A STUDY OF THE TEACHING STRATEGIES UTILIZED BY ENGLISH COMMUNICATION SKILLS LECTURERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF VENDA TO TEACH DISCIPLINE-SPECIFIC VOCABULARY

A

study conducted

by

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in

English

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work that I have not previously in its entirety or part submitted it at any university for a degree. All referenced material contained herein have been dully acknowledged.

Signature:..... Date: 09-09-2014

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my husband Silas,
my sons, Mulisa and Atshilaho,
my daughter, Edzani
and my mother, Khangweni Tshavhungwe Mushanganyisi
for their encouragement, love, support and understanding.

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ABSTRACT

The importance of vocabulary to the learning and teaching environment is emphasized in the literature but exactly how this takes place is a subject of much debate. There are many teaching strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary, the question is which are the most suitable to be used in a given situation?

This study looks at whether or not English Communication Skills lecturers at the University of Venda are aware of the teaching strategies and whether or not the lecturers utilize appropriate teaching strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary. The study is premised on the basis that ECS lecturers are not up to date with vocabulary teaching strategies, hence do not necessarily evaluate if the strategies they use are beneficial to their students.

This study is an action research which is carried out in a qualitative paradigm. It gives me the opportunity to reflect on an aspect of my work, which in this case, is teaching discipline-specific vocabulary in my ECS classes.

Literature shows that there are various discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies, however, the study revealed that ECS lecturers are not adequately cognizant of all of them. This could suggest that they do not find them suitable or appropriate for their discipline-specific modules or they lack relevant resources such as discipline-specific dictionaries to implement them.

The study recommends that in-service training workshops be organized for ECS discipline-specific lecturers to equip and empower them on other vocabulary teaching strategies they are not aware of. There should also be seminars where subject-specialists from each school and ECS discipline-specific lecturers meet to discuss latest trends and development within the discipline. ECS lecturers should also devise strategies for evaluating the effectiveness of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies they use.

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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces conceptualisation of the study, the research problem, the setting of the study, research questions, researcher's presuppositions, aim of the study, a brief review of literature, a general outline of the research methodology to be used and data collection methods. The chapter further outlines the significance of the study, delimitations of the study, ethical considerations, the researcher's profile and the conclusion.

2. CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

According to Cook Hirai, Borrego, Garza, Kloock, Wakelee and Murray (2010:45), vocabulary is a basis for the development of language. They further point out that each academic discipline has its own register and its own vocabulary, so developing vocabulary within the respective discipline is fundamental to the students.

The acquisition of adequate and appropriate vocabulary is central to all learning situations. This is especially true when it comes to effective communication. For instance, airline pilots cannot land their airliners successfully if they do not use an acceptable vocabulary to communicate with an airport's control tower or a lawyer would be charged with contempt of court if s/he does not use the acceptable legalese in court. Language practitioners and teachers are therefore required to teach and thus equip their students with the necessary vocabulary of their various disciplines. To achieve this aim, most tertiary institutions have academic support programmes in place to help students and the University of Venda (Univen) is no exception to this. Thus, an academic literacies course, named English Communication Skills (ECS), is in place to help students acquire appropriate general and discipline-specific vocabulary amongst other things.

English Communication Skills (ECS) is a compulsory course for all first year students in their respective disciplines or fields of study at the University of Venda. It "is a language-oriented and study skills course designed to help first-year students cope

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with university studies and everyday communication in English ... also focuses on basic computer literacy" (Department of English Handbook, 2010:7).

ECS comprises two modules. A generic module is offered four times per week per group in the first semester and a school specific module in the second semester. The first semester module, ECS 1541 "is a core module and must be taken by all first entering students from all schools enrolling for the first time, but also by those from other year groups who are repeating English Language Practical (ELP) or ECS" (Department of English Handbook, 2010:2).

In the second semester, students choose an elective module which is discipline-specific, that is, ECS 1641 for Human and Social Sciences, ECS 1642 for Education, ECS 1643 for Business and Management Sciences, ECS 1644 for Law, ECS 1645 for Mathematics and Natural Sciences and ECS 1646 for Environmental and Health Sciences (Department of English Handbook, 2010:3). It is this second semester module which is the focus of this study as this is where students are expected to be introduced to the vocabulary of their specific discipline.

3. THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

It is a disturbing situation that even when students have passed ECS, they seem unable to communicate effectively, let alone, use the appropriate vocabulary of their specific disciplines. For students to perform to their maximum in their fields of specialisation, they have to be familiar with and actually use the appropriate and acceptable vocabulary of their particular discipline.

4. THE SETTING OF THE RESEARCH

The study takes place at the University of Venda which is situated at Vhembe District of the Limpopo Province (see Chapter Three for a detailed description of the research site).

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5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question of the study is **Which vocabulary teaching strategies are utilized by ECS lecturers for their discipline-specific modules?**

The following sub-questions are addressed theoretically and/or empirically.

1) Are ECS lecturers at Univen aware of vocabulary teaching strategies?
2) Which of the vocabulary teaching strategies are popular with the ECS lecturers?
3) How useful to the students are the strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary the lecturers apply in class?

These questions will be addressed in the empirical study and the findings be analysed by arguing from the literature.

6. RESEARCHER'S PRESUPPOSITIONS

The following statements reflect my views regarding this study:

1) ECS lecturers are not adequately aware of the various discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies.
2) ECS lecturers do not use appropriate discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies in their classes.
3) ECS lecturers do not evaluate if the strategies they use are beneficial to their students or not.

7. AIM OF THE STUDY

It is the overall aim of this study to carry out an investigation on whether or not ECS lecturers at Univen utilize appropriate strategies to teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary. This is crucial as students are expected to acquire adequate vocabulary in their various disciplines if they are to be relevant and competitive in their professional lives.

8. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to McCarthy (1988), vocabulary forms the biggest part of meaning of any language, and acquiring vocabulary is the biggest problem for most learners.

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Learning new vocabulary items has always been challenging for learners (Nemati, 2009). Vocabulary learning strategies enable learners to take more control of their own learning so that students can take more responsibility for their studies (Nation, 2001; Scharle & Szabo', 2000).

Herrell and Jordan (2012:112) point out that there is a strong link between vocabulary deficiencies and academic failure. In order to start learners on the right track towards building a rich store of vocabulary knowledge, word study must begin as early as possible.

Seligmann (2012:82) refers to discipline-specific words as those words that have little or no meaning outside a given academic subject. According to Vacca, Vacca and Mraz (2014:238), technical vocabulary are words unique to a content area are often unfamiliar to students, but are particularly important for disciplinary thinking and learning. The words in technical vocabulary have usage and application only in a particular subject matter field. This means that technical vocabulary is discipline-specific vocabulary.

Many Mathematics words have non-mathematical meanings in everyday language; such as, degree, expression, face, gross, mean and others. Students may be aware of these words in their general vocabulary and recognize various meanings of the words in familiar contexts; however they must also acquire the mathematical meanings for the terms. Many Mathematics words are formed with Greek and Latin roots; such as, bisect, triangle, quadrangle, hexagon, semicircle and others. Visuals and symbols are other aspects of mathematics vocabulary that students must master (Irwin, 2008).

Fan (2003) argues that vocabulary is generally given little emphasis in the university curriculum in Asian countries and this seems to be the situation in South Africa as well. That is, generally speaking, the emphasis on English teaching in most countries is on the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and comprehension. Therefore, vocabulary teaching in many classrooms is largely incidental (Fan, 2003;

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Catalan, 2003). Good vocabulary instruction has a strong effect on the learners' ability to learn words (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010).

For vocabulary to be acquired, it has to be taught and learnt like any other language skill. Hamzah, Kafipour and Abdullah (2009:42) put forth a possibility of viewing vocabulary learning strategies from three different perspectives. Firstly and very broadly, vocabulary learning strategy could be any action taken by the learner to aid the learning process of new vocabulary, secondly, it could be related to only such actions which improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning, and thirdly a vocabulary learning strategy might be connected to conscious (as opposed to unconscious) actions taken by the learner in order to study new words.

Catalan (2003) points out that more often, finding out about new vocabulary items is left to the discretion of learners, and they are encouraged to turn to dictionaries to look up meanings of words. Vocabulary learning is, therefore, largely dependent on the efforts of the teachers and learners. This approach to vocabulary learning may lead to a general inadequacy in vocabulary knowledge among university students. This inadequacy has been repeatedly pointed out by researchers and lecturers as one of the factors in the unsatisfactory performance of students in their examinations (Fan, 2003). Fan further maintains that it is high time for teachers to look into ways to enhance vocabulary knowledge in university students.

Mastering a new word involves such abilities as form recognition (pronunciation, spelling, derivations) and knowing its dictionary meaning. Knowledge of its specific grammatical properties, however, as well as the ability to use the word appropriately in certain contexts, and its functions (frequency and appropriateness), are all part of mastery process (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994; Nation, 1990). Teachers need to teach not only the meaning of words, but also how language is used, or the meta-cognitive strategies for comprehending new words (Cook Hirai, Borrego, Garza, Kloock, Wakelee & Murray, 2010).

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Simpson (1987) suggests that conceptual understanding of content area vocabulary words should involve students in the following:

1. Recognizing and generating the critical attributes, characteristics, examples, and non-examples of a concept.
2. Sensing and inferring relationships between concepts and their own background information or prior knowledge.
3. Discovering comparisons and contrasts between different concepts to determine meaningful similarities and differences.
4. Determining super ordinate and subordinate concepts related to the targeted concept.
5. Creating new examples and applications for the targeted concept.

Many words in the academic vocabulary of Mathematics, Science, Literature and Social Studies are derived from Latin and Greek roots. As students become familiar with the meanings of word bases and affixes, their knowledge of a word's multiple meanings and usages expands (Irwin, 2008).

Vocabulary words are at the heart of learning in content areas because new terms represent the concepts being taught... so students need to acquire a thorough understanding of terms in order to build a foundation for further learning about a particular topic (Harmon, Wood and Hedrick, 2006). Understanding the meanings of terms related to new concepts in content areas is crucial to success in learning (Irwin, 2008).

Scholars have been making calls for helping learners improve the way they learn about learning vocabulary (Read, 2000; Schmitt 1997; Gu & Johnson, 1996; Cunningsworth, 1995). The amount of Second Language (L2) vocabulary knowledge can serve as a predictor of L2 learners' proficiency (Zareva, Schwanenflugel, & Nikolova, 2005; Meara & Fitzpatrick, 1999). L2 acquisition depends crucially on the development of a strong vocabulary (Komol & Sripetpun, 2011:2).

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Strategies are techniques or methods used for learning vocabulary. They include ways to learn words, to understand them in texts, and to maintain them in the learners' memories. These strategies need to be taught, regularly reviewed or used in class in order for them to become a normal part of a language learning routine (Coxhead, 2006:40).

The content areas provide a context in which students can realize the utility of word leaning strategies they have studied in language arts classes, for example, base words, prefixes and suffixes are often taught in language arts, however, the practical use of this knowledge comes into play most prominently in mathematics and science classes (Irwin, 2008).

According to Oxford and Nyikos (1989: 291), strategies foster "learner autonomy, independence, and self direction." It implies that the learners independently are able to use and apply the knowledge of the learning strategies they have and this simplifies their learning of new vocabulary. The steps where the learners take responsibility for their learning are emphasized by Gairns and Redman (1986) pointing out that learners should be more responsible for their learning and pay greater attention to individual needs.

Equally important, Oxford and Scarcella (1994) advocate the provision of systemic vocabulary instruction to let the learner master specific strategies to acquire words even outside their classes. Sokmen (1997) argues for helping learners learn how to acquire vocabulary on their own, noting that "it is not possible for learners to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom".

Nation (2001), in discussing vocabulary learning strategies posits that a strategy would need to a) involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from; b) be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn; c) require knowledge and benefit from training; and d) increase the sufficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use.

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Different ways of learning vocabulary are usually utilized by the learners such as using flash cards, notebook, referring to bilingual and monolingual dictionaries to decipher meaning, or using some synonyms and antonyms to name but a few. There are two different ways of learning vocabulary, that is, learning vocabularies from context or 'incidental learning' and 'direct learning'. Incidental learning is also called extensive reading, which is useful for vocabulary growth (Nemati, 2009; Nation, 2001).

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990:1), vocabulary learning strategies are "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information". They further propose three types of learning strategies: metacognitive, cognitive, and social/ affective strategies. Gu and Johnson (1996) established two main dimensions of vocabulary learning strategies for their study: metacognitive regulation and cognitive strategies which cover six subcategories namely, guessing, using a dictionary, note taking, rehearsal, encoding, and activating.

Cunningsworth (1995) regards helping learners develop their own vocabulary learning strategies as "a powerful approach", which can be based on sensitization to the systems of vocabulary learning, encouragement of sound dictionary skills and reflection of effective learning techniques.

Furthermore, Nemati (2009) posits that memory strategies fall into four sets of "creating mental linkage", "applying image and sound", "reviewing well", and "employing actions". Grouping refers to classifying language material into meaning context to make the material easy to remember by reducing the number of discrete elements.

According to Fan (2003:223), the vocabulary learning strategies are related to the five steps in the process of learning vocabulary in a foreign language as identified by Brown and Payne (1994), namely a) having sources for encountering new words, b) getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new

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word, c) learning the meaning of the words, d) making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meaning of the words, and e) using the words.

Schmitt (2000) suggests two dimensions of L2 vocabulary learning strategies: discovery and consolidation strategies which distinguish the strategies that the learners use to determine the meaning of new words when they first encounter them from the ones they use to consolidate meanings when they encounter the words again. The former refers to determination and social strategies whereas the latter includes social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990). In meta-cognitive strategies learners are able to put the word into operation. When learners have acquired vocabulary and are able to speak and write it with the appropriate register they have mastered new academic language (Cook Hirai et al, 2010). A detailed discussion of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies is presented in Chapter two.

9. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION METHODS

9.1 Action Research

This study is primarily an action research using observation, questionnaire and interview as the main means of data collection. Action research takes place in real situations and its focus is on solving real problems. The researcher studies "the problem systematically and ensures the intervention is informed by theoretical considerations" (O'Brien, 1998:3). In action research, "participants examine their own educational practice systematically and carefully... with the intent that the research will inform and change [their] practices in future" (Ferrance, 2000:1). This study is an action research because it gives me the opportunity to reflect on an aspect of my work, which in this case, is teaching ECS students discipline-specific vocabulary.

Action research is the application of fact finding to practical problem solving in a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it, involving the collaboration and cooperation of researchers, practitioners and laymen (Burns, 1990: 252). According to Vockell and Asher (1995: 10), action research refers to the

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practical application of the scientific method or other forms of discipline inquiry to the process of dealing with everyday problems. This study seeks to bring to light various teaching strategies which ECS lecturers can use to further equip their students in learning discipline-specific vocabulary.

9.2. Qualitative Research.

Qualitative research is a form of inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear, and understand. The researcher's interpretations cannot be separated from their own background, history, context, and prior understanding (Creswell, 2007). Dawson (2007: 15-16) points out that qualitative research explores attitudes, behaviour and experiences through such methods as interviews or focus groups. It attempts to get an in-depth opinion from participants.

9.3. Descriptive Research

Le Compte and Preissle (1993:39) point out that the aim of a descriptive research is to "examine events or phenomena ... characterise something as it is ... there is no manipulation of treatments or subjects, that is, the researcher takes things as they are". According to Merriam (2001:11), "descriptive" means that the end product is "a rich thick account of the phenomenon under study". This study seeks to describe the different teaching strategies ECS lecturers utilize to teach discipline-specific vocabulary.

9.4 Explanatory Research

Explanatory research is devoted to finding causal relationships among variables. It does so from theory-based expectations on how and why variables should be related. Hypotheses could be basic, that is, relationships exist or could be directional, that is, positive or negative (Malhotra & Grover, 1998). This study is explanatory as it seeks to explain how ECS lecturers should teach discipline-specific vocabulary learning strategies.

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9.5 Exploratory Research

The objective of exploratory research is to become more familiar with a topic (Kerlinger, 1986). This study is also exploratory in nature, seeking to explore and gain new insights and better understanding on how ECS lecturers teach discipline-specific vocabulary to their students.

9.6 DATA COLLECTION

The paradigm and the format of a study determine the nature of the data collection methods and how this is to be implemented. In this study, the methods of data collection and analysis focus mainly on verbal (interview) and iconic data (questionnaire). The data collection methods chosen to address the research questions are of micro-genetic nature and are directly influenced by the nature of the inquiry (see Chapter Three).

9.5.1 Interview

The research interview is described by Marshall and Rossman (1989:82) as "a conversation with a purpose". Kvale (1987:174) posits that the purpose of a research interview is to "gather descriptions of the life-word of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena". Thus, in this study, the interview was used to describe and create an understanding of how ECS lecturers at Univen teach discipline-specific vocabulary learning strategies. In fact, the interview served as a rich source of data as it provided access to the ECS lecturers' declarative or static knowledge about facts and principles that apply within the confines of the study. In conjunction with the questionnaire which is the other main data collection method used in this study, the structured interview serves to verify, establish and expand upon the information obtained from the respondents of the study.

9.5.2 Questionnaire

Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan and Townsend (2008: 29) define a questionnaire as a text that asks specific questions in a specific order. Questionnaires are defined as "a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondent in respect of a

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research project" and they are considered the "most generally used instruments of all" (Fouche, 1998:152). The questions on the questionnaire have to be "relevant to the topic and evenly distributed among the different aspects of the research question" (Sarantakos, 2005).

Dawson (2007:32) outlines three basic types of questionnaires, namely: close-ended questionnaires, open-ended questionnaires or a combination of both. This study uses a combination of both questionnaires, because the questionnaire used in this study includes both close and open-ended questions. The open-ended questionnaires help the respondents to freely explain in detail what the close-ended questionnaire is unable attain.

10. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

De Vos and Fouche (1998) describe data analysis as the breaking down of "data into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions". Data was coded, analysed and then interpreted to find answers to the research questions raised in the study. De Vos and Fouche (1998:203) further explain that to find answers one must first analyze the data and then interpret the results of the analysis. The analysis is largely presented in words. This phase is called data reduction. In the process of data reduction, a large amount of material, such as tape recordings of interviews, notes and responses to questionnaires, is reworked into a shorter and more manageable form. A commonly used method of data reduction is called content analysis. In content analysis, the material from a set of interviews is classified or broken up into themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). After the interpretation, conclusions were drawn from the analysed data.

11. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As indicated earlier, ECS is an academic support programme put in place to solve a specific problem, that is, to equip students with their academic literacy needs. Adequate, appropriate and accurate vocabulary acquisition is therefore very crucial for the success of the ECS students. The significance of the study therefore is that it is geared towards finding out if ECS lecturers are adequately aware of vocabulary

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teaching strategies and whether or not the lecturers use these strategies to the benefit of their students.

12. DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study is limited to finding out the strategies used by ECS lecturers at Univen to teach discipline-specific vocabulary. Therefore, the ultimate results thereof are not intended to be generalized.

13. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations relate to moral values, professional standards and conduct that need to be considered to ensure transparency, trustworthiness and confidentiality. Strydom (1998:24) identifies the following as ethical issues in social research: harm to experimental respondents, informed consent, deception of respondents, violation of privacy, actions and competence of researchers, cooperation with collaborators, release or publication of the findings and the restoration of respondents. To ensure ethical considerations, the participants signed the consent forms which indicated the participants' free-will participation, protection of their privacy and anonymity and that the study is not meant for their personal gain. As the researcher, I honour and uphold the professional standards and conducts to ensure transparency, trustworthiness and confidentiality in order not to jeopardise the study and also bring Univen into disrepute.

14. RESEARCHER'S PROFILE

The researcher received her early education in Limpopo, South Africa. She matriculated in 1989 at Raluvhimba Secondary School.

Qualification

From the University of Venda the researcher received BA degree in 1993, BA Hons (English) in 1994, University Education Diploma (UED) in 1995 and ACE-SML (School Management and Leadership) in 2010.

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From Tshwane University of Technology the researcher received MTECH (Education) in 2008.

Work life

From 1995 to 1997 the researcher worked as a Junior Lecturer in the English Department at the University of Venda. In 1998 she joined the Department of Education- Liivha Combined School, a former Model C school in Thohoyandou as an educator. From Liivha Combined School, the researcher then became the school principal of Pfukoni Primary School in the year 2000.

Within the period the researcher has been a School Principal, she received several awards, the outstanding one being the award of Excellence in Primary School Leadership in National Teaching Awards at Provincial Level (Limpopo Province) in 2013. From 2009 to date the researcher has been serving as a part time Lecturer in the English Department at the University of Venda.

15. GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter One outlines the conceptualisation of the study. It further gives a brief indication of the research problem, research setting, research questions, assumptions and the aim of the study.

Chapter Two presents an extensive review of literature. Local and international literature has been reviewed in relation to vocabulary teaching strategies.

The focus of **Chapter Three** rests on the Research Design and Methodology whereas **Chapter Four** focuses on Data Collection and Data Analysis.

Chapter Five dwells on the Presentation of findings, Recommendations and Conclusions.

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16. CONCLUSION

This chapter outlined conceptualisation of the study, the research problem, the setting of the research, research questions, the researcher's suppositions, and aims of the study. It further gave a brief outline of literature review, research methodology, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, ethical consideration, researcher's profile and the overview of chapters. Chapter Two, gives a detailed outline of literature review.

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides vocabulary definition, importance of vocabulary, different types of vocabulary, methods for increasing a person's vocabulary, vocabulary teaching strategies for discipline–specific English (Content Vocabulary), vocabulary teaching strategies used to develop Academic vocabulary, Support vocabulary including Content vocabulary and the importance of evaluating discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies.

2.2 WHAT IS A VOCABULARY?

Vocabulary is about words- where they come from, how they change, how they relate to each other and how we use them to view the world (Bauer, 1998). According to Seligmann (2012:81), words are the foundation of a language. Without an understanding of general and specific word meanings, students often find it difficult to study at college or university.

Vocabulary refers to all the words that make up a language (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013). Vocabulary is a central part of language. The more words students know well and can use, the more meaning they can communicate in a wide variety of circumstances (Coxhead, 2006). Haynes and Zacarian (2010) refer to vocabulary as the Terms, Words, Idioms, and Phrases (TWIPs) which needs to be learnt and used. Vocabulary refers to words that are used in speech and in print to communicate (National Institute for Literacy, 2010; Denton, Vaughn, Wexler, Bryan & Reed, 2012).

Vocabulary can be categorized into academic vocabulary, content vocabulary and support vocabulary. The focus of this study is on content vocabulary. According to Hollingsworth and Ybarra (2013: 68), Content Vocabulary is the discipline- specific vocabulary unique to a given lesson. Content vocabulary includes words that are

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specific to a given subject area. These words are rarely used outside of their content areas. Content Vocabulary for Language of Arts includes words such as character, plot, theme, and soliloquy. Mathematics Content Vocabulary includes words such as place value, fraction, linear inequality, intercept and quadratic equation. Science Content Vocabulary includes herbivore, solar system, meiosis and photosynthesis (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013).

According to McCarthy (1992:3) when people speak of the vocabulary of a language they are speaking primarily, but not exclusively, of the *words* of that language. Studying how words are formed offers one way of classifying vocabulary for teaching and learning purposes, for example, presenting together words that are alike in structure, though not necessarily in meaning, such as derived adjectives ending in "-al", for example, "brutal", "frontal", and "horizontal". This is not, of course, the only way of organizing words in some cases, especially where small, manageable sets of words with morphemic similarities can be isolated. Most teachers already do this with irregular verbs that follow a certain pattern, for example "drink", "drank", "drunk"; "ring", "rang", "rung".

2.3 IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY

Herrell and Jordan (2012:112) state that there is a strong link between vocabulary deficiencies and academic failure. In order to start learners on the right track towards the building of a rich store of vocabulary knowledge, word study must begin as early as possible. Word usage within language indicates metalinguistic awareness, which ultimately affects academic achievement (Nagy & Scott, 2000).

McCarthy (1988) argues that vocabulary forms the biggest part of the meaning of any language, and acquiring vocabulary is the biggest problem for most learners. Having a good vocabulary means knowing a lot of words. Many language learners have problems expressing themselves not because their grammar is weak but because they have a limited vocabulary. Since we can never teach learners all the words they will need, even if we could predict these, they have to be shown how to extend their word–stock systematically through their own efforts (McGrath, 2002).

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The words of language convey the essence of our thoughts, ideas, musings and emotions. Having a command of a language and specifically the vocabulary within that language puts power in the hands of learners. A strong vocabulary equips people to actively participate in society as educated citizens and consumers (Richardson, Morgan & Fleener, 2009).

Vocabulary is very important for literacy development, since it is impossible to understand what one reads unless s/he understands almost all of the words. The key seems to be explicit teaching of vocabulary words using instruction that goes beyond the traditional practice of giving a definition and illustrating with a sentence. Learners certainly need definitions and illustrative sentences, but they also need exposure to words in different contexts and opportunities to use them in different ways, what might be characterized as "rich" or "thick" instruction (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010).

There is now a general measure of agreement that "knowing" a word involves knowing its spoken and written contexts of use; its patterns with words of related meaning as well as with its collocational partners; its syntactic, pragmatic and discoursal patterns. It means knowing it actively and productively as well as receptively. Such understandings have clear implications for vocabulary teaching (Carter & Nunan, 2001).

Vocabulary knowledge is the single most important area of second language competence regarding academic achievement (Jordan, 1997). Developing students' vocabulary cannot be left to incidental experiences across the curriculum. Direct explicit vocabulary instruction is necessary for all students and provides additional benefits for students who struggle and those who are learning English (Irwin, 2008).

Learning English vocabulary is one of the most crucial tasks for students, for without knowledge of words specific to the domain, they may experience failure at school (Graves, 2007).

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2.4 TYPES OF VOCABULARY

There are two distinct vocabularies, namely, passive vocabulary and active vocabulary. Passive vocabulary contains words that one understands when they are used by others whereas active vocabulary contains words that one understands well enough to use when one speaks and writes (Flower, Sitko, Coffey, Gelsinger, Henderson, Jaeger, Kingsbury, Lawrence, Lawson, Ross, Pelletier, Salchert, Theibert, & Wells, 1989). According to Bauer (1998: 11), passive vocabulary comprises the words one recognises; active vocabulary comprises words one uses. Oral vocabulary refers to words that are recognised and used in speaking; aural vocabulary refers to a collection of words a student understands when listening to others speak and print vocabulary refers to words used in reading and writing (National Institute for Literacy, 2010).

Each of those vocabularies grows over time. A word enters a person's passive vocabulary when he/she first encounters it in the speech or written work of others. Once he/she learns its meaning, the new word becomes part of his/her passive vocabulary- he/she recognises and understands it in context but does not yet use it.

Eventually, when the word becomes familiar, it enters into a person's active vocabulary and begins to appear in their speech. Developing a personal programme for vocabulary development will allow a person to take charge of this process.

With a well-developed vocabulary one gains precision in expressing oneself. A person develops a degree of sophistication in the use of language that will benefit them in job and college interviews (Flower *et al.*, 1989).

2.5 METHODS FOR INCREASING VOCABULARY

- Use new words

To really own a word, not only must a person possess an elaborative understanding of it, but must also be able to use it freely in appropriate contexts (Brozo & Simpson, 1999). Once a person has discovered a new word and researched its meaning, s/he tries to work the word into his/her speech and writing as soon as possible. A rule of

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thumb is that a person uses a word twice; it is his/hers. With practice, good vocabulary skills can be developed through developing curiosity about words. Instead of passing over an unfamiliar word in a person's reading, or ignoring a new word a person hears on the evening news, a person needs to jot it in a special section in a journal. This list that a person collects becomes the basis for personal programme of vocabulary improvement. Also a person needs to take the opportunity to explore new words that one discovers while using a thesaurus (Flower *et al.*, 1989).

❖ Set goals

The list of new words that a person gathers in his/her journal will only be the beginning for his/her personal improvement plan. In addition, a person should set a goal of learning a specific number of new words in a set time period. S/he should remember to set reasonable goals – perhaps learning two new words a day – or/he may not continue with his/her plan (Flower *et al.*, 1989). Students should be encouraged to use additive approaches and generative approaches to expand their word knowledge independently. Additive approaches are word specific and emphasize the learning of a predetermined set of words usually taught in lists, whereas generative approaches emphasize vocabulary learning strategies that permit students to increase their vocabulary independently (Brozo & Simpson, 1999).

❖ Make a plan

A person should establish a method for acquiring and practising new words. S/he might begin with the list of words for vocabulary study. In addition, s/he should browse through books on vocabulary development available in the library and in book stores. S/he should pay particular attention to books specifically designed to help him/her with the vocabulary portions of the college entrance examinations. S/he should build a strategy for practice into his/her vocabulary improvement plan. S/he may wish to write new words on index cards so that s/he can review them at free moments, or s/he might record new words on tape to listen to and review (Flower *et al.*, 1989).

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❖ Extend the plan

Word games and crossword puzzles are pleasurable, leisure activities that will help a person build and review his/her personal vocabulary (Flower *et al.*, 1989)

There are two schools of thought on vocabulary development. One states that vocabulary should be taught implicitly. The other states that it should be taught explicitly. The implicit vocabulary development approach assumes that learners learn vocabulary by exposure, mainly through independent reading. The logic behind this idea is that the number of words an average adult recognizes is too large to have been taught, so it must have been picked up through reading or conversing with others (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013). However, according to Carter & Nunan (2001), vocabulary development is more likely to be mainly implicit or incidental. According to Richardson, Morgan and Fleener (2009:293), incidental vocabulary development occurs through conversation, word play, exposure to spoken words from a variety of sources and reading. Naive understandings may occur until explicit and intentional instruction clarifies and realigns faulty reasoning. It means that it is important to purposefully develop ones vocabulary.

Making time to develop full word knowledge for intentional vocabulary development for depth and breadth of concepts understanding has proven beneficial (Francis & Simpson, 2003; Nagy & Scott, 2000). Francis and Simpson further point out that when teachers engage students in explicit discussions identifying synonyms, antonyms, connotations and nuances of language, students are helped to clarify misunderstandings and are redirected to improve their reading comprehension. The National Institute for Literacy (2010:25) supports the use of direct, explicit and systematic instruction for teaching vocabulary. It is therefore important for learners to be exposed to a lot of reading for their vocabulary to broaden. As for explicit vocabulary development, teachers need to explicitly teach learners the strategies to work on and grow their vocabulary and discipline specific vocabulary in particular, hence of this study.

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For vocabulary to be acquired, it has to be taught and learnt like any other language skill. Hamzah, Kafipour, and Abdullah (2009:42), put forth a possibility of viewing vocabulary learning strategies from three different perspectives. Firstly and very broadly, vocabulary learning strategy could be any action taken by the learner to aid the learning process of new vocabulary, secondly, it could be related to only such actions which improve the efficiency of vocabulary learning, and thirdly, vocabulary learning strategy might be connected to conscious (as opposed to unconscious) actions taken by the learner in order to study new words.

According to the National Institute for Literacy (2010:25), explicit instruction of vocabulary involves explaining the word meanings and model usage of difficult content-area vocabulary in sentences that are relevant to the subject matter concepts that students are currently learning; guide students to practise using the vocabulary in different sentences and contexts and provide corrective feedback; provide time for independent practice with the vocabulary- peer tutoring, reciprocal teaching and collaborative learning and lastly, repeat these instructional steps until students are able to use the new vocabulary independently in their reading and writing.

2.6 EXAMPLES OF VARIETIES OF DISCIPLINE-SPECIFIC DISCOURSE

Discipline –specific vocabulary / language resides within the scope of EAP under ESAP. There are a number of varieties of EAP but at University of Venda (Univen) the focus is on six (6), namely - ECS 1641 for Human and Social Sciences, ECS 1642 for Education, ECS 1643 for Business and Management Sciences, ECS 1644 for Law, ECS 1645 for Mathematics and Natural Sciences and ECS 1646 for Environmental and Health Sciences. Subject-specific English is the language needed for a particular academic subject, for example, Economics, together with its disciplinary culture (Jordan, 1997).

❖ Legal Language/Legalese

Legal writing in English has developed over hundreds of years and is characterised by specific features, some of which can make it difficult for the no- lawyer (a person

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who has no knowledge of the legal fraternity) to understand. At Univen this is offered as ECS 1644 (ECS for Law). Characteristics of legal writing include using Latin terms; for example *alibi* (evidence that proves that a person was in another place at the time of crime and so could not have committed it) , *persona non grata* (a person who is not welcome in a particular place because of something s/he has said or done, especially who has been told to leave a country by government), *ultra vires* (beyond powers), *Bona fide* (good faith or in good faith) (Brown & Rice, 2007; Garner, 2001); using technical terms ("subsidiary"); using old-fashioned words not much in general use; using pairs of words with a reciprocal relationship ("lesser"/ "lessee"); using legal jargon ("without prejudice to") including the use of pairs of words ("terms and conditions"; "null and void", "represents and warrants") or triples ("build, erect or construct"); having special meanings for words in ordinary use ("the judge determined the facts of the case", where "determined" means "decided"); using vague words ("provide a sufficient service"; using long sentences with little punctuation; inverting word order ("title absolute"); using capital letters to signal important or defined terms ("the terms of the Lease...") avoiding personal pronouns ("you", "we", "I"); the specific use of the modal verbs "shall" to impose an obligation or duty on someone ("The tenant shall not sub-let the whole or part of the premises."); the use of "shall" in a directory sense ("Notice of an appeal shall be filed within 28 days") (Brown & Rice, 2007; Alcaraz & Hughes, 2002; Tiersma, 1999).

Legal English lexicon is considerably made of archaic legal terms. According to Tiersma (1999:95), legal language often strives toward great formality, it naturally gravitates towards archaic language. This means that some lawyers prefer to use the old and valuable terms instead of new ones. For example, the use of "imbibe" instead of "drink"; "inquire" rather than "ask"; "peruse" instead of "read" and so on. This shows that legal language is conscious of precedent, conservative and slow to change.

Legal language is a distinct language easy to some extent to those familiar with it, but to those who are unfamiliar with it, they may experience some difficulty. Legal

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language is characterised by a specific language and therefore a specific terminology (Bouharaoui, n.d).

- **Business English**

The purpose of a Business English course is to fulfil students' work- related needs. These are very specific and cover a wide range of language. Course organisers will have requested "Business English" because they want a course which relates to occupational or professional language needs (Donna, 2000). Business English forms part of the ECS 1643 curriculum at the University of Venda.

Business English is special because of the opportunity it gives a person to fulfil learners' immediate needs for English. In General English classes students' needs are rarely so immediate or urgent. Since work is so central to most people's lives and since Business English relates to students' occupational or professional needs, one has the opportunity to make a real difference to students' day–to-day experience (Donna, 2000).

- **English for Science**

English for Science is the earliest form of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). According to Benesch (2001:5) English for Science and Technology (EST) was intended to provide an alternative to English language teaching as humanities, preparing students to read literary texts. The goal was to move away from language teaching as a handmaiden of literary studies toward the notion that the teaching of language can with advantage be deliberately matched to the specific needs and purposes of the learner. The recommendation was in offering courses geared to the eventual uses students would make of the language in their future studies and jobs.

Science vocabulary knowledge contributes to understanding science concepts, and students' science knowledge is measured in part by their comprehension and use of science vocabulary (Glen & Dotger, 2009). Scientific language is known for its precision. Like mathematics vocabulary, science has many words with non-scientific meanings in everyday language. Similarly, many science terms are formed from Latin and Greek bases and affixes; such as photosynthesis, chromosome, mitosis,

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sedimentary. Science vocabulary also includes visuals and symbols that contribute to the development of concepts (Irwin, 2008).

In today's classrooms students must learn content and develop the vocabulary associated with that content to understand, read, write and speak about what they learn. Therefore it is essential that teachers deliver the best possible instruction in mathematical vocabulary development. Mathematical concepts and vocabulary are linked but appropriate mathematical language is rarely used in everyday life (Mink, 2010).

2.7 STRATEGIES TO TEACH DISCIPLINE-SPECIFIC (CONTENT) VOCABULARY

Academic vocabulary refers to the words associated with the content knowledge. Within every discipline there is a specific set of words to represent its concepts and processes. These words are conceptually more complex than everyday language; therefore they are difficult to learn. A student's depth of word knowledge within a discipline, or academic vocabulary, relates to success in that subject (National Institute for Literacy, 2007) to learn specialised words, such as the vocabulary of science, students must know the content associated with the word (Armbruster, 1992; Graves & Penn, 1986).

It is important to distinguish Support vocabulary from Academic Vocabulary and Content Vocabulary. Academic Vocabulary includes words that appear regularly in academic texts and tests. Academic Vocabulary words are not content specific and are used across content areas. For example, consist, constitute, distribute, establish, indicate, respond, et cetera. The Common Core State Standards use the term Tier Two Words to refer to "general academic words." Here are some examples: relative, vary, formulate, accumulate, and itemize (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013). National Institute for Literacy (2010: 21) refers to academic vocabulary as vocabulary used in a formal, educational setting. Denton, Vaughn, Wexler, Bryan and Reed (2012:125) refer to academic vocabulary as more complex, frequently occurring words in academic setting.

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They further point out that Academic Vocabulary words often show up as the skills (verbs) in content standards and Learning Objectives. Analyse, critique, determine, evaluate, interpret, synthesize. For example:

Determine how a central idea of a text is **conveyed** through **particular** details.

Academic vocabulary is important because understanding and properly using this vocabulary allows students to be part of the academic community. If learners are not able to recognise or use this language, this can act as a kind of a barrier or "lexical bar" to higher learning (Coxhead, 2006:3).

Support Vocabulary refers to additional words that English learners need to know so they can understand the meaning of a specific sentence or phrase used in a lesson. Brozo and Simpson (1999:189) call support vocabulary general words, these words are not particularly associated with any single content area. General vocabulary, according to Vacca, Vacca & Mraz, (2014:240), consists of everyday words with widely acknowledged meanings in common usage. Denton *et al.* (2012:125) call support vocabulary common words, which are basic words used often in everyday conversation.

Support vocabulary can show up in the word problems used in Maths or in History or Science passages. For example, *solve simple interest problems*:

David **invested** R1000, 00 in **stocks**. The value of the **stock** is increased 15%. What is the current value of the **stock**?

In the **Maths** word problem above, **invested** and **stocks** are **Support Vocabulary**. English Learners need to be given enough information about these words to understand the problem, but the emphasis of the lesson is not necessarily on these terms. On the other hand, in an **Economics class**, however, **invested** and **stocks** would be **Content Vocabulary**, and these words should be explicitly taught (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013).

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On the other hand, Hollingsworth and Ybarra further point out that **Content Vocabulary** is lesson specific and the words have only one meaning in the lesson. The teacher teaches content vocabulary using strategies that include extensive learner interaction – including checking for understanding with sentence frames and pair- shares – so English learners learn, remember, and start using the new vocabulary right away. Seligmann (2012:82) refers to discipline-specific words as those words that have little or no meaning outside a given academic subject. According to Brozo and Simpson (1999:189), technical vocabulary words are unique to a particular content area or take on a specialised meaning when used in that content area. This means that technical vocabulary is content vocabulary. According to Vacca, Vacca and Mraz (2014:238), technical vocabulary are words unique to a content area are often unfamiliar to students, but are particularly important for disciplinary thinking and learning. The words in technical vocabulary have usage and application only in a particular subject matter field. Vacca, Vacca and Mraz further point out that vocabulary is as unique to a content area as fingerprints are to a human being. A content area is distinguishable by its language, particularly the technical terms that label the concepts undergirding the subject matter. Content area vocabulary must be taught well enough to remove potential barriers to students' understanding of texts in content areas.

The task of acquiring new vocabulary is never ending. A key element for anyone acquiring vocabulary is exposure and repetition over time in multiple, meaningful contexts. The same content vocabulary can be practiced in many ways. Students will be motivated by game-like nature of an activity; however, the teacher's objective of teaching content vocabulary can be achieved at the same time (Muchisky, 2007:35).

Content Vocabulary is the most important vocabulary in every lesson (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013). Planning proactively for English Language Learners access to content area material will prevent a remedial approach to learning for English Language Learners (Alford & Nino, 2011).

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Brozo and Simpson (1999:180), point out that conceptual understanding of key terminology is frequently imperative for content area learning. They further present a variety of teacher-directed and student-initiated vocabulary strategies that capitalise on these six processes involved in learning words beyond the definitional level.

Simpson (1987) suggests that conceptual understanding of content area vocabulary words should involve students in the following:

1. Recognising and generating the critical attributes, characteristics, examples, and non-examples of a concept.
2. Sensing and inferring relationships between concepts and their own background information or prior knowledge.
3. Discovering comparisons and contrasts between different concepts to determine meaningful similarities and differences.
4. Determining super ordinate and subordinate concepts related to the targeted concept.
5. Creating new examples and applications for the targeted concept.

In vocabulary teaching, teachers can apply a host of strategies and activities. The National Institute for Literacy (2010), points out that there is not a single best way to teach vocabulary; rather a variety of techniques that include repeated exposures to unknown word meanings produces the best results. According to Hatch and Brown (2000: 401), teaching strategies refer to everything teachers do or should do in order to help their learners learn. Which teaching strategy a teacher will employ depends on the time available, the content, that is, the component of knowledge learners are to acquire, as well as on its value for the learner, that is, which learning strategy he or she can learn or apply. Teaching strategies are also dependent on specific principles and in correlation with other factors influencing vocabulary acquisition discussed earlier in this chapter.

Besides teaching individual words, effective vocabulary development for English learners includes teaching vocabulary strategies they can apply to new words they

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encounter; for example, the meaning of *audi* (to hear, to listen) can be used to determine the meaning of many English words such as *audio, audible, auditorium, audiologist, audition* and *audiotape* (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013).

A distinction is made between planned and unplanned vocabulary teaching strategies (Seal, 1991). Unplanned teaching strategies relate to teachers' spontaneous reactions with the aim of helping learners when the need arises, in which case teachers improvise. Seal suggests the three C's, a three-step procedure where the teacher (1) conveys the meaning, (2) checks meaning by, for example, asking questions and (3) consolidates the meaning in learners' memory by, for example, relating it to the context or personal experience. Planned vocabulary teaching refers to deliberate, explicit, clearly defined and directed vocabulary teaching. It encompasses the use of teaching strategies, that is, ways in which teachers introduce and present the meaning and form of new lexical items, encourage learners to review and practice, that is, recycle what is known, and monitor and evaluate the level of acquisition of various components of lexical knowledge. Such teaching presupposes dedicating a certain amount of time to dealing with vocabulary, involving "exploration" of the different aspects of lexical knowledge, as well as inducing learners to actively process lexical items (Nation, 2001). A review of the literature (Thornbury, 2002; Nation, 2001; Hatch & Brown, 2000; Sokmen, 1997;) has yielded a comprehensive list of teaching strategies that fall into two major categories: (1) presentation of meaning and form of new lexical items and (2) review and consolidation (recycling and practising) of presented lexical items.The discussion that follows details the strategies for teaching discipline-specific vocabulary:

2.7.1 Develop concept strategy

When using this strategy, a person develops concept and label the new vocabulary word. The students then interact extensively. It is important that the concept definitions are written for English learners to read and refer to throughout the entire lesson. Hereunder is the way in which this strategy works,

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- the teacher provides formal, written concept definition,
- then explains definition using examples and no-examples,
- lastly, the teacher includes extensive student interaction.

According to Alford and Nino (2011:53), graphic organizers can provide tangible support for abstract complex concepts. For example, a concept definition map helps construct English Language Learners' understanding of subtle connotations of words – an abstract level of understanding.

2.7.2 Attach a label strategy

This approach is used when students already understand the concept, but they do not know the new vocabulary word that defines it. In other words they know the idea, but they do not know the label. Therefore, it is important to attach a label to a concept students already know:

- teacher activates- asks students to do something they already know that connects to the new vocabulary word.
- learners interact
- teacher labels – provides the new vocabulary word that labels what students already know (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013).

For example, **lion**

Students already know that

- *a lion is a wild animal, a carnivore and a baby lion is called a cub.*
- New label: ***Predator*** *an animal that kills and eats other animals,* therefore **a *lion is a predator.***

Concrete support is important because then the English Language Learners know the target area for the lesson and can connect it to knowledge they already have (Alford & Nino, 2011).

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2.7.3 Multiple-Meaning Strategy

Multiple meaning words are words that have more than one meaning, such as plane (airplane), plane (flat surface), plane (tool for smoothing wood); coach (bus), coach (person), shoot (gun), shoot (film), shoot (talk); taxi (a car), taxi-ing/taxied (of a plane); land (surface of the earth), land (of aeroplane/ bird/ insect); stool (a seat), stool (medical: a piece of solid waste from a person's body) (Hornby, 2010). Often, English learners already know one of the meanings but not the specific new meaning used in the lesson. Multiple-meaning words can show up anywhere in a lesson and can be Academic, Content, or Support Vocabulary. Multiple-Meaning Strategy provides new meanings for known words:

- the teacher presents the new multiple– meaning word
- acknowledges the known meaning
- then provides the new meaning
- note the similarities between the meanings
- lastly, provides students interaction (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013).

Vocabulary knowledge increases when students make connections between vocabulary terms and also when students use vocabulary terms in multiple ways in writing, talking, organizing and using graphics (Mink, 2010).

2.7.4 Homophone Strategy

Homophones are words that sound the same but have different spellings and meanings, for example, mode/mowed; coarse/course; cell/sell; sum/some; genes/jeans; right/rite/write; cite/site/sight; reed/read; meet/meat and red/read. It is important to provide meanings for new words that sound like known words: in this case the teacher

- presents the new word
- acknowledges the known homophone
- then provides the new meaning
- lastly, the teacher provides students interaction (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013).

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2.7.5 Context clues

Demonstrating how to use context, word structure and the dictionary provides students with several basic strategies for vocabulary learning that will last a lifetime. With these strategies students can search for information clues so that they can approximate meanings of unknown words (Vacca, Vacca & Mraz, 2014; Seligmann, 2012).

The use of context clues is a simple but powerful method for increasing a person's passive vocabulary. Six common types of context clues are definition, restatement, example, comparison, contrast, and cause and effect. These provide the direct information concerning the meanings of words (Flower *et al.*, 1989). Furthermore, when a person encounters an unfamiliar word, he/she searches the context to see what information is provided. Then, he/she tries to determine the connection between those facts and the unknown word. This means that for learners to figure out unknown words independently, they can use context clues (the sense of a sentence) (Richardson, Morgan & Fleener, 2009; Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner, 2006: 264). According to Schmitt and Schmitt (2011:16), if the word has multiple meanings, a person uses context clues - words and phrases around the word - to figure out which meaning fits. Context clues may be divided into three categories: (1) definitions, (2) comparisons and contrast, and (3) synonyms and antonyms (Flower *et al.*, 1989; O'Harra, 1984). The use of context clues involves integrating different types of information from text to figure out unknown vocabulary (National Institute for Literacy, 2010).

2.7.5.1 Definition and restatement

Through learning the definitions a person's vocabulary skills develop. Familiarity with a word begins with understanding its meaning. A person needs to develop a habit of looking up in a dictionary each unfamiliar word he/she encounters (Flower *et al.*, 1989). In addition to discovering the definition, a person needs to research the background of a new word. A colourful etymology, or word history, may provide a way of remembering the definition.

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Flower *et al.*, further point out that the most obvious and straightforward type of context clue is direct definition. Clues of this type are usually signalled by a form of *be* (am, is, are, was, were). For example, a dog *is* a domestic animal. Sometimes the writer or the teacher will explain a term by restating it in other words. Learners need to be alert to such words or phrases as in *other words, that is, to put it another way, or, and this means.* In other instances, the teacher or the writer will give examples that reveal the meaning of a word. Words that signal examples include *such, such as, like, especially, particularly and for instance.* When the example word itself is unfamiliar, a person must examine the words that precede the example, and even the whole sentence, for context clues.

2.7.5.2 Comparison and contrast

The teacher needs to involve students in creating scenes using the new vocabulary, compare and contrast the uses of the words emphasizing the differing contexts used, and the similarities and differences in the ways in which the words are used (Herrell & Jordan, 2012:98). Occasionally, the teacher makes a comparison that enables learners to grasp the meaning of an unfamiliar word. Words often used to indicate comparisons include *similar, like* and *as*. Sometimes the teacher supplies a contrast that allows learners to determine the meaning of a word. Such contrasts may be signalled by words such as *but, although, unlike, on the contrary, on the other hand, as opposed to* (Flower *et al*, 1989).

2.7.5.3 Synonyms and antonyms

According to Richardson, Morgan and Fleener (2009:309), a complex term may be followed by a simpler, more commonly understood word even though the words may not be perfect synonyms. When a learner's knowledge of a word is characterized by multidimensionality, the learner has mastered many aspects of this word. That is, if a learner knows the word *educate*, the learner (1) knows how to say the word; (2) can use it appropriately within the context(that is, in a grammatically and semantically correct manner); (3) knows other words associated with it, such as synonyms (for example, teach, instruct, train) antonyms (for example, *learn*), and derived words (for example, *education, educator, educated, ill-educated and*

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educating) (Barone, Mallette & Hong Xu, 2005). An author may define or explain a term by contrasting it with words of opposite meaning (Seligmann, 2012; Richardson, Morgan & Fleener, 2009).

2.7.6 Cause and effect

A writer may set up a cause-and–effect relationship between the ideas in a sentence. This allows learners to deduce the meaning of one word from its effect or result on another. Cause-and-effect relationships are signalled by the words *because, since, when, consequently, therefore and as a result* (Flower *et al*, 1989:386-387).

2.7.7 Using a dictionary

According to Schmitt and Schmitt (2011:16), many words have more than one meaning. When a person comes across an unfamiliar word in his/her reading, he/she can look the word up in a dictionary. They further suggest that making good use of one's dictionary will help one study and master academic vocabulary. In addition to giving a person information about a word's meaning, dictionaries also explain pronunciation, grammar, word families, usage, and other information. According Vacca, Vacca and Mraz (2014:276), knowing when to use a dictionary is as important as knowing how to use it. When a person looks up a word, he/she often finds that it has more than one meaning. In many dictionaries, the first meaning is the most common one and therefore likely to be the one you need. To figure out which meaning is correct, think about the context in which a person heard or read the unfamiliar word. Look for the clues to the correct meaning by checking the words and sentences surrounding the new word.

Weideman (2007:94) points out that a dictionary contains not only definitions of words, but also a great deal of other information about the words. Very often, for example, we use a dictionary as a spelling guide or as an authority on the pronunciation of a word. Dictionaries also tell us what kind of word we are dealing with, that is, what part of speech a word belongs to. Dictionaries also give cross-references to other words (p 87). A dictionary is, in fact an indispensable tool if we

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want to learn to use language correctly and appropriately (p. 83). According to the National Institute for Literacy (2010: 24), dictionary usage involves multiple skills, such as using guide words, decoding and discerning correct definitions.

The development of extensive vocabulary and understanding of word meanings is essential to successful and fluid comprehension in reading and verbal interactions (Allen, 2000). The knowledge of the form of the word includes familiarity with the pronunciation (including stress pattern) and spelling of a word, what part of speech it is, whether it takes affixes (and if so, which), and how it behaves syntactically. Knowing a word's meaning would include knowing not simply its denotation (dictionary meaning) but also whether it has any connotations, whether it forms part of a semantic set, and how it relates to other words, for example, as a synonym, antonym or hyponym (McGrath, 2002).

According to Coxhead (2006:12), when teachers teach and learn a new word, they often focus first on the meaning. Another aspect of meaning is the main or core meaning of the word. In some instances, learners may recognise the form of the word but may not understand how to use it in their speaking and writing.

According to Jennings, Caldwell and Lerner (2010:18-19), to read a text effectively, the reader must understand its sentence structures and word meanings, yet readers can certainly read something without understanding every word. In fact, using the comprehension processes, readers are able to increase their vocabulary as they read. For effective reading, learners need knowledge of word meanings and language. The reader also acquires new word meanings and gains experience with language. The language people understand is the natural limit of their reading ability. Meaning vocabulary is an extremely important factor in reading. It is important for teachers to give learners reading activities so that the learners increase their vocabulary through reading.

Meaning vocabulary is highly correlated with a learners' ability to comprehend, and words themselves embody important concepts that students will meet in reading

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(Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner, 2006). Explicit instructional strategies for fostering meaning vocabulary before reading include noticing words that appear in text; classifying words into categories; predict-o-gram, or classifying how words will be used in a story; knowledge rating, or rating one's knowledge of words; and possible sentences, or composing possibly true sentences before reading. Strategies for reinforcing meaning vocabulary include making word cards with pictures, fitting a multiple number of words into one sentence, and practicing responding to words quickly. Incidental vocabulary growth can be fostered by the teacher's modelling of difficult words in speech, collecting words of different types, relating words to students' environments, and noticing words as the teacher reads them in a story.

Barone, Mallette and Hong Xu (2005:154) citing Nagy and Scott (2000), identified five characteristics of word knowledge development: incrementality, polysemy, multidimensionality, interrelatedness, and heterogeneity. Incrementality means that learners develop full knowledge about a word over time and through multiple exposures. When a learner's knowledge of a word is characterized by multidimensionality, the learner has mastered many aspects of this word. That is, if a learner knows the word *educate*, the learner (1) knows how to say the word; (2) can use it appropriately within the context, that is, in a grammatically and semantically correct manner; (3) knows other words associated with it, such as **synonyms**, for example, teach, instruct, train; **antonyms**, that is, *learn* and **derived words,** for example, *education, educator, educated, ill-educated and educating*; and (4) knows the morphemic structure of the word, that is,*–ate* is a suffix indicating that a word is a verb. Interrelatedness refers to the connection between a learner's knowledge of one word and that of the other related words. For example, the phrase "a laptop computer" will be familiar to a learner who already knows words like computer, hardware, and software. The last characteristic of word knowledge, heterogeneity, related to the other characteristics, means that "to know a word depends on what kind of word one is talking about. For example, knowing function words such as *the* or *if* is quite different from knowing terms such as *hypotenuse* or *ion*".

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2.7.8 Borrowed words

The most important historical factor in the growth of the English vocabulary has been the ease with which it has **borrowed** words from other languages and adapted them to its own uses. The word *clique*, which is partially synonymous with the **native,** that is, non-borrowed, inherited English word *group*, for example, was taken into English from French around the year 1700. Since that time, *clique* has become a familiar English word....today we have many words that have been **derived** from *clique*. (One word is derived from another by adding other word elements to it and / or by changing its part of speech- for example, from noun to verb or from adjective to noun). These include *cliquish*, *cliquishness, cliquy*, *cliqueless*, the verb *to clique* and others (Denning & Leben, 1995:7). New words have been added to the English vocabulary in every year of Modern English, and of necessity will continue to be added. Sometimes, but by no means always, these new words have been "borrowed" from other languages (Lee & Rousseau, 1994).

According to Garg (2003:9), although Latin is considered a "dead" language, it remains alive through its extensive vocabulary, which is used in fields such as medicine, science and law, and also via the numerous words that the English Language has borrowed and built upon.

The reason that English has two words with such similar meanings as *fatherly* and *paternal* is that it retained a native word (*fatherly*) while borrowing from Latin a near synonym (*paternal*). This in a sense allowed *fatherly* to "share" its duties with *paternal*. This is the general pattern with native and borrowed synonyms: the native word is more familiar or more basic and (usually) shorter while the borrowed word is more formal or more technical and longer. Words mutually inherited from the ancestral language **proto- Germanic** (*proto-* meaning "earliest, first") are known as cognates (Denning & Leben, 1995:7- 8).

Not only has English borrowed whole words from foreign languages, but it has also borrowed word parts, especially from French, Greek and Latin (Seligmann, 2012). The elements of the word *dinosaur* are Greek. Scientists coined the word dinosaur

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by putting together two Greek forms, *-dino-*, meaning "terrible," and "*-saur-*," meaning "lizard." Persons favouring the policies of a politician named Smith would be called *pro-Smith*, those opposing would be called *anti- Smith*. *Pro-*and *anti-* are forms borrowed into English, the former from Latin, the latter from Greek (Lee & Rousseau, 1994).

Borrowing, then, occurs when a word that is originally part of one language comes to be naturally and freely used in another language. The great majority of the words borrowed into Modern English come from Latin, French, Greek and other major European languages (Barone, Mallette & Hong Xu, 2005; Lee & Rousseau, 1994). When one language takes a word from another one, it is usually said to BORROW the word, and the word is called a LOAN-WORD (Bauer, 1998:14).

2.7.9 Analysing word parts

When students work alone, it can be more helpful to use structural analysis, also known as morphemic analysis along with contextual analysis to derive meaning (Vacca, Vacca & Mraz, 2014; Richardson, Morgan & Fleener, 2009;). Furthermore, they point out that instruction in morphology to learn word parts in the form of roots and affixes can be an advantage serving to unlock numerous words across disciplines. Structural analysis provides a way to examine words looking for roots (the most basic word parts) and affixes (prefixes and suffixes) as keys to unlocking word meanings. Roots and affixes are all morphemes, and morphemes are the smallest meaning-bearing units that make up words. A morpheme can be free to stand alone or bound (Richardson, Morgan & Fleener, 2009). For example, in the word **unpack: pack** is a free morpheme whereas **un-**is a bound morpheme needing to be joined to another morpheme.

Coxhead (2006:14) points out two more aspects of word formation. Prefixes are parts of a word that go before the stem, such as *pre-, un-*, and *dis-*. On the other hand, Suffixes are parts of a word that go after the stem, such as *– ment, -ation* and *–ise*. Knowledge of prefixes and suffixes can help the learners to build up their word family knowledge. A word can be divided into three parts: a prefix, a stem and a

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suffix. *Pre-* means "before"; a *prefix*, therefore, is what comes before the stem. Consider as an example, the prefix **de-** (meaning "reduce" or "reverse") in a word like **de**magnetize (meaning "to deprive of magnetism"). A suffix is what is attached to the end of the stem. Consider as an example the suffix **-er** (meaning "someone who") in programm**er** ("the person who programmes"). Both prefixes and suffixes are referred to as affixes. Prefixes usually change the meaning of the word; for example, **un-** changes a word into negative. **Un**magnetizable means "not capable of being magnetized". Suffixes, on the other hand, change the word from one part of speech to another. For example, **-ly** added to the adjective quick gives the adverb quick**ly**.

Most language arts standards call for teaching vocabulary strategies. The Common Core State Standards, for example, call for teachers to teach lessons explicitly showing students how to determine or clarify the meaning of unknown words by analysing meaningful word parts (Hollingsworth & Ybarra, 2013; Seligmann, 2012;).

Analysis of prefixes, suffixes, base words, and roots is another technique that one can use for the purpose of unlocking word meaning. These are word parts from which words are made (Floweret *et al*, 1989). Prefixes, suffixes and root words are common language structures that transfer in academic vocabulary because they are Latin based. For example, in English the root bio means "life," just as it does in Spanish (Alford & Nino, 2011).

The best first step in vocabulary building is to become familiar with some word roots because learning the root of one word often gives a clue to dozens or hundreds more (Seligmann, 2012; Glazier, 1993). It is also important to understand word roots, because they may help form a chain of new words. Since the roots of many English words have been borrowed from Greek and Latin, familiarity with these roots can help a person unlock the meaning of all words that have grown from the same root, for example, the root ***or-*** (which means spoken by word of mouth) found in ***oral*** as in oral examination, oral dose of medicine, oral history, oralism (Flower *et al.*, 1989).

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The root of a word is the main part of a word that gives it meaning. The main reason roots can help expand vocabularies is that one root occurs in many words. Therefore, if students learn one root, they can unlock the meanings of many words that contain that root, for example, "circ" means "ring". This root is found in many familiar and unfamiliar words. Circle, circular, and circumference are three "*circ*" words we may already know even though the root "circ" is only a part of each word, it is the most important part; it is the key to what each word means. The meanings of all three of these words revolve around then concept "ring": A "circle" is a ring. "Circular" means to be shaped like a ring. "Circumference" is the line bounding a ring ort a circle (O'Harra, 1984).

Many words in English are built up from roots that have a meaning, for example, the word psychology contains the root psych ("mind") and logy ("study of"). Learning the meaning of common word roots help students figure out meaning of unfamiliar academic words (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011) for example,

Root	**meaning**
Auto	self
Equ	equal
Bene	good, well
Meter	measure
Spec, spect	to look
Com	together, with
Dict	to speak
Vert, verse	to change, to turn

Roots may occur anywhere in a word, at the beginning or the end. Often they are in the middle surrounded by other kinds of word parts called prefixes and suffixes. These, too carry meaning (O'Harra, 1984). For example: Equal: in-equal-ity.

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English words can change their form when a person adds or removes word parts. Some **affixes** change a word's part of speech (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011) for example,

- Verb+ **-tion** (suffix) = noun

Communicate (verb) +-**tion** (suffix)= communica**tion** (noun)

- Noun +-**ic** = adjective

economy (noun) +-ic = econom**ic** (adjective)

- Adjective + -**ly** =adverb

Functional (adjective) +-ly = functional**ly** (adverb)

serious (adjective) +-ly=serious**ly** (adverb)

The above-mentioned examples and most words belong to a "family" of words with a shared meaning. For example, the word forms serious (an adjective), seriousness (a noun), and seriously (an adverb) are related to one another. To know which form to use, a person must figure out the word's part of speech in a sentence (Seligmann, 2012; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011).

A word family usually includes all the inflected words related to a core word. A person will be familiar with verb groups in English such as secure, secures, secured, securing. Normally people think about verb groups as a basic unit of a word family. One could add in a noun form (security), as well as an adjective (secure) and an adverb (securely) (Coxhead, 2006:14). A person should choose the word form based on the function each word performs in a sentence. Students need to ask questions like: Does the word stand for a person, place, thing, or event (noun); does it describe a noun (adjective); is it an action or a state (verb), or does it describe an action? (adverb) (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011). In knowing the answers to these questions, students' knowledge and vocabulary get developed.

The English language contains many derivational words, each of which is formed through a prefix and/or a suffix attached to a base word. Some examples of base words and derivational words are happy- happily, happiness, unhappy; expect- expected and unexpected (Barone, Mallette & Hong Xu 2005). Studying word

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structural elements (that is, prefixes, suffixes, and base words) helps students to make connections between known base words and unfamiliar derivational words (Bear et al., 2004).

2.7.10 Guessing the meaning

Among the most common strategies that students employ are making guesses and inferences about new words. Guesses are made using contextual clues (McCarthy, 1992: 125, 126). It is often possible to make an educated guess at what the word means from the context (Seligmann, 2012).

When a person reads, s/he comes across unfamiliar words. It is often possible to guess the meanings of these words if he/she understands the way words in English are generally formed (Brown & Mullen, 1987:29).

According to Allen (1983:52), language teachers are responsible for creating conditions which encourage vocabulary expansion. Guessing games, for example, create conditions in which the use of the target language is necessary for leading the players to the correct guess.

2.7.11 Collocation

According to Schmitt (2000:76), collocation refers to the tendency of two or more words to co-occur in discourse, for example, blond hair. According to Coxhead (2006:14), collocations are words that go together or are frequently used together. An example of collocations for the word "issue" might be "raise", as in "raise an issue" or "address an issue". When one looks at words in context, s/he can see patterns in the way they are used. These patterns are not based on rules of grammar, but on traditions of use by native speakers (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011).

Knowledge of collocation involves knowing the network of associations between the given word and the other words in the language. It also involves knowing which other words can stand alongside the given word in a sentence (Coxhead, 2006; Taylor, 1992). McCarthy (1992:12) points out that there is another binding force

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between the words of a language which is distinct from the fixed syntax of idioms and other phrases. Collocation is the knowledge of what words are most likely to occur together.

Collocations are important because they can help learners build up chunks of language, teach learners to look for patterns of use, and can provide scaffolding for new pieces of language (Coxhead, 2006). For example,

> People say *tall girl, tall building and high wall, high point, high income*
> But they do not say *high girl, high building or tall wall, tall point, tall income*
> (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011; Coxhead, 2006).

McCarthy (1992:12) further gives illustrations on collocations. In English people can say "she has a beige car", but not "she has beige hair"; I can say "she has blond hair" but not "she has a blond car". "Beige" and "blonde", although both describing colours, are restricted in respect of what words they may combine with. "Beige" collocates with "car" but not with "hair"; "blond" collocates with "hair" but not with "car". The relationship of collocation is fundamental to the study of vocabulary; it is a marriage contract between words and some words are more firmly married to each other than others. It is an important organizing principle in the vocabulary of any language. This means that when the word "blond" is mentioned, what quickly comes to a person's mind is the colour of hair and not the colour of a car. So, "blond" co-occur with "hair".

Knowledge of distribution includes awareness of how a word collocates with other words, whether it belongs to a particular register, and whether it is stylistically marked, for example, as formal or slang (McGrath, 2002). It is also useful to be able to identify and remember such word combinations as they will begin to form part of students' discipline- specific vocabulary (Seligmann, 2012).

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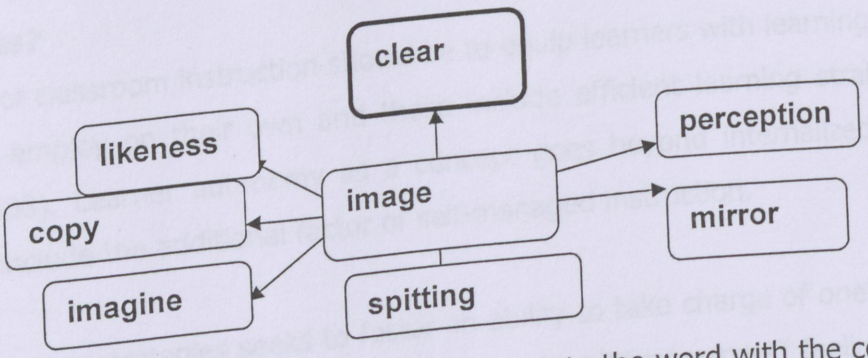
2.7.12 **Making associations**

Successfully learning new vocabulary depends on finding ways to remember these new words. One way of doing this is by linking new words to words and ideas that a person already knows. These links are called associations. The more a person thinks about and uses new words, the stronger these links will become. A simple way to practice associations is by making word maps which show the links in meaning between words. (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2011:40). For example, according to Weideman (2007:77) words that are associated with **image** are:

Figure 1.



According to Weideman (2007:78), people may associate the word with the concept that the other word calls up, or with something similar, or even with something different. Some of the associations may be of words in the same word class, or part of speech, as the original. For example: **walk** = *creep, limp, pace, pad, plod, stagger, stomp, shuffle, tiptoe, trudge and stroll*. The same word **walk** has the word **background** as its **synonym**, for example, all walks of life (Hornby, 2010).

2.8 The importance of evaluating discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies.

There is a need to evaluate the effectiveness of vocabulary teaching strategies on students. Herrell and Jordan (2012:109) indicate that examining learners writing for the use of new vocabulary is another effective way to determine which words are being integrated and which will need further exploration. Concrete support provides comprehensible input in instruction and can be used to assess English Language learner's knowledge formatively (Alford & Nino, 2011). It means that it is important to evaluate the way the learners are using the teaching and learning strategies.

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Key content vocabulary must be pre-taught and reinforced. The most effective mode for content teachers to achieve authentic differentiation is to provide ongoing formative assessments. Authentic differentiation for English Language learners means authentic knowledge of each learner's linguistic need. Students are given multiple opportunities to produce language at intervals during the content area lesson, thereby providing the teacher multiple opportunities to gauge both learners learning and language development (Alford & Nino, 2011).

2.9 How do students benefit from discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies?

The main aim of classroom instruction should be to equip learners with learning skills that they can employ on their own and these include efficient learning strategies (Diaz-Rico, 2008). Learner autonomy as a concept goes beyond internalized self-motivation to include the additional factor of self-managed instruction.

The use of teaching strategies seeks to foster an ability to take charge of one's own language learning. Learner autonomy can be defined as "the learners" feeling that studying is taking place due to their own volition." This autonomy is the basis for self-managed, self-motivated instruction. Such autonomy is more than a preference or strategy by the learner; it must be supported in a systemic way by the lecturer and curriculum for the student to benefit (Diaz-Rico, 2008).

Recently, attention has turned to ways in which learners can be trained to take more responsibility for how and what they learn, and organizing vocabulary learning is a particularly productive area for the encouragement of learner autonomy. Learners can also be encouraged to develop their own personal learning styles for vocabulary, in such areas as memorizing and retaining new words (McCarthy, 1992:129-130).

The lecturer can provide strategy-based instruction for the following purposes: (1) raising students' awareness of strategies and learning style preferences; (2) introducing and reinforcing systemic strategy use among learners in the classroom;

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(3) integrating strategies-based activities into daily lesson plans; and (4) facilitating discussions of strategy effectiveness among the students (Weaver & Cohen, 1997).

Lecturers can help facilitate acquisition of new academic words or building knowledge of partially acquired vocabulary by developing a range of activities and using different approaches in class. These should encourage learners to notice, gain control of, and develop fluency in using the words (Coxhead, 2006:26). Rich instruction in classrooms basically means lecturers supporting their students as much as they can in their vocabulary learning. In practical terms, rich instruction means thinking about whether classroom time includes these elements:

- goals for individual students that focus on learning academic vocabulary;
- understanding which words students should focus on depending on their needs;
- clear explanations that are supported if possible by pictures and examples; many exposures to the words;
- opportunities to use the words when speaking and writing and to gain feedback and skills in strategy use for vocabulary learning.

By prioritizing vocabulary learning and teaching in the classroom and by applying the ideas of rich instruction, lecturers are making a conscious effort to develop their students' skills and knowledge in this area (Coxhead, 2006:33).

2.10 CONCLUSION

Chapter two presented literature review, which revealed that vocabulary forms the biggest part of meaning of any language, and that acquiring vocabulary is the biggest problem for most learners. Literature also indicated that content vocabulary is the discipline-specific vocabulary unique to a given lesson and it includes words that are specific to a given subject area.

Literature also revealed that there are different teaching strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary. It further indicated that vocabulary teaching strategies enable students to take control of their own learning so that students can take more

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responsibility for their studies. It was also indicated that good vocabulary instruction has a strong effect on students' ability to learn words and that for students to acquire discipline-specific vocabulary it has to be taught and learnt like any other language skill. Of more importance is that language lecturers are responsible for creating conditions which encourage discipline-specific vocabulary expansion.

Chapter three deals with the research design and methodology, wherein the idea of the nature of this study, the qualitative methods this study uses, data collection methods, sampling and sampling techniques will be given.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is on the research design and methodology of the study. The chapter discusses the nature of the study, which is the description of the research design, namely, the qualitative approach this study uses; the participants, referring to the population, sampling and sampling techniques and data collection methods.

According to Durrheim (1999:32), research design may vary along a continuum from inflexible blueprints at the one extreme to pragmatic guides for action at the other. In this instance, the guides for action are very important because the proper teaching of discipline-specific vocabulary by ECS lecturers at Univen equip students for their jobs. For example, students who are studying to become lawyers, should start learning legal language.

3.2. ACTION RESEARCH

As indicated in Chapter One, this study is primarily an action research. Action research takes place in real situations and its focus is on solving real problems. The researcher studies 'the problem systematically and ensures the intervention is informed by theoretical considerations' (O'Brien, 1998:3). Action research is a process of systematic reflection, enquiry and action carried out by individuals about their own professional practice (Frost, 2002:25). In action research, "participants examine their own educational practice systematically and carefully... with the intent that the research will inform and change [their] practices in future" (Ferrance, 2000:1). This study is an action research because it gives me the opportunity to reflect on an aspect of my work, which in this case, is teaching English Communication Skills (ECS) discipline-specific vocabulary learning skills.

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Action research combines a substantive act with a research procedure, it is action disciplined by enquiry, a personal attempt at understanding while engaged in a process of improvement and reform (Hopkins, 2002:42). Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) point out that action research is an ethical and moral calling to use research findings to better our lives as individuals and communities. Furthermore, action research is more applied than theoretical, and more oriented towards problem solving than toward increasing knowledge for its own sake, hence the focus on the application of the strategies used by ECS lecturers at Univen in their teaching of discipline–specific vocabulary in this instance. This research is more towards problem solving since ECS students reflect inability to use discipline-specific vocabulary. With the proper application of the vocabulary teaching strategies, the use of the research findings may solve and better the lives of ECS students and lecturers.

Action research is a form of participatory research in which action and research complement each other and where both the researcher and participants are involved in decisions regarding the entire research process with the aim of emancipation for the participants (Druckman 2005; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005; Henning 2004; Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Struwig & Stead, 2001). Action research is always rooted in the values of the participants (Somekh & Lewin, 2005).

Action research is the application of fact finding to practical problem solving in a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it, involving the collaboration and cooperation of researchers, practitioners and laymen (Burns, 1990: 252). Action research is concerned with solving a problem in an efficient and feasible manner; it is concerned with improvements within the context of the study (Tomal, 2003). Action research is about working towards practical outcomes, and also about creating new forms of understanding since action without reflection and understanding is blind, just as theory without action is meaningless (Reason & Bradbury, 2006). According to Vockell and Asher (1995:10), action research refers to the practical application of the scientific method or other forms of disciplined inquiry to the process of dealing with everyday problems. With reference to this research,

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the application of practical vocabulary teaching strategies will help students to deal with their inability to use disciple-specific vocabulary.

The primary purpose of action research is to produce practical knowledge that is useful to people in the everyday conduct of their lives (Reason & Bradbury, 2006). Action research is conducted by people who want to do something to improve their own situation; action researchers undertake a study because they want to know whether or not they can do something in a better way (Sagor, 1992). Doing action research facilitates evaluation and reflection in order to implement necessary changes in practice; both for an individual and within an institution with increased understanding and confidence (Koshy, 2005). According Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:176; 195), the goal of action research is to problem- solve a situation for the betterment of the community participating in the study. Vanderstoep and Johnston further point out that many scholars believe that qualitative research should also be evaluated according to the criterion of action. This means that research is not an end in and of itself; rather, research should be a means towards social change, policy change, problem solving, or programme development or evaluation.

Research is about generating new knowledge; action research creates new knowledge based on enquiries conducted within specific and often practical contexts (Koshy, 2005). As people search for practical knowledge and liberating ways of knowing, working with people in their everyday lives, people can also see that action research is participative research, and all participative research must be action research (Reason & Bradbury, 2006). Reason and Bradbury further point that action research is only possible *with, for* and *by* persons and communities, ideally involving all stakeholders both in the questioning and sense-making that informs the research and in the action which is its focus.

It means, therefore, that this research should be a means towards the development of a programme on how ECS lecturers at Univen should teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary learning strategies, and/ or improve on the available program that is in use.

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Researchers and participants are equally involved in the process and take equal responsibility for the outcome of the research endeavour (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche' & Delport, 2011:491). According to Babbie (2007:301) and Rubin and Babbie (2004:439), Participatory Action Research is a research paradigm in which the researcher's function is to serve as a resource to those being studied ... to empower them to act effectively in their own interest. Action research is conducted by a change agent, who works with identified subjects within the context of a group. The change agent acts as a catalyst in collecting data and then working with the group in a collaborative effort to develop actions to address the issues (Tomal, 2003). In action research, the researcher works in close collaboration with a group of people to improve a situation in a particular setting (Dawson, 2007). In this study, the researcher's responsibility is to resource and empower the participants to act effectively concerning discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies.

3.3 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Qualitative research is a term used to describe an approach to research that stresses "quality" not "quantity", that is, social meanings rather than the collection of numerate statistical data (Miller & Brewer, 2003). Qualitative research is a general category that refers to a number of different orientations used to describe and explain processes occurring within natural and everyday settings (Sagor, 1992). Strauss and Corbin (1990:17) reflect that qualitative research refers to any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Strauss and Corbin (1990) further state that it can refer to research about person's lives, stories, behavior, but also about organisational functioning, social movement, or interactional relationships. Qualitative research taps into people's interpretation of their experiences. A qualitative perspective assumes that knowledge is constructed through communication and interaction; as such, knowledge is not "out there" but within the perceptions and interpretations of the individual. In short, knowledge is created by people. A qualitative perspective assumes that one cannot analyse and understand an entity by analysis of its parts;

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rather, one must examine the larger context in which people and knowledge function (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Qualitative research is a form of inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear, and understand. The researcher's interpretations cannot be separated from their own background, history, context, and prior understanding (Creswell, 2007). Dawson (2007:15-16) points out that qualitative research explores attitudes, behaviour and experiences through such methods as interviews or focus groups. It attempts to get an in-depth opinion from participants.

Qualitative paradigm requires the design of the research to be more than a set of "worked-out formulas". The qualitative researcher is concerned with understanding rather than explanation, with naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement, with the subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider as opposed to that of an outsider predominant in the quantitative paradigm (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche' & Delport, 2011:308).

Qualitative research has been assigned many different labels, such as field research, critical research, interpretative research, naturalism, ethnography, and constructivism. However, they all share a common focus: to interpret and construct the qualitative aspects of communication experiences (du Plooy, 2002:29). Naturalistic enquiry evokes the idea of the "real" or "natural" world as the setting for social research as opposed to the laboratory or other artificially constructed circumstances or the library armchair; naturalistic enquiry strives to be true to the nature of the phenomena under study, "to tell it like it is" (Somekh & Lewin,2005). Qualitative research is naturalistic, holistic and inductive (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Furthermore, qualitative methods collect information in the form of words which give us an in depth understanding of the nature of what people experience (Louw & Edwards, 1998: 29). Babbie (2004:309) points out that in field research, observation, data processing, and analysis are interwoven cyclical processes. In this case, observation, data processing and analysis are interwoven cyclical processes to

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bring about the experiences of ECS lecturers in their teaching discipline-specific vocabulary.

According to Mouton and Maraise (1996:204), a qualitative research strategy is inductive in that the researcher attempts to understand a situation without imposing pre-existing expectations on the setting. Qualitative research designs begin with specific observations and builds towards general patterns (Eloff & Ebersohn, 2004:365). Qualitative research begins with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems inquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2007). Qualitative research aims at providing a comprehensive description of a specific phenomenon rather than the testing of hypothesis common to experimental research methods. An effort is made to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions within the context of a specific study.

The purpose of qualitative research is more descriptive than predictive. The goal is to understand in-depth the viewpoint of a research participant. Realizing that all understanding is constructed, different research participants have different interpretations of their own experience and the social systems within which they interact. The qualitative approach therefore is typically less concerned with aggregate generalizations. Much of qualitative research does not claim to be generalizable, rather, it claims only to represent the people studied (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Qualitative research consists of techniques for obtaining psychological information. Using qualitative research assumes that the meaning of the information is the most important thing. The commonest techniques used in qualitative research are interviews and case studies (Stratton & Hayes, 1999:227). Flick, von Kardorff and Steinke (2004:3) maintain that qualitative research claims to describe life-worlds 'from the inside out', that is, from the point of view of the people who participate in the study. By so doing, it seeks to contribute to a better understanding of social

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realities and to draw attention to processes, meaning patterns and structural features.

According Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:169), qualitative methods employ observations, interviews, and/ or the analysis of some type of text. The term text is broadly defined in qualitative research to include spoken word (people's stories, conversations, or speeches), visual representations (photos, films, video, visual art), written texts (historical documents, books, newspaper articles, reports, prose or poetry), artifacts of a culture (monuments, buildings, roads, malls), or a cultural group (homeless people, gangs, residents in AIDS communities). Observations, interviews, and texts are analysed for meanings and themes. In this study, observations, interviews and texts were analysed for meanings.

Qualitative research is more concerned with understanding social phenomena from the perspectives of the participants in the study. This happens through the researcher's participation in the daily life activities of those involved in the research or through historical empathy with participants in past social events (White, 2005: 81).

According to Esterberg (2002:207), "qualitative research reports traditionally have been more flexible". Qualitative research is by its nature, flexible and open-ended, and so it continues to evolve over the course of the project (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:143).

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:42), assert that qualitative methods allow the researcher to study selected issues in depth, openly and in detail as they identify and attempt to understand the categories of information that emerge from the data. This study allows me to study in depth the selected issue of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies by ECS lecturer at Univen.

The key idea behind qualitative research is to learn about the problem or issue from participants and to address the research to obtain that information (Creswell, 2007).

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Qualitative researchers are concerned with trying to understand how ordinary people think and feel about the topics of concern to the research (Miller & Brewer, 2003). The researcher in the study is concerned with trying to learn about the problem from ECS lecturers and trying to understand how the lecturers think and feel about the topic of concern to the research.

The reason for using the qualitative approach is that data was collected through sustained contact with people in settings where subjects mostly spend their time, at their work place. The Univen lecturers are in their real world describing their daily experiences in relation to teaching discipline-specific vocabulary learning strategies to ECS students.

There are three steps or phases of inquiry in qualitative research: (1) determine what is happening; (2) find out about it; and (3) verify that what you think is happening is really what the research participants perceive is happening (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). The researcher followed all the three phases of inquiry, determining what is happening, finding out about it and verifying if what the researcher thinks is happening is really happening through the unfolding of the study.

3.3.1. Exploratory Research

This study is also an exploratory research because it seeks to study carefully and try to get new facts about a topic on which there is very little existing information. The researcher will explore the topic of interest and provide tentative explanations, from which new research questions and hypothesis will arise (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). The objective of exploratory research is to become more familiar with a topic (Kerlinger, 1986). According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:39), exploratory studies are used to make preliminary investigations into relatively unknown areas of research. They employ an open, flexible and inductive approach to research as they attempt to look for new insights into phenomenon which in this study is how ECS lecturers at Univen teach discipline–specific vocabulary, that is, legal English, Business Communication, English for Science.

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Exploratory studies are mostly done for the following reasons: (1) to satisfy the researcher's curiosity and desire for better understanding, (2) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study, (3) to develop the methods to be employed in any subsequent study, (4) to explicate the central concepts and constructs of study, (5) to determine priorities for future research, and (6) to develop new hypotheses about an existing phenomenon (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In this study the researcher seeks to satisfy the curiosity and desire for better understanding.

Because exploratory studies usually lead to insight and comprehension rather than the collection of detailed, accurate and replicable data, these studies frequently involve the use of in-depth interviews, the analysis of case studies, and the use of informants. The most important research design considerations which apply here are the need: (i) to follow an open and flexible research strategy, and (ii) to use methods such as literature reviews, interviews, case studies, and informants, which may lead to insight and comprehension (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

It is out of curiosity and desire for better understanding, even though the saying clearly puts it- "curiosity killed the cat" (Hornby, 2010), that the researcher developed the interest in the study. This study is therefore exploratory in nature as the purpose of the study is to investigate, and subsequently gain new insights and better understanding of how ECS lecturers at Univen teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary learning strategies.

3.3.2. Descriptive Research

Le Compte and Preissle (1993:39) are of the view that the aim of a descriptive research is to "examine events or phenomena ... characterise something as it is ... there is no manipulation of treatments or subjects, that is, the researcher takes things as they are". According to Merriam (2001:11), "descriptive" means that the end product is "a rich thick account of the phenomenon under study".

Descriptive research serves the purpose of observing and recording behaviour. By itself, descriptive research cannot prove what causes some phenomenon, but it can

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reveal important information about people's behaviours and attitudes. Descriptive research methods include observation, surveys and interviews, standardized tests and case studies (Santrock, 2002: 47). If researchers wish to merely describe behaviour or a phenomenon, they conduct a descriptive study (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). Descriptive research describes the attitudes and behaviours observed during the investigation. Descriptive research takes place in natural, real-life settings. A common descriptive research technique is naturalistic observation, which involves collecting data where people are ordinarily found (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:39), descriptive studies aim to describe phenomena, whereas exploratory studies generate speculative insights, new questions and hypotheses, descriptive studies aim to describe phenomena accurately either through narrative – type descriptions, classification or measuring relationships. This study seeks to describe the phenomena accurately through narrative descriptions and classification.

3.3.3. Explanatory Research

Explanatory research is devoted to finding causal relationships among variables. It does so from theory-based expectations on how and why variables should be related. Hypotheses could be basic that is, relationships exist or could be directional that is, positive or negative (Malhotra & Grover, 1998). This study is explanatory as it seeks to explain why ECS lecturers should teach discipline-specific vocabulary learning strategies.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the major aim of explanatory studies is to indicate causality between variables or events. If researchers wish to explain the relationship between two or more variables, they conduct an explanatory study (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). Explanatory studies aim to provide causal explanations of phenomena (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This study, therefore, aims to provide the explanation on how the teaching strategies affect the teaching and learning of discipline-specific vocabulary to ECS students.

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Interpretive and constructionist researchers, however, contend that qualitative research can be used not only for exploratory purposes, but also to formulate rich descriptions and explanations of human phenomena (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This is what the researcher intends to do in this study, to provide rich descriptions and explanations of the strategies used by ECS lecturers at Univen to teach discipline-specific vocabulary.

3.4. DATA COLLECTION

Qualitative researchers tend to collect data in the field at the site where participants experience the issue or problem under study (Creswell, 2007). Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) describe data as the basic material with which researchers work. They further state that data comes from observation, and can take the form of numbers (numeric or quantitative data) or language (qualitative data). Qualitative researchers collect data in the form of written or spoken language, or in the form of observations that are recorded in language, and analyse the data by identifying and categorizing themes.

Qualitative data, in this research, are based on three kinds of data collection methods as identified by (Patton, 2002), namely, (1) direct observation; (2) in-depth open ended interviews; and (3) written documents. Data is collected either by interviews or by observing and recording human behaviour in contexts of interaction. These particular observations are then categorized into themes and a more general picture of the phenomenon under investigation is built up from particulars (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Qualitative researchers collect data themselves through examining documents, observing behaviour and interviewing participants (Creswell, 2007).

In qualitative research, data are collected in words as opposed to numbers; the data come from such sources as interview transcripts, field notes, video and audiotapes, records, minutes of meetings and other sources that describe people's actions and words (Sagor,1992). Qualitative research collects information in the form of words

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which give an in-depth understanding of the nature of what people experience. Qualitative researchers use in-depth, open-ended interviews. These interviews allow participants to speak about their experience in their own words (Louw & Edwards, 1998). Louw and Edwards further point out that qualitative in-depth study often use only a small number of participants who are specially chosen because of their ability to describe a particular experience clearly and in detail, hence, this study focused on ECS lecturers who teach discipline-specific vocabulary.

3.4.1. OBSERVATION

According to Borden and Abbott (2008:15), observation is important because it is the first step in assessment and also in the scientific process of generating knowledge. All knowledge generation begins with observation and description (Moerdyk, 2009).

People and complex systems can be observed to help understand why they operate as they do and to determine what can be done differently to make them work better. Moerdyk (2009) points out that there is causal observation and systematic observation. Causal observation can be termed "look at" the phenomena and systematic observation is termed "looking for" things. In systematic observation the observers try to establish patterns of behaviour and relationships between phenomena. This study used the causal observation.

As an ECS lecturer for six years, the researcher had the opportunity of interacting with many students who demonstrated varying levels of the mastery of English vocabulary. This aroused in me the desire to observe the different vocabulary teaching strategies used by my colleagues. I learnt that in most cases discipline-specific vocabulary was not necessarily taught, but that scenarios relating to specific fields were used as the basis of teaching and assessing the students.

The researcher should strive at all times to gain feelings and impressions, and experience the circumstances of the real world of participants by living alongside them, and by interpreting and sharing their activities (Gravetter & Forzano,

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2003:164; New dictionary of Social Work 1995:43; Royse 1995: 286). In addition, it is only by getting close to their subjects and becoming an insider that qualitative researchers can view the world as a participant in that setting (Bryman, 2000). Observation refers to the fieldwork descriptions of activities, behaviours, actions, conversations, interpersonal interactions, organizational or community processes, or any other aspect of observable human experiences. Data consist of field notes rich detailed descriptions, including the context within which the observations were made (Patton, 2002).

There are four ways in which participant observation can take place, namely, the total observer, the observer as participant, the participant as observer, and the total participant (Grinnell & Unrau, 2008; Babbie, 2007; Walliman, 2006; Grinnell & Unrau, 2005; Marlow, 2005; Rubin & Babbie, 2005; Patton, 2002). The role of the total observer has the advantage of being more objective and passive, but loses out on involvement with participants and in having a say in the course of the process, and it also reduces the richness of the information to which the researcher is exposed (Thyer, 2001; York, 1997). Involvement in the process enhances acceptance by participants. It also enhances access to the group's everyday activities. However, it can result in subjectivity and could militate against the principles of science (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011). The researcher's involvement enhances her acceptance and access to the ECS lecturers' everyday activities.

In participant observation observers participate in the everyday life they are trying to understand. With participant observation data obtained as a result of watching the phenomenon under study is augmented by data generated through introspection on the part of the researcher. That is, by the observer reflecting on the internal experiences arising from doing and sharing the same everyday life as those under study, a process sometimes also called "auto-observation". In this way, data collected by participant observation are not external stimuli unaffected by the intervention of the observer: the experiences, attitude changes and feelings of the observer form a central part of his or her understanding (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

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According to de Vos, Strydom, Fouche' and Delport (2011:329), participant observation may be regarded as a research procedure that is typical of the qualitative paradigm, which implies that data cannot really be reduced to figures. This therefore means that in this study causal explanations will be provided; rich descriptions and explanations of human phenomenon will also be formulated (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). In participation observation, the researcher, through participation within the chosen culture and through careful observation, they hope to gain a deeper understanding into the behaviour, motivation and attitudes of the people under study (Dawson, 2007). Participant observation is at one level self-explanatory in that it involves research-led observation of the social world while simultaneously participating in it (Miller & Brewer, 2003; Babbie and Mouton 2001).

Unbeknown to the people there, the researcher would also be observing their behaviour; in this case the researcher is conducting participant observation. Non-participant observation involves a researcher who observes people without interacting with them. Another type would involve observing people from behind a one-way mirror in a laboratory- like setting (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). This is a participant observation study; through which the researcher gains a deeper understanding of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies used by ECS lecturers to teach their learners.

3.4.2. QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaires are defined as "a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondent in respect of a research project" and they are considered the 'most generally used instruments of all' (Fouche, 1998:152).

A questionnaire is a device that enables respondents to answer questions (Vockell & Asher, 1995:124). A questionnaire is a text that asks specific questions in a specific order. Questionnaires also contain a relatively precise way in which answers can be given, for example: "yes", "no" or "don't know"; "agree" or "disagree"; or "always", "sometimes" or "never" (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). A questionnaire is a list of questions or statements to which people are asked to

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respond in writing. Questionnaire refers to both documents that are completed by an interviewer in a direct person-to person situation, and those documents that are mailed or handed to people for completion without the assistance of the researcher (Rossouw, 2003:127). Questionnaires can be administered in person or they can be sent through the mail. In this study, questionnaires were administered in person. Using a questionnaire is an inexpensive way to collect large amount of data, it can be administered to many people at the same time (La Verne Thomas, 1995:489). Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan and Townsend (2008:29) define a questionnaire as a text that asks specific questions in a specific order. This study used questionnaire to which ECS lecturers responded in writing.

Questions on the questionnaire have to be "relevant to the topic and evenly distributed among the different aspects of the research question" (Sarantakos, 2005). Mwamwenda (2004:14) states that a questionnaire consists of written questions covering a number of issues related to the topic of interest, in this case, *A study of the teaching strategies utilized by the English Communication Skills lecturers at the University of Venda to teach discipline-specific vocabulary.*

Dawson (2007:32) outlines three basic types of questionnaires, namely: close-ended questionnaires, open- ended questionnaires or a combination of both. The questionnaire used in this study included both close- and open-ended questions. Close-ended questions were intended for "yes" or "no" answers while open-ended enquiries gave freedom to respond more widely (Vadum & Rankin, 1998: 255).

3.4.3. INTERVIEW

An interview is a conversation, usually between two people. It is a directed conversation where one person, the interviewer, is seeking responses for a specific purpose from the other person, the interviewee (Gillham, 2000:1). The design of an interview enables the respondents to answer questions. Rossouw (2003:143) adds that a research interview is a conversation between the researcher and a participant or participants with the specific objective of gathering information about a topic that is being investigated. Interviewing is a form of social interaction (Welland & Pugsley,

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2002: 33).The research interview is described by Marshall and Rossman (1989: 82) as "a conversation with a purpose". Kvale (1987:174) posits that the purpose of a research interview is to 'gather descriptions of the life-word of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena'.

Interviews provide a way of generating data by asking people to talk about their everyday lives. Their main function is to provide a framework in which respondents can express their own thoughts in their own words. They generally take the form of a conversation between two people. They are conversations with a purpose- to collect information about a certain topic or research a question (Miller & Brewer, 2003). The researcher in the study generated data by asking ECS lecturers to talk about the vocabulary teaching strategies they use to teach their learners.

Interviews are used to validate observations made during the participant's observation and to provide direction for future observations (de Vos, *et al.*, 2011). Interviewing involves the researcher asking questions, listening and analysing the responses. It is a process of gathering information for research using verbal interaction (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). In this study the researcher asked questions, listened and analysed the responses.

According to Goddard and Melville (1996:49), an interview involves a one-on-one verbal interaction between the researcher and a respondent. de Vos, *et al.*, (2011: 342) define interview as the predominant mode of data or information collection in qualitative research. The interview is a social relationship designed to exchange information between the participant and the researcher.

Researchers obtain information through direct interchange with an individual or a group that is known or expected to possess the knowledge they seek (DePoy & Gilson, 2008:108). Interviews are a major category of techniques for collecting data through questioning and are acknowledged as being some of the most effective ways of collecting data in the social sciences (Crowther & Lancaster, 2009). Kvale (1996) defines qualitative interviews as attempts to understand the world from the

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participant's point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences [and] to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations. Qualitative interviews gather broader, more in-depth information from fewer respondents (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

In social research there are many types of interviews. The most common of these are unstructured, semi- structured and structured interviews (Miller & Brewer, 2003; Dawson, 2007). According to de Vos *et al.* (2011:347), qualitative studies typically employ unstructured or semi- structured interviews.

Semi-structured interviews are defined as those organised around areas of particular interest, while still allowing considerable flexibility in scope and depth (Dicicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006:315; Jarbandhan & Schutte, 2006:678). In semi-strucrured interviews the researcher wants to know specific information which can be compared and contrasted with information gained in other interviews (Dawson, 2007).

Semi-structured interviews involve the interviewer deciding in advance what broad topics are to be covered and what main questions are to be asked. Questions are generally open-ended in order to gain richer information about attitude and behaviour. The format is, therefore, discursive allowing the respondent to develop their answer in their own terms and at their own length and depth (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008; Miller & Brewer, 2003).

David and Sutton (2004:159) point out that the structured interview involves an interviewer asking questions and recording the respondents' replies. In structured interviews the interviewer asks a series of questions and ticks boxes with the interviewee's response (Dawson, 2007). A structured interview is one in which the interviewer determines the precise form and direction of the questioning in advance of actually meeting the interviewee. In its most extreme form, it would consist simply of an interviewer reading through a prepared list of questions, and writing down the respondent's answers. It provides quick and easy way of obtaining data, and is economical of the interviewer's time (Dyer, 1995:58).

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Structured interviews are very similar to questionnaires in that they use a standard format consisting of predetermined questions in a fixed order; when interviewers are present, asking the questions and helping the respondent as in face-to-face interviews or a telephone survey, the research instrument is known as a structured interview schedule (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008; Miller & Brewer, 2003).

Unstructured or in-depth interviews are sometimes called life history interviews. In this type of interview, the researcher attempts to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewees' point of view or situation (Dawson 2007). The unstructured one-to-one interview, also sometimes referred to as the in- depth interview, merely extends and formalizes conversation. It is referred to as a "conversation with purpose". At the root of unstructured interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience. It is focused and discursive, and allows the researcher and participant to explore an issue (de Vos *et al.*, 2011).

Unstructured interviews allow the researcher to adopt a non-directive almost conversational style that allows the interviewee largely to determine the course of the discussion. They enable the interviewer to see the world through the eyes of the interviewee and discover how they make sense of their experiences. Interviewers are therefore given the freedom to phrase the questions as they see appropriate and ask them in any order that seems pertinent at the time (de Vos *et al.*, 2011; Miller & Brewer, 2003). In an unstructured interview (an open-ended interview) the researcher merely tries to remain focused on an issue of study and uses few pre-determined questions, or none (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008).

The guided interview follows an outline of question, but not all of the prescribed probes, transitions, and follow-ups are established prior to the interview. The interviewer is given freedom to deviate from the interview questions as needed to pursue serendipitous findings and fruitful directions. Guided interview is a

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compromise technique that has some of the benefits of both informal and structured interviews (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996:112) and Miller & Brewer (2003) outline the following advantages of a face-to- face interview: (1) it provides an opportunity to establish rapport with the subjects and to stimulate the trust and cooperation often needed to probe sensitive areas; (2) it provides an opportunity to help the subjects in their interpretation of the questions; and (3) it allows flexibility in determining the wording and sequence of the questions by giving the researcher greater control over the situation.

Open-ended questions and probes yield in-depth responses about people's experiences, perceptions, opinions, feelings and knowledge. Data consist of verbatim quotations with sufficient context to be interpretable. Interviews yield direct quotations from people about their experiences, opinions, feelings and knowledge (Patton, 2002).

Qualitative interviews are more flexible and open-ended. They are often used to develop ideas and research hypotheses rather than to gather facts and statistics. The qualitative researcher may want to count or enumerate certain aspects of the data; there is less focus on quantification (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

Thus, in this study, the semi-structured interview is used as a back–up source to describe and create an understanding of how English Communication Skills lecturers at the University of Venda teach discipline–specific vocabulary learning strategies. The discursive format allows the respondents to develop their answer in their own terms and at their own length and depth and this benefits this study. In fact, the interview will serve as a rich source of data as it would provide access to the ECS lecturers' declarative or static knowledge about facts and principles that apply within the confines of the study. In conjunction with the questionnaire which is the other main data collection method used in this study, the interview serves to verify,

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establish and expand upon the information obtained from the respondents of the study.

3.5 THE SETTING OF THE RESEARCH

As indicated from the onset, this study takes place at the University of Venda. The University of Venda (Univen) is situated in Thohoyandou, in the scenic Vhembe district of the Limpopo Province of South Africa. It was established basically like other historically black universities, according to the Extension of University Education Act of 1959. Univen started as a branch of the then University of the North (Turfloop) on the recommendations of a pilot committee which was appointed to investigate the possibility of university education in the Venda homeland. The Venda branch of the University of the North became independent (from Turfloop) in 1981 when the University of Venda Act (Act 19 of 1981) was passed by the then Venda parliament (University of Venda Calendar, 1984). Univen has made strides since its early days, moving from a total of 181 part-time students in 1981, 394 in 1982; 789 in 1983 to 10343 in 2011. The number has grown to 12072 in 2013 and 13611 in 2014 respectively (HEMIS Office). Today, Univen is one of eight comprehensive universities in South Africa (DHET).

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Below is a map of the Limpopo Province in which the researcher shows the study area:

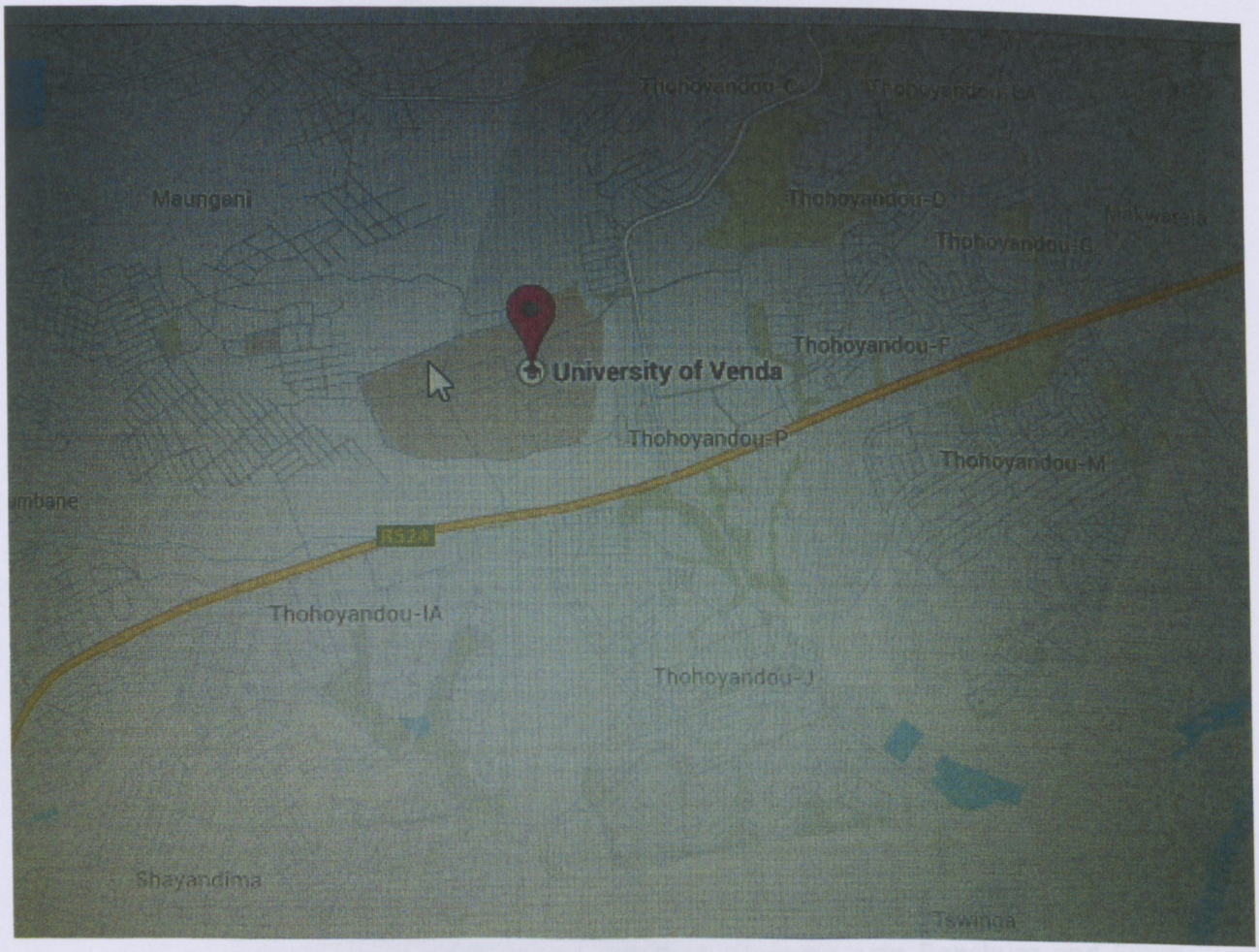

Figure 1: https://www.google.co.za/maps@-22.9610342,30

3.6. POPULATION

A research design should clearly indicate what units of analysis will be accessed to provide information that is relevant to the research topic (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). A population is the totality of persons, events, organization units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. Population is the term for the collectivity that researchers plan to study and about which researchers want to make statements (Rossouw, 2003; Huysamen,

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1996). Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:20) describe population as the universe of people to which the study could be generalized.

According to White (2005:113), a population is a collection of objects, events or individuals having some common characteristics that the researcher is interested in studying. The population is all the elements from which a sample is drawn. Elements are the units that are sampled. These may be persons, households, schools or whatever (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

The population or the unit of analysis for this study is the ten (10) English Communication Skills' lecturers in the Department of English at the University of Venda. The sample is seven (7), the other remaining three (3) lecturers were left out because two (2) of them are the supervisors of the study, whereas the other one (1) is the researcher of the study. They are males and females lecturers who are experienced in the field of teaching. Their overall teaching experience range from three (3) to thirty three (33) years.

3.7. SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

According to Rossouw (2003: 108), the process of selecting a part of a group under study is known as sampling. A sampling procedure is the procedure by which a sample is acquired (Stratton & Hayes, 1999:1). Henning, van Rensburg and Smith (2004:71) maintain that sampling is the selection of research participants. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:44) point out that sampling involves decisions about which people, settings, events, behaviours and/ or social processes to observe. The main concern in sampling is representativeness. The aim is to select a sample that will be representative of the population about which the researcher aims to draw conclusions.

Sampling is a means of trying to select participants who are best suited for your study and will allow you to accomplish your research goal. Often the goal is to obtain a representative sample- a group that is similar to a larger population (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009:25-26). Sampling means to make a selection from the sampling

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frame (a concrete listing of the elements in the population) in order to identify the people or issues to be included in the research (White, 2005).

A sample is also described as a portion of the elements in a population (White, 2005: 114). According to Seale (2004: 64), a sample can be described as a small, scale representation - a kind of miniature model - of the population from which it is selected. A sample is a small part or quantity intended to show what the whole is like, it is a portion of a population, serving as a basis for estimates of the attributes of the whole population (Soanes & Stevenson, 2004:1270). It is a part of the greater group from which it is drawn (Rossouw, 2003:108). A further element of sample is that it is part of a population, usually randomly selected, to be representative of the whole population on which data are gathered (Sutherland, 1995:408).

As a sample is a relatively small subgroup of individuals from the population, inferential statistics are used to make deductions about the entire population (Huysamen, 1996:3). Stratton and Hayes (1999:247) confirm that a sample is a part of a population, which is studied so that the researcher can make generalisations about the whole of the original population. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:26) describe a sample as the subset of people from the population who will participate in the current study. According to Shipman (1997:57), a sample is selected to represent a population. It can be viewed as a sub-set of measurements drawn from the population in which we are interested (de Vos *et al*, 2002:199).

There are two main types of sampling: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is when we know that every unit of analysis in a population has an equal chance of being selected into a sample, and we know what the likelihood of each unit being selected is (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009; Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008; Rossouw, 2003). Probability or scientific sampling is based upon the idea of random sampling, that each person or unit selected should have a completely random chance of being selected (Miller & Brewer, 2003). Dawson (2007) points out that there are many different ways to choose a sample, and the method used will depend upon the area of research,

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research methodology and preference of the researcher. There are two main types of samples: probability samples and purposive samples. The sub-types of probability sampling are simple random sample, cluster sample, quasi-random sample or systematic sample, stratified random sample and disproportionate stratified sample. On the other hand, purposive samples are used if description rather than generalization is the goal. The examples thereof are quota sample, snowball sample, theoretical; sampling, heterogeneous sample, convenience sample, haphazard or accidental sample.

To achieve representativeness, researchers draw random samples (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The *random* tells that the sample is to be chosen by a process that will give each sampling unit in the population the same chance of being selected (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009; Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996). The rationale behind random sampling is that the characteristics of the good random sample (the sample estimates) should mirror the characteristics of the population as a whole (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999:45), types of research that are less concerned with statistical accuracy than they are with detailed and in-depth analysis, for example, interpretive and constructionist research, qualitative research and exploratory research- typically do not draw large or random samples. Various types of purposeful (non-random) sampling may be used. When researchers are not concerned with the representativeness of a sample, they do not need to use probability sampling. Qualitative researchers often use non-probability sampling because they seldom attempt to generalize their findings to population. In non-probability sampling, participants are selected based on characteristics they possess or their availability to participate. Therefore, each population member is not equally likely to be selected to participate (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). Qualitative researchers seek to describe or explain what happens within a smaller group of people (Dawson, 2007).

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Convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling are all types of non-probability sampling (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008).

In purposive sampling, researchers use their own judgement about which participants to choose, and they select only those who best meet the purposes of their studies (Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008). Qualitative researchers also use purposeful samples. Purposeful samples are comprised of people based on a particular attribute, and are often designed to arbitrarily include equal representation of groups that may not be equally represented in society (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Sampling is important because, in almost all cases, it is not practical to study all the members of a population. In most instances, though, we do not – and cannot sample the whole population. In some studies the researchers would like to make some claim about generalizability- that is, how much, how well, or how closely the findings from the current sample apply to the entire population (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

The relevant sampling technique for this study is purposive sampling. The reason for using purposive sampling is that the chosen participants best meet the purposes of the study by virtue of them being ECS lecturers and teaching discipline-specific vocabulary is an essential part of their work.

The sample for this study, therefore, involves only the lecturers who are not directly involved in this study. Of the ten lecturers that form the population for this study, only seven lecturers form the sample of the study. Although the number seems small these participants are the only ones who have the ability to describe clearly and in detail their particular experiences in dealing with English Communication Skills modules, especially discipline-specific vocabulary, for it is a vital part of their work.

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3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduced methodological aspects of the study. Conventional ways of collecting descriptive data were described. A sample of seven lecturers was chosen for this study through purposive sampling.

In Chapter 4, the researcher concentrates on data collection, data analysis and interpretation. For data collection, questionnaires, interviews and literature study were used. Lecturers' questionnaires and interviews and the discussion analysis thereof will be done in this chapter.

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CHAPTER 4

DATA COLLECTION, DISPLAY AND DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The format of a study determines the nature of the data collection methods and how this is to be implemented. The methods of data collection and analysis in this study focus mainly on observation, iconic data (questionnaire) and verbal data (interview). The data collection methods chosen to address the research questions are of micro genetic nature and are directly influenced by the nature of the inquiry.

4.2 DATA COLLECTION, DISPLAY AND ANALYSIS

In an attempt to provide answers to the research question, namely, which vocabulary teaching strategies are used by ECS lecturers for their discipline specific modules? A questionnaire and an interview schedule were used as part of tools for data collection. A questionnaire on vocabulary teaching strategies was administered to all the participants in this study, that is, seven ECS lecturers at Univen. Of the seven participants, only five returned their responses whereas the other two participants did not return their responses. This means, therefore, that the five participants then constitute the sample of this study.

The main reason for administering the lecturers questionnaire was to get more information from the lecturers who were responsible for the implementation of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching.

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4.2.1. THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ECS LECTURERS

PART 1: GENERAL INFORMATION.

Table 4.2.1.1 Gender

	Distributed questionnaires	Returned Questionnaires	Number of questionnaires not returned
Male	5	4	1
Female	2	1	1
Total	7	5	2

Table 4.2.1.1 indicates that the total number of questionnaires distributed is seven. Of the seven, only five respondents returned the questionnaire, four male and only one female. Two respondents did not return their questionnaires.

Table 4.2.1.2. Years of teaching experience and the years of teaching discipline- specific ECS module at the University of Venda

Years of teaching Experience	Years of teaching discipline-specific ECS module at Univen	Frequency of years of teaching discipline-specific ECS module	Percentage
16	1-2		
32	3-4	2	40
3	5-6		
22	7-8		
33	9 and above		
	No response	3	60
	Total	5	100

Table 4.2.1.2 reflects that two of the respondents, meaning 40% of the respondents indicated that they have only taught discipline- specific modules for two years, and the other three respondents who constitute 60% did not respond to the question. The focus of this table is on the years of teaching experience and the years of teaching experience with regard to discipline-specific ECS module. The years of

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teaching experience are far higher than the years of teaching experience of discipline-specific ECS which are far lower as reflected in the table above. It becomes a worrisome point when more than half of the respondents happen not to disclose their experience of teaching discipline-specific ECS. Could it be that their discipline-specific teaching experience is low or that they do not have any experience at all?

Table 4.2.1.3 Which discipline-specific ECS module do you teach?

Discipline- specific ECS module	Frequency
ECS 1641 (Human and Social Sciences)	Not applicable
ECS 1642 (Education)	2
ECS 1643 (Business and Management Sciences)	1
ECS 1644 (Law)	1
ECS 1645 (Mathematics and Natural Sciences)	2
ECS 1646 (Environment and Health Sciences)	Not applicable

Table 4.2.1.3 indicates the frequencies that show the number of the respondents responsible for the different ECS modules. The modules ECS 1641 and ECS 1646 appear to have no lecturers responsible for them. This could mean that the respondents who did not return the questionnaires are responsible for these modules. Two respondents indicated that they were responsible for ECS 1642 and ECS 1645 modules respectively. Only one respondent was responsible for ECS 1643 and also for ECS 1644, respectively.

Part 2: QUESTIONS BASED ON LITERATURE

Table 4.2.1.4 Are you aware of the different vocabulary teaching strategies?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	100%
No		
Total	5	100%

Table 4.2.1.4 above indicates that all the five respondents, were aware of the different vocabulary teaching strategies.

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Table 4.2.1.5 Which vocabulary teaching strategies do you utilize in teaching your discipline-specific ECS module?

Respondent	Response (vocabulary teaching strategies)
1.	Games e.g. scrabble, puzzles Paraphrasing Using Thesaurus Sharing in class (presentations)
2.	Pre-teaching strategy End of lesson vocabulary
3.	Teaching lexical chunks Semantic mapping Dictionary skills
4.	Dictionary work Personal glossaries Word analysis Contextual meaning Word families Nominalizations
5.	Guessing

Table 4.2.1.5 above indicates the participants' self–reported responses on vocabulary teaching strategies they use in teaching discipline-specific ECS modules. The first respondent reflected the use of games, for example: scrabble and puzzle; paraphrasing; the use of Thesaurus and sharing in class (presentations).

The second respondent's response indicated pre-teaching strategy and end of lesson vocabulary as the vocabulary teaching strategies used in teaching discipline- specific ECS module; whereas the third respondent responded indicated teaching lexical chunks, semantic mapping and dictionary skills as strategies used in teaching the discipline-specific module.

The fourth respondent reflected the use of dictionary work, personal glossaries, word analysis, contextual meaning, word families and nominalizations in teaching

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discipline-specific ECS module. Lastly, the fifth respondent reflected the use of guessing in teaching the discipline-specific ECS module.

Two respondents, share the use of dictionary as a teaching strategy for teaching discipline-specific ECS modules. Only one respondent indicated the use of Thesaurus. In total it means three respondents use dictionary as a strategy for teaching discipline-specific ECS modules. The remaining two did not report the use of dictionary as one of the strategies they use in teaching discipline-specific ECS modules; maybe it is because of the nature of the disciplines for which they are responsible.

The difference in the number of strategies and the strategies which the discipline-specific ECS lecturers use as reflected in table 4.2.1.5 brings to light the existence of a clear difference amongst the respondents with regard to how and what the respondents teach their students as vocabulary teaching strategies. The differences do not come as a surprise in that the discipline-specific ECS modules different as they are may need different teaching and learning strategies, hence the different strategies individual respondent provided. Again, as individuals the respondents reflected moderate knowledge of the vocabulary teaching strategies, hence the number of the strategies each respondent mentioned in the questionnaire as compared to the vocabulary teaching strategies reflected in literature review in the following table. This could also mean that the mentioned vocabulary teaching strategies are the ones relevant to the particular discipline-specific modules the participants offer.

Hereunder is a Table 4.2.1.5.a of strategies to teach disciple-specific vocabulary as per literature review:

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Table 4.2.1.5.a

Teaching strategies to teach disciple-specific vocabulary as per literature review
1. Develop a concept strategy
2. Attach a label strategy
3. Multiple-meaning strategy
4. Homophone strategy
5. Explicit instruction: (Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner, 2006).
• Words context and definition. • Finding synonym and antonym. • Making sentences with the words. • Classify words with others. • Relating definitions to one's experience. • Reading and using words in an appropriate context. • Multiple exposures to the new word.
6. Guessing
7. Cause and effect
8. Analysis of word parts (prefixes, suffixes, infixes, word families)
9. Listening and speaking strategy.
10. Vocabulary games.
11. Vocabulary cards.
12. Borrowing words (French, Greek & Latin etc.)
13. Making associations.
14. Collocations.
15. Dictionary.

The vocabulary teaching strategies as per literature review show that there are other vocabulary teaching strategies which respondents do not use. This suggests that there are other vocabulary teaching strategies which the respondents are not aware of.

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Table 4.2.1.6 Do you think the strategies that you use are beneficial to the students?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	100%
No		
Total	5	100%

Table 4.2.1.6 above shows that all the five respondents thought the strategies they used were beneficial to the students.

Table 4.2.1.7 Why do you say that?

Respondent	Response
1.	Students use newly acquired words immediately. Students report this in their evaluation report.
2.	Students show signs of improvement after few months of using strategies.
3.	Teaching lexical chunks ensures that vocabulary is available for immediate use. Semantic mapping ensures that students are motivated and involved in thinking, reading and writing process. Dictionary skills ensure that students are able to identify the different parts of speech of different words, how to use words in different contexts, how words are pronounced and as a result their speaking and writing skills improve.
4.	They provide students with a wider variety of learning strategies. Students are free to use strategies they are comfortable with, or those that work best for them. Dictionary work is compulsory; however, students need to know there are other methods of vocabulary learning.
5.	There are times where students cannot use a dictionary, so guessing comes in handy using context or prefixes and suffixes especially in the Natural Sciences.

Table 4.2.1.7 indicates responses reflecting the reasons that the respondents gave which showed that the strategies they used were beneficial to the students. All the responses reflect the positive impact vocabulary teaching strategies have to the students.

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Table 4.2.1.8 Which other vocabulary teaching strategies are you aware of?

Respondent	Response (vocabulary teaching strategies)	Frequency	Percentage
1.	None.	1	20%
2.	Teaching conversation strategies and skills.	1	20%
3.	Making use of academic vocabulary word lists. Use of audio-visual equipment and computers.	1	20%
4.	Word games. Synonyms and antonyms. Collocations.	1	20%
5.	Dictionary use.	1	20%

Table 4.2.1.8 indicates that the first respondent, which is 20 % of the respondents, indicated that the respondent was not aware of any other vocabulary teaching strategies. The remaining four respondents who make 80% of the respondents indicated that they were aware of other vocabulary teaching strategies.

The strategies which the four respondents indicated that they were aware of are teaching conversation strategies and skills as reflected by the second respondent; making use of academic vocabulary word lists and that was aware of the use of audio-visual equipment and computers; word games, synonyms and antonyms, and collocations and the dictionary use.

Although a very small percentage (20%) of the respondents reflected that it was not aware of any other vocabulary teaching strategies, this shows that indeed there was a need for intervention so that at most all respondents are made aware of other vocabulary teaching strategies. This could mean that if the respondent is not aware of other vocabulary teaching strategies, the respondent is obviously not teaching the students other vocabulary teaching strategy.

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Given the few number of other vocabulary teaching strategies the respondents are aware of, it is possible that the respondents may not adequately be aware of the various vocabulary teaching strategies.

Table 4.2.1.9 Why don't you use them?

Respondent	Response (reason for not using the strategies)
1.	Not applicable
2.	The strategy cannot be easily applied in class because it needs a lot of time and effort. The strategy requires students to categorize the types of expressions and observe the kinds of strategies which speakers use when conducting conversations.
3.	Word lists do not contain all the words needed by students in order to be academically successful. Students also need to know the context in which words are used. Efforts to get students to watch TV for academic gains have not always produced desirable results as they tend to regard it merely as an entertainment device. They do however Google out information from the internet for their research, but more often than not they do not understand what they write as they adapt a 'cut and paste' style and pay little attention to the meaning of different concepts used.
4.	I make use of the strategies in one way or another, and I make students aware of the strategies they may use particularly when doing extensive reading.
5.	It is time consuming and not always allowed, like in exams sometimes.

Table 4.2.1.9 above indicates that not all the participants responded positively to the question. Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents did not respond to the question, whereas eighty percent (80%) advanced reasons for not using those strategies in class. The table also presents reasons for not using the strategies.

From Table 4.2.1.9 the participant who was not aware of any other discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategy, did not respond to the question. Yes, how can the respondent use that which is unknown to him or her? This further means that

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the respondent does not use any other vocabulary teaching strategy, and therefore has no reason for not using nothing.

All these reasons which were advanced for not using vocabulary teaching strategies seem valid and convincing, but the main aim of teaching vocabulary teaching and learning strategies is to equip students so that they also do independent learning. Could it be that the respondents are giving excuses for not being adequately aware of other vocabulary teaching strategies and therefore are not sure of how to use them?

Table 4.2.1.10 Do you consider discipline-specific vocabulary teaching useful?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	100%
No		
Total	5	100%

Table 4.2.1.10 above reflects that all (5) the five respondents responded to the question and indicated that they considered discipline-specific vocabulary teaching useful. The irony is that even the respondent who did not know other vocabulary teaching strategies considers vocabulary teaching strategies useful. This means that there is a need for useful vocabulary teaching strategies to be exposed to all the respondents.

Table 4.2.1.11 To what extent do you consider the usefulness of discipline- specific vocabulary teaching?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Not useful		
Slightly useful		
Moderately useful		
Useful	2	40%
Very useful	3	60%
Total	5	100%

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Table 4.2.1.11 above, shows that two (2) respondents indicated that they considered discipline-specific vocabulary teaching useful, whereas three (3) respondents indicated that they considered discipline-specific vocabulary teaching very useful. These responses put a lot of value on the usefulness of vocabulary teaching strategies.

Table 4.2.1.12 Have you undergone training for vocabulary teaching strategies?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	2	40%
No	3	60%
Total	5	100%

Table 4.2.1.12 above reflects that 40% of the respondents indicated that they have undergone training for vocabulary teaching strategies whereas 60% of the respondents indicated that they have not undergone training for vocabulary teaching strategies. In view of the extent to which the respondents considered the usefulness of teaching vocabulary teaching strategies in 4.2.1.11 above, 60% of the respondents is too much a percent for not having been trained anyhow concerning vocabulary teaching and learning strategies and yet expected to equip students. And so much more is expected from the students as well in the hope that they have been adequately equipped.

Table 4.2.1.13 If "yes", where and when?

Where?	When?	Frequency	Percentage
n/a	n/a	3	60%
At college of education	When I did my teacher's training course	1	20%
At my former work	From 2000 to 2010	1	20%
Total		5	100%

Table 4.2.1.13 above shows that 60% of the respondents indicated that they had not undergone any training for vocabulary teaching strategies. Following the

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respondents' positive responses in 4.2.1.11 above, where the respondents considered discipline-specific vocabulary teaching useful and very useful, the respondents' 60% state of not having received any training becomes a worrying factor.

Table 4.2.1.14 How do you make sure you keep up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies?

Respondent	Response (reason)
1.	Conferences (paper presentation). Journal articles.
2.	Plan on time on the days in which I must include vocabulary teaching in my lessons. Check information from different sources and evaluate on how I can teach vocabulary in class.
3.	I read literature dealing with the aspect of vocabulary teaching when I prepare for my class.
4.	Implementation.
5.	By reading and practicing the strategy myself.

In keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies, respondents indicated varied responses in Table 4.2.1.14 above. The first respondent indicated that conferences (paper presentation) and journal articles help in keeping up with knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. The second respondent keeps up with the knowledge through planning on time on the days when disciple-specific vocabulary teaching had to be included in lessons and also checking information from different sources and evaluating how discipline-specific vocabulary could be taught in class. With the third respondent, reading literature dealing with the aspect of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching when preparing for class helps in keeping up with the knowledge of vocabulary teaching strategies. The fourth respondent indicated implementation whereas the fifth respondent indicated reading and practising the strategy himself or herself.

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In view of the responses, paper presentation and or conferences as is, leave much to be desired, considering that conferences run according to themes. One therefore wonders if there have been conferences specifically dealing with discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. Besides, how many conferences does one attend? What are the requirements of attending a conference? This desire may be driven home as a suggestion that the department of English starts to hold seminars about discipline-specific vocabulary teaching. In fact the way the responses are, calls for an intervention.

PART 3. QUESTIONS RELATING TO TEACHING STRATEGIES PARTICIPANTS MAY HAVE USED.

Table 4.2.1.15 How do you use discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies to foster learners' autonomy, independence and self direction?

Respondent	Response (reason)
1.	I encourage learners to use the newly acquired vocabulary among their peers and in their writing.
2.	Making sure that all students participate. Give the dictation and evaluate spelling.
3.	Engage them in wide reading which will enable the students' vocabulary to grow as a consequence of independent reading. Encourage correctness with language in discussions and writing.
4.	Independent study for students' acquisition and understanding of discipline-specific concepts; and for improved speaking, reading and writing skills.
5.	Each time I use a word while teaching, e.g. pre-school I write it on the board and analyze it: pre- = before.

Table 4.2.1.15 above shows various responses with regard to the use of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies to foster learners' autonomy, independence and self direction. Amongst the responses, the first respondent encouraged learners to use the newly acquired vocabulary among their peers and in their writing. The second respondent made sure that all students participate, gave dictation and evaluated spelling. The third respondent engaged students in wide reading which would enable the students' discipline-specific vocabulary to grow as a consequence

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of independent reading and also encouraged correctness with language in discussions and writing. The fourth respondent indicated independent study for students' acquisition and understanding of discipline-specific concepts and for improved speaking, reading and writing skills. The fifth respondent indicated that each time s/he used a word while teaching, e.g. pre-school, s/he wrote it on the board and analyzed it: pre- = before.

The responses above show that the respondents allow their students to do independent work or self study. This is good because the main reason for discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies is to equip the students to be able to work on their own and further grow their vocabulary.

Table 4.2.1.16 Do you see discipline-specific vocabulary teaching as the effort of both the lecturer and the student?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	100%
No		
Total	5	100%

Table 4.2.1.16 above shows that 100% of the respondents indicated that they saw discipline-specific vocabulary teaching as an effort of both the lecturer and the student. This means that the lecturer should do his/her part of teaching the vocabulary teaching and learning strategies whereas the student on the other side should do his/her part.

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Table 4.2.1.17 Why do you say that?

Respondent	Response (reason)
1.	Learners will not do anything nowadays unless the teacher asks them to.
2.	Students must participate actively during lessons to gain confidence
	Students must listen attentively when the lecturer is presenting the lesson in order to attain meaning of particular words and practice how to use them during conversation.
3.	Lecturers have to make students aware of the different vocabulary learning strategies and regularly monitor progress of mastery of vocabulary (in terms of volume and usage) Students themselves have to maximize their use of the different vocabulary learning strategies
4.	*Teaching and learning cannot be separated.* *Effective learning happens through proper teaching.*
5.	*Practice makes perfect, so learn and practice.*

Table 4.2.1.17 reflects the varied responses of the participants when giving the reasons pertaining to why they saw discipline-specific vocabulary teaching as the effort of both the lecturer and the student. All the respondents agree that a lecturer has to lay the basis of teaching and learning on which the students then follow as they independently do their work. One of the respondents also indicated that teaching and learning could not be separated and that effective learning happened through proper teaching.

Table 4.2.1.18 Do you think discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies help learners to foster learner autonomy, independence and self direction?

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	5	100%
No		
Total	5	100%

Hundred percent of the respondents in table 4.2.11.18 above positively indicated that they thought that vocabulary teaching strategies helped learners to foster learner autonomy, independence and self direction. This positive indication is good

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because with the positive knowledge about vocabulary teaching strategies, the respondents happily and purposefully do their part unlike if they were not aware of the good help vocabulary teaching strategies do to the students.

4.3 ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ECS LECTURES

Five ECS lecturers were interviewed. A discussion analysis of the ECS lectures' interview was also done. Here-under are their experiences:

4.3.1 Share your experiences on how you help your students to learn discipline-specific vocabulary in your ECS classes.

In response to the first question, the lecturers explained how they help their students to learn discipline-specific vocabulary in their ECS classes. The ECS lecturers indicated that they arranged words into different categories, wrote the most difficult words on the board and let the students practice through reading and demonstrating pronunciation and the students learnt the use of the words.

The ECS lecturers responsible for the ECS elective further indicated that prescribed text teaching was done and all the tasks were focused on law cases, court proceedings, crime and other related aspects. They went on to indicate that they encouraged students to read extensively and to work in groups, pairs and to read manageable text where they extracted challenging or new vocabulary of which they had to find their meaning and used them in different contexts. They further maintained that they also gave students new vocabulary so that students thought in context and gave meanings, and there after they verified the meanings and used the words more often.

The ECS lecturers continuously maintained that they taught students dictionary skills, word classes or families and also gave them texts with discipline-specific vocabulary to study and sometimes provided them with discipline-specific word lists to master and show the appropriate contexts in which they are used. They further indicated that they simply contextualized the teaching of vocabulary meaning that every lecture included vocabulary teaching.

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4.3.2 Which teaching strategies do you consider the best in building learners discipline- specific vocabulary quicker?

In responding to the second question, ECS lecturers indicated that the best vocabulary teaching strategies in building learners discipline- specific vocabulary in a quicker way were dictionary work, synonyms and antonyms, thesaurus and semantic mapping.

ECS lecturers further indicated interacting, debate, restating, paraphrasing and summarizing in one's own words as the best vocabulary teaching strategies in building learners discipline-specific vocabulary in a quicker way.

The respondents further mentioned word associations, connotations and denotations, word formations and the use of root word to get the meaning. They went on to mention that they actively involved students in thinking, reading and writing process and that they also tried to use the strategies equally depending on the content.

4.3.3 Considering ECS class size, what assurance do you have that the teaching strategies you use are beneficial to the students?

When answering the third question, ECS lecturers gave their assurance that in spite of the class size the teaching strategies they used were beneficial to the students. They went on to say that they checked during evaluation or assessment time to see if the strategies were beneficial.

ECS lecturers further indicated that they encouraged group work and all the members of the groups came prepared for presentations on topics requiring disciple-specific vocabulary; and that any member of the group was chosen to represent the group and that made students to be prepared at all time because no specific individual was chosen before hand to represent the group.

The ECS lecturers further maintained that they made follow-ups if there was work which was given in class. They further indicated that they also moved around

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checking on the given class activity and also on the reporting back of the group activities. They further indicated that with contextualized vocabulary everybody was involved and students raised hands and took turns even those whose hands were not raised were also forced to take part.

4.3.4 How often do you assess your learners with regard to the usefulness of the teaching strategies?

In responding to the fourth question, which pertains to how often the respondents assessed their learners with regard to the usefulness of the strategies, ECS lecturers indicated that they continuously assess most of the time during lessons and they also pointed out that each time a strategy was used there was written or verbal assessment and feedback; and that the students reflected on what they learnt and they gave inputs on what worked and what did not work for them.

ECS lecturers further indicated that due to class size, they rarely assessed at least once a week using either formal or informal short activities that required students to look up for discipline-specific words from the dictionary.

4.3.5 What mechanisms do you use in assessing the usefulness of the teaching strategies to the students?

In response to the fifth question, ECS lecturers indicated that the mechanisms they used in assessing the usefulness of the teaching strategies to the students were the use of formal and informal activities. ECS lecturers further mentioned that students asked questions after the lesson presentation and that students were also asked questions by the lecturer to restate the lesson in their own words. ECS lecturers also indicated the use of written or verbal feedback and also peer assessment. They further pointed out that they gave the students short assignments that required them to search for discipline- specific words from dictionary.

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4.3.6 Do you think conference attendance and paper presentation help in keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies?

In responding to the sixth question ECS lecturers agreed that conference attendance and paper presentation help in keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. They further indicated that the theme of the conference determined how much benefit they would derive.

4.3.7 How does conference attendance and paper presentation help you in keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies?

In answering the seventh question, ECS lecturers indicated that conference attendance and paper presentation helped them in keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. ECS lecturers further indicated that through the sharing of ideas on how to teach discipline-specific vocabulary and helping one another in identifying relevant vocabulary to teach they get helped. They went on to say that exposure to new knowledge and the usage of current knowledge helped them in keeping up with the knowledge of vocabulary teaching strategies.

Furthermore, ECS lecturers indicated that although not all conferences dealt with the discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies if the theme of the conference was related to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies, in that way conference attendance and paper presentation helped.

ECS lecturers also indicated that in one way or the other conference attendance and paper presentation helped because some of them became aware of different discipline-specific vocabulary building strategies as they needed the necessary vocabulary to put up a paper for the conference.

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4.3.8 How many conferences have you attended?

In response to the eighth question, ECS lecturers indicated that their conference attendance varied from zero to thirty including those attended before joining UNIVEN. This means that ECS lecturers had not attended the same number of conferences.

4.3.9 How many papers have you presented?

In response to the number of papers ECS lecturers had presented in conferences, the number varied from one to five.

4.4. CONCLUSION

This chapter presented collected data and analysis. The responses indicated that vocabulary teaching strategies are very useful and that they are beneficial to the students but the lecturers lack training. It was also revealed that lecturers are not adequately aware of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. In view of that, the outstanding question is, how soon can it be for the lecturers to receive training in order to beef up their discipline-specific vocabulary knowledge?

In chapter 5 the researcher presents overview of chapters, a discussion of findings, a conclusion and offers recommendations.

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CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In Chapter Four data was displayed and analysed. The overall aim of this study was to carry out an investigation on whether or not ECS lecturers at UNIVEN utilize appropriate teaching strategies to teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary. The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings, conclusion and offer recommendations.

5.2. PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

Based on data display and analysis in Chapter 4, below I present a summary of my findings.

1. Lack of teaching experience of the discipline-specific modules

The study reveals that the participants' years of teaching experience and their years of teaching discipline-specific ECS modules are different; the years of teaching experience are more as compared to the years of teaching ECS discipline-specific modules. Although sixty percent of the respondents did not respond to the question pertaining to the teaching experience of ECS discipline-specific modules, the given responses indicate that it has been very few years that the participants have been teaching discipline vocabulary (Table 4.2.1.2). Two lecturers indicated only two years of teaching experience in teaching discipline-specific vocabulary. Three lecturers did not respond to the question.

2. Awareness of different strategies for teaching discipline-specific vocabulary.

There are vocabulary teaching strategies that ECS lecturers are aware of and also use (Table 4.2.1.4 and Table 4.2.1.5). However, the study indicates that there are other vocabulary teaching strategies which ECS lecturers do not use. This could mean that the ECS lecturers are not aware of other vocabulary teaching strategies

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(Table 4.2.1.5a) or they do not find them suitable or appropriate for their discipline-specific modules. According to Hatch and Brown (2000:401), which teaching strategy a teacher will employ depends on the time available, the content (i.e. the component of knowledge learners are to acquire), as well as on its value to the learner. Amongst ECS lecturers there is one lecturer who is not aware of other vocabulary teaching strategies (Table 4.2.1.8). This means that there are other vocabulary teaching strategies which ECS lecturers are not aware of. The vocabulary teaching strategies which are familiar to one lecturer seem to be unfamiliar to the other lecturers (Table 4.2.1.5 and Table 4.2.1.8). This could mean that their different disciplines use different teaching strategies or that ECS lecturers are not familiar with other teaching strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary. There is also a clear difference amongst the respondents with regard to *how* and *what they* teach to their students as discipline-specific vocabulary (Interview question 4.3.1). This is expected in cases where different ECS discipline-specific modules require different teaching strategies and different vocabulary relevant to that particular discipline.

Not all ECS lecturers use appropriate vocabulary teaching strategies in their classes. For example, strategies like sharing in class, presentation, paraphrasing (Table 4.2.1.5 in relation to Table 4.2.1.5a). Table 4.2.1.9 contradicts table 4.2.1.5, where some of the strategies said to be difficult to use in class are the ones ECS lecturers use in their classes. ECS lecturers reflect moderate knowledge of the different teaching strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary.

There is no popular vocabulary teaching strategies with ECS lecturers (Table 4.2.1.5 and Table 4.2.1.8). The only strategy two ECS lecturers share in common is dictionary usage, whereas one other ECS lecturer uses thesaurus. A person needs to develop a habit of looking up in a dictionary each unfamiliar word s/he encounters (Flower *et al.*, 1989). This could mean that the ECS lecturers use different strategies as required by the specific disciplines they teach or that they do not adequately use the discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. For discipline-specific vocabulary teaching, different disciplines are expected to use dictionaries designed

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specifically for the particular discipline, for example, Dictionary for Science Terms. But in this case ECS lecturers use only the general dictionaries.

Individually, ECS lecturers reflect moderate knowledge of the vocabulary teaching strategies, hence the number of the strategies each lecturer mentioned in Table 4.2.1.5 where the highest number of teaching strategies listed is six as compared to the vocabulary teaching strategies reflected in literature Table 4.2.1.5.a, where the number of strategies listed is twenty one. This could mean that the mentioned teaching strategies could be the ones required for the teaching of that particular discipline. On the other hand, it could also mean that their awareness of different strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary is grossly inadequate, maybe compounded by their individual experience.

3. Usefulness of teaching strategies

The strategies ECS lecturers use, are considered very useful and beneficial to the students (Table 4.2.1.6, Table 4.2.1.10 and Interview question 4.3.3), hence the students' immediate use of newly acquired words through dictionary use, semantic mapping, the use of lexical chunks, guessing, using context clues and the use of prefixes and suffixes (Table 4.2.1.7). The study reveals that although ECS lecturers agree that vocabulary teaching strategies are very useful, it also reveals that ECS lecturers are not adequately aware of the numerous vocabulary teaching strategies available in literature (Table 4.2.1.5 and Table 4.2.1.8 as compared to Table 4.2.1.5a). To further explain this point, Table 4.2.1.7 gives the justification of the usefulness in a vague way. This could also mean that the lecturers only provide the teaching and learning strategies as required by the disciplines they teach or they provide the only ones they are aware of, hence the few teaching strategies reflected in Tables 4.2.1.5 and 4.2.1.8 respectively.

ECS lecturers' reasons to justify that the strategies they use are beneficial to the students are grounded on that some ECS lecturers arrange words into different categories, write the most difficult words on the board and let the students practice through reading and demonstrating pronunciation and the students learnt the use of

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the words. Herrell and Jordan (2012:98) point out that the teacher needs to involve students in creating scenes using the new vocabulary, compare and contrast the uses of the words emphasizing the differing contexts used, and the similarities and differences in the ways in which the words are used. The findings further indicate that prescribed text teaching for the law elective are done and tasks are focused on law cases, court proceedings, crime and other related aspects. Furthermore, ECS lecturers encourage students to read extensively and to work in groups, pairs and to read manageable text where they extract challenging or new vocabulary of which they have to find their meaning and use them in different contexts. ECS lecturers also gave students new vocabulary so that students think in context and give meanings, and thereafter they verify the meanings and use the words more often. The study indicates that ECS lecturers teach students dictionary skills, word classes or families and also give students texts with discipline-specific vocabulary to study and sometimes ECS lecturers provide students with discipline-specific word lists to master and show the appropriate contexts in which they are used. ECS lecturers they simply contextualize the teaching of vocabulary meaning and that every lecture included vocabulary teaching.

ECS lecturers indicate that the best vocabulary teaching strategies in building learners discipline-specific vocabulary in a quicker way are dictionary work, synonyms and antonyms, thesaurus and semantic mapping. According to Schmitt and Schmitt (2011:16), many words have more than one meaning, when a person comes across an unfamiliar word s/he can look the word up in the dictionary. ECS lecturers further indicate that interacting, debate, restating, paraphrasing and summarizing in own words as the best vocabulary teaching strategies in building learners discipline-specific vocabulary in a quicker way. They also indicate that word association, word meanings (connotations and denotations), word formations and the use of root word to get the meaning also build students discipline-specific vocabulary in a quicker way. According to Weideman (2007: 94), dictionaries contain not only definitions of words but also a great deal of other information about the words. A dictionary is used as a spelling guide, or as an authority on pronunciation of a word. Dictionaries also tell what kind of word one is dealing with,

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that is, what part of speech a word belongs to. Dictionaries also give cross references to other words. The study also indicates that ECS lecturers actively involve students in thinking, reading and writing process and that they also try to use the strategies equally depending on the content.

Some of the strategies ECS lecturers consider the best in building learners discipline-specific vocabulary in a quicker way contradict the responses given in Table 4.2.1.8 and Table 4.2.1.9 where the strategies are not used because among others they are time consuming and cannot be easily applied in class. Following this contradiction, ECS lecturers display that they are not adequately aware of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies. The limited experience in teaching discipline-specific modules could also be a contributory factor on this contradiction.

4. Training on strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary

ECS lecturers lack training concerning strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary (Table 4.2.1.12 and Table 4.2.1.13). Only two ECS lecturers received training during their college teachers' training course whereas some lecturers are silent about receiving any training on strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary. At this state ECS lecturers claim that conference attendance and paper presentation help them in keeping up with the knowledge and strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary, but it also depends on the theme of the conference Table 4.2.1.14, Interview question 4.3.6, Interview question 4.3.7 and interview question 4.3.8). Although it is not all the conferences that deal with strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary, if the theme of a conference relates to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching then conference attendance and paper presentation help ECS lecturers. One ECS lecturer became aware of different strategies to teach and build discipline-specific vocabulary as s/he needed the relevant vocabulary to put up a paper for the conference. This means that it is important for ECS lecturers to attend conferences and also present papers.

There are some ECS lecturers who have never attended conferences whereas others have attended between one and thirty conferences. This means that ECS lecturers

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have not attended the same number of conferences. Therefore, if conference attendance benefits ECS lecturers in terms of discipline-specific vocabulary's scope of knowledge and understanding, some lecturers who have not attended conferences have missed out on such benefits.

5. Insufficient assessment of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies

Although there is some evidence from the analysis that ECS lecturers somehow evaluate the teaching strategies in order to see if the strategies they use are beneficial, the evaluation they provide is insufficient because the lecturers themselves indicated that due to large class size, some ECS lecturers rarely assess. This means that they do not regularly assess the students. According to Coxhead (2006:40), strategies need to be taught, regularly reviewed or used in class in order for them to become a normal part of a language learning routine. In other instances, assessment is done at least once a week using either formal or informal short activities that require students to look up for discipline-specific words from the dictionary. ECS lecturers do not always evaluate if the teaching strategies they use are beneficial to their students (interview question 4.3.3 and 4.3.4). Key content vocabulary must be pre-taught and reinforced. Lecturers should provide ongoing formative assessments (Alford & Nino, 2011). ECS lecturers do not use the same mechanisms of evaluating or assessing their ECS discipline-specific modules. This is expected because they teach different discipline-specific modules, hence individual evaluation.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The research dealt with a study of the teaching strategies utilized by the English Communication Skills lecturers at the University of Venda to teach discipline-specific vocabulary. It is concluded from the above findings that the University of Venda needs to address this situation where ECS lecturers lack training with regard to strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary and where ECS lecturers are not adequately aware of strategies to teach discipline-specific vocabulary by offering in-service training. The researcher believes that the support the lecturers will get

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ultimately will benefit the students not only in their discipline-related communication but also in their general communication.

Lastly, the value that ECS lecturers put on vocabulary teaching strategies means that this knowledge is worth acquiring, therefore, the respondents should be helped to acquire this valuable knowledge through the proposed measures provided below.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

- It is recommended that subject-specialists from each school should work closely with a designated ECS lecturer for effective vocabulary acquisition. It is also recommended that relevant resources should be available.

- It is also recommended that seminars or workshops should be provided to further equip and empower ECS lecturers on other vocabulary teaching strategies they are not aware of.

- In order to see the effectiveness of evaluation of vocabulary teaching strategies, even though lecturers could not assess uniformly due to the different discipline-specific ECS modules they are responsible for, ECS lecturers should find a way of assessing their students. It is an unacceptable practice to rarely assess the students due to large classes. It is recommended that a pattern of assessment should be established for all the disciplines, and that this pattern works for all the disciplines in spite of class size.

- On the basis of the findings that conference attendance and paper presentation help ECS lecturers in keeping up with the knowledge of discipline-specific vocabulary teaching, the researcher recommends that ECS lecturers should be encouraged to attend conferences and present papers in those conferences. It is also recommended that

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there should be a minimum number of conferences ECS lecturers attend in a year.

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ANNEXURE A

CONSENT FORM

This consent form together with the questionnaire is based on: **A study of the teaching strategies utilized by the English communication skills lecturers at the University of Venda to teach discipline–specific vocabulary.** The study aims to investigate whether ECS lecturers at Univen utilize appropriate strategies to teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary.

Your input in this project is of much importance; therefore your consent to take part in this project is of great value.

Thank you.

CONSENT:

I hereby agree to participate in this study; I understand that it is a research project that does not intend to benefit me personally. I also understand that I am participating freely and willingly without being forced in any way to do so and that my participation will remain confidential. I also understand that I can stop participating at any point if I do not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

Signature: ..... Date: 02-02-2013

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ANNEXURE B

NAME: MAKHWATHANA RENDANI MERCY

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LECTURERS OF ENGLISH COMMUNICATION SKILLS

This questionnaire is based on: A study of the teaching strategies utilized by the English Communication Skills lecturers at the University of Venda to teach discipline–specific vocabulary. The study aims to investigate whether ECS lecturers at Univen utilize appropriate strategies to teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary.

Dear colleagues

Kindly assist with the completion of this questionnaire to the best of your knowledge for the success of this project.

1. Your name is not required, so feel free to give your honest response.
2. Your input in this project is of much importance; therefore your consent to take part in this project is of great value.
3. In answering the questions, please use a tick or across in the boxes provided.
4. For your extended input, please use the blank spaces provided.

Thank you for your cooperation.

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PART 1: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Gender

Male	
Female	

2. Type of Qualification (you can tick/ cross more than one).

Teacher training	
First degree	
Honours Degree	
Masters Degree	
PhD	

3. Years of teaching experience

   3.1. Teaching experience: .....

   3.2. Teaching Discipline Specific ECS module: .....

4. Which discipline -specific module do you teach?

ECS 1641(module for Human and Social Sciences)	
ECS 1642 (module for Education)	
ECS 1643 (module for Business and Management Sciences)	
ECS 1644 (module for Law)	
ECS 1645 (module for mathematics and natural Sciences)	
ECS 1646 (module for Environmental Sciences and Health Sciences)	

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Part 2: QUESTIONS BASED ON LITERATURE

1. Are you aware of the different vocabulary teaching strategies?

Yes	
No	

2. Which vocabulary teaching strategies do you use in teaching your discipline - specific ECS module?

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3. Do you think the strategies that you use are beneficial to the students?

Yes	
No	

4. Why do you say so?

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5. Which other vocabulary teaching strategies are you aware of?

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6. Why don't you use them?

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7. Do you consider discipline- specific vocabulary teaching useful?

Yes	
No	

8.. To what extent do you consider the usefulness of discipline specific vocabulary teaching?

Not useful	Slightly useful	Moderately useful	useful	Very useful

9. Have you undergone training for vocabulary teaching strategies?

Yes	
No	

9.1 If "yes" where and when?

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10. How do you make sure you keep up with the knowledge pertaining to discipline-specific vocabulary teaching strategies?

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PART 3: QUESTIONS RELATING TO THE STRATEGIES THAT THE PARTICIPANTS MAY HAVE USED.

1. How do you use vocabulary teaching strategies to foster learners' autonomy, independence and self direction?

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2. Do you see vocabulary teaching and learning as the effort of both the lecturer and the student?

Yes	
No	

3. Why do you say so?

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.....

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4. Do you think vocabulary teaching strategies help learners to foster learner autonomy, independence and self direction?

Yes	
No	

Thank you.

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ANNEXURE C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

NAME: MAKHWATHANA RENDANI MERCY

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR LECTURERS OF ENGLISH COMMUNICATION SKILLS

This interview schedule is based on: A study of the teaching strategies utilized by the English communication skills lecturers at the University of Venda to teach discipline–specific vocabulary. The study aims to investigate whether ECS lecturers at Univen utilize appropriate strategies to teach their students discipline-specific vocabulary.

Dear colleagues

Kindly assist with the answering of this interview schedule to the best of your knowledge for the success of this project.

1. Your name is not required, so feel free to give your honest response.
2. Your input in this project is of much importance.
3. For your input, the researcher will take down notes.

Thank you for your cooperation.

1. Share your experiences on how you help your students to learn discipline-specific vocabulary in your ECS classes.

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2. Which vocabulary teaching strategies do you consider the best in building learners discipline- specific vocabulary quicker?

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3. Considering ECS class size, what assurance do you have that the teaching strategies you use are beneficial to the students?

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4. How often do you assess your learners with regard to the usefulness of the teaching strategies?

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5. What mechanisms do you use in assessing the usefulness of the teaching strategies to the students?

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6. Do you think conference attendance and paper presentation help in keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to vocabulary teaching strategies?

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7. How does conference attendance and paper presentation help you in keeping up with the knowledge pertaining to vocabulary teaching strategies?

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8. How many conferences have you attended? .....
9. How many papers have you presented? .....

Thank you.

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