracted the use of technology as a teaching resource as none of the teachers attempted integrating this into their lessons. Teaching vocabulary using technology is not as taxing as many teachers would think. Instead of calling for innovative teachers, the resource pack itself comes with almost everything that the teacher would need.

Using technology when teaching vocabulary has its benefits, which can be enjoyed by the teachers. For example, the role of the teacher is lessened since technology would spur on the learners to take the driver's seat in their own learning; it would make learning fun, yet productive; it would extend the learning period beyond the normal prescribed time for vocabulary lessons (Jacob. 2010).

Even though CAPS does not keep a list of resources that teachers should use when teaching vocabulary, it does not exclude their use in the classroom. The same could be said about the PCK. The heterogeneous nature of all the theories cannot be blamed for the teachers' non-use of the listed resources, if not their incapacity to deploy these effectively.

#### 5.2.5.4 ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING AND LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Activities remain critical in vocabulary learning in the classroom. Teachers have to put into practice relevant resources and strategies for the learning process, while learners are supposed to do activities and make the most of them. In order to accomplish this objective, teachers must foster some skills in their learners such as motivation, self-confidence, and cooperative learning. Actually, the success in learning depends enormously on learners' performance; for this reason, they must be highly motivated and interested in the activities proposed by the teacher. Yet motivation and self-confidence is not only a learner issue. According to the treatment stage developed by Brown, teachers are recommended to present their technique positively and enthusiastically.

With no readily available vocabulary activities that teachers could pick and go to class with, the teacher's creativity is key in determining which activities take learners on board. Participants were observed while teaching vocabulary, and the following determinations were made regarding their consideration of the effectiveness of vocabulary teaching and learning activities.

#### LEARNERS READ TEXTS ALOUD IN THE CLASS

**Table 18: Learners read texts aloud in class**

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Valid	Consistently fulfils the responsibilities	10	100.0

The researcher observed that all the 10 (100%) teachers consistently fulfilled the expected responsibilities of offering learners' opportunities to read texts aloud. These findings confirm the results in the questionnaire stage of the study when 91.3% of the participants indicated that they applied this activity when teaching vocabulary. However, what the researcher was more interested in was the appropriateness of the activity towards successful vocabulary teaching.

It was encouraging that all the texts that were read in class were pre-planned and the activity itself was also well-executed (Nation, 2001). During the reading stage, learners were corrected on several aspects directly linked to vocabulary such as pronunciation, intonation, recognition of punctuation marks, etc. However, it was words which were determined to be a problem to learners which were not picked out by many teachers but one for their definitions and/or explanations presented to the class. In a situation where there is scarcity of teaching resources, it is good when teachers work around what is available. Reading texts are the most available resources that any teacher of the language could utilise. When such a resource is recognised and its importance amplified, learners develop familiarity with it and a habit to engage it could grow.

It could be concluded that reading texts aloud in the classroom is as ancient a vocabulary teaching activity as teaching itself, hence every teacher could easily handle its application as reflected on the numbers. In this case, the teachers involved the learners by engaging them when they offered them the reading texts, and by picking out some from the class who should read the text aloud to the class. At least every learner stayed alert when asked to read the text, something which kept the whole class on their toes and made them read it silently as a way of preparing for their imminent turn. The researcher's observations confirmed the teachers' competence in the application of this activity for efficacious vocabulary teaching.

## **CONSTRUCTING SENTENCES USING THE IDENTIFIED WORDS FROM THE READING TEXT**

**Table 19: Learners construct sentences using words identified from reading texts**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Does adequately fulfil responsibilities	3	30.0
	Does not adequately fulfil responsibilities	7	70.0
	Total	10	100.0

The researcher observed that only 3 (30%) of the 10 teachers consistently fulfilled the expected responsibilities in terms of affording learners the opportunity to construct new sentences by using new words identified from reading text; while majority of the teachers 7 (70%) of them inconsistently fulfilled this responsibility when teaching vocabulary through reading of texts. These results show a divergence from the questionnaire findings which reported that 87% of the participants claimed that they presented learners with opportunities to construct new sentences using the identified words from the reading text.

Two such sentences constructed by the learners are stated below:

- ***'A pastor does miracles in the church.'***
- ***'I like going to the theatre.'***

It is commendable that these teachers tried this activity. It can again be applauded that the only two learners who were picked out to construct those sentences did not disappoint too. However, what is not clear is whether the teacher stopped at these ones because she was afraid that the others would stumble under the weight of the task.

These results are not in line with what effective vocabulary teaching prescribes and expects from the seasoned teachers of the language (Schmitt, 2000; Texas Education Agency, 2002; TutorVista, 2017). Any form of language engagement which does not result in practical usage of the learnt words is inactive learning (Cobb & Spada, 2001), and such practice should not be promoted. Though vocabulary could be singled out as an item attracting attention and demanding special treatment, it should always be remembered that vocabulary learning is not the sole goal for the learners, but is the entire scope of language. In other words, successful vocabulary teaching is measured by the practical usage of the learnt vocabulary in the correct language as displayed in sentences.

## LEARNERS ENGAGE IN SOCIAL DISCUSSIONS IN THE CLASSROOM

**Table 20: Learners engage in social discussions in the classroom**

		FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Valid	Does adequately fulfil responsibilities	1	10.0
	Inconsistently fulfil responsibilities	4	40.0
	Does not fulfil the expected responsibilities	5	50.0
	Total	10	100.0

The researcher observed that only 1 (10%) of the teachers adequately fulfilled the expected responsibilities in terms of creating learner-centred lessons that encouraged all learners to participate in the class discussions. The researcher further observed that 4 (40%) of the teachers inconsistently fulfilled these responsibilities when they encouraged learners to engage in some discussion. On the other hand, half of the teachers 5 (50%) did not make the lessons learners-centred in any notable form. The findings exhibit the direct opposite of what 91.2% had indicated in stating that they practised social discussion vocabulary teaching activity in their language lessons.

When teachers turn classrooms into centres of language learning, it is the learners who benefit in acquiring vocabulary. When there is no evidence that teachers practise this activity based on its ineffectiveness, is whether they stick with what they practise because of its efficacy. The dynamics of teaching also change when teaching becomes engaging, and so is the efficacy of learning. Again, the teachers' roles are made light and easy. Instead of the teachers taking the whole class upon their shoulders, learners with advanced vocabulary can replace the teachers in those classrooms.



It could be concluded that these teachers are conscious of what constitutes effective vocabulary teaching, even though they do not practice it; or else, the numbers would not have been as convincing as they are. It could be supposed that it is the skills that are lacking; hence knowledge that cannot translate into practice. The same competence that the study explores is more what the Grade 10 teachers of the English FAL can do in developing the learners' vocabulary mastery and usage. It is unfortunate that though these teachers know what effective vocabulary teaching activities are, they do not employ that.

## USING GAMES TO TEACH VOCABULARY IN THE CLASSROOM

**Table 21: Teachers use games to teach vocabulary**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Does not adequately fulfil responsibilities	10	100.0

The researcher observed that all the 10 (100%) teachers do not adequately fulfil the expected responsibilities of teachers who use games to teach meanings of new words when teaching the English language. It is surprising that not even a single teacher applied games for vocabulary teaching, despite 63.1% who, during the questionnaire stage, had indicated that they used them.

Context has a direct bearing on learning (Vygotsky, 1978). It is on this background that games have the power to create and promote an authentic social context ideal for practical effective vocabulary learning and development. In a situation where such context is not always available to the learners, the expertise of the teacher in seeking and promoting such near-to-real settings would be the gauge in determining the teachers' competence.

However, in most of the classes that were observed, the question of liveliness of learners was not considered as a serious factor which could impact on vocabulary learning. Nonetheless, it was again observed that every time the teacher would create

a joyful moment, the atmosphere would lighten up and be noisy. This was the moment that, if pursued through games, could have resulted in effective vocabulary teaching and learning. It is like teachers of the English language would not want to break the tradition within which they were taught, but confine their practices restricted to the tried and tested activities. Teachers should not want to define themselves by what is only known, but they must be ready to try new untried and unique, yet productive activities.

CAPS underlines the application of activities which could make vocabulary learning and interesting yet results in yielding exercise. Its three language teaching approaches support the execution of teaching activities. Vygotsky's SCT also stresses the importance of social interaction in language learning. The PCK depends on the teachers' innovation for the success of English lessons. From this discussion, it could be stated that activities are the engine for vocabulary learning.

## **SECTION E: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS**

Qualitative data analysis is a way by which the researcher organises and presents data by grouping them into themes based on the relatedness of the information (Cohen, et al., 2007; Gibbs, 2007). This can be done through many different styles. During this stage, I tried to give shape to the collected data by giving sense to what was said by the participants, tying up what was said (the voice) with how it was said (gestures) to arrive at the best interpretation of the participants' beliefs (Rossman, 1999; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Robson, 2011). I adopted the data analysis process as proposed by Attride-Stirling, (2001); and developed by (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The first step towards data analysis was revisiting all recorded engagements the researcher had with participants during interviewing stage of data collection. During this stage, everything that the participants had said was transcribed and organised according to the research questions. The participants' responses were grouped according to the questions. Participants' actual words were also captured and presented as verbatim quotations. This was also done to capture the participants' feelings, perceptions, and attitudes about the subject.

Not all the research questions formed part of the interviews. Two of the questions, one related to the teachers' responsiveness to teaching and learning resources, and the other on teaching and learning activities were left out. The researcher realised that those would have been covered under the observation stage.

Listed below are the themes that emerged from the interview collected data:

**Table 22: Themes developed from the interview**

<b>THEME: 1</b>	Awareness of the importance of vocabulary
<b>THEME: 2</b>	Knowledge and understanding of the importance of vocabulary teaching
<b>THEME: 3</b>	Vocabulary teaching frequency
<b>THEME: 4</b>	Strategies/ methods for effective vocabulary teaching
<b>THEME: 5</b>	Challenges related to vocabulary teaching
<b>THEME: 6</b>	Vocabulary development monitoring mechanisms
<b>THEME: 7</b>	Interventions to vocabulary teaching challenges

Data were presented under the following research questions and themes as summarised in Table 5.23 below:

**Table 23: Research questions and matching themes**

Question No.	Research Questions	Themes
1	To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching?	1 & 2
2	Have these teachers mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL?	3

3	What are the teaching strategies Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?	4
4	Do you have any ways of checking your learners' vocabulary development progress, and if so, how do you do that?	5
5	What are some of the challenges you encounter when teaching vocabulary, and how do you address such?	6 & 7

### 5.3 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 5.3.1 THEME 1: AWARENESS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY

The question that participants were asked was: ***What is your view regarding vocabulary teaching, and why do you hold such a view?*** The researcher wanted to determine if the Grade 10 teachers of English FAL understood how much value the subject framework (CAPS) attached to knowledge of vocabulary.

The teachers of English FAL are the agents of change in terms of the learners' mastery of the language and development thereof. Looking at the context in which the study takes place, it can be hardly possible that any of the two objects could be realised without their active involvement. Of equal importance is their valuable considerations of the importance of vocabulary towards the envisaged language mastery and development.

The participants' responses to the first part of the question were captured as shown in Annexure H. Evidence gathered from the participants attest to the notion that vocabulary is an important aspect of the English language. All the participants advocated for vocabulary teaching and had very strong reasons to believe so, and some of those were captured as follows:

*'Vocabulary teaching is paramount to language learning' [Participant 6],*

*'Vocabulary teaching is far important while teaching a foreign language [Participant 7].*

Vocabulary remains a critical component of language knowledge. Any person who is considered to know a language knows the vocabulary of that language. It is on this

background that Wilkins (1972) believes that without vocabulary there is no knowledge of the language. Vocabulary determines one's depth of knowledge of that language. It is that depth of the knowledge of the language that enables the person to successfully apply all its integrated skills in every given situation (Schmitt, 2000; Lal Banga & Suri, 2015). These are all the kinds of skills that learners need, not only to understand the texts they read but chief amongst them all, to express themselves as this is what makes teachers determine their academic progress based on.

Knowledge of vocabulary is also critical even in the social context. Adequate vocabulary knowledge makes easier daily communication, especially when words used would carry a different meaning based on the context (Allen, 1993; Texas Education Agency, 2002; TutorVista, 2017). Unfortunately, the time to use a dictionary might not always be there or worse still, the meaning that may be offered by the dictionary may not always match the actual meaning of the word in that given situation. This is another point that stresses the importance of vocabulary.

### **5.3.2 THEME 2: KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY TEACHING**

The question that participants were asked was: *What is your view regarding vocabulary teaching, and **why do you hold such a view?*** This section shares the participants' responses to the second part of the question. In support of their unanimous affirmation to the crucial role of vocabulary teaching to the learners, some of the definite reasons shared by the participants were captured as follows:

*Vocabulary teaching is the foundation on which learners could build their knowledge of the language [Participant 1],*

*It helps learners to understand the content that is being taught [Participant 2],*

*It empowers them with the skills to express themselves [Participant 3],*

*It develops their vocabulary which facilitates their daily studies [Participant 4],*

*It helps learners with their responses to comprehension questions [Participant 5],*

*It improves their communication skills in that it gives them good command of the language [Participants 8 and 9].*

Awareness of the importance of vocabulary teaching to language learning, development and mastery is the first and critical step towards its expert teaching for competence. The participants are aware of the importance of vocabulary and understand the seminal role they play in teaching it to the learner. Subsequently, one can conclude that the Grade 10 English FAL teachers of Thohoyandou cluster of circuits in Vhembe East District are aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching.

In the context of the L1 learning where learners' interaction with the English language is limited to classrooms, vocabulary teaching is not optional but a requirement. Vocabulary learning should be prioritised in language teaching, especially in contexts where English is a foreign language to the learners (Saengpakdeejit, 2014). The withdrawal of the English teacher from the learners' language learning experience renders the whole exercise a futile practice (Richardson, 2009). The teachers' presence and availability offer to learners the necessary support they need for the practical use of vocabulary in different settings.

It is considered as the greatest instrument that teachers should be ready and willing to offer to their learners (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004). In other words, a classroom is like a workshop where learners are developed and equipped with the necessary vocabulary-related skills for their successful language usage. Amongst others, vocabulary features on that list of important items that should be taught to the learners. The importance of vocabulary in the learners' academic life compels teachers, as mediators entrusted with the development of the academic life of the learners to prioritise its teaching and learning (Kamil, Borman, Dole, Kral, Salinger & Torgesen, 2008). The accomplishment of the goals of the curriculum (CAPS, 2011), one of which is to produce learners who can express themselves sufficiently, also depends on the influence of teachers as the agents of that imagined change.

### 5.3.3 THEME 3: VOCABULARY TEACHING FREQUENCY

The question asked: *How often do you incorporate vocabulary teaching in your English language teaching?* The question was designed to determine if teachers mastered vocabulary to the extent that they became agents of teaching vocabulary prescribed for Grade 10 English FAL. The understanding was that if these teachers had mastered vocabulary, they would be able to use it throughout their English lessons, and they explain whatever new words they encountered while teaching.

Most of the participants claimed that they often included vocabulary teaching together with other aspects of the English language. Some of them said:

*'I always incorporate vocabulary whenever I teach in the classroom'* [Participant 1],

*'... before starting with any lesson, we first deal with vocabulary ...'* [Participant 2].

Some indicated that English by its nature requires that new words should be explained to the learners, or else the purpose of teaching the language would be defeated. The impression created by what most of the participants said is that these teachers have mastered the English language to the extent that they always use it while teaching the English language.

Even those who responded that they seldom incorporated vocabulary teaching still indicated their willingness to comply with the demands of the curriculum specifications [Participants 5 & 10]. In other words, despite the frequency, vocabulary teaching still features in some of these participants' lessons. These participants justified the inconsistency on the limited time they have at their disposal for the coverage of other prescribed language teaching items [Participant 5].

The findings concur with data gathered through the questionnaires where 89.1% indicated that they used the medium of instruction throughout their lessons (Section 5.2.4.1), and most of them demonstrated their mastery of synonyms (Table 5.3), antonyms (Table 5.4), and sentences in English (Table 5.5). All of the teachers observed by the researcher remained faithful to expectations regarding the medium of

instruction. It can therefore be reported that participants mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL.

The line that divides vocabulary from language is just so thin that the two cannot be treated as separate entities. The person's vocabulary development is dependent on the exposure of that person to the language. Teachers should display successful vocabulary teaching competence, also by working out times which allow for continuous vocabulary teaching and learning in all the English language classes. Nation (2001) proposes that the teachers' successful planning for vocabulary teaching should entail vocabulary as an item included at all times when teaching meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development.

The subject framework, CAPS (2011), promotes vocabulary teaching activities which should feature in all the English language lessons irrespective of the paper treated at that time. Therefore, their teachers are expected to teach vocabulary since English lessons are allocated 5.5 hours out of 16.5 hours per week which translates into 33.3% of the total teaching hours per week.

Despite constantly teaching vocabulary throughout all the English language classes, research has proved that there are times when vocabulary teaching is side-lined and pushed to the periphery of English language teaching. Oljira's (2017) study bears testimony to this claim and indicates that less effective vocabulary teaching strategies include little attention being given to vocabulary teaching, which results in teachers displaying limited skills in developing vocabulary amongst learners.

#### **5.3.4 THEME 4: STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING**

The question that was asked was: ***Which strategies do you find most effective in teaching vocabulary?*** The researcher wanted the participants to answer this question and explain the teaching strategies that the Grade 10 English FAL teachers used to teach vocabulary. Participants were asked to state which vocabulary teaching



strategy they found effective. Whatever the participants said regarding the strategy, it was another way of checking the consistency of and progression from their awareness of the importance of vocabulary, knowledge and understanding of the importance of vocabulary, and their frequency of teaching this construct. The intention was to ascertain the appropriateness of the strategies used by teachers when teaching this fundamental aspect of the language

The findings confirmed that more participants relied heavily on explicit vocabulary teaching methods than implicit ones.

*Participants indicated that they preferred identifying certain words and writing them on the chalkboard so that learners could construct sentences around those words [Participants 1 & 2];*

*explain meanings of words by providing synonyms and antonyms [Participants 5, 8 & 9];*

*using context-based sources like newspapers and extract words and sentences from which different parts of speech could be identified and taught just as they are used in the sources [Participants 3, 4, 6 & 7].*

What was astounding though was one participant indicated that he did not know of any strategy in teaching vocabulary. Even when pressed more, there was no satisfying explanation given for that response.

These findings are a confirmation of the inductive vocabulary teaching strategy which was established as the most preferred strategy by almost all the participants. It could be stated that the findings are in line with CAPS and what it suggests as its preferred vocabulary teaching route.

The different responses as given by the participants attest to the notion that vocabulary teaching is an exercise accomplished through various strategies. One other reason is that successful vocabulary teaching is a unique exercise in which every teacher generates a specific response to the teaching and learning context. Amongst others, the preferred learning styles of learners dictate the teaching and learning strategy the

teacher should consider as effective (Saragi, Nation & Meister, 1978; Curties & Longo, 2001).

It is on this ground that scholars have suggested that teaching vocabulary should not be along with predetermined strategies but should be both proactive and reactive in order to embrace both the direct and indirect vocabulary teaching methods (National Reading Panel, 2000). In other words, learners should be exposed to a vocabulary rich environment so that they could pick up the language on their own; while at the same time, the teacher should be ready and available to facilitate the teaching of vocabulary (Ellis, 1994a, 1994b, 1994c, & 1997; Sedita, 2005; Graves, 2006; Shakouri, 2014).

The teacher of the English language must be aware of the current trends. Despite what could have been successful at the time when the teacher was at college, or what is advocated as progressive from other quarters of the teaching fraternity, the teacher must design context-specific strategies that nurture learners' vocabulary trajectories.

### **5.3.5 THEME 5: CHALLENGES RELATED TO EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING**

These data respond to the question: **What are some of the challenges you encounter when teaching vocabulary?** Asking teachers this question sought to measure the teachers' vocabulary teaching competencies. Identifying the correct problems in what teachers do is part of establishing the relevance and applicability of strategies. What is interesting though is that all the challenges raised by the teachers point fingers at the learners only. It is a problem when teachers know the challenges that learners are faced with than when teachers do not know how much of a problem, they themselves encounter. The competence of the teachers was judged against identifying the genuine problems that could derail their expertise.

The study established that teachers of the English language had some learner-related problems related to vocabulary teaching and learning which were captured as follows:

*As an English teacher you will find the learners need direct translation and you may not always know how to say it using their own language... [Participant 1],*

*As you can see that we are in deep rural in this area, there is a challenge of language barrier. It is a serious challenge [Participant 2],*

*... let us say 80% of the learners they do not understand English ... [Participant 3],*

*... there is the issue of language across the curriculum in our schools which is mostly not adhered to in activities given [Participant 7].*

From the presented responses, it was established that the language barrier was the most dominant challenge identified by most participants. It can again be argued that the language barrier poses numerous problems to the process of vocabulary teaching and learning. These teachers further indicated that such a challenge invites code-switching, which ultimately results in the whole language lesson being offered in the learners' native language. One language barrier is when L1 interferes with L2 language learning and development as learners are shy to express themselves in the target language.

Another challenge was related to the differences between spoken and written languages.

*Learners cannot write correct spelling because of SMS language [Participant 9].*

There was another complaint of learners who no longer wanted to engage in reading activities:

*Another challenge is that the culture of reading has faded away. Learners are no longer interested in reading. They spend most of their time using their cell phones [Participant 9].*

*... sometimes you can explain words to the learners and the challenge is that it needs practise ... you find that don't practise and they end up forgetting the word ... [Participant 4].*

*... there are only a few learners who have got dictionaries in the class ... [Participant 4 & 10].*

Some teachers complained of too much work and little time available:

*... time is never enough and learners' lack of emphasis ... [Participant 5].*

Even though the teaching of vocabulary is an important assignment it is its teaching which is not an easy exercise. It poses significant challenges even to those who have undergone professional training. Research attests that vocabulary is not one of the easiest tasks to teach because it is broad, and always comes through as a novel topic dealing with new horizons in lexis (Alqahtani, 2015; Susanto, 2017). Teachers are used to teaching listed topics that they know where to begin and end, what to teach and how to approach the subject. However, the same cannot be said about vocabulary teaching.

Another challenge relates to the fluidity of words within contexts. It makes vocabulary teaching a difficult task, since there cannot be a list for all contexts in which the words are used and their respective meanings clarified (Oxford, 1990; Alqahtani, 2015). All these are complexities around vocabulary teaching that teachers must deal with daily.

From all the reported challenges, none of the teachers pointed out their unpreparedness to teach vocabulary in the most effective ways. This inadequacy shows that these teachers are not aware of the latest vocabulary teaching techniques. It could be reasoned that these teachers rely on outdated vocabulary teaching techniques that they received many years ago. They are not aware that research is critical of the fallacy of such old-time practices, otherwise, they would have highlighted the anomaly and suggested in-service training. Neither did these teachers complain about the lack of suitable vocabulary teaching resources such as books with relevant teaching strategies and techniques that could lessen the burden from the teachers' side. It is this failure that punches holes into the readiness of these teachers to be the agents of vocabulary teaching changes and questions their competencies to that effect.

The listing of vocabulary as a topic for discussion in the CAPS, and the English language books, comes with its related challenges, one of which is the question on effective strategies for its teaching (Schmitt, 2000; De Groot (2006). Even though research identifies vocabulary as a worthwhile pursuit, very little filters down to the teachers on the subject (Shen (2003; Susanto, 2017). In other words, there are no resources that teachers of the language could readily identify and implement. Despite the important vocabulary in language development, it is a neglected topic whose professional teaching is left in the hands of the teachers (Schmitt, 2008).

### 5.3.6 THEME 6: INTERVENTIONS TO VOCABULARY TEACHING CHALLENGES

The question that was asked was: *How do you address such?*

Participants shared the following as their intervention strategies:

*'I give them the simple terms, simple exercises which will boost their self-esteem ...'*  
[Participant 1],

*'You really have to work hard to make learners in this area to understand English ...'*  
[Participant 2],

*'... May be the remedy is to motivate myself as an educator so that I can motivate learners then give them much work ...'* [Participant 5].

It can be deduced from these responses that participants are not directly addressing the question on vocabulary but are instead speaking to the general language. Even with that, there is no specific intervention addressed. These responses suggest that participants might have not understood what the question expected from them, or if they did, they then did not know how to deal with it. What could be read from these responses is that these teachers lack knowledge regarding remedial vocabulary teaching strategies. If taken further, it could be concluded that they do not know about vocabulary teaching challenges as they do not concentrate on its teaching, hence these responses.

There were other responses which were slightly in line with the question in hand and those were captured as follows:

*'... We switch teachers I have my friend from other schools sometimes I will ask them that I'm having a challenge, and I will ask the teacher to come and teach that part for me here ... [Participant 4],*

*'.... I also encourage dictionary use so that learners can earn the basic aspects of the language.' [Participant 6],*

*'... Educators offering other learning areas must also be urged to use English across the curriculum ...' [Participant 7],*

*'... Just drill its importance to learners at every opportunity' [Participant 8].*

These responses lack the decisiveness needed in dealing with the vocabulary teaching challenges. They do not spell out the progression plan which takes the teaching of the subject to higher levels. The outsourcing strategy is seasonal and therefore temporary. It cannot be applicable in situations such as vocabulary teaching. Dictionary use, on the other hand, cannot also be classified as an intervention strategy.

Even though these responses have some elements of vocabulary attached, they all lack substance. All the responses reflect the type and quality of the challenges that were raised by the same participants. The fact that only trivial challenges, which only pointed towards the side of the learners, were red-flagged, shows the lack of understanding of the teachers about the subject, including their competence. Participants are impractical about the remedy to the problem since they failed to point it out in the first instance.

The CEFR serves as the rungs of the English language ladder, with each step leading towards the expected destination (Council of Europe, 2001). One of the duties of the English vocabulary teacher is to gauge the levels of the learners that are in the

classroom, determine the type of intervention needed, work out effective vocabulary teaching strategies, and constantly monitor the progress of the learners' vocabulary development. There cannot be any intervention before identifying suitable vocabulary teaching strategies.

As confirmed in the previous sections that successful vocabulary teaching is marred by myriad challenges which affect both the learners and the teachers, what remains critical is the intervention. However, it cannot be expected that the number and quality of interventions can transcend the number and seriousness of the challenges that this study has elaborated. This question was meant to determine if teachers regard vocabulary teaching seriously to the extent that they follow it up with concise strategies for its successful development. It was again another way of checking if teachers had any other mechanism to inspire the interest in English amongst the learners.

### **5.3.7 THEME 7: VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT MONITORING MECHANISMS**

This part of the study responds to the following question: ***Do you have any ways of checking your learners' vocabulary development progress? If so, how do you do that?***

Here are some responses that were shared by the participants:

*Unfortunately, we do not have any way ... [Participants 4, 5 & 10].*

Even though it is sad that some teachers would neglect the teaching of vocabulary despite its importance, these responses are not surprising as they corroborate what the teachers demonstrated even when they were teaching vocabulary under the researcher's observation. Very little was done to teach and offer assistance to learners throughout those lessons.

However, a few other participants claimed that they followed up on learners' vocabulary development as recorded below:

*Yes, sometimes I ask learners to define these words without using a dictionary ...*  
**[Participants 2 & 6].**

*I will give them tasks which will require them to look for meanings of words*  
**[Participants 3, 7 & 9].**

With the participants who engage learners, at least it could be said that these participants understand the importance of teachers' presence alongside the learners' vocabulary development journey. They also know about the different levels vocabulary development should pass through. But, it is not enough for the teacher to know about all these if something more serious could alter the situation like when the teacher can establish the level of the learner at a given point so that a suitable intervention could be sought is not done. If teachers are not aware of the levels, there cannot, therefore, be any point at which they could determine progress. This fact alone indicates that there cannot be any mechanism by which the teachers identify clearly the signs of development.

Frequent exercises in the definition of words could change the situation as it would make instil the culture in learners and ensure that learners master vocabulary. Activities like spelling exercises through Spelling Bees are more progressive in helping learners develop their vocabulary skills. This could help learners show interest in vocabulary and thus increase their participation in the classroom. Incentives and rewards, on the other hand, could also motivate learners as such extrinsic rewards build a feeling of achievement.

What is questionable is whether the teachers of the English language vocabulary have the capacity to evaluate the vocabulary development in their learners. It cannot be called successful vocabulary teaching when they fail to determine any progress towards the desired goal. There is evidence that these teachers hardly established the vocabulary levels of their learners when they first met them (Sothan, 2015). Any development must begin at one point and move towards a destination. There are three broad levels of the English language which talk to the mastery of the language by the



learners: level A represents the Basic Language User, level B for Independent Language User and level C stands for Proficient Language User (Council of Europe, 2001).

#### **5.4 CONCLUSION**

In pursuit of the main research question which sought to explore the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers, this chapter presented the research findings, the discussion thereof and then the analyses. Findings were presented, discussed and analysed under the category of the methods involved in line with the relevant methodologies, i.e. quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative results were presented in figures and tables, whereas qualitative data were presented verbatim as recorded from the participants' interviews. The following chapter offers a succinct summary of the convergent findings of the study as responses to the sub-questions explicated in this study.

## **CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

As the final chapter of the research project, this chapter summarises the findings of the research, draws conclusions based on the findings and makes recommendations for change and further research on questions investigated. The research aimed to answer the question on whether Grade 10 English FAL teachers exhibit and demonstrate the necessary competencies to teach vocabulary effectually. The constellated results are presented below.

### **6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY**

The opening chapter outlined the background to the study. Amongst others, the chapter defined vocabulary outlined the importance of vocabulary (also as explained in the CAPS document) and in the academic life of a learner, the impact that the teachers' involvement in how they teach the concept in terms of the practices, strategies, resources and activities. The study strove to explore the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers by scrutinising the teachers' three major areas of language teaching and learning (vocabulary in particular) which were outlined as follows: teacher's vocabulary teaching practices, teachers' vocabulary teaching strategies, teachers' use of vocabulary teaching resources and teachers' use of vocabulary teaching activities.

Chapter two explained the theories that buttressed the study, which are Shulman's 1986 Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Vygotsky's (1962) Sociocultural theories. Shulman's (PCK) inclusion in the study was justified on its interest in pedagogical knowledge, which is concerned with how teaching is practised; and content, which is about what is taught in the teaching and learning process; while Vygotsky is concerned with the processes of learning which involve the interaction and intrapersonal activities as what could be pursued by the teacher in the vocabulary teaching lessons.

The third chapter reviewed the literature concerning vocabulary teaching and learning processes, and the integration of theoretical frameworks into vocabulary teaching and learning processes. This chapter further outlined the importance of vocabulary teaching in language learning, development and ultimate mastery. Different techniques around word-formation, meanings and aspects of words were also discussed. Literature on methods, strategies and approaches of how vocabulary was and is learnt, and the advantages and disadvantages thereof were also examined and interrogated.

The fourth chapter presented and justified the research methodologies used in the study. Based on its aim to investigate Grade 10 English FAL teachers' vocabulary teaching competencies, the study adopted a parallel-convergent research methodology of the pragmatic research paradigm and mixed methods research approach. The study population and sample comprised 50 and 10 Grade 10 teachers of English FAL in Thohoyandou cluster in Vhembe East District. Three instruments were used: a questionnaire, an observation checklist and structured interviews. All the instruments were pilot-tested with 6 teachers for the questionnaires and three for both observations and interviews. Even after the piloting stage of the instruments, none of them required any modifications. All the participants were issued a letter of consent and then they were granted permission to the researcher to participate in the study within the parameters of the ethical considerations. The primary researcher collected and analysed all the data, except for the quantitative type which was analysed by a professional statistician using the SPSS version 21 programme. The response rate for the research was 92% (46 out of 50) for questionnaires and 100% (10 out of 10) for both observations and interviews.

The fifth chapter presented, discussed and analysed the findings of the study based on the five main categories of the research questions which are: a) teachers' awareness of the CAPS vocabulary teaching requirements, b) teachers' vocabulary teaching strategies, c) teachers' vocabulary teaching resources, d) teachers' use of effective vocabulary teaching and learning activities, and e) teachers' identification of vocabulary teaching challenges and intervention thereof. The first section of the

findings from the questionnaires focused on the participants' personal information and background which, other than the biographical information, covered the questions around the English FAL teaching experience, and the highest qualifications. The second section consisted of statements on a five-point Linkert-scale which represented the best opinions of the participants. The last section (Section C) tested the teachers' mastery of the English vocabulary using the ordinal-polytomous scale of responses.

Ten participants were observed while teaching topics which featured vocabulary even though the findings were not conclusive especially about how they implemented the professional knowledge and competencies. Observation focused on four sub-themes which dealt with a) teachers' knowledge and understanding of the CAPS vocabulary teaching requirements, b) vocabulary teaching approaches used for effective vocabulary teaching, c) resources used in vocabulary teaching, and d) activities exhibited in vocabulary teaching and learning.

The same ten teachers who were observed were again engaged in structured interviews held just after the observation sessions. Interviews were held under the following seven sub-themes:

- a) Teachers' awareness of the importance of vocabulary,
- b) Knowledge and understanding of the importance of vocabulary teaching,
- c) Vocabulary teaching frequency,
- d) Strategies for effective vocabulary teaching,
- e) Challenges related to vocabulary teaching,
- f) Interventions to vocabulary teaching challenges, and
- g) Vocabulary development monitoring mechanisms.

### 6.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS REVISITED

The study strove to answer the following research questions:

- To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching?
- Have these teachers mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL?
- What are the teaching strategies Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?
- How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate resources when teaching vocabulary?
- Which activities do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use to teach vocabulary?
- What are the challenges Grade 10 English FAL teachers encounter when teaching vocabulary and how do they surmount those?

### 6.4 RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### 6.4.1 TEACHERS' AWARENESS OF THEIR PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATIONS REGARDING VOCABULARY TEACHING

Two questions were asked under this strand of knowledge: The first was: *To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching?* The second one on the same issue was: *Have these teachers mastered the vocabulary prescribed for teaching in Grade 10 English FAL?* A questionnaire and an observation checklist were used to establish the facts.

Findings on the first question established that 41 teachers, constituting the majority (89.1%) used English as a medium of instruction during their English language lessons (Figure 5.1). Only 3 teachers (6.5%) felt otherwise with the other 2 teaching staff (4.4%) not sure if they always used this medium of instruction. The same results were upheld when the researcher confirmed that all the teachers observed (100%) used English as a medium of instruction; mostly used Tier 2 words and confined their language to the level of understanding amongst the learners, throughout the lessons (Figure 5.1).

Concerning teachers' awareness of the importance of vocabulary and their regard of such, all the teachers' interviews concurred that vocabulary is critical in learners' language learning, development and mastery endeavours. They further heightened the importance of vocabulary teaching, with all of them explaining that it is the foundation for the understanding of content; facilitates language learning, development and mastery of language; and improves learners' communication skills. All the teachers claimed that they frequently incorporated vocabulary teaching in their English language lessons, though it is the expertise with which such teaching is executed that was found questionable. The findings are congruent with prescriptions of PCK and CAPS both of which emphasise good teaching practices which align with the subject's requirements.

Regarding the participants' mastery of English synonyms (Table 5.5), antonyms (Table 5.6) and English sentences (Table 5.7); scores were as low as 69% for synonyms, 44% for antonyms, and 52% for English sentences, while on the other hand the highest was recorded as 98%, 78.3% and 82.2% respectively. Despite these scores, all the teachers proved their language mastery during observation by the researcher as indicated in the preceding paragraph.

With awareness being the first step towards competence, the findings confirm that all the teachers were aware of the critical role of vocabulary in language learning, development and eventual mastery of the English language. Despite the observation that teachers' mastery of certain vocabulary aspects was low, the teachers' performance in other areas, as confirmed by observation, verified the participants' competence in this regard. The findings fairly satisfy the PCK's expectations that teachers should be experts of the subjects they teach who could present comprehensible content to the learners.

#### **6.4.2 TEACHERS' VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES**

This part of the study sought to determine the vocabulary teaching strategies used by Grade 10 English FAL teachers, and evaluate the teachers' effective use of such, and estimate the robustness of the strategies in vocabulary teaching and learning. A questionnaire, observation checklist and structured interviews were employed to establish this quest.

The study findings gathered through the use of questionnaires suggest that a majority of the teachers are conversant with most of the strategies as identified by most scholars of vocabulary teaching and learning (3.5 & 3.7.1). The majority of teachers (82.6%) preferred pre-teaching of new vocabulary (5.2.4.3); 71.9% chose translation of new words into the learners' home language; 91.3% indicated that they offered learners opportunities to construct new sentences with the new words; 86.9% understood that the incorporation of grammar in vocabulary teaching was a critical strategy; while only 69.9% thought that learners could work out meanings of new words on their own if drawn to the words in their contexts.

On the other hand, findings established in the observation checklist (5.2.5.2) suggest the direct opposite of what was reported from the questionnaire's findings. Only 10% of the teachers pre-taught any new words; 40% translated new target words into learners' L1; 10% offered learners a chance to use new words in sentence construction; and 90% incorporated grammar, explaining new words using synonyms, antonyms and other grammatical strategies to enhance familiarity with the new words.

When interviewed, the same teachers who were also observed still claimed that they preferred and used: pre-teaching of new words, drawing learners' attention to new vocabulary, offered learners opportunities to construct sentences of their own using the new words, used synonyms and antonyms, and breaking words into different parts of speech as their vocabulary teaching approaches. It was only one teacher who indicated that she did not teach vocabulary and as such did not have any specifically defined strategy to use.

From these findings, it can be concluded that the Grade 10 English FAL teachers know different vocabulary teaching strategies which could be used for successful learning of the subject by the learners, also as determined in the CAPS. However, these same teachers did not effectively put that into practice, perhaps because they lacked capacity to utilise the strategies in the live teaching of the English language and/or vocabulary. The claim, by some of the teachers, that they do not have time for vocabulary teaching as it could derail the teaching of other important aspects as prescribed for them was not convincing also because vocabulary teaching is a prescription in the curriculum teaching of which cannot be considered as a time-wasting activity. The findings are inconsistent with PCK and CAPS' requirements that teachers should apply teaching strategies which make subject content comprehensible to the learners.

#### **6.4.3 TEACHERS' USE OF TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES**

This quest was evaluated by answering the question: *How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate resources when teaching vocabulary?* The two instruments used to investigate this question were a questionnaire and the observation checklist.

Questionnaire findings show that 78.2% of the teachers used different teaching and learning resources, while another 73.9% used pictures and real objects when teaching vocabulary (5.2.4.4). However, the observation checklist showed that not even a single teacher used any pictures and real objects in their English language lessons (5.2.5.3). Nonetheless, all the observed teachers (100%) used books, copies from newspapers and previous question papers. Of all these, it was only 40% who referred learners to English dictionary for meanings and other explanations of words. In the section on teachers' mastery of synonyms, antonyms and English sentences (5.2.4.4), teachers' incorrect responses were as high as 31%, 33%, and 21.7% for the respective types of questions, even though they were expected to use a dictionary when responding to the questions. Again, there was no single item which registered a 100% correct response rate. These findings confirm that most Grade 10 teachers of English FAL do not consider English dictionaries as a beneficial English language teaching and learning resource. Again, there was not even one teacher who used any form of



technology to facilitate vocabulary teaching and learning in any of the observed lessons.

The findings confirm that Grade 10 English FAL teachers prefer and use traditional vocabulary teaching resources. What is not clear though is whether these teachers would have used any other resources had they been provided with these. Despite the excuse that the teachers brought up, the use of pictures and other real objects only calls for creativity and does not depend on the provision. The conclusion drawn therefore is that Grade 10 teachers do not have the necessary competence to use pictures and real resources effectively towards teaching and learning vocabulary. These findings are incongruent with the PCK and the CAPS' expectations that teachers should be the experts who are innovative in their fields of specialisation.

#### **6.4.4 TEACHERS' USE OF EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY TEACHING ACTIVITIES**

This item was evaluated by addressing the question: *How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate activities when teaching vocabulary?* Two instruments in the form of a questionnaire and an observation checklist were used.

Findings from questionnaires established that 91.3% of teachers claimed that they asked learners to take time to read texts aloud in class; 88.7% asked learners to construct sentences from identified words; 91.2% offered the learners some social engagement time in the English language classroom; and 63.1% used games to teach unfamiliar words (5.2.4.5).

The observation checklist confirmed the following: all teachers (100%) asked learners to read texts aloud in class; 30% of the teachers required learners to construct own sentences using identified new vocabulary terms; only 10% of teachers offered learners social engagement time to converse in the English language; and not even one used any sort of games while teaching vocabulary (5.2.5.4).

Despite the teacher's claim that they were aware of and competent in using effective vocabulary teaching activities, observation generated a different picture. It can be reasoned that the fact that these teachers claimed what they could not realistically do resides in their conviction of the efficacy of these activities in vocabulary teaching. However, their failure to put into practice what they professed illustrated some hiatus between claim and practice. It is therefore clear from the numbers that many Grade 10 English FAL teachers lacked the competence to use effective vocabulary teaching activities, though they were aware of their effectiveness in the acquisition of vocabulary. These findings contradict the PCK's expectations that teachers should know the learners through evaluating their prior knowledge, SCT's language teaching guidelines which spell out that classroom teaching should be near-authentic by reflecting what learners would experience in a real-life environment.

#### **6.4.5 VOCABULARY TEACHING CHALLENGES AND SUBSEQUENT INTERVENTION**

This pursuit was addressed in the question on whether Grade 10 teachers of English FAL are aware of the challenges regarding effective vocabulary teaching and if so, how do they deal with those (5.3.5). This was the only research question investigated using one instrument; that being the structured interviews. The reasoning was that if teachers could identify such challenges and again suggest an effective intervention to the challenges; then their competence in vocabulary teaching could have been determined and confirmed.

The findings were that all the challenges raised by almost all teachers were one-sided as those were all blamed on the learners only; this despite the teachers' unpreparedness to teach vocabulary effectively as shown in parts of this study. None of them pointed that weakness out; though there are no suitable vocabulary teaching resources that could enhance the process, not even one teacher identified that as a challenge. Subsequently, all the interventions suggested were not convincing enough to address the few challenges and those unidentified ones. No progression plan could be established from what was offered as solutions to the challenges. It was against this ground that the researcher concluded that teachers in this study did not display convincing traits of competence in teaching vocabulary effectively. The findings do not

observe the PCK's requirement of reflective practice which ultimately breeds professional growth.

## **6.5 CONCLUSIONS**

The question that the study wanted to answer was whether Grade 10 English FAL teachers in Thohoyandou cluster of Vhembe District have the necessary competencies to teach vocabulary effectually.

Before any conclusions could be drawn from the findings as interpreted from information shared by the participants, it was essential to first understand the calibre of the teachers involved. These are professionals who have undergone the necessary teacher preparation training and have vast experience in the general teaching profession and English language teaching in particular as displayed in the demographic section of the study (5.2.1). The number of years they have spent in the profession should have empowered them with tried and tested teaching strategies and techniques for effective vocabulary teaching.

Their professional standing and experience qualify them and endow them with the skills and capacity to understand and correctly interpret the requirements and the expectations of English vocabulary teaching as set out in the CAPS as the subject framework. Therefore, these professionals were deemed capable of assessing what works and what does not and make an informed choice regarding their teaching practices. Nevertheless, these teachers' English vocabulary competencies were found wanting in many respects.

The study confirms that Grade 10 teachers of English FAL have the necessary awareness of expectations regarding vocabulary teaching. These teachers know and understand the importance of vocabulary as the foundation for language learning, development and mastery. They affirmed that the teaching of the English vocabulary is critical and should be treated as such. They possess adequate vocabulary mastery to sustain their endeavour to stick to the medium of instruction throughout the English language lessons.

Although teachers in this study possessed the power of language which would have been used as a springboard for successful vocabulary teaching practices, the teachers' vocabulary teaching competencies were not convincing. These teachers lacked the capacity to choose and apply effective vocabulary teaching strategies. They remained stuck in traditional and unproductive vocabulary teaching resources. In other words, they lacked the creativity to turn things around in terms of resources. Again, they lacked self-evaluation and introspective capacity regarding own teaching practices. They did not enquire about successful current vocabulary teaching trends.

## **6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

A few limitations were encountered during the study. The study focused on 46 Grade 10 English FAL teachers who agreed to participate out of the total of 50 teachers in the Thohoyandou cluster in Vhembe East District, Limpopo Province. With the vocabulary problem being a national crisis, there is no guarantee that the same findings would have been arrived at had the sampled teachers been drawn from other parts of the South African teacher population. It is against this background that the findings may only be applicable to Grade 10 English FAL teachers in the Vhembe East District of Limpopo Province.

Secondly, interviews were conducted during the COVID-19 lockdown regulations period. All the COVID-19 health procedures, which amongst others included confirmation of optimal body temperature, hand sanitising, wearing of a mask, and social distancing, were observed throughout the interviewing process. Even though, some teachers who had been earmarked for the process had to be changed when they were reluctant to meet strangers whom they suspected could be carriers of the virus. It is uncertain if the results would have taken a different shape had these participants been involved.

Observation data were collected from a staged situation. There is always the suspicion that what the teachers do or 'perform' in the presence of a researcher is what they always do in their daily vocabulary teaching. There is the likelihood that what was

'performed' on the day of the observation was a far much-improved act to what happens at all other times. The 'enactments' during observation are therefore more likely to be 'contrived' performances to assuage the researcher rather than the 'lived experiences and realities' in day-to-day contacts without the 'intrusive presence' of a researcher, and this affects the 'authenticity' of such findings.

The vocabulary problem is largely identified in the Grade 12 exit examinations, yet the study focused only on Grade 10 as the FET entry-level. Clearly, the study did not consider the teaching competencies of other teachers of English FAL in Grades 11 and 12, whose views and practices might have directed the study to markedly different conclusions.

## **6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The key findings of this study have been outlined in the previous section. The findings relate to the competencies of the Grade 10 English FAL teachers. This section suggests some recommendations, which are grouped into those designed to initiate change and the remainder directed at future studies. The first set of recommendations respond to the main research question and the subsequent sub-research questions of the study while the second set suggests complex aspects of language learning and competence that could be undertaken in future studies.

### **6.7.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE VOCABULARY TEACHING STRATEGIES**

- a) Teachers should be encouraged to take vocabulary teaching and learning as a serious matter which cannot be postponed. In that way, vocabulary teaching should be frequent practice taking the form of self-directed learning even in the absence of the teacher. Teachers could arouse vocabulary learning interests in learners, encouraged learners to take ownership of their vocabulary learning, help learners keep on acquiring new vocabulary learning strategies, selecting appropriate vocabulary learning resources and activities and monitoring the effectiveness of their vocabulary learning development practices.

- b) Teaching and learning of vocabulary should always be integrated into all other English language teaching sessions.
- c) The teaching of English vocabulary should begin with decontextualized strategies and take it further to fully contextualised stages so that learners get an opportunity not only to see the word in context but also to try using it.
- d) The Department of Education should share efficacious research findings with teachers so that they appreciate the points that call for improvement in their daily teaching.
- e) Vhembe East District English FAL Curriculum Advisors (CA) should hold regular workshops with FAL teachers of English in order to acquaint these teachers with the latest teaching practices as identified in the literature section of the study.
- f) Classroom visits as set out in the IQMS should be a requirement so that English FAL teachers share the best practices in English language teaching for the benefit of the learners.
- g) Teachers should be encouraged to learn from one another by inviting those teachers who are known to be producing good results in their schools to share their best practices.
- h) Teachers of the English language should be encouraged to create a classroom environment which is a near-authentic world in which learners use the language to express their perceptions of both the classroom and the world.
- i) Teachers should be encouraged to pre-plan their lessons so that expected resources are sought and brought into the classroom even before the commencement of the lessons. This tendency makes teachers proactive, creative and innovative; which in turn counteracts the problem of shortage of resources.
- j) Teachers should be aware that teaching is not about completing the prescribed set of work but helping learners to become articulate producers of new knowledge.
- k) Teachers should make learners access the study materials even from their mobile phones so that the learning of the English language should not only be confined to the classroom but could be perennial and engaging.
- l) Vocabulary instruction should be given the necessary attention from both the curriculum designers and the teachers of the language.

### **6.7.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHER IMPROVEMENT**

- a) Teachers should be encouraged to be lifelong learners in pursuit of the latest and most effective vocabulary teaching practices, including the use of technology, and promotion of such to learners' self-study practices.
- b) Teachers should be encouraged to improve on their qualifications and those who do so should be incentivised. This could be another way of reskilling teachers so that their teaching practices become current and productive rather than relying on outdated strategies.
- c) With some teachers not being innovative enough on their own, the Department of Education should make teaching resources available.

### **6.7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

This study explored the vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English FAL teachers in Thohoyandou cluster in Vhembe East District of Limpopo Province. The findings of this study were limited to the parameters as set out in the research questions. In the course of the study, certain ideas emerging from similar research merit further research in the following areas:

- a) Future research on the same topic could be pursued with teachers of the English language but from other FET grades.
- b) This study, with the same Grade 10 teachers, could be replicated in other provinces of the country.
- c) Establish why teachers of English language vocabulary do not use the strategies that they know.
- d) Factors leading to poor vocabulary mastery and use by learners in the FET band could also be investigated.
- e) An investigation into the vocabulary teaching strategies used by English FAL teachers in the FET band could be explored.

## REFERENCES

- Aarts, B., Chalker, S. & Weiner, E. (2014). *Dictionary of English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Abdali, M. (2010). Teaching Vocabulary through Code-Mixing. *Peyke Noor Journal*, 8(1):138 – 145.
- Abell, S.K. (2008). Twenty years later: Does pedagogical content knowledge remain a useful idea? *International Journal of Science Education*, 30(10):1405 – 1416.
- Akinyode, B.F. & Khan, T.H. (2018). Step by step approach for qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Built Environment and Sustainability*, 5(3):163 – 174.
- Al-Darayseh, A. (2014). The impact of using explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies on improving learners' vocabulary and reading comprehension. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 4(6):1109 – 1118.
- Al-Dawsari, H. (2017). *The challenges of learning academic vocabulary among postgraduate Saudi learners at New Zealand universities: School of language and culture*. [Online]. Available from: <http://.aut.researchgate.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10292/10754/AldawsariH.pdf?sequence=4>. [Accessed: 2018. 03. 21].
- Alemi, M. (2010). Educational games as a vehicle to teaching vocabulary. *Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(6):425 – 438.
- Alemi, M. & Tayebi, A. (2011). The influence of incidental and intentional vocabulary acquisition and vocabulary strategy use on learning L2 vocabularies. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(1):81 – 98.



- Aliaga, M. & Gunderson, B. (2002). *Interactive statistics*. [Thousand Oaks]: Sage Publications.
- Allen, V.F. (1993). *Techniques in teaching vocabulary*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Al-Mekhlafi, A. (2007). The development of prospective EFL teachers' specialist language competencies in UAE universities. *University of Sharjah Journal for Shari'a Sciences & Humanities*, 4(1):1 – 27.
- Alqahtani, M. (2015). The importance of vocabulary in language learning and how to be taught. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, 3(3):21 – 34.
- Alroe, M.J. & Reinders, H. (2015). The role of translation in vocabulary acquisition: A replication study. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1:39 – 58.
- Altenberg, E. P. & Vago, R. M. (2010). *English grammar: Understanding the basics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Anderson, V. (2009). *Research methods in human resource management*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (Cipd).
- Anderson, A., Anderson, J., Lynch, J., Shapiro, J. & Kim, E.J. (2012). Extra-textual talk in shared book reading: A focus on questioning. *Early Child Development and Care*, 182(9):1139 – 1154.
- Anderson, R.C. & Pearson, P.D. (1984). *A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading*. In: Pearson, P.D., Barr, R., Kamil, M. L. & Mosenthal, P (Eds.). *Handbook of reading research*, 37 – 55. New York: Longman.
- Andrews, S. (2008). *Teacher Language Awareness*, 62(3): 322 – 324.
- Anil, B. (2011). Teaching vocabulary through games: A Sanguine step. *i-Manager's Journal on English Language Teaching*, 1(4):45 – 49.

- Anning, A., Cullen, J. & Flear, M. (2009). *Research contexts across cultures*. In: Anning, A. Cullen, J. & Flear, M. (Eds). *Early childhood education: Society and culture* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed), 1 – 24. London: Sage.
- Anton, M. (1999). The discourse of a learner-centred classroom: Sociocultural perspectives on teacher-learner interaction in the second-language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(3):303 – 318.
- Antonacci, P.A. & O'callaghan, C.M. (2011). *Promoting literacy development: 50 research-based strategies for K-8 learners*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Armbruster, B., Lehr, F. & Osborn, J. (2001). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read*. Jessup, MD: National Institute for Literacy.
- Arbain, A. (2017). Derivations in headline articles of the Jakarta post newspaper. *IJOLTL-TL (Indonesian Journal of Language Teaching and Linguistics)*, 2(1):23 – 30.
- Arlene, F. (2014). *Conducting research literature reviews*. Thousand Oaks, California; London: SAGE.
- Astika, G. (2015). Profiling the vocabulary of news texts as capacity building for language teachers. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(2),123 – 134.
- Asyiah, D.N. (2017). The vocabulary teaching and vocabulary learning: Perception, strategies, and influences on students' vocabulary mastery. *Jurnal Bahasa Lingua Scientia*, 9(2), 293 – 318.
- Atkinson, D. (1993). *Teaching monolingual classes*. London: Longman.

- Atkins, P. & A. Baddeley. (1998). Working memory and distributed vocabulary learning. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 19(4):537 – 52.
- Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: An analytic tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 1(3):385 – 405.
- Auer, P. (2009). *Bilingual conversation*. In: Coupland, N. & Jaworsld, A. (Eds.). The new sociolinguistic reader, 41 – 58. Basingstoke, England: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Auerbach, E.R. (1993). Re-examining English only in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1):9 – 32.
- Aveyard, H. (2010). *Doing a literature review in health and social care: A practical guide*. Maidenhead, New York: Open University Press.
- Azam, A. (2014). Teaching grammar and vocabulary. *Journal of Advances in Linguistics*, 2(1):61 – 80.
- Babbie, E. (1990). *The practice of social research (12<sup>th</sup> ed)*. Belmont: Wardworth Cenage Learning.
- Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Baddeley, A.D. & Hitch, G.J. (2017). Is the levels of processing effect language-limited? *Journal of Memory and Languge*, 92:1 – 13. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2016.05.001> Accesses: 2020. 05. 19].
- Ball, D. L. (2000). Bridging practices: Intertwining content and pedagogy in teaching and learning to teach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(3):241 – 247.
- Barcroft, J. (2007). Effects of opportunities for word retrieval during second language vocabulary learning. *Language Learning*, 57(1):35 – 56.

- Barnard, A. (2010). *English in South Africa – A double-edged sword (2)*. *Teaching English today, a project by the English academy of Southern Africa*. [Online]. Available from: <https://teachingenglishtoday.org/index.php/2010/06/english-in-south-africa-a-double-edged-sword-2/>. [Accessed: 2018. 05. 04].
- Barrot, J.S. (2013). Revisiting the role of linguistic complexity in ESL reading comprehension. 3L: Language, linguistics and literature, *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies.*, 19(1):5 – 18.
- Bashir, M., Afzal, M.T. & Azeem, M. (2008). Reliability and validity of qualitative and operational research paradigm. *Pakistan journal of statistics and operation research*, 4(1):35 – 45.
- Basson, A.A. & Uys, H.H.M. (1991). Research methodology in nursing. *Pretoria Haum*, 59 – 80.
- Baumann, J., Font, G., Edwards, E. & Boland, E. (2010). *Strategies for teaching middle grade learners to use word-part and context clues to expand reading vocabulary*. In: Hiebert, E. & Kamil, M. (Eds.). *Teaching and learning vocabulary: Bringing research to practice*, 179 – 205. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bavi, F. (2018). The effect of using fun activities on learning vocabulary at the elementary level. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(3):629 – 939. [Online]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0903.24> [Accessed: 2020. 05.11].
- Beck, I.L. & McKeown, M.G. (1985). Teaching vocabulary: Making the instruction fit the goal. *Educational Perspectives*, 23(1): 11 – 15.
- Beck, I.L., McKeown, M. & Kucan, L. (2008). *Creating robust vocabulary: Frequently asked questions and extended examples (Vol. 10)*. New York: Guilford Press.

- Beck, I.L, Mckeown, M.G. & Omanson, R. (1987). *The effects and uses of diverse vocabulary instructional techniques*. In: McKeown, M. & Curtis, M. (Eds.). *The nature of vocabulary acquisition*: 147 – 163. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Erlbaum. [Online]. Available from: [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(87\)90048-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(87)90048-0) [Accessed: 2020. 02. 03].
- Becker, W.C. (1977). Teaching reading and language to the disadvantaged – What we have learnt from field research: *Harvard Educational Review*, 47:518 – 543.
- Bernard, H.R. (2002). *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Walnut Creek: Alta Mira Press.
- Berne, J.I. & Blachowich, C.L.Z. (2008). What reading teachers say about vocabulary instruction: Voices from the classroom? *The Reading Teacher*, 62(4):314 – 323.
- Beukes, A. (2015). *Challenges for South Africa's medium-sized indigenous languages in higher education and research environments*. In: Vila, F. & Bretxa, V. (Eds.). *Language policy in higher education: The case of medium-sized languages*, 132 – 152. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Biemiller, A. (2001). Teaching vocabulary: Early, direct, and sequential. *American Educator*, 25(1):24 – 28.
- Bingham, T. & Conner, M. (2011). *The new social learning: A guide to transforming organisations through social media*. Ipswich: EBSCO Publishing, Inc.
- Birch, B. M. (2014). *English L2 reading: Getting to the bottom*. New York: Routledge.
- Bixby, M.K. (2000). *Learning in college: I can relate*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Blachowicz, C.L.Z & Fisher, P. (2004). Building vocabulary in remedial settings: Focus on word relatedness. *Perspectives*, 30(1):1 – 21.
- Blachowicz, C.L.Z. & Fisher, P. (2004). Vocabulary lessons. *Educational Leadership*, 61(6):66 – 69.
- Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. & Kagee, A. (2006). *Fundamentals of social research methods. An African perspective (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Boeije, H. (2010). *Analysis in qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe and do. *Language Teaching*, 36, 81 – 109.
- Borwankar P.V. (1995). *Research Methodology*. New Delhi: Seth Publisher
- Bosma, N., Jones, K., Autio, E. & Levie, J. 2007. *Global entrepreneurship monitor: 2007 executive report*. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.gemconsortium.org> [Accessed: 2020. 01. 19].
- Boyd, D., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., Rockoff, J. & Wyckoff, J. (2008). *The narrowing gap in New York City teacher qualifications and its implications for learner achievement in high-poverty schools* (No. w14021). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Bowen, T. (2013). *Teaching approaches: total physical response*. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.onestopenGLISH.com/methodology/methodology/teaching-approaches/teaching-approaches-total-physical-response/146503.article> [Accessed: 2018. 01. 25]
- Bradley, L., Lindstrm, B. & Rystedt, H. (2010). Rationalities of collaboration for language learning in a wiki. *Recall*, 22(2):247 – 265.

- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2): 77 – 101.
- Brooks, D.J. (2010). What is security: Definition through knowledge categorization. *Security Journal*, 23(3):225 – 239.
- Brophy, J. & Good, T. (1986). *Teacher behaviour and learner achievement*. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research in teaching* (pp. 328–375). New York, NY: McMillan.
- Brown, H.D. (1980). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Brown, H.D. (1997). English language teaching in the Post-method@era: Toward better diagnosis, treatment, and assessment. *PASAA (Bangkok)* 27:1 – 10.
- Brown, R.A.J. & Renshaw, P.D. (2000). *Collective argumentation: A sociocultural approach to reframing classroom teaching and learning*. In: Cowie, H. & van der Aalsvoort, G. (Eds.), *Social interaction in learning and instruction: The meaning of discourse for the construction of knowledge*, 52 – 66). Amsterdam, Netherlands: Pergamon/Elsevier Science.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. & Bell, E. (2011). *Business Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bucă, M. (1971). Cu privire la aplicarea metodei substitutiei în cercetarea sinonimelor. *AUT, seria Științe filologice*, IX.

- Bucat, R. (2005). Implications of chemistry education research for teaching practice: Pedagogical Content Knowledge as a way forward Chemistry. *Education International*, 6(1):1 – 2.
- Budhal R.S. (2000). *The impact of the principal's instructional leadership on the culture of teaching and learning in the school*. MEd dissertation. University of South Africa, Pretoria
- Budiarsa, I.M. (2017). Language, dialect and register sociolinguistic perspective. *RETORIKA: Jurnal Ilmu Bahasa*, 1(2):379 – 387.
- Burns, N. & Grove, S.K. (2001). *The practice of nursing research: Conduct, critique & utilization (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Philadelphia: WB Saunders.
- Buseri, J.C. & Dorgu, T.E. (2011). The relevance of instructional materials for effective Curriculum delivery in Nigeria. *Journal of Issues in Professional Teacher Education (JTIPTTE)*. 2 (2):9.
- Bušljeta, R. (2013). Effective Use of Teaching and Learning Resources. *Czech-Polish Historical and Pedagogical Journal*, 5(2):55 – 69. doi:10.2478/cphpj-2013-0014
- Calderhead, J. (1987). Developing a framework for the elicitation and analysis of teachers' verbal reports. *Oxford Review of Education*, 13(2):183 – 189.
- Cameron, L. (2001). Children learning a foreign language. *Lynne Cameron, Teaching Languages to Young Learners*, 1 – 20.
- CAPS, (2011). *English FAL Grades 10 – 12*. Pretoria: Department of Basic Education, Republic of South Africa.
- Carney, R.N. & Levin, J.R., (2002). Pictorial illustrations still improve learners' learning from text. *Educational Psychology Review*, 14(1):5 – 26. [Online]. Available



from: [http://users.cdli.ca/bmann/0\\_ARTICLES/Graphics\\_Carney02.pdf](http://users.cdli.ca/bmann/0_ARTICLES/Graphics_Carney02.pdf)  
[Accessed: 2019. 10. 10].

- Carter, R. (2012). Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives. *Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives*. 1 – 308. 10.4324/9780203124659.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (2014). An overview of language teaching methods and approaches. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 4:2 – 14.
- Celik, M. (2003). Teaching vocabulary through code-mixing. *ELT Journal*, 57(4):361 – 369. doi:10.1093/elt/57.4.361
- Chafe, W. & Danielewicz, J. (1987). *Properties of spoken and written language: Technical report No. 5*. New York: Academic Press.
- Chapelle, C.A. (2007). *Computer assisted language learning*.” In: Spolsky, B. & Francis, M.H. (Eds.). *The handbook of educational linguistics*, 585 – 595. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Chee, K.N., Yahaya, N., Ibrahim, N.H. & Hasan, M.N. (2017). Review of mobile learning trends 2010-2015: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 20(2):113 – 126.
- Chen, Y.H. & Baker, P. (2010). Lexical bundles in L1 and L2 academic writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 14:30 – 49.
- Cheshire, J. (1982). *Linguistic variation and social function*. In: Romaine, S. (Ed.) *Sociolinguistic variation in speech communities*, 153 - 166. London: Edward Arnold Ltd.
- Chick, H.L. & Harris, K. (2007). *Pedagogical content knowledge and the use of examples for teaching ratio*. Paper presented at the annual AARE conference, Fremantle, 2007.

- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. New York: Wiley.
- Chow, M.Y.K., Quine, S. & Li, M. (2010). The benefits of using a mixed methods approach – quantitative with qualitative – to identify client satisfaction and unmet needs in an HIV healthcare Centre. *Psychological and Socio-medical Aspects of Aids/HIV*, 22(4):491 – 498.
- Cieślicka, A.B. (2015). *Idiom acquisition and processing by second/ foreign language learners*. In: Heredia, R.R. & Cieślicka, A.B. (Eds.), *Bilingual figurative language processing*, 208–244. Cambridge University Press. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139342100.012> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 12].
- Clark, V. L. P. & Creswell, J. W. (2008). *The mixed methods reader*. Thousand, Oaks: Sage.
- Clark, R.C. & Mayer, R.E. (2011). *e-Learning and the science of instruction: Proven guidelines for consumers and designers of multimedia learning (3rd Edition)*. San Francisco: Pfeiffer.
- Clendon, S.A. (2006). *The language of beginning writers: Implications for children with complex communication needs*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, USA.
- Clendon, S.A. & Erickson, K.A. (2008). The vocabulary of beginning writers: Implications for children with complex communication needs. *Augmentative and Alternative Communication*, 24:281 – 293.
- Coady, J. & Huckin, T. (1997). *Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education (7<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. New York, NY: Routledge.

- Cole, S. (1998). The use of L1 in communicative English classrooms. *Language Teacher-KYOTO-JALT-*, 22:11 – 14.
- Collier, V.P. (1989). How long? A synthesis of research on academic achievement in a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23:509 – 531.
- Collins, A., Brown, J.S. & Newman, S.E. (1989). *Cognitive apprenticeship: Teaching the crafts of reading, writing, and mathematics*. In: Resnick, L.B. (Ed.), *Knowing, learning and instruction: Essays in honour of Robert Glaser*, 453 – 494. Hillsdale, NJ: LEA.
- Concise Oxford Companion to the English Language. (1998). *Child Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cook, V.J. (2007). *The goals of ELT. International handbook of English language teaching*. New York: Springer
- Cook, G. (2010). *Translation in language teaching: An argument for reassessment*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Routledge.
- Corbin, J. & Morse, J.M. (2003). The unstructured interactive interview: Issues of reciprocity and risks when dealing with sensitive topics. *QualInq*,9:335 – 354.
- Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Coseriu, E. (1985). Linguistic competence: What is it really? *The Modern Language*, 80(4):25 – 35.

- Coˆtˆe, L., & Turgeon, J. (2005). Appraising qualitative research articles in medicine and medical education. *Medical Teacher*, 27: 71 – 75. doi:10.1080/01421590400016308
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34:213 – 239.
- Creswell, J.W. (2003). *Research design: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design choosing among five approaches (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Education.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014a). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.
- Creswell, J.W. & Clark, P.V.L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. & Creswell, J.D. (2017). *Research design (qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches) (5<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J.W., Fetters, M.D. & Ivankova, N.V. (2004). Designing a mixed methods study in primary care. *Annals of Family Medicine*, 2(1):7 – 12.
- Creswell, J.W., Klassen, A.C., Clark, P.V.L. & Smith, K.C. (2011). Best practices for mixed methods research in the health sciences. *Bethesda (Maryland): National Institutes of Health*, 2013, 541 – 545.

- Creswell, J.W. & Tashakkori, A. (2007). Differing perspectives on mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1:303 – 308.
- Crossman, A. (2020). *Understanding purposive sampling. An overview of the method and its applications*. [Online]. Available from thought.com: <https://www.thoughtco.com/purposive-sampling-3026727> [Accessed: 2019. 01. 05].
- Crystal, D. (1991; 1997). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. London: Blackwell Publishing.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics (6<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Crystal, D. & Davy, D. (1969). *Investigating English style: David Crystal, Derek Davy*. London, Indiana University Press.
- Cullen, R. (2002). *The use of lesson transcripts for developing teachers' classroom language*. In: Trappes-Lomax, H. & Ferguson, G. (Eds.). *Language in language teacher education*, 219 - 238. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Curtis, M.E. & Longo, A.M. (2001). Teaching vocabulary to adolescents to improve comprehension. *Reading Online*, 5(4):43 – 71.
- Daehler, K.R. & Shinowara, M. (2001). A complete circuit is a complete circle: Exploring the potential of case materials and methods to develop teachers' content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge of science. *Research in Science Education* 31:267 – 288.

- Darling-Hammond, L. (2008). Teacher learning that supports learner learning. *Teaching for Intelligence*, 2(1):91 – 100.
- Davis, E.A. & Krajcik, J. (2005). Designing educative curriculum materials to promote teacher learning. *Educational Researcher*, 34(3):3 – 14.
- Davis, E.A., Palincsar, A.S., Arias, A., Bismack, A., Marulis, L. & Iwashyna, S. (2014). Designing educative curriculum materials: A theoretically and empirically driven process. *Harvard Educational Review*, 84(1):24 – 52.
- Davies, P. & Pearse, E. (2000). *Success in English Teaching: A Complete Introduction to Teaching English at Secondary School Level and Above*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Davy, E. & Davy, K. (2006). *Peterson's master TOEFL vocabulary*. USA: Petersons Company.
- Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction to research methods (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. United Kingdom: Constable & Robinson.
- DeFranzo, S.E. (2011). *Six rules for writing effective survey questions*. Snap Survey. 2010-2020 Snap Surveys Ltd.
- De Groot, A.M. (2006). Effects of stimulus characteristics and background music on foreign language vocabulary learning and forgetting. *Language Learning*, 56(3):463 – 506.
- De Guerrero, M.C. & Villamil, O.S. (2000). Activating the ZPD: Mutual scaffolding in L2 peer revision. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84(1):51 – 68.
- de Jong, O. & van Driel, J. (2004). Exploring the development of learner teachers' PCK of the multiple meanings of chemistry topics International. *Journal of Science and Mathematics Education 2*: 277 – 491

- Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. (2005). *Handbook of qualitative research (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Department of Basic Education. (2016). *National Senior Certificate: Diagnostic Report*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- de Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delpont, C.S.L. (2005). *Research at grass roots for social sciences and human services professions (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publications.
- Dewey, J. (1986). Experience and education. *The Educational Forum*, 50(3);241 – 252, DOI: [10.1080/00131728609335764](https://doi.org/10.1080/00131728609335764)
- Dixon, J.C., Singleton, Jr, R.A. & Straits, B.C. (2016). *The process of social research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Diyanti, B.Y. (2010). Teaching English to young learners: Learning materials. *Journal of English and Education*, 4(1):64 – 73. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/312575116> [Accessed: 2018. 10. 19].
- Dobao, A.F. (2014). Vocabulary learning in collaborative tasks: A comparison of pair and small group work. *Language Teaching Research*, 18(4), 497 – 520. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813519730> [Accessed: 2018. 02. 10].
- Dobrin, L.M. (2009). SIL international and the disciplinary culture of linguistics: Introduction. *Language*, 85(3):618 – 619.
- Doff, A. (1988). *Teach English: A training course for teachers. Trainer's handbook*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dorgu, T.E. (2015). Different teaching methods: A panacea for effective curriculum implementation in the classroom. *International Journal of Secondary*

*Education. Special Issue: Teaching Methods and Learning Styles in Education, 3(6):77 – 87.*

Durrheim, K. (2004). *Research design*. In: Terre Blanche, M. & Durrheim, K. (Eds.). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*, 29 – 53). Cape Town: Cape Town University Press.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. & Jackson, P.R. (2008). *Management Research (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Egan, R.F. (1968). *Survey of the History of English synonymy*, Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster

Elder, C. (2001). Assessing the language proficiency of teachers: Are there any border controls? *Language Testing, 18(2):149 – 170.*

Ellington, H.I. & Earl, S.E. (1998). *Using games, simulations and interactive case studies: A practical guide for teachers (SEDA Paper No. 101)*. Birmingham, England: Staff and Educational Development Association.

Ellis, N.C. (1994a). Consciousness in second language learning: Psychological perspectives on the role of conscious processes in vocabulary acquisition. *AILA Review 11: 37 – 56.*

Ellis, N. C. (1994b). Implicit and explicit language learning. *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*, 79 - 114.

Ellis, N.C. (1994c). *Vocabulary acquisition: the implicit ins and outs of explicit cognitive mechanisms*. In: Ellis, N. (Ed.). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*, 211 – 282. London etc.: Academic Press.

Ellis, N.C. (1997). *Vocabulary acquisition: word structure, collocation, word-class*. In: Schmitt, N. & McCarthy, M. (Eds.). *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy*, 122 – 139. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.



- Ellis, R. (2005). Principles of instructed second language learning. *System*, 33(2): 209 – 224.
- Erlich, I. (1995). *Instant vocabulary*. New York: Simon and Schuster Inc.
- Evered, R. & Louis, R. (1981). Alternative perspective in the organisational sciences: “Inquiry from the inside” and “inquiry from the outside”. *Academy of Management Review*, 6(3):385 – 395.
- Faisal, F. (2015). Pedagogical content knowledge in Indonesian English language teaching. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 3(5):103 – 110.
- Fakeye, D. (2012). Teachers’ qualification and subject mastery as predictors of achievement in Ibirapa Division of Oyo State. *Global Journal of Human Science*, 12, 1 – 6.
- Farrell, T.S. & Richards, J.C. (2007). *Teachers’ language proficiency*. In: Farrell, T.S (Ed.) *Reflective language teaching: From research to practice*, 55 – 66. London: Continuum.
- Fenstermacher, G.D. & Richardson, V. (2005). On making determinations of quality in teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 107(1):186 – 213.
- Ferreira, L.H.F. (2007). *How to teach vocabulary effectively: An analysis of the course book Eyes and Spies* (Bachelor's thesis).
- Fillmore, L.W. & Snow, C.E. (2000). *What teachers need to know about language*. Paper prepared for centre on Applied Linguistics, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Washington, DC: US. Department of Education.
- Fisher, C. (2003). Goodness-of-fit ethic for informed consent to research involving adults with mental retardation and developmental disabilities. *Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities Research Reviews* 9:27 – 31.

- Flanigan, K. & Greenwood, S. C. (2007). Effective content vocabulary instruction in the middle: Matching learners, purposes, words, and strategies. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 51(3):226 – 238.
- Flick, U. (2007). *Ethics in qualitative research*. In Designing qualitative research (pp. 68-76). SAGE Publications, Ltd. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.doi.org/10.4135/9781849208826> [Accessed: 2018. 05. 09].
- Flick, U. (2011). Mixing methods, triangulation, and integrated research. *Qualitative Inquiry and Global Crises*, 132(1):1 – 79.
- Foley, W.A. (1991). The Yimas language of Papua New Guinea. Stanford: Stanford University Press
- Folse, K.S. (2004). *Vocabulary myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Folse, K.S. (2006a). *The art of teaching speaking: Research and pedagogy for the ESL/EFL classroom*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Folse, K.S. (2008). Six vocabulary activities for the English language classroom. *Teaching English Forum*, 3:12 – 21.
- Fosnot, C.T. (Ed.) (1996). *Constructivism, theory, perspectives, and practice*. New York: Teachers College Press
- Foster, P. & Skehan, P. (1999). The influence of source of planning and focus of planning on task-based performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 3(3):215 – 247.
- Fouka, G. & Mantzorou, M. (2011). What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health Science Journal*, 5(1):3 – 14.

- Francis, H. (1972). Toward an explanation of the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift. *Child Development*, 1972, 3:949 – 959.
- Fraser, H. (2000). *Coordinating improvements in pronunciation teaching for adult learners of English as a second language*. Armidale, NSW: University of New England.
- Frawley, W. & Lantolf, J.P. (1985). Second language discourse: A Vygotskian Perspective. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 19 – 44.
- Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. *Language Teaching*, 35, 1–13.
- Gablasova, D., Brezina, V. & McEnery, T. (2017). Collocations in corpus-based language learning research: Identifying, comparing, and interpreting the evidence. *Language Learning*, 67(S1), 155-179.
- Gage, N.L. (1964). Towards a cognitive theory of teaching. *Problems and Issues in Contemporary Education*, 112 – 116.
- Gagne, R. (1985). *The conditions of learning (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Gao, I. (2011). Eclecticism or principled eclecticism. *Creative Education*, 2(4):363 – 369.
- Gao, C. & Zheng, Q. (2014). A linguistic study of antonym in English texts. *Journal of English teaching and Research*, 5(1):234 – 238. Doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.234-238
- Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence reframed multiple intelligences for the 21st century*. New York: Basic Books.

- Gatbonton, E. (2008). Looking beyond teachers' classroom behaviour: Novice and experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *Language Teaching Research* 12(2):161 – 182.
- Gay, L.R. & Airasian (2003). *Educational research competencies for analysis and applications (7<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Gbamanja, S.P.T. (1991) Modern methods in science education in Africa. Port Harcourt: Paragraphics.
- Gelvanovsky, G.V. (2002). *Effective pronunciation teaching: principles, factors, and teachability*. In: Sysoyev, P.V. (Ed.), Identity, culture, and language teaching, 242 – 365. USA: REEES.
- Gersten, R. & Baker, S. (2000). What we know about effective instructional practices for English-language learners. *Exceptional Children*, 66(4):454 – 470.
- Ghavifekr, S., Kunjappan, T., Ramasamy, L. & Anthony, A. (2016). Teaching and learning with ICT tools: Issues and challenges from teachers' perceptions. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 4(2):38 – 57.
- Ghazal, L. (2007). Learning vocabulary in EFL contexts through vocabulary learning strategies. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 1(2):84 – 91.
- Gibbs, G.R. (2007). *Thematic coding and categorizing, analysing qualitative data*. London: SAGE
- Gjergo, E.S. & Delija, S. (2014). The role and function of the synonyms in language. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(16):703– 705. [Online]. Available from:  
<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/dcf0/fb5922da76bae66cb77bfa1d189b9e009901.pdf> [Accessed: 2017. 10. 12].

- Glass, G.V. & Hopkins, K.D. (1984). *Statistical methods in education and psychology*, (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Goh, C.C.M. & Silver, R. (2004). *Language acquisition and development: A teacher's guide*. Singapore: Longman.
- Gökhan, A. (2017). Basic concepts of reading instruction. *International Journal of Languages' Education*, 1, 484 – 503.
- Goldkuhl, G. (2012). Pragmatism vs interpretivism in qualitative information systems research. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 21(2):135 – 146.
- Gomm, R. (2008). *Social research methodology (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.): A critical introduction*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory from theory to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Graves, M.F. (2016). *The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Greening, T. (1998). Scaffolding for success in problem-based learning. *Medical Education Online*, 3(1), 4297.
- Grigg, H. (2012). *Active vs passive Vocabulary – Do you know the difference? East Asia Learner*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.eastasialearner.net/study/active-passive-vocabulary/>. [Accessed: 2018. 06. 09].
- Grimsley, S. (2018). *What is communication? Definition and importance*. [Online]. Available from: <https://study.com/academy/lesson/what-is-communication-definition-importance>. [Accessed: 2019. 02. 03].

- Grossman, P. (1990). *The making of a teacher: Teacher knowledge and teacher education*. New York, NY: Teacher College Press.
- Gruss, J. (2016). Games as a tool for teaching English vocabulary to young learners. *World Scientific News (WSN)*, 53(2):67 – 109. [Online]. Available on: [www.worldscientificnews.com](http://www.worldscientificnews.com) [Accessed: 2017. 12.10].
- Gu, P. Y. (2003). Fine brush and freehand: The vocabulary-learning art of two successful Chinese EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(1):73 – 104.
- Guest, G. & Namey, E.E. (Ed.) (2015). *Public health research methods*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publication.
- Halim, L. & Meerha, S.M. (2002). Science trainee teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and its influence on physics teaching. *Research in Science and Technological Education* 20 (2):215 – 225.
- Hall, L.A. (2004). Comprehending expository text: Promising strategies for struggling reader and learners with reading disabilities? *Reading Research and Instruction*, 44(2):75 – 95. [Online]. Available from: <http://pearl.stkate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/205370938?accountid=26879> [Accessed: 2020. 02. 16].
- Halpren, E.S. (1983). *Auditing naturalistic inquiries: The development and application of a model* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Indiana University, Bloomington.
- Hargrave, A.C. & Senechal, M. (2000). A book reading intervention with preschool children who have limited vocabularies: The benefits of regular reading and dialogic reading. *Early Childhood Reading Quarterly*, 15(1):75 – 90.
- Harlen, W. (1999). Purposes and procedures for assessing science process skills. *Assessment in Education*, 6(1):129 – 144.

- Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harmon, J.M. & Hedrick, W.B. (2005). Research on vocabulary instruction in the content areas: Implications for struggling readers. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 21:261 – 280.
- Harmon, J.M., Wood, K.D. & Keser, K. (2009). Promoting vocabulary learning with interactive word wall. *Middle School Journal*, 40(3):58 – 63.
- Harsono, Y.M. (2007). Developing learning materials for specific purposes. *Teflin Journal*, 18(2):169 – 179. [Online]. Available from <http://journal.teflin.org/index.php/journal/article/viewFile/113/108> [Accessed: 2019. 10. 18].
- Harwood, N. (2010). *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Hattie, J.A C. (2009). *Visible learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement*. London: Rutledge.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Henning, E. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria, Hatfield: Van Schaik Publishers
- Hennink, M.M., Hutter, I. & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. London; Thousand Oaks, Calif.: SAGE.
- Henriksen, B. (1996). *Semantisation: A key process for vocabulary learning and use*. Paper presented at the 11<sup>th</sup> AILA World Congress. Jyväskylä, Finland.
- Henriksen, B. (1999). Three dimensions of vocabulary development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21 (2):303 – 317.

- Hirsch, E.D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge of words and the world. *American Educator*, 27(1):10 – 13.
- Hirschel, R. & Fritz, E. (2013). Learning vocabulary: CALL program versus vocabulary notebook. *System*, 41(3):639 – 653.
- Hismanoglu, M. (2000). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6(8):12 – 12.
- Hitchcock, G. & Hughes, D. (1995). *Research and the teacher (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. London: Routledge.
- Hoque, M.E (2016). Gaps between the belief and practice of the EFL teachers: An empirical study. *The EDRC Journal of Learning and Teaching*, 1(2):35 - 51.
- Hornberger, N.H. & McKay, S.L (Eds.). (2010). *Sociolinguistics and language education*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters (pp, 290 – 316).
- Hu, Z. (2001). *Linguistics. A Course Book*. Beijing: Beijing University Press.
- Huckin, T. (1995). *Second language reading and vocabulary learning*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex
- Hudson, P. (2007). Examining mentors' practices for enhancing preservice teachers' pedagogical development in mathematics and science. *Mentoring & Tutoring* 15(2):201 – 217.
- Hudson, R.A. (1980; 1996). *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hughes, A. (2016). Mixed methods research. [Online]. Available from <https://www.psychologicalscience.org/observer/mixed-methods-research> [Accessed: 2018. 07. 23].



- Hulme, C., Maughan, S. & Brown, G.D. (1991). Memory for familiar and unfamiliar words: Evidence for a long-term memory contribution to short-term memory span. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 30(6):685 – 701.
- Human Resource. (2018). *The definition of competencies and their application at NU. University of Nebraska-Lincoln.* [Online]. Available from: <https://hr.nu.edu/compensation/nuvalues/corecompetencies.shtml/> (Accessed: 2018. 07. 07).
- Hunt, A. & Beglar, D. (2002). *Current research and practice in teaching vocabulary.* In: Richards, J.C. & Renandya, W.A. (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*, 258 – 264. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hurst, E. & Mona, M. (2017). 'Translanguaging' as a socially just pedagogy. *Education as Change*, 21(2):126 – 148. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.17159/19479417/2017/2015> [Accessed: 2018. 09. 12].
- Huyen, N.T.T. & Nga, K.T.T. (2003). Learning vocabulary through games: The effectiveness of learning vocabulary through games. *Asian EFL Journal* 5(4):90 – 105.
- Ibrahim, H.A., Shafaatu, M.H.D. & Yabo, N.U. (2016). English as a medium of instruction: Challenges to Nigerian primary schools (63-72). *The Victorian*, 5(2).
- Ishtiaq, M.I., Ali, Z. & Salem, M. S. (2017). An experimental study of the effect of learner team's achievement divisions (STAD) on vocabulary learning of EFL adult learners. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 8(3):356 – 375.
- Jamshidi, A., & Navehebrahim, M. (2013). Learners Use of Code Switching in the English as a Foreign Language Classroom. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 7(1):186 – 190.

- Jha, S. (2017). Exploring ambiguous structures in English. *Global Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences*, 6. 1 – 4. 10.24105/gjiss.6.3.1701.
- Joe, A. (1998). What effects do text-based tasks promoting generation have on incidental vocabulary acquisition? *Applied Linguistics*, 19(3):357 – 377.
- Johnson, R.B. & Christensen, L.B. (2020). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. California: SAGE Publication.
- Johnson, R.B. & Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Research*, 33(7):14 – 26.
- Jones, A. & Moreland, J. (2015). Considering pedagogical content knowledge in the context of research on teaching: An example from technology. *Waikato Journal of Education*, 9:65 – 76.
- Jones. & P. Durrant (2010). *What can a corpus tell us about vocabulary teaching materials?* In: McCarthy, M. & O'Keeffe, A. (Eds.). *The Routledge handbook of corpus linguistics*, 387 – 400. London: Routledge.
- Jonker, J. & Pennink, B. (2010). *The essence of research methodology: A concise guide for Master's and PhD learners in Management Science*. Berlin: Springer.
- Joshi, A., Kale, S., Chandel, S. & Pal, D. (2015). Likert scale: Explored and explained. *British Journal of Applied Science & Technology*. 7:396 – 403. 10.9734/BJAST/2015/14975.
- Kabir, S.M.S. (2016). *Basic guidelines for research: An introductory approach for all disciplines*. Chittagong-4203, Bangladesh: Book Zone Publication, ISBN: 978-984-33-956508. *International Journal of Psychology and Psychiatry*, 4(1):2 – 10.
- Kacani, L. (2015). Developing EFL vocabulary through speaking and listening activities. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 4(3):390 – 395

Kagan, J. (1984), *The nature of the child*. New York: Basic Books

Kamil, M.L., Borman, G.D., Dole, J., Kral, C.C., Salinger, T. & Torgesen, J. (2008). *Improving adolescent literacy: Effective classroom and intervention practices: A practice guide (NCEE #2008-4027)*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. [Online]. Available from: [http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practice\\_guides/adlit\\_pg\\_082608.pdf](http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practice_guides/adlit_pg_082608.pdf). [Accessed: 2018. 01. 02].

Kang, Y., Kang, H. S. & Park, J. (2012). Is it vocabulary breadth or depth that better predict: Korean EFL learners' reading comprehension? *English Teaching*, 67(4):149 – 171.

Kaufmann, S. (2017). *Active and passive vocabulary in language learning*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.thelinguist.com/active-and-passive-vocabulary>. [Accessed: 2018. 03. 19].

Kaushik, V., Walsh, C. & Lai, D. (2019). Pragmatism as a research paradigm and its implications for social work research. *Social Sciences*, 8.255, doi:10.3390/socsci8090255.

Kawulich, B.B. (2005). Participant observation as data collection method. *Forum Qualitative Social Research*, 6(2), Art. 43. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-6.2.466> [Accessed: 2017. 11. 23].

Kebiel, R. (2012). Teachers' and learners' perception of vocabulary learning strategies, M.A. Thesis. Mohamed Khider University, Algeria

Kenworthy, J. (1991). *Language in action: An introduction to modern linguistics*. London: Longman.

- Khajloo, A.I. (2013). Problems in teaching and learning English for learners. *International Journal of Engineering Research and Development Vol. 7(3):56 – 58.*
- Khojastehmehr, R. & Takrimi, A. (2009). Characteristics of effective teachers: Perceptions of the English teachers. *Journal of Education & Psychology, 3 (2):53 – 66.*
- Kieffer, M. & Lesaux, N. (2007). Breaking down words to build meaning: Morphology, vocabulary, and reading comprehension in the urban classroom. *The Reading Teacher, 61(2):134 – 144.*
- Kim, H.J. (2015). The use and perception of codeswitching among teachers and learners. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning, 2015-1:34 – 51.* [Online]. Available from: <https://dergipark.org.tr/download/articlefile/209028> [Accessed: 2018. 09. 12].
- Kim, S. & Elder, C. (2008). Target language use in foreign language classrooms: practices and perceptions of native speaker teachers. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 21(2):167 – 85.*
- Knowles, M.S., Holton, E.F. & Swanson, R.A. (2011). *The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development (7<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Amsterdam; Boston: Elsevier, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Kömür, S. (2010). Teaching knowledge and teacher competencies: a case study of Turkish preservice English teachers. *Teaching Education, 21 (3):279 – 296.*
- Koncara, E.L. (2009). *Skripsi: Teaching vocabulary through pictures*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.scribd.com/doc/17110831/skripsi-teaching-vocabulary-through-tictures>. [Accessed: 2018. 06. 01].
- König, J., Lammerding, S., Nold, G., Rohde, A., Straub, S. & Tachtsoglou, S. (2016). Teachers' professional knowledge for teaching English as a foreign language:

Assessing the outcomes of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 67(4):320 – 337. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487116644956> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 10].

Kostadinovska-Stojchevska, B. (2018). The semantic aspect of the acquisition of synonyms, homonyms and antonyms in the teaching process of English as a foreign language. *European Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 3(2):28 – 43. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1216500.

Kothari, C.R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International.

Krashen, S.D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S.D. (1985). *The input hypothesis*. New York: Longman.

Kuhn, T.S. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Chicago Uni. The University of Chicago Press

Kultsum, U. (2017). The concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK): recognizing the English teachers' competencies in Indonesia. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 134:55 – 59. [Online]. Available from: (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>) [Accessed: 2019. 06. 07].

Kumar, C.P. (2013). The eclectic method-theory and its application to the learning of English. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 3(6):1 – 4.

Kusumawardhani, P.N. (2017). Does teacher certification program lead to better quality teachers? Evidence from Indonesia. *Education Economics*, 25(6):590 – 618, DOI: [10.1080/09645292.2017.1329405](https://doi.org/10.1080/09645292.2017.1329405)

- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interview Views: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kyeyune, R. (2003). Challenges of using English as a medium of instruction in multilingual contexts: A view from Ugandan classrooms. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, 16(2):173 – 184.
- Lal Banga, C. & Suri, J. (2015). Role of language in human life. *International Journal of English Language, Literature in Humanities*, 3(7):180 – 197.
- Lambani, M.N. (2014). *Conceptual teaching by Grade 7 non-mother tongue English teachers. A formative evaluative study from the Vhembe District, Limpopo Province. National ETD Portal: South African theses and Dissertations*. [Online]. Available from: <http://encore.tut.ac.za/iii/cpro/DigitalItemViewPage.external?sp=1001413> [Accessed: 2018. 03. 02].
- Lambani, M.N., & Nengome, Z. (2017). Group Work Impact on Academic Communication: Female English Learner Teachers' Views. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 18(1-3):101 – 109.
- Lantolf, J.P. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (Vol. 78, No. 4). Oxford University Press.
- Lantolf, J.P. & Appel, G. (Eds.). (1994). *Vygotskian approaches to second language research*. Norwood, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Lantolf, J.P. & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). *Technique and principles in language teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Larsen-Freeman, D. & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques & principles in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Laufer, B. (2005). Focus on form in second language vocabulary learning. *Eurosla Yearbook*, 5(1):223 – 250.
- Laufer, B. (2014). Vocabulary in a second language: Selection, acquisition, and testing: A commentary on four studies for JALT Vocabulary SIG. *Vocabulary Learning and Instruction*, 3(2):38 – 46. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.7820/vli.v03.2.laufer> [Accessed: 2019. 10. 19].
- Laufer, B. & Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language: the construct of task-induced involvement. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(1):1 – 26. [Online]. Available from: <http://doi.org/bc4rhp> [Accessed: 2018. 12. 19].
- Laufer, B. & Nation, I.S.P. (2012). *Vocabulary*. In: Gass, S.M. & Mackey, A. (Eds.). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*, 163 – 176. London, England: Routledge. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203808184.ch10> [Accessed: 2020. 07. 18].
- Laufer, B. & Paribakht, T.S. (1998). The relationship between passive and active vocabulary: Effects of language learning context. *Language Learning*, 48:365 – 391.
- LeCompte, M.D. & Schensul, J.J. (1999b). *Designing and conducting ethnographic research*. In M.D. LeCompte & J.J. Schensul (Eds.), *Ethnographer's toolkit* (Vol. 1). Walnut Creek, CA: Sage.
- Leech, G. (1981). *Semantics* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Leedy, P.D. (1993; 1997). *Practical research: Planning and design*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Leedy, P. & Ormrod, J. (2010). *Practical research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

- Lehmann, C. (2013). *The nature of parts of speech. STUF - Language Typology and Universals*, 66(2):141 – 177. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1524/stuf.2013.0008> [Accessed: 2020. 08. 12].
- Leow, R.P. & Mercer, J.D. (2015). Depth of processing in L2 learning: Theory, research, and pedagogy. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching*, 2(1):69 – 82. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/23247797.2015.1026644> [Accessed: 2019. 09. 21].
- Lichtman, M. (2010). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Sage. Chapter 4. "Ethical issues in qualitative research," 51 – 67. [Online]. Available from: [http://uk.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/27011\\_4.pdf](http://uk.sagepub.com/sites/default/files/upm-binaries/27011_4.pdf) [Accessed: 2020. 10. 10].
- Lightbown, P.M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learnt (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lin, C.C., Hsiao, H.S., Tseng, S.P. & Chan, H.J. (2014). Learning English vocabulary collaboratively in a technology-supported classroom. Turkish [Online]. *Journal of Educational Technology*, 13(1):162 – 173.
- Linan-Thompson, S. & Vaughn, S. (2007). *Based methods of reading instruction for English language learners, Grades K-4*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Lincoln, Y.S., Lynham, S.A. & Guba, E.G. (2011). *Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited*. In: Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*, 97–128. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Linse, C.T. & Nunan, D. (Eds.) (2005). *Practical English language teaching: Young learners*. New York: McGraw-Hill/Contemporary.



- Llamosas C.L.E. (2014). *Teaching vocabulary learning strategies: A vocabulary improvement program (VIP) for EFL beginner learners from Centro Cultural Peruano Norteamericano Arequipa*. Maestría en Educación con Mención en Enseñanza del Idioma Inglés como Lengua Extranjera. Universidad de Piura. Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Piura, Perú.
- Long, M.H. & Crookes, G. (1987). *Intervention points in second language classroom processes*. In: Das, B.K. (Ed.). *Patterns in classroom interaction in Southeast Asia*, 177 – 203. Singapore: Singapore University Press/RELIC.
- Lyons, J. (1977). *Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Ma, L. (2012). Some philosophical considerations in using mixed methods in library and information science research. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 63(9):1859 – 1867. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.22711> [Accessed: 2018. 09. 23].
- Malik, M. (2017). The significance of the use of lexical relations in English language. *International Journal of Advance Research (IJAR)*, 5(4):944 – 947.
- Maluleke, J.M. (2019). Using code-switching as an empowerment strategy in teaching mathematics to learners with limited proficiency in English in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 39(3):1 – 9. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.15700/saje.v39n3a1528> [Accessed: 2019. 01. 20].
- Maphoso, L.S.T. & Mahlo, D. (2015) Teacher qualifications and pupil academic achievement. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 42(1-2):51 – 58. DOI: [10.1080/09718923.2015.11893393](https://doi.org/10.1080/09718923.2015.11893393)
- Marinak, B.A., Moore, J.C., Henk, W.A. & Keepers, M. (1997). *Reading instructional handbook*. [Online]. Available from: <http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/pub/tlt/98/jan/hunt.html> [Accessed: 2019. 10. 21].

- Marshall, M.N. (1996). Sampling for Qualitative Research. *Family Practice*, 13:522 – 525. [Online]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/fampra/13.6.522> [Accessed: 2020. 12. 13].
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (1999). *Designing Qualitative Research (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research (5<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mart, C. (2013). Teaching grammar in context: Why and How? Theory and Practice in Language Studies. *Teaching English with Technology*, 18(1):53– 76. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.tewtjournal.org> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 29].
- Martinez, R. & Schmitt, N. (2012). A phrasal expression list. *Applied Linguistics*, 33:299 – 320. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams010> [Accessed: 2020. 10. 27].
- Marulis, L.M. & Neuman, S.B. (2010). The effects of vocabulary intervention on young children’s word learning: a meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(3):300 – 335.
- Maskor, Z.M. & Baharudin, H. (2016). Receptive vocabulary knowledge or productive vocabulary knowledge in writing skill, which one important? *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 6(11):261 – 271
- Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. London: SAGE Publications.

- Maxcy, S. (2003). *Pragmatic threads in mixed methods research in the social sciences: The search for multiple modes of inquiry and the end of the philosophy of formalism*. In Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioural Research, Tashakkori, A & Teddlie, C. (Eds.) 2003, Sage, California.
- Mazur, M. (2016). A system for English vocabulary acquisition based on code-switching. *International Journal of Distance Education Technologies*, 14(3):52 – 75.
- Mazur, M., Rzepka, R. & Araki, K. (2018). Teaching words in context: Code-switching method for English and Japanese vocabulary acquisition systems. *Springer International Publishing AG* 332 – 345. [Online]. Available from: [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-93782-3\\_24](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-93782-3_24) [Accessed: 2020. 11. 10].
- Mcleod, J. (2003). *From behaviourism to constructivism: the cognitive-behavioural approach to counselling*. In: Mcleod, J. An introduction to counselling, 132 – 135.
- McLeod S.A. (2014). *The interview method. Simply psychology*. [Online]. Available from [www.simplypsychology.org/interviews.html](http://www.simplypsychology.org/interviews.html) [Accessed: 2020. 07. 15]
- McCollin, M., O'Shea, D.J. & McQuiston, K. (2010). Improving vocabulary and comprehension skills of secondary-level learners from diverse backgrounds. *Preventing School Failure*, 54(2):133 – 136. [Online]. Available from <http://pearl.stkate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com.pearl.stkate.edu/docview/603216294?accountid=26879> [Accessed: 2019. 09. 17]
- McGee, A. & G. Phelan, (2004). *Needs analysis of pre-service EFL teachers in the United Arab Emirates*. Proceedings of the 9th TESOL Arabia Conference, 400 – 415.
- McGrath, A.E. (2007). *A scientific theology: Volume 2 Reality*. New York: T&T Clark Publishers.

- McMillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. (2001). *Research in Education. A Conceptual Introduction (5<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. New York: Longman.
- McNamara, C. (2006). *Field guide to consulting and organisational development. A collaborative and systems approach to performance change and learning*. [Online]. Available from: [https://www.amazon.com/dp/1933719206?m=a2tc72WHZRJ81Y&ref=v\\_sp\\_detail\\_page](https://www.amazon.com/dp/1933719206?m=a2tc72WHZRJ81Y&ref=v_sp_detail_page) [Accessed: 2020. 07. 23].
- McNeill, A. (1994). *Vocabulary testing: defining word knowledge*. In Falvey, P. & Boyle, J. (Eds.), *Language Testing in Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: Chinese University Press
- Meara, P. (1983). Word associations in a foreign language. *Nottingham Linguistics Circular*, 11(2):29 – 38.
- Mellow, J.D. (2002). Towards principled eclecticism in language teaching: the two-dimensional model and the centering principle. *TESL-EJ*, 5(4):1 - 1.
- Melnick, S.A. & Meister, D.G. (2008). A comparison of beginning and experienced teachers' concerns. *Educational research quarterly*, 31(3):39 – 56.
- Menold, N. & Bogner, K. (2016). *Design of rating scales in questionnaires*. GESIS – Leibniz Institute for the Social Sciences. DOI: 10.15465/gesis-sg\_en\_015. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.15465/gesis-> [Accessed: 2018. 04. 12].
- Mercer, N. & Fisher, E. (1993). How do teachers help children to talk? An analysis of teachers' interventions in computer-based activities. *Learning and Instruction*, 2:339–355.

- Merriam-Webster. (2018). *Definition of communication*. [Online]. Available from: [www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/communication](http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/communication) [Accessed: 2018. 06. 20].
- Merino, G.I. (1997). *Native English-speaking teachers versus non-native English-speaking teachers*. *Revista alicantina de estudios ingleses*, No. 10; pp. 69-79.
- Mery, Y. & Newby, J. (2010). Assessing the reliability and validity of locally developed information literacy test items. *Reference Services Review*, 39(1):98 – 122. DOI: 10.1108/00907321111108141.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Milton, J. & Alexiou, T. (2009). *Vocabulary size and the common European framework of reference for languages*. In: *Vocabulary studies in first and second language acquisition*, 194 – 211). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Minarik, D.W. & Lintner, T. (2011). The push for inclusive classrooms and the impact on social studies design and delivery. *Social Studies Review*, 50(1):52 – 55. [Online]. Available from: <http://pearl.stkate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/890178863?accountid=26879> [Accessed: 2020. 12. 25].
- Mintz, T.H., Wang, F.H. & Li, J. (2014). Word categorization from distributional information: frames confer more than the sum of their (Bigram) parts. *Cognitive Psychology*, 75, 1 – 27. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogpsych.2014.07.003> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 10].
- Mohammed, I. & Amponsah, O. (2018). Predominant factors contributing to low reading abilities of pupils at Elsie Lund Basic School in the Tamale Metropolis, Ghana. *African Educational Research Journal*, 6(4), 273 – 278.

- Moinzadeh, A. & Moslehpour, R. (2012). Depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge: Which really matters in reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners? *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 3(5):1015 – 1026.
- Mol, S.E., Bus, A.G. & de Jong, M.T. (2009). Interactive book reading in early education: a tool to stimulate print knowledge as well as oral language. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(2):979 – 1007.
- Mol, S.E., Bus, A.G., de Jong, M.T. & Smeets, D.J. (2008). Added value of dialogic parent–child book readings: a meta-analysis. *Early Education and Development*, 19(1):7 – 26.
- Molina-Azorin, J.F. (2016). Mixed methods research: An opportunity to improve our studies and our research skills. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, 25,37 – 38. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.redeen.2016.05.001> [Accessed: 2020. 05. 12].
- Monareng, L.V., Jooste, K. & Dube, A. (2009). Preceptors' and preceptees' views on learner nurses' clinical accompaniment in Botswana. *Africa Journal of Nursing and Midwifery*, 11(2):113 – 127.
- Monette, D.R., Sullivan, T.J. & De Jong, C.R. (2008). *Applied Social Research: A Tool for the Human Services (7<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Belmont: Brooks/Cole.
- Montgomery, J.K. (2007). *The bridge of words: Evidence based activities for academic success*. California: NCS Pearson Inc.
- Moon, J. (2003). *Children learn English: McMillan-Heinemann English language teaching*. Oxford: Macmillan-Heinemann.
- Moore, E., Bradley, J. & Simpson, J. (2020). *Translanguaging as transformation: The collaborative construction of new linguistic realities*. Multilingual Matters. [Online]. Available from: DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788928052> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 28].

- Morgan, D.L. (2014a). *Integrating qualitative and quantitative methods: A pragmatic approach*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Morley, J. (1998). Trippingly on the tongue: Putting serious speech/pronunciation instruction back in the TESOL equation. *ESL Magazine, Issue January/February 20 – 23*.
- Morse, J.M. (1991). Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research, 40(2):120 – 123*.
- Moussu, L. & Llorca, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language Teaching, 41(3):315 – 348*.
- Mustafa, H.R., Sain, N. & Razak, N.Z.A. (2012). Using Internet for learning vocabulary among second language learners in a suburban school. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences, 66:425 – 431*.
- Nagi, W., Herman, P. & Anderson, R. (1985). Learning words from context. *Reading Research Quarterly, 20:233 – 253*.
- Nation, I.S.P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, P. (2002). *Best practice in vocabulary teaching and learning. Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2005; 2013). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing*. London: Routledge

Nation, I.S.P. (2016). *Making and using word lists for language learning and testing*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Nation, I.S.P. & Hwang, K. (1995). Where would general service vocabulary stop and special purposes vocabulary begin? *System*, 23(1):35 – 41

Nation, P. & Meara, P. (2002). *Vocabulary*. In: Schmitt, N. (Ed.). An introduction to applied linguistics, 34 – 52. London: Arnold.

Nation, I.S.P. & Webb, S. (2011). *Researching and analysing vocabulary*. Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage Learning.

National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. (2000). *Report of the national reading panel. Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction (NIH Publication No. 00-4769)*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

National Reading Technical Assistance Centre. (2010). *A review of the current research on vocabulary instruction*. US Department of Education. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.ed.gov/programs/readingfirst/support/index.html>. [Accessed: 2018. 07. 11].

Navsaria, I., Pascoe, M. & Khathard, H. (2011). It's not just the learners, it's the system! Teachers' perspectives on written language difficulties: *South African Journal of Communication Disorders*, 58(2):95 – 104.

Newman, I. & Benz, C.R. (1998). *Qualitative-quantitative research methodology: Exploring the interactive continuum*. Carbondale: University of Illinois Press.

Newton, J. (1995). Task-based interaction and incidental vocabulary learning: A case study. *Second Language Research*, 11(2):159-176.



- Nishimura, M. (1995). A functional analysis of Japanese/English code-switching. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 23(2):157 – 181. DOI: 10.1016/0378-2166(93)E0103-7
- Norquist, R. (2019). Conversation analysis (CA): Glossary of grammatical and rhetorical terms. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-conversation-analysis-ca-1689923> [Accessed: 2020. 09. 19].
- Nowell, L.S., Norris, J.M., White, D.E. & Moules, N.J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16(1):1 – 13.
- O'Connor, H. & Nancy, G. (2003). A step-by-step guide to qualitative data analysis. Pimatisiwin: *A Journal of Aboriginal and Indigenous Community Health*. 1. 63 – 90.
- Ofsted (Office for Standards in Education). (2008). *Sustaining improvement: the journey from special measures*. London: Ofsted.
- Ogletree, T. & Kawulich, B.B. (2012). *Ethical considerations in conducting research*. In: Wagner, C. Kawulich, B. & Garner, M. (Eds.). *Doing social research: A global context*, 1 – 19. London: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- O'Grady, W., Dobrovolsky, M. & Aronoff, M. (1989). *Contemporary linguistic: An introduction*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Ogura, M. & Wang, W.Y. (2006). Linguistics: Ambiguity and language evolution: evolution of homophones and syllable number of words. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* 42:1 – 28.
- Ohta, A.S. (2001). *Peer interactive tasks and assisted performance in classroom language learning*. In: Ohta, A.S. *Second language acquisition processes in the classroom: Learning Japanese*, 73 – 128). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Ojo, O. (2003). *Fundamentals of research methods*. Lagos: Standard Publications.
- Oljira, D. (2017). A study on problems of vocabulary teaching techniques English teachers use in Holeta Primary school: Grade seven in focus. *International Journal in Science and Research*, 6(6):497 – 505.
- Omar, Y. (2018). The Challenges of Denotative and Connotative Meaning for Second Language Learners. *ETC: A Review of General Semantics*, 69(3):324 – 351.
- Oxford, R. & Crookall, D. (1990). Vocabulary learning: A critical analysis of techniques. *TESL Canada Journal*, 7(2):9 – 30. DOI: 10.18806/tesl.v7i2.566
- Pacific Resources for Education and Learning (PREL). (2008). *Teaching vocabulary explicitly*. Honolulu, HI: Pacific CHILD teachers' manual.
- Padilla, J.J., Lynch, C.J., Diallo, S.Y., Gore, R.J., Barraco, A., Kavak, H., & Jenkins, B. (2016). *Using simulation games for teaching and learning discrete-event simulation*. In 2016 Winter Simulation Conference (WSC) (pp. 3375-3384). IEEE.
- Palmberg, R. (1987). Patterns of vocabulary development in foreign-language learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 9(2):201 – 219.
- Palys, T. (2008). *Purposive sampling*. In L. M. Given (Ed.) *The Sage Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods*. (Vol.2). Los Angeles: Sage, pp. 697-8.
- Parupalli, R. (2019). The impact of teacher training in English language teaching on the learners' learning. *Journal of English Language and Literature*, 6:68 – 79. DOI. 10.33329/joell.64.19.68.
- Pasternak, M. & Bailey, K.M. (2004). *Preparing non-native and native English-speaking teachers: Issues of professionalism and proficiency*. In: Kahmi, L.D.S (Ed.). *Learning and teaching from experience: Perspective on non-*

native English-speaking professional: 155 – 175. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation of research methods (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Patton, M.Q. & Cockran, M. (2002). *A guide to using qualitative research methodology. medicines*. Sana Frontiers. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.cloudfront.ualberta.ca/-/media/science/research/-and/teaching/teaching/qualitative-research-methodology.pdf>. [Accessed: 2018. 07. 15].

Pavlenko, A. (2009). *Conceptual representation in the bilingual lexicon and second language vocabulary learning*. In: Pavlenko, A. (Ed.), *The bilingual mental lexicon: Interdisciplinary approaches*, 125 – 160. Bristol: Multilingual Matters. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691262-008> [Accessed: 2019. 02. 02].

Penno, J.F., Wilkinson, I.A. & Moore, D.W. (2002). Vocabulary acquisition from teacher explanation and repeated listening to stories: Do they overcome the Matthew effect? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(1):23 – 33.

Pikulski, J.J. & Templeton, S. (2004). *Teaching and developing vocabulary: Key to long-term reading success*. Litho Houghton Mifflin Reading. [Online]. Available from: [www.eduplace.com](http://www.eduplace.com) [Accessed: 2018. 07. 11].

Pitney, W.A. & Parker, J. (2009). *Qualitative research in physical activity and the health professions*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Polit, D.F. & Beck, C.T. (2004). *Nursing research: Principles and methods (7<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Pompea, S.M. & Walker, C.E. (2017). *The importance of pedagogical content knowledge in curriculum development for illumination engineering*.

Proceedings Volume 10452, 14th Conference on Education and Training in Optics and Photonics. [DOI.org/10.1117/12.2270022](https://doi.org/10.1117/12.2270022)

Pope, C., Ziebland, S. & Mays, N. (2000). Qualitative research in health care. Analysing qualitative data. *British Medical Journal*, 320:114 – 116.

Poplack, S. (1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en Español: Toward a typology of CS. *Linguistics* 18:581 – 618.

Pourhosein, G.A. (2012). A study of factors affecting EFL learners' English pronunciation learning and the strategies for instruction. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(3):119 – 128.

Prabhu, N.S. (1990). There is no best method-why? *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(2):161-176.

Pretorius, E.J. (2016). Narrowing the gap: Building vocabulary during the foundation phase. *Presented at the Zenex Panel at RASA. Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages*. Pretoria: UNISA.

Prince, P. (1996). Second language vocabulary learning: The role of context versus translations as a function of proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(4):478 – 493. [DOI.org/fn5zs4](https://doi.org/fn5zs4)

Pyles, T. & Algeo, J. (1970). *English: An introduction to language*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Rahman, M.S. (2017). The advantages and disadvantages of using qualitative and quantitative approaches and methods in language" testing and assessment" research: A literature review. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 6(1):102 – 112.

Ram, A. (2010), *Research methodology*. New Delhi: Rawat Publication

- Rao, V.C. (2017). *A brief study of words used in denotation and connotation*. 1. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/321743805/A/Brief/Study/of/Words/Used/in/Denotation/and/Connotation> [Accessed: 2020. 01. 23].
- Rasinger, S.M. (2013). *Quantitative research in linguistics: An introduction* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Bloomsbury.
- Read, J. (2004). Research in teaching vocabulary. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24:146 – 161. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190504000078> [Accessed: 2019. 10. 17].
- Reaves, C.C. (1992). *Quantitative research for the behavioural sciences*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Renandya, W.A. & Van Canh, L.E. (2017). Teachers' English proficiency and classroom language use: A conversational analysis study. *RELC Journal*, 48(1):67 – 81. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217690935> [Accessed: 2020. 03. 13].
- Rhoades, E.A. (2011). Literature reviews. *The Volta Review*, 111(3):353 – 368
- Richards, J.C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. (2015). *Key issues in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., Platt, J. & Platt, H. (1992). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. (2000). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

- Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. & Schmidt, R. (2013). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. London: Longman (Pearson Education).
- Richardson, F. (2009). *Writing with wow words and building vocabulary: National behaviour support service*. Navan: Co. Meath.
- Rivers, W.M. (1964). *The psychologist and the foreign language teacher*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Robbins, C. & Ehri, L.C. (1994). Reading storybooks to kindergartners helps them learn new vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86(1), 54 – 64.
- Rondón, E. & Vera, L. (2016). Understanding the role of teaching materials in a beginners' level English as a foreign language course: A case study. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 18(2):125 – 137.
- Roopa, S. & Rani, M.S. (2012). Questionnaire designing for a survey. *Journal of Indian Orthodontic Society*, 46(4\_supplus):273 – 277.
- Rose, N.S., Buchsbaum, B.R. & Craik, F.I. (2014). Short-term retention of a single word relies on retrieval from long-term memory when both rehearsal and refreshing are disrupted. *Memory & Cognition*, 42(5):689 – 700.
- Rose, S., Aburto, M., Hagemann, J. & Shahnazarian, D. (2009). *Informed consent in human subjects research*. University of South California. [Online]: Available from: <https://oprs.usc.edu/files/2017/04/Informed-Consent-Booklet-4.4,13> [Accessed: 2020. 07. 12].
- Rossouw, D. (Ed.) (2003). *Intellectual tools: Skills for human sciences (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

- Rott, S. (1999). The effect of exposure frequency on intermediate language learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(1):589 – 619.
- Rumsey, M., Thiessen, J., Buchan, J. & Daly, J. (2016). The consequences of English language testing for international health professionals and learners: An Australian case study. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 54:95 – 103. [Online]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2015.06.001> [Accessed: 2020. 09. 12].
- Rusiecki, J. (1985). *Adjectives and comparison in English: A semantic study*. London: Longman
- Saengpakdeejit, R. (2014). Strategies for dealing with vocabulary learning problem by Thai University learners. *Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities and Arts*, 14(1):147 – 167.
- Saettler, P. (2004). *The evolution of American educational technology*. Greenwich: Information Age Pub.
- Salih, K.M. (2015). A better understanding of antonyms. *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, 6(3):1643 – 1645.
- Sanaoui, R. (1995). Adult learners' approaches to learning vocabulary in second languages. *Modern Language Journal* 79 (1):15 – 28.
- Schmitt, N. (1997). *Vocabulary learning strategies*. In: Schmitt, N. & McCarthy, M. (Eds.). *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy*, 199 – 226). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

- Schmitt, N. (2007). *Current perspectives on vocabulary teaching and learning*. International handbook of English language teaching, 827 – 841. New York: Springer
- Schmitt, N. (2008). Review article: Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(3):329 – 363.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary: A vocabulary research manual*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230293977> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 10].
- Schmitt, N. & Carter, R. (2000). The lexical advantages of narrow reading for second language learners. *TESOL Journal*, 9(1):4 – 9.
- Schmitt, N. & McCarthy, M. (1997). *Introduction*. In: Schmitt, N. & McCarthy, M. (Eds.). *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy*, 35 – 54. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schwardt, T.A. (2007). *The SAGE dictionary of qualitative inquiry (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Los Angeles, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Schweers, C.W. (1999). Using L1 in the L2 classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 37(2):6 – 9.
- Schempp, P.G., Manross, D., Tan, S.K. & Fincher, M.D. (1998). Subject expertise and teachers' knowledge. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 17(3):342 – 356.
- Schopper, D., Doussantousse, S. & Orav, J. (1993). Sexual behaviours relevant to HIV transmission in a rural African population: How much can a KAP survey tell us? *Soc. Sci. Med* 37:401 – 412.
- Scrivener, J. (1994). *Learning teaching*. Heinemann: Oxford University Press



- Seale, C., Gobo, G., Gubrium, J.F. & Silverman, D. (Eds.). (2004). *Handbook of qualitative research practice*. London: Sage.
- Sedita, J. (2005). Effective vocabulary instruction. *Insights on Learning Disabilities*, 2(1):33 – 45.
- Senechal, M., Thomas, E. & Monker, J. (1995). Individual differences in 4-year-old children's acquisition of vocabulary during storybook reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(2):218 – 229.
- Shahbaz, M. & Khan, R.M.I. (2017). Use of mobile immersion in foreign language teaching to enhance target language vocabulary learning. MIER. *Journal of Educational Studies, Trends and Practices*, 7(1):66 – 82
- Shahnazarian, D., Hagemann, J., Aburto, M. & Rose, S. (2017). *Informed consent in human subjects research*. Office for the protection of research subjects (OPRS): University of Southern California. [Online]. Available from: <https://oprs.usc.edu/file/2017/04/Informed-Consent-Booklet-4.4.13.pdf>. [Accessed: 2018. 06. 20].
- Shakouri, A., Mahdavi, M., Mousavi, Y. & Pourteghali, A. A. (2014). The effect of explicit and implicit vocabulary instruction on the reading comprehension of university learners via online classroom. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary and Current Research*, 2(3):522 – 528.
- Shanker, J.L. & Cockrum, W. (2010). *Locating & correcting reading vocabulary*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Shen, W.W. (2003). Current trends of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies for EFL settings. *Feng Chia Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 7(1):187 – 224.

- Sheppard, M. (2004). *Appraising and using social research in the human services: An introduction for social work and health professionals*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2):4 – 14.
- Shulman, L.S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: foundations of the new reform. Harvard: *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1):1 – 22.
- Sibanda, J. & Baxen, J. (2016). Determining English second language learning learners' vocabulary needs from a textbook corpus: *Challenges and prospects*. *South African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34(1):57 – 70.
- Skehan, P. (2001). Tasks and language performance assessment. In: Bygate, M. Skehan, P. & Swain, M (Eds.). *Researching pedagogic tasks*, 167 – 185). London: Longman.
- Skehan, P. (2003). Task-based instruction. *Language Teaching*, 36(1):1 – 14.
- Skenderi, L. & Skenderi, F. (2017). Teachers' perceptions of technology use in the classroom. *Knowledge International Journal*, 19(1):213 – 217.
- Smadja, F. (1993). Retrieving collocations from text: Xtract. *Computational Linguistics*, 19(1):143 – 178.
- Solís, A. (2009). *Pedagogical content knowledge: What matters most in the professional learning of content teachers in classrooms with diverse learner populations*. Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA). [Online]. Available from: <https://www.idra.org/resource-center/pedagogical-content-knowledge/> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 14].

- Songbatumis, A.M. (2017). Challenges in teaching English faced by English teachers at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning*, 2(2):54 – 67.
- Speech New Zealand. (2008). *Differences between spoken and written language*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.speechnz.co.nz/wp-content/uploads/2012/07/Differences-betweenWritten-and-Spoken.pdf> [Accessed: 2020. 11. 17].
- Spolsky, B. (1998). *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Spratt, M., Pulverness, A. & Williams, M. (2005). *The TKT (teaching knowledge test) course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Stæhr, L.S. (2008). Vocabulary size and the skills of listening, reading and writing. *Language Learning Journal*, 36(2):139 – 152.
- Stahl, S. & Kapinus, B. (2001). *Word power: What every educator needs to know about teaching vocabulary*. NEA success in reading series. NEA professional library, 1201 16th St NW, Washington, DC 20036, (Stock No. 2050-2-00-C4).
- Statistics South Africa. (2003). *General household survey*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0318/P03182003.pdf> [Accessed: 2020. 04. 15].
- Statistics South Africa. (2016). *South African Community Survey 2016. Indicators derived from the full population community survey*. [Online]. Available. <https://wazimap.co.za/profiles/district-DC34-vhembe/> [Accessed: 2020. 09. 06].
- Stockwell, G. (2010). Using mobile phones for vocabulary activities: Examining the effect of the platform. *Language Learning & Technology*, 14(2):95 – 110.

- Storch. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and learners' reflection. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14:153 – 73. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2005.05.002> [Accessed: 2020. 12. 17].
- Stott, N. (2001). Helping ESL learners become better readers: Schema Theory applications and limitations. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 3(11):1 – 7. [Online]. Available from: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Stott-Schema.html> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 03].
- Stuart, W. (2005). Receptive and productive vocabulary learning: The effects of reading and writing on word knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(1):33 – 52.
- Sukamolson, S. (2007). *Fundamentals of quantitative research*. Bangkok, Thailand: EJTR. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.culi.chula.ac.th/e-Journal/bod/Suphat%20Sukamolson.pdf>. [Accessed: 2018. 08. 09].
- Susanto, A. (2017). The teaching of vocabulary: A perspective. *Jurnal Kata: Penelitian Tentang Ilmu Bahasa Dan Sastra*, 1(2):182 – 191.
- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 50 (1):158 – 64.
- Swain, M. (2002). Peer-peer dialogue as a means of second language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22:171 – 185. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190502000090> [Accessed: 2018. 12. 19].
- Swanson, E., Wanzek, J., Vaughn, S., Roberts, G. & Fall, A. (2015). Improving reading comprehension and social studies knowledge among middle school learners with disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 81(4):426 – 442. [Online]. Available from <http://pearl.stkate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/1719015902?accountid=26879> [Accessed: 2020. 11. 26].

- Taj, I.H., Ali, F., Sipra, M.A. & Ahmad, W. (2017). Effect of technology enhanced language learning on vocabulary acquisition of EFL learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 6(3):262 – 272.
- Taqi, H.A., Al-Darwish, S.H., Akbar, R.S., & Al-Gharabali, N.A. (2015). Choosing an English Teacher: The Influence of Gender on the Learners' Choice of Language Teachers. *English Language Teaching*, 8(12):182 – 190.
- Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. *Applied social research methods series*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Teddlie, C. & Tashakkori, A. (Eds.). (2003). *Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed methods in the social and behavioural sciences*. In: *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research*, 3 – 50. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Texas Centre for Reading and Language Arts, (2002). *Promoting vocabulary development: Components of effective vocabulary instruction (Revised edition)*. Austin, TX: Texas Education Agency.
- Hutton, T. L. (2008). *Three tiers of vocabulary and education*. Greenville, South Carolina: Super Duper Publications, Inc.
- The Meadows Centre for Preventing Educational Risk. (2010). *Academic vocabulary for fifth- to seventh-grade English language learners in Texas*. Austin, TX: Author.
- Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach vocabulary*. Harlow: Longman.

- Thorne, S. (2000). Data analysis in qualitative research. *Evidence Based Nursing*, 3:68 – 70. DOI:10.1136/ebn.3.3.68
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(2):143 – 179. [Online]. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000528> [Accessed: 2018. 09. 24].
- Tosuncuoglu, I. (2017). Non-native & native English teachers. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research*, 6(6):634 – 638.
- Trochim, W.M.K. (2006). *Types of reliability*. *Research methods knowledge base*. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/reotypes> [Accessed: 2020. 09. 17].
- Tsang, A. (2017). EFL/ESL teachers' general language proficiency and learners' engagement. *RELC Journal*, 48(1):99 – 133. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217690060> [Accessed: 2019. 08. 08].
- Tuan, L.T. (2012). Vocabulary recollection through games. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(2):257 – 264. Doi:10.4304/tpis.2.2.257-264
- TutorVista. (2017). *Analogy of synonyms and antonyms*. [Online]. Available from: <http://english.tutorvista.com/vocabulary.html>. [Accessed: 2017. 12. 18].
- UK Essays. (2017). *Pros and cons of mixed methods research*. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.ukessays.com/essays/psychology/a-study-on-using-mixed-methods-in-research-psychology-essay.php?vref=1> [Accessed: 2018. 06. 01].
- Van Driel, J.H., de Jong, O. & Verloop, N. (2002). The development of pre-service chemistry teachers' PCK. *Science Education*, 86(4):572 – 590.
- Vasileva, O. & Balyasnikova, N. (2019). (Re) Introducing Vygotsky's thought: From historical overview to contemporary psychology. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1515. DOI: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01515.

- Vaughn, S., Swanson, E.A., Roberts, G., Wanzek, J., Stillman-Spisak, S.J., Solis, M. & Simmons, D. (2013). Improving reading comprehension and Social Studies knowledge in middle school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 48(1)77 – 93. [Online]. Available from <https://searchproquest.com.pearl.stkate.edu/education/docview/1719015902/82AFFD56C4F34167PQ/1?accountid=26879> [Accessed: 2019. 12. 11].
- Veal, W.R. (1999). *The TTF model to explain PCK in teacher development*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching. Boston, Massachusetts, USA.
- Venter, M. (2012). *Ill-disciplined teachers: The training of English teachers*. [Online]. Available from: <https://teachenglishtoday.org/index.php/2012/11/ill-disciplined-teachers-the-training-of-english-teachers/> [Accessed: 2018. 05. 29].
- Vienna, A.R. (2003). *Implicit and explicit learning in incidental vocabulary acquisition*. An extended version of a paper presented at the EUROSLA Conference in Edinburg.
- Viera, R.T. & Rodriguez, S.R. (2017). The importance of vocabulary knowledge in the production of written texts. A case on EFL language learners. *Revista Tecnológica ESPOL-RTE*, 30(3):89 – 105.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press
- Wadsworth, B.J. (1996). *Piaget's theory of cognitive and affective development: Foundations of constructivism*. White Plains, N.Y: Longman Publishing.

- Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(1):3 – 23.
- Wardhaugh, R. (1990; 2010). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. New York: Blackwell.
- Washbur., E.K., Binks-Cantrell, E.S., Joshi, R.M., Martin-Chang, S. & Arrow, A. (2016). Preservice teacher knowledge of basic language constructs in Canada, England, New Zealand, and the USA. *Annals of Dyslexia* 66(1):7 – 26. DOI: 10.1007/s11881-015-0115-x
- Watson, O. (1976). *Longman modern English dictionary*. London: Longman Group Limited.
- Webb, S. (2005). Receptive and productive vocabulary learning: The effects of reading and writing on word knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27:33 – 52.
- Welch, S. & Comer, J. (1988). *Quantitative methods for public administration: Techniques and applications*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Welman, J.C., Kruger, F., Mitchell, B. & Huysamen, G.K. (2005). *Research methodology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wenger, E. (2007). *Communities of practice: A brief introduction*. [Online]. Available from: <http://www.ewenger.com/theory/> [Google Scholar] [Accessed: 2019. 10. 19].
- Wertsch, J.V. (1979b). *The regulation of human action and the given-new organisation of private speech*. In: Zivin, G. (Ed.). *The development of self-regulation through private speech*, 79 – 98. New York: Wiley.



- Wertsch, J.V. (1980). The significance of dialogue in Vygotsky's account of social, egocentric, and inner speech. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 5(2):150 – 162. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-476X\(80\)90036-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-476X(80)90036-3)
- Weschler, R. (1997). Uses of Japanese (L1) in the English classroom: Introducing the functional-translation method. *Kyoritsu Women's University Department of International Studies Journal*, 12:87 – 110.
- Whitehurst, G.J., & Lonigan, C.J. (1998). Child development and emergent literacy. *Child Development*, 69(3):848 – 872.
- Wilkins. D.A. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Williamson, E., Kent, J., Goodenough. T. & Ashcroft R. (2002). Social science gets the ethics treatment. research governance and ethical review. *Sociological Research Online*, 7(4):1 – 15.
- Williamson, J.V. (2004). A phonological and morphological study of English. Alabama: Alabama State University.
- Willingham, D.T. (2003). Learners remember what they think about. *American Educator*, 27(2):37 – 41.
- Wilson, B. & Cole, P. (1991). A review of cognitive teaching models. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 39(4):47 – 64.
- Wilson, B.G., Jonassen, D.H. & Cole, P. (1993). Cognitive approaches to instructional design. *The ASTD Handbook of Instructional Technology*, 4:21 – 21.
- Winitz, H. (1981) *The comprehension approach to foreign language instruction*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

- Wiser, B. (2013). *Effective vocabulary instruction for kindergarten to 12th grade learners experiencing learning disability*. Portland, Oregon: Council for Learning Disability.
- Wong, R. (1987). Pronunciation myths and facts. *English Teaching Forum*, 31, 4:45 – 46.
- Wright, T.S. & Cervetti, G.N. (2017). A system review of the research on vocabulary instruction that impacts text comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 52(2):203 – 226.
- Xu, W. (2015). Exploring ESL/EFL Teachers' pedagogical content knowledge on reading strategy instruction. *English Language Teaching* 8(11):155 – 175.
- Yali, G. (2010). L2 vocabulary acquisition through reading—Incidental learning and intentional learning. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistic*, 33(1):74 – 93.
- Yates, L. & Zielinski, B. (2009). *Give it a go: Teaching pronunciation to adults*. AMEP Research Centre. [Online]. Available from: [www.ameprc.mq.edu.au\\_data/assets/pdf\\_file/0011/157664/interactive\\_sm](http://www.ameprc.mq.edu.au_data/assets/pdf_file/0011/157664/interactive_sm) [Accessed: 2020. 10. 19].
- Yilmaz, K. (2011). The cognitive perspective on learning: Its theoretical underpinnings and implications for classroom practices. Clearing House. *A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 84(5):204 – 212. [Online]. DOI: 10.1080/00098655.2011.568989
- Yopyop, H.J. (2014). *Research ethics: Avoiding harm in research*. Polytechnic University of Philippines. [Online]. Available from: <https://www.slideshare.net/hannajemimayopyop/avoiding-harm-in-research-final>. [Accessed: 2018. 07. 07].

Yu, G. (2010). Lexical diversity in writing and speaking task performance. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(2):236 – 259. [Online]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1093/app/in/amp024> [Accessed: 2020. 03. 17].

Yule, G. (2020). *The study of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zanhar, R., Cobb, T. & Spada, N. (2001). Acquiring vocabulary through reading: Effects of frequency and contextual richness. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 54(4):541 – 572.

Zhang, D. & Du, W. (2013). Sociocultural theory applied to second language learning: Collaborative learning with reference to the Chinese context. *International Education Studies*, 6(9):165 - 174. DOI. 10.5539/ies.v6n9p165.

Zimmerman, C. B. (2009). *Word knowledge: A vocabulary teacher's handbook*. New York: Oxford University Press.

## ANNEXRUE A: QUESTIONNAIRE

**Ndivhudzannyi Nndwamato <ndivhudza.nndwamato@univen.ac.za>**

**TOPIC: Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe District.**

Dear Participant

My name is **Ndivhudzannyi Michael Nndwamato**. I am a postgraduate learner in the Department of English at the University of Venda. I am conducting research on **Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe District**. I request your assistance by responding to this questionnaire. Your responses could provide vital insight into the following: What resources and activities could result in effective vocabulary teaching, which vocabulary teaching methods and strategies are effective, and how to overcome vocabulary teaching impediments? Your identity shall not be divulged and shall remain anonymous. Your contributions shall be treated with all due confidentiality and respect.

## Instructions

Please read very carefully through each item and respond honestly to all the questions below. Tick the options that best relate to your opinion with a cross 'X'.

### SECTION A: Personal information

1. Gender

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

2. Age range

21 – 30		31 – 40		41 – 50		51 – 60		61 - 65	
---------	--	---------	--	---------	--	---------	--	---------	--

3. Race

African		Coloured		Indian		White	
---------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-------	--

4. Your primary home language

Tshivenda		XiTsonga		Sepedi		Afrikaans		English		Other (Specify)	
-----------	--	----------	--	--------	--	-----------	--	---------	--	--------------------	--

5. Teaching **experience** in number of years

1 - 10		11 – 20		21 - 30		31 - 40	
--------	--	---------	--	---------	--	---------	--

6. **English teaching experience** in number of years

1 - 10		11 – 20			21 - 30		31 - 40	
--------	--	---------	--	--	---------	--	---------	--

7. Highest academic qualification

Degree		Honours Degree		Master's Degree		PhD	
--------	--	----------------	--	--------------------	--	-----	--

8. Highest professional qualification

JSTD		STD		UED/ PGCE		Other (Specify)	
------	--	-----	--	-----------	--	-----------------	--

**SECTION B: Vocabulary knowledge and practices of teachers of English**

Kindly indicate with a cross ('X') the response that best relates to your opinion on the statements below, using the following scale:

**1 = Totally disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Not sure; 4 = Agree; 5 = Totally agree**

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5
1. I teach vocabulary in almost all my English language teaching lessons.					
2. I always use the medium of instruction throughout my English language teaching lessons.					
3. I pre-teach meanings of new words by identifying them and writing them on the board for definition and explanation.					
4. I explain unfamiliar words by translating them into the learners' L1.					
5. I explain new words by using them in new sentences.					
6. I explain new words by breaking them into different word formation components like the root, prefixes and suffixes.					
7. I explain meanings of words by drawing learners' attention to the familiar words to contextualise the new ones.					
8. I use different resources like newspapers, magazines and books to teach English vocabulary.					
9. I use pictures and real objects to accompany explanations of new words.					
10. I ask learners to take time reading the text aloud in the class.					
11. I identify certain words from the reading text and ask learners to use them in sentence construction of their choice.					
12. I offer learners time to engage in social discussion using the English language in the classroom.					
13. I use games to teach vocabulary in my lessons.					

### SECTION C: Teachers' mastery of English vocabulary

1. In each question, 1.1 – 1.5, each sentence has a word or phrase underlined. Select the one word or phrase that has the same meaning (synonym) of the original sentence as used in the context if it is substituted for the underlined word or phrase and write down its number and letter.

1.1. His learners regard him odd.

- A) Dangerous
- B) Friendly
- C) Strange ✓
- D) Humorous

1.2. It is futile to go shopping when you are broke.

- A) Useless ✓
- B) Brilliant
- C) Idiotic
- D) Challenging

1.3. He made one last futile effort to convince her and then left the house.

- A) Difficult
- B) Favourable
- C) Firm
- D) Ineffectual ✓

1.4. The actress had to raise her voice to be audible in the balcony.

- A) Musical
- B) Dramatic
- C) Heard ✓
- D) Appreciated

1.5. Dictators do not tolerate opposition of any kind.

- A) Understand
- B) Permit ✓
- C) Justify
- D) Execute

**2. Which of the following words represent the antonyms (opposite meaning) of the word provided? Represent your choice by writing the letter which corresponds with your choice.**

2.1. Impartial

A) Hostile

B) Biased √

C) Dislike

D) Worried

2.2. Heartfelt

A) Loving

B) Unhealthy

C) Humorous

D) Insincere √

2.3. Abate

A) Free

B) Augment √

C) Provoke

D) Wane

2.4. Expect

A) Attend

B) Regret

C) Despair √

D) Loathe

2.5. Abridge

A) Shorten

B) Extend √

C) Stress

D) Easy

**3. Select the one word from the choices given that best completes each of these sentences and write down its letter next to the item number.**

3.1. The dying man's speech was so ..... that no one could interpret his last request.

A) Indiscreet



- B) Nonchalant  
C) Incoherent      ✓  
D) Impotent
- 3.2. Due to many years of ... the Ndwamatos had nothing to fall back onto when it was time for them to retire.  
A) Illiterate  
B) Impunity  
C) Inflexibility  
D) Imprudence      ✓
- 3.3. Certain pessimists feel that a nuclear war in our lifetime is ...  
A) Inevitable      ✓  
B) Illicit  
C) Disconcerting  
D) Impossible
- 3.4. It was truly miraculous that the child was ...after falling six stories.  
A) Unscathed      ✓  
B) Uncanny  
C) Irreparable  
D) Illiterate
- 3.5. A civil war pits brother against brother and causes ... harm to a nation's morale.  
A) Uncompromising  
B) Incalculable      ✓  
C) Invariable  
D) Infallible

*(Adapted from: Peterson's Master TOEFL Vocabulary, 2006)*

## ANNEXURE B: OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

### SECTION D: Observation checklist

Rating scale

<b>Rating</b>	<b>Descriptor</b>
1	<i>The teacher does not adequately fulfil the expected responsibilities, resulting in work performance lacking quality that negatively impacts on learners' vocabulary development.</i>
2	<i>The teacher inconsistently meets the expected responsibilities resulting in adequate work performance and poor learners' development in vocabulary.</i>
3	<i>The performance of the teacher consistently fulfils the expected responsibilities resulting in quality work that impacts learners' development in vocabulary learning. <b>All teachers are expected to perform at this level.</b></i>
4	<i>The teacher exceeds the expected responsibilities, consistently producing exceptionally high-quality work that optimises learners' vocabulary development.</i>

<b>1. English teacher's understanding of the CAPS vocabulary requirements of learners</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
1.1. The teacher always uses the medium of instruction.				
1.2. The teacher uses Tier 2 words when teaching English vocabulary.				
1.3. The teacher uses the language understandably to communicate with all learners by grading it (scaffolding).				

**Observer's comments:**

.....

.....

.....

<b>2. English vocabulary teaching methods and strategies</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>

2.1. The teacher picks out unfamiliar words from the reading text and explains their meanings by writing their definitions on the board.				
2.2. The teacher explains the meaning of new words by translating them into the learners' L1.				
2.3. The teacher explains new words by using them in sentences.				
2.4. The teacher explains the meaning of the new words by supplying their synonyms and antonyms.				
2.5. The teacher explains the meaning of new words by breaking them into different word formation components.				

**Observer's comments:**

.....

.....

.....

<b>3. Use of resources in English vocabulary teaching lesson</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
3.1. The lesson draws vocabulary from reading texts like books, newspapers and magazines.				
3.2. Learners refer to the English dictionary for the meaning of new words.				
3.3. Pictures and real objects are used to accompany meanings of new words.				
3.4. Technology is used for vocabulary teaching.				

**Observer's comments:**

.....

.....

.....

4. English vocabulary teaching and learning activities	1	2	3	4
4.1. Learners are offered opportunities to read texts aloud.				
4.2. Learners construct new sentences using new words from the reading text.				
4.3. Lessons are made learner-centred by encouraging all learners to participate in the discussions.				
4.4. The teacher uses games to teach meanings of new words.				

**Observer's comments:**

.....

.....

.....

## **ANNEXURE C: STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS QUESTIONS**

### **SECTION E: Questions for English teacher individual interviews**

1. What is your view about vocabulary teaching? Do you find it a worthwhile exercise, and why do you hold such a view?
2. How often do you incorporate vocabulary teaching in your English language teaching?
3. Which strategies do you find most effective in teaching vocabulary?
4. Do you have any ways of checking your learners' vocabulary development progress, if so, how do you do that?
5. What are some of the challenges you encounter when teaching vocabulary, and how do you address such?

## ANNEXURE D: ETHICS CLEARANCE LETTER

RESEARCH AND INNOVATION  
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:

**Mr NM Nndwamato**

Student No:

**9705128**

PROJECT TITLE: **Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe District.**

PROJECT NO: **SHSS/19/ENG/06/0708**

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

NAME	INSTITUTION & DEPARTMENT	ROLE
Dr MN Lambani	University of Venda	Promoter
Prof E Klu	University of Venda	Co- Promoter
Mr NM Nndwamato	University of Venda	Investigator – Student

ISSUED BY:

**UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Date Considered: August 2019

Decision by Ethical Clearance Committee Granted

Signature of Chairperson of the Committee: 

Name of the Chairperson of the Committee: Senior Prof. G.E. Ekosse



University of Venda

PRIVATE BAG X5050, THOHOYANDOU, 0950. LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA  
TELEPHONE (015) 962 8504/8313 FAX (015) 962 9060 Private Bag X5050  
"A quality driven financially sustainable, rural-based Comprehensive University of Thohoyandou 0950"

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA DIRECTOR RESEARCH AND INNOVATION 2019 -10- 04
--

## ANNEXURE E: PERMISSION APPLICATION LETTER



**LIMPOPO**

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF  
**EDUCATION**

For admin use

Reference number:

### REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE LIMPOPO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

- PARTICULARS OF THE RESEARCHER/S** (if there is more than one researcher involved, provide the details of the main researcher)

1.1. Personal details	
Title (Prof/Dr/Mr/Mrs/Ms):	MR
Surname and initials:	NNDWAMATO, NM
First name/s:	NDIVHUDZANNYI MICHAEL
SA ID number:	700907 5936 08 2
Work permit number (If not SA citizen):	N/A

1.2. Contact details	
Tel home:	NONE
Tel work:	015 962 9106
Cell:	082 707 0051
Email address:	ndivhudza.nndwamato@univen.ac.za
Home address:	1593 NGOVHELA, THOHOYANDOU
Postal code:	0950
Postal address:	BOX 3577, THOHOYANDOU
Postal code:	0950

**2. PARTICULARS OF AFFILIATED ORGANISATION (if applicable)**

<b>2.1. Affiliated organisation</b>	
Name of organisation:	N/A
Position:	
Head of organisation/research promoter:	
Tel (head/research promoter):	
<b>2.1. Affiliated organisation</b>	
Email address (head/research promoter):	

**3. LEARNER AND POSTGRADUATE ENROLMENT PARTICULARS (if applicable)**

<b>3.1. Enrolment particulars</b>	
Name of institution:	UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
Degree/qualification:	PhD
Faculty and discipline/area of study:	ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
Name of supervisor/promoter:	DR. MN LAMBANI/ PROF. E KLU
Learner number:	9705128

**PURPOSE AND DETAILS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH**

<b>4.1. Purpose of the research (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)</b>	
Undergraduate study – Self	
Postgraduate study – Self	<b>X</b>
Private company/agency – Commissioned by National Government Department	
Private research by independent researcher	
Non-government organisation	
Department of Basic Education	
Commissions and committees	
Independent research agencies	
Statutory research agencies	
Higher education institutions only	
Other (specify)	



4.2. Details of proposed research	
<b>Full title of research project/thesis/dissertation</b>	
Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou cluster in Vhembe District.	
<b>Brief description of proposed research</b>	
This study was triggered by the Department of Basic Education's annual diagnostic reports of over five years which constantly blame learners' limited vocabulary for the Grade 12 English FAL poor results. The study aims to ascertain the vocabulary teaching competence of the teachers, especially at the FET entry-level.	
Value of the research to the Provincial Department of Education	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The study will expose those factors that could be of hinderance to successful vocabulary teaching endeavours</li> <li>• The study will shed some light on the importance of vocabulary in relations to learners' academic performance</li> <li>• It will suggest some effective vocabulary teaching and learning strategies that could be pursued</li> <li>• It will share some resources and activities that could improve vocabulary teaching</li> </ul>	
4.2. Details of proposed research	
<b>Envisaged date of completion of research at the LDoE (day/month/year):</b>	2020. 02. 28
<b>Envisaged date of submission of research report and research summary to LDoE (Month/Year):</b>	2020. 09. 30

## 5. REQUEST OF INTERVIEWS WITH DBE OFFICIALS

5.1. DBE official details	
<b>Name of official/s requested to interview*:</b>	CS1 GRADE 10 EDUCATORS OF ENGLISH FAL
<b>Unit/division:</b>	SCHOOL-BASED EDUCATORS
<b>Area of interest of research (if you do not know the name of a particular LDoE official/s you would like to interview):</b>	THOHOYANDOU CLUSTER OF CIRCUITS

\* If you do not know the name of the official in the LDoE that you would like to interview, specify the unit or area of interest for your research, and the IPR&R Directorate will advise accordingly.

**5.2. Key questions for the LDoE official (also attach a draft questionnaire)**

--

- To what extent are Grade 10 English FAL teachers aware of the CAPS expectations regarding vocabulary teaching?
- How do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use appropriate resources and activities when teaching vocabulary?
- What teaching methods and strategies do Grade 10 English FAL teachers use for effective vocabulary teaching and learning? DATA REQUEST

**6.1. Request for datasets available to the LDoE (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)**

Education Management Information System ("EMIS")	
Grade 12 examination results	
Former Systematic Evaluations	
Annual National Assessments ("ANA")	
National Education Infrastructure Management System ("NEIMS")	
Personnel Salary System ("PERSAL")	

**6.1. Request for datasets available to the LDoE (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)**

Learner Unit Record Information and Tracking System ("LURITS")	
Other (specify)	

**6.2. Data should be disaggregated by: (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)**

Gender	
Race	
Age group	
Geography (urban/rural)	
Province	
Time period (specify)	
Other (specify)	

7. **ATTACHMENTS** (please indicate which of the following attachments are accompanying this form)

8.

<b>7.1 Attachments</b> (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)	
Approved research proposal	X
Draft questionnaire for <b>LDoE</b> official/s to be interviewed/survey for <b>LDoE</b> officials to complete	X
Ethics clearance for study	X
A letter from your supervisor confirming	

<b>7.1 Attachments</b> (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)	
registration of your course (university learners)	X
Other (specify)	

<b>6.3. Request for supporting letter for access to the options below</b> (please indicate by placing a cross where appropriate)	
Provincial Department of Education	
National Government Departments (specify)	
Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study ("TIMSS")	
Progress in International Reading Literacy Study ("PIRLS")	
The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality ("SACMEQ")	
Data from the World Bank	
Data from the HSRC	
Other (specify)	

#### COMMENTS

If you have any additional comments/concerns, please specify them in the box below.

This form, along with the relevant documentation, should be emailed to [masilatc@edu.limpopo.gov.za](mailto:masilatc@edu.limpopo.gov.za). All queries pertaining to the status of the research request can be directed to Dr. Makola MC at [makolamc@edu.limpopo.gov.za](mailto:makolamc@edu.limpopo.gov.za) or

Mr Makgati DC at [makgatidc@edu.limpopo.gov.za](mailto:makgatidc@edu.limpopo.gov.za) [makgatidc@edu.limpopo.gov.za](mailto:makgatidc@edu.limpopo.gov.za)

## ANNEXURE F: PERMISSION APPROVAL LETTER



**LIMPOPO**  
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

### DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ref: 2/2/2    Enq: Mabogo MG    Tel No: 015 290 9365    E-mail: [MabogoMG@edu.limpopo.gov.za](mailto:MabogoMG@edu.limpopo.gov.za)

Ndwamato NM  
Box 3577  
THOHOYANDOU  
0950

#### RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

1. The above bears reference.
2. The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct research has been approved. Topic of the research proposal: **'EXPLORING VOCABULARY TEACHING COMPETENCIES OF GRADE 10 ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHERS OF THOHOYANDOU CLUSTER IN VHEMBE DISTRICT'**
3. The following conditions should be considered:
  - 3.1 The research should not have any financial implications for Limpopo Department of Education.
  - 3.2 Arrangements should be made with the Circuit Office and the School concerned.
  - 3.3 The conduct of research should not in anyhow disrupt the academic programs at the schools.
  - 3.4 The research should not be conducted during the time of Examinations especially the fourth term.
  - 3.5 During the study, applicable research ethics should be adhered to; in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).
  - 3.6 Upon completion of research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with the Department.

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: NNDWAMATO NM

CONFIDENTIAL

Cnr. 113 Biccard & 24 Excelsior Street, POLOKWANE, 0700, Private Bag X9489, POLOKWANE, 0700  
Tel: 015 290 7600, Fax: 015 297 6920/4220/4494

*The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!*

## ANNEXURE G: CONSENT FORM

### CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I, ....., hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, (*Nndwamato Ndivhudzannyi Michael*), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: \_\_,
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (*Participant Letter of Information*) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerized system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

Full Name of Participant	Date	Time	Signature
--------------------------	------	------	-----------

I, ... ..

(*Nndwamato Ndivhudzannyi Michael*) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Full Name of Researcher

..... Date..... Signature.....

Full Name of Witness (If applicable)

..... Date ..... Signature.....

Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)

..... Date..... Signature.....

## **ANNEXURE H: SUMMARY OF TRANSCRIPTIONS**

**Thank you in your own view do you think that vocabulary is a worthwhile exercise and if you hold that view what are the reasons that make you to hold that view**

### **Participant 1:**

I think it is because I consider vocabulary as an important aspect we are born without knowing the language but the only thing that made us to know the language is through this activity of vocabulary now I think that learners should be taught in order for learners to know this language they should know the vocabulary thereof

### **Participant 2:**

Thank you say vocabulary teaching is very important it is worthwhile because it helps learners to understand the content we deal with vocabulary before deal with any lesson it is understanding the learners to understand the lesson better thank you

### **Participant 3:**

I think vocabulary teaching is very important especially to learners because that is the only area where in you teach them and they understand the concept better because in each they will be learning two kinds of speech different type parts of speech so all-in-all we have to teach them so that at the end of the day they have to understand content not so they also have to know how to express themselves in a better way so I feel personally it's worthwhile

### **Participant 4:**

Thank you teaching vocabulary is a worthwhile experience because it allows learners to develop vocabulary which will help in their studies daily and this concerns all the subject vocabulary will help them develop an understanding in all areas of their studies

### **Participant 5:**

I think it is worthwhile learners attempt to responding to comprehensive questions reviews leg off understanding a lack of vocabulary is a lack of language competencies so I think vocabulary teaching is of paramount importance

### **Participant 6:**

my response to your first question is as follows vocabulary teaching is paramount and language learning because it has involved aspect like spelling pronunciation and general language use so it is important for learners to get to learn and master new

words in order to enrich their vocabulary it is indeed a worthwhile exercise in that learners need vocabulary to express themselves effectively it is also very important in learning to read with understanding that is to comprehend whatever one is reading

**Participant 7:**

Vocabulary teaching is by far important while teaching foreign language like when teaching English in most public schools in South Africa learners tend to understand a variety of things if they're capacitated with the necessary vocabulary it is also important for skills development that is listening skills speaking writing spelling and even pronunciation

**Participant 8:**

It is a necessary aspect of language teaching. It is essential because if you expand your vocabulary, your communication skills improve.

**Participant 9:**

Vocabulary teaching is worthwhile, it enables learners to express themselves precisely. it also gives them good command of the language.

**Participant 10:**

I don't think that vocabulary teaching in fact I think that it's important it is important because as we are teaching through the content of our language of our subject They are some of the words that are difficult so I think we need as well 2 explain those words to the learner so that the learners as well can understand not only to get the information about the content but also to know what those words mean by so doing it helps them to understand more on what they are taught I think it is very important

**Alright and how often do you incorporate vocabulary teaching in your English language teaching?**

**Participant 1:**

Always I always incorporate vocabulary whenever I teach in the classroom for example if I'm busy with the Reading I also consider vocabulary for example before I could even let the learners to read we have to check the difficult words that are there then we have to explain them that's the fact about vocabulary

**Participant 2:**



In each and every lesson before starting with any lesson we first deal with vocabulary we identify difficult words we explain it we use dictionaries to get there meaning of those difficult words so we teach vocabulary every time we and each and every lesson

**Participant 3:**

I cannot say how often because English as a language in every aspect on its own everything that you did like for example if you're teaching poetry or automatically you will incorporate if you're teaching essays you will incorporate so it means throughout whatever you do with the learner you automatically incorporate you cannot separate because for example you said today I'm going to teach literature it's all language it's just that it's in different content but incorporation is there all the time

**Participant 4:**

I incorporate it regularly in my teaching to make my learner's understand even when I'm teaching paper 1 if I'm teaching comprehensive passage they will be meaning of the words that I will first explain to my learner's so that when we deal with the text it won't be difficult for them

**Participant 5:**

I seldom do so our learners grasp of language aspect covered in the pacesetter I can't be satisfied that my learners have mastered that which I have taught their commitment leaves much to be desired so I have to repeatedly go back to what I have covered and this does not present me with much time to focus on vocabulary teaching

**Participant 6:**

I incorporate vocabulary teaching in all my English language teaching whenever I encounter a new word and would like learners to know more about the word and also to be able to use the word in context

**Participant 7:**

Most English lessons if not all should include some form of vocabulary teaching and should learners should get new word or words everyday there word banks should be serviced every day the issue of integrating or integration and learning should sufficed

**Participant 8:**

Most of the time. e.g. If a new word is encountered/ if a better word could have been used when answering a question.

**Participant 9:**

Teaching vocabulary is extremely important in learning a language, and should be incorporated in each and every lesson. In other words, it should be part and parcel of each lesson.

**Participant 10:**

I don't do it often I don't do it often you don't do it often I don't do it often alright only when the learners are asking what are the meaning of some of the words that is when I tried to explain to them not always alright yes which methods or strategies do you find more effective in teaching vocabulary I don't even know if they are these strategies that are there in place to be used because I don't even teach this vocabulary alright the thing is we only explain those words when we are teaching the Aspect that are prescribed to be told then when we come across those words that are difficult we tried to explain them to the learners and request to and request them to go look for the meanings themselves we don't teach vocabulary because it's not pass and parcel of the prescribed work to be done in a year

**Alright which methods or strategies do you use to employee or do you find effective when you're teaching vocabulary**

**Participant 1:**

Different methods the one that I use for example I could give a word to learners write it down on the chalkboard then I will ask learners to write a sentence using the words that I have given them and the other thing is that I will have to let the learners explain the meaning of the word that is given to them

**Participant 2:**

When teaching vocabulary I used the strategy sometimes I paste the words on the walls so that learners can pick each word and define it sometimes I write the difficult words on the board and ask learners to use the dictionaries to find meanings of those words thank you

**Participant 3:**

Yes for an example I personally when I teach the parts of speech I don't I don't teach them like in a single words like today I'm going to teach you direct and indirect speech no I don't do it like that what I do I will go around and look for newspapers cartoons whatever I come across and I know that when I go through it I can teach them three or four parts of speech at the same time because teaching them one-to-one it's so

confusing and it makes learners to comprehend in a very difficult way so with me to make things easier we use things like newspapers then we underline I will read for them then I will say to them let's identify parts of speech let's identify potential speech let's identify this form one passage I can take them four or five and it's easier that way

**Participant 4:**

I prefer teaching vocabulary before handling the text that is the strategy that I use because I think that's the easiest so that I'll be on the same page with my learners when we deal with the text so that's how I deal with it

**Participant 5:**

you can do this by giving learners a task to provide antonyms or synonyms of words as they do so their vocabulary will grow then they can be required to use the word in sentences of their own to for their understanding other strategies is for learners to read a text and report on what they would have read

**Participant 6:**

my response would be that I often model the skills required to master vocabulary which are saying the new words carefully when the learners are listening and allow the learners to repeat after me I sometimes write it down and I sometimes let the learner's write down the word and use the words in context I also allow the learners to use the words in sentences of their own they can also write the new words in their vocabulary books and they can also look up words in the dictionary

**Participant 7:**

Introduction of a new word the work should be context-based learners should be taught how to pronounce it let them get used to it spelling and meaning this should be aligned with the scenario in hand or it should be context-based fun activity should also help learners to quickly understand the work the word sorry visual aids demonstrating meanings should also be used why should also let them use the word in sentences or in a sentence a simple sentence for that matter will suffice it is very much important to let learners have the skills to use dictionaries in searching for meanings in short dictionary usage in searching for a meaning is also very much important

**Participant 8:**

Positive feedback when an exact/appropriate word has been used. (Stickers) Reading good/ exemplary learners' work. Random request of synonyms of a word we have just used.

**Participant 9:**

Learners should be engaged in reading out. They should also be taught synonyms and antonyms of different words.

**Participant 10:**

No

**Are there some challenges that you encounter as a teacher as you are teaching vocabulary and if so, how do address such?**

**Participant 1:**

As an English teacher you'll find sometimes the learners need to direct translation you may not always know how to say this using their own language sometimes you'll find challenges if ever I don't become careful learners will find out that English is very difficult and he became bald so I must make sure that when I teach them I must first find out what is it that they know so that they should be motivated those are some of the challenges that I encounter

**Participant 2:**

As you can see that we are in deep rural in this area, there is a challenge of language barrier. It is a serious challenge

**Participant 3:**

Honestly speaking I find it difficult to teach grammar especially grammar because of the environment that I'm teaching in some children are very difficult to program let's say 80% of the learners they don't understand English as it is so if you just teach them plainly you'll find that they're confused they don't even understand you will and you will see it especially in comprehension when we teach them comprehension when you Mark most of them they got lower marks to show that they didn't understand the comprehension whilst they don't understand automatically they are not going to answer the questions English is a barrier a serious barrier when they come this side really to write a name and surname is still difficult to some of the learners so it's a challenge because when you teach them they will just look at you will see from their eyes that they're not hearing anything so it's a big challenge barrier barrier here it's a very challenging issue

**Participant 4:**

Firstly I can say that sometimes you can explain words to the learners and the challenge is that it needs practise with the new word that the learner has learnt you find that learners don't practice and they end up forgetting the word and secondly

sometimes you can learners a text beforehand and you ask learners to go and find out the meanings of the words from the dictionary only to find that there are only a few learners who have got dictionaries in the class and this becomes difficult for us so I think that this are some of the things contributing for our learners vocabulary to be low

**Participant 5:**

the challenges are encounter lack of time, time is never enough and learners' lack of an emphasis and towards learning in general, so this frustrates the educator

**Participant 6:**

Showing learners the different forms of words. The written form of the word is different from the spoken word. Another challenge is that learners need to learn a large volume of vocabulary.

**Participant 7:**

Challenges are mainly encountered as learners lazy to do their work parental involvement is minimal hands at their respective homes these learners mainly use their first language or their home language while talking to their parents and their siblings most learners are also shy to express themselves through the Queen's language or using the Queen's language there is the issue of language across the curriculum in our schools which is mostly not adhered to in activities given

**Participant 8:**

In all exercises they write, because vocabulary is part of language. Be it a letter, poem or general language exercises, it is possible to track improvement or lack thereof.

**Participant 9:**

There is a challenges of SMS language which involves the use of cellphone. Learners cannot write correct spelling because of SMS language. Another challenge is that the culture of reading has faded away. Learners are no longer interested in reading. They spend most of their time, using their cellphones.

**Participant 10:**

Yes of course of course you'll find that when I go to discuss with my learner's I go there without a dictionary in handy so sometimes it's a little bit difficult because some of the words I really difficult for me as well as a teacher you'll find that I failed to explain some of the words.

**Alright, do you have any way of checking the progress in terms of vocabulary development of the learners?**

**Participant 1:**

I check the progress is through writing asking questions oral I can check by asking them to questions by letting them answer some questions that I've written on the board to write it at class works or even the formal test that we write they also indicate to us whether the learners.

**Participant 2:**

Yes, sometimes I ask learners to define these words without using a dictionary and I find that learners are able to give definitions of some words without dictionary by so doing I I see that my learners are progressing and their vocabulary is growing up thank you.

**Participant 3:**

The main thing that I do is through test through class Works you and usually especially on the literature part after teaching them I'll give them tasks which will require them to look for 3 meanings of 3 words from your dictionary then the following day we go through them like that that's how I do that I checked the progress through but generally true more exercises.

**Participant 4:**

unfortunately we don't have any way that has been said it's only to find that sometimes you give a learner a text and realise that their vocabulary is low we only realised that it seems the test was difficult for the learners due to lack of vocabulary so we don't have a set way

**Participant 5:**

No ... one usually realise is the level of learners vocabulary during formal assessment there is little time available to focus on vocabulary in recent years emphasis has shifted away from vocabulary teaching

**Participant 6:**

the responses as follows yes I do check on learners vocabulary development progress because that's very very important I sometimes ask them to give the meaning of words that they I've already learnt I'm also able to check progress when I'm assessing the creative writing test like for example essays transitional tax sometimes when they are speaking and also during reading

**Participant 7:**

taking learners vocabulary development can be done through language activities one may train them teach them this issue of using antonyms and synonyms learners should also be taught on how to answer text based activities mainly on set workbooks creative writing tests may also be used here and through that one may know the progress in vocabulary development

**Participant 8:**

Positive feedback when an exact/appropriate word has been used. (Stickers) Reading good/exemplary learners' work. Random request of synonyms of a word we have just used.

**Participant 9:**

Yes, through creative writing. Each learner will be given an essay to write. And it will be easier to identify the level of vocabulary for each learner. Besides that, learners will be engaged in oral. They will be given unprepared speech. so as they are presenting, as a teacher i will be able to evaluate their levels of vocabulary. by giving them open ended questions to answer in their own words will also help in identifying and checking their levels of vocabulary. And lastly reading aloud. Learners will be engaged in reading aloud and as their reading, then I'll be able to detect. Whether the vocabulary of the learner is appropriate or not appropriate.

**Participant 10:**

No.

**And that is also how you address them?**

**Participant 1:**

To address it... so to address it to give them courage to motivate them I heard them that they will make it then I give them the simple terms simple exercises which will boost their self-esteem so that they can know that they can do this

**Participant 2:**

You really have to work hard to make learners in this area to understand English thank you

**Participant 3:**

so in order for me to try and reach the level usually I ask my colleague because I know that it's his strength he helps me a lot on that one but other than that we tried to background them but because of how they were back grounded from primary level.

No, usually what I do other than my colleague sometimes we switch we teach I don't know how to put it we switch teachers I have my friends from other schools sometimes I will ask them that I'm having a challenge and the spot I will ask that teacher to come and teach that part for me here and also because there are some things that I know better than her then I will also go and teach something for her so we exchange so that both our learners could benefit and then other than that I have a tendency of I have all these classes I made a group of WhatsApp so any information that I come across I downloaded to them so at least it will reach to them so that they will enhance their knowledge that's usually how I do it we exchange teachers according to our circuit if I find things difficult I don't just sit and leave it as it is I will ask help from other colleagues to come and help me on that part no thank you very much ma'am for your time and for your honest ways of responding to the questions

**Participant 4:**

I do not always much that I can do about the problems, also because I may not have time to finish up what I am prescribed to cover.

**Participant 5:**

maybe the remedy is to motivate myself as an educator so that I can be able to motivate learners then give them as much work as possible with the hope that those attitudes would have been worn by my motivation will take the opportunity to expand the vocabulary I thank you.

**Participant 6:**

It is very important to teach spelling as well as pronunciation I also encourage dictionary use so that learners can learn the basics aspects of the language. For me I tried to be as patient as possible and I try not to bombard them learners with large volumes of vocabulary at a go I give them time allow them to practice and I also access them

**Participant 7:**

I used to let them be part of the party educators offering other learning areas must also be urged to use English across the curriculum I think those will be a helping hand in encountering maybe challenges experienced while trying to deal with this issue of vocabulary development

**Participant 8:**



A discovery that learners do not have the habit of working on their vocabulary. Incorporate vocabulary exercises when teaching poetry. Just drill its importance to learners at every opportune time.

**Participant 9:**

Then how to deal with this challenge. Promote the culture of reading amongst the learners. I will do this by narrating interesting stories to them, to capture their interests. And encourage learners who have read books to come and share with other learners. so other learners will follow suit, they will also be interested. They will go and read so that they can come and share with other learners. I will also emphasise the importance of formal language, that at all times they must strive to use formal language. Because this is the language that they are going to use, even after passing grade 12. This is the language of employment.

**Participant 10:**

I advise them to go look for the meaning of themselves and I go and check the meaning as the educator so that we meet the following day next or next lesson and see if we have found the answers or the meaning of those words, then we sit down and discuss with learners.

## ANNEXURE I: CERTIFICATE OF EDITING



Office: 0183892451

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Cell: 0729116600

Date: 2<sup>nd</sup> February, 2021

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

CERTIFICATE OF EDITING

I, **Muchativugwa Liberty Hove**, confirm and certify that I have read and edited the entire thesis, **Exploring vocabulary teaching competencies of Grade 10 English First Additional Language teachers of Thohoyandou Cluster in Vhembe District, by Ndivhudzannyi Michael Nndwamato**, Learner number: **9705128**, submitted to the **Department of English, School of Human and Social Sciences, University of Venda**, for the degree **Doctor of Philosophy in English**.

Ndivhudzannyi Michael Nndwamato was promoted by **Dr M. N. Lambani** and co-promoted by **Professor E. Klu**.

I hold a PhD in English Language and Literature in English and am qualified to edit such a thesis for cohesion and coherence. The views expressed herein, however, remain those of the researcher/s.

Yours sincerely



**Professor M.L. Hove (PhD, MA, PGDE, PGCE, BA Honours – English)**

