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«PRACTICE OF VOCABULARY IN TEACHING AND LEARNING IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS»

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INTRODUCTION

Actuality of the final qualification work can be determined according to the following factors:

Teaching of modern foreign languages (English, German, and French) is a worldwide phenomenon. In Uzbekistan, the teaching of foreign languages and its introduction have received great attention as the government officially approved an earlier proposal to extend the teaching of modern foreign languages to all primary schools as a compulsory subject from grade 1.

As we approach the millennium, the learning of modern foreign languages plays a central role to provide the possibility of practical communication; it is also a source of valuable intellectual stimulation and enjoyment; it cultivates broader perspectives and insights into other cultures and enables people to gain insights into their own culture and language through contrast. But foreign language learning has particular advantages and teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan context requires specific skills and intuitions that differ from those appropriate for European countries.

Aim of the research work is to make practice vocabulary effective in teaching and learning in secondary schools.

Object matter of the research work is the developing process of vocabulary competence of English at A2 level in applying communicative approach to teaching English in the classrooms of public schools.

Subject of the research work are size, content, and means of vocabulary teaching at public secondary schools in Uzbekistan.

Methods of the research work are theory based methods (analytical-statistic, comparative, analogy, and modeling), diagnostic based methods (methods of class survey, classroom observation, projects), prognosis based methods (expert assessment, generalizing findings) pedagogic experiment based methods (vocabulary teaching technologies and etc.).

Tasks of the research work are a) to carry out retrospective view of teaching and learning of modern foreign languages in Uzbekistan, b) to identify how many lexical items to teach and how teach vocabulary in classroom context, c) to develop vocabulary teaching exercises and games in public schools.

Literature review of the research work: Children's entering vocabulary knowledge or language proficiency is another important factor that might influence their word-learning outcomes. Several studies, such as Collins (2010), Justice et al. (2005), Penno et al. (2002), Reese and Cox (1999), Robbins and Ehri (1994), and S?n?chal et al. (1995), have suggested that children with higher initial vocabulary knowledge made greater word-learning gains when teachers read a story aloud than did children with lower initial vocabulary knowledge.

In Russia scholars such as E.I.Passov(1991), N.D.Galskova and Z.N.Nikitenko (2004), R.P.Milrud (2005), A.N.Shukin (2006), L.D.Galskova and N.I.Geiz (2007), I.L.Bim et al (2013) have developed the methodology of foreign language teaching in CIS countries.

In Uzbekistan several studies such as prof. J.Jalov et al (1992), prof. G.H.Bakiyeva et al (1993), prof. L.T.Akhmedova et al (2014) have conducted to teaching English vocabulary to Uzbek learners.

Scientific and practical value of this research work can be estimated due to the following accomplishments:

- Findings of the research can be a theoretical source for lectures and practical seminars on concerning subjects in higher educational establishments and teacher training and retraining institutions;
- Vocabulary teaching tips and technologies can be applied in foreign language teaching process in primary classroom settings in Uzbekistan;

The structure and volume of the research work: The thesis consists of the introduction, three chapters, conclusion, and references. The volume of the thesis is 64 pages.

CHAPTER 1. RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN UZBEKISTAN

§1.1. Education and language policy in Uzbekistan

Since 1991, when Uzbekistan proclaimed its independence dramatic changes took place in all sectors and respectively in education as well. According to Constitution adopted in 1992, the Republic of Uzbekistan provides and supports languages, customs and traditions of all nationalities living in the country to be respected and developed (chapter 4). Furthermore, chapter 41 guarantees all its citizens the right to receive primary and secondary special education free of charge. In 1995 Uzbekistan took an active part in the discussions of the Declaration of Principles of Tolerance of UNESCO and successfully implemented it into national laws¹. According to the law about “State Language” all citizens of Uzbekistan have the right to choose a language for primary and secondary special education. For instance, primary and secondary education is offered in 7 languages² (www.lex.uz).

Table 1.

Number of schools and pupils education is offered in languages (www.uzedu.uz).

Languages	Uzbek	Russian	Kazak	Karakalpak	Tajik	Kirgiz	Turkmen
Number of schools	8825	836	380	363	247	57	56
Number of pupils	4116420	478008	48008	94791	55270	6731	8835

At the age of 6 (5) children have a month’s short term course at elementary schools to get accustomed and to adopt school life. General education has two

¹<http://www.un.org>. Declaration of Principles of Tolerance. Accesses date 10.02.2019

²<http://www.lex.uzUsb.dav.til.qonun>. Accesses date 10.02.2019

stages: primary education comprising grades 1 – 4 and optional education with grades of 5-9. When pupils finish their general education they choose either academic lyceums or vocational training colleges for further 3 years of compulsory education. Basic education is organized in public schools, but there are also some private primary schools. Another feature of the country's school system is that there are no school fees. All school aged children get president's gift in the form of school bags, books and other learning materials. Dropping out of school is rare and almost all children complete their basic and secondary special education.

Foreign language learning in primary education

Uzbekistan has a long enough tradition of teaching foreign languages to young children. The evidence to support the idea dates back from the "Great Silk Road" period when the present day territory of Uzbekistan used to be a center for world trade, science and culture. Uzbek merchants were fluent speakers in distinctively different languages such as Persian, Arabic or Chinese because bilingualism or monolingualism always had practical concern to study, to make business and for intercultural communication. In the 19th century Central Asia (Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Kirgizstan, and Afghanistan) used to be the territory of three kingdoms (the Khiva Kingdom, the Kokand Kingdom and the Bukhara Emirate) whose administrative principle cities were all located within the territory of today's Uzbekistan. Even though everyday communication was carried in different Turkish dialects, Arabic and Persian were still in use for trade, religion and administration. During the Second World War millions of war victims from Russia, Belorussia, The Ukraine, and North Korea were evacuated to the country. This caused a further variation of the country's ethnic makeup and Russian became a language for communication.

So, we can agree with the notion of Kelly (1969) and Howatt (1984) demonstrating that many current issues in language teaching are not particularly new. Today's controversies reflect contemporary responses to questions that have been asked often throughout the history of language teaching (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2009). But today's questions are more concerned with the starting age of

language learners and the language to be learned. Whereas today English (respectively German and French) is the most widely learned foreign languages in Uzbekistan; until independence Persian, Arabic and Russian enjoyed popularity, for they were the dominant languages of education, commerce, religion and government. Traditionally foreign language teaching considered teenagers and adults. Reforms evolved the problem of creating optimal conditions for foreign language learning in primary classrooms.

Today with 32 million citizens Uzbekistan is a multinational, multicultural and most densely populated country in Central Asia. In multicultural and multinational Uzbekistan Russian has kept its status as a second language for communication and until 2013 early characterized the learning of Russian and it was the only compulsory language in primary classrooms. Learning and teaching Russian at an early age was developed on the base of bilingual education principles which now being referred as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) perspective. Because, there were many bilingual schools where education was oriented to teach the other language of the country (Admiraal et al. 2006); language minority children (Korean, Armenian, Tajik, Ukrainian, Jewish and est.) were taught in the language of the majority group (Dalton-Puffer, 2007); Russian was used as the medium of instruction to teach content subjects by native speakers. Besides, children had plenty of time for language exposure and comprehensible input in different settings. At home a child watched cartoons in Russian, outside he saw road signs and mottoes in two languages, met people talking in Russian. On the other hand a child had enough reason to use Russian to communicate with caregivers, teachers, shop assistants, drivers, barbers, librarians or photographers who were native or native-like speakers. So, we can assume that Russian in Uzbekistan context was not **learned** but naturally **acquired**. Because, firstly children had plenty of time and exposure for discovery learning (J. Piaget:1926) and it spread over several years, secondly they had a need to use Russian in order to have something done, e.g. to shop, to make friends, thirdly they received plenty of meaningful language input through experience of Russian not as a subject to be

learned, but as a means of communication by scaffolding(L.Vigotskiy:1934;J.Bruner:), where the focus is on the meaning not the form of the language.

In 2012 the First President of the Republic of Uzbekistan’s resolution “About the measures on further development of foreign language teaching and learning system” made foreign language a compulsory subject of primary education (www.lex.uz). According to the Core Curriculum renewed in 2014 all children are to learn at one foreign language (especially English) from the first year of schooling, at the age of 7 (6). This decision demonstrated that the Uzbek state has finally acknowledged that learning and teaching modern foreign languages is a priority area. Since then primary foreign language education has been enjoying special attention and has been the focus of research, innovation and practical considerations. With 9692 primary schools having an enrolment of 4116420 students in 2016, there is now an urgent demand for foreign language teachers with specific qualification to facilitate learning in primary classrooms effectively³.

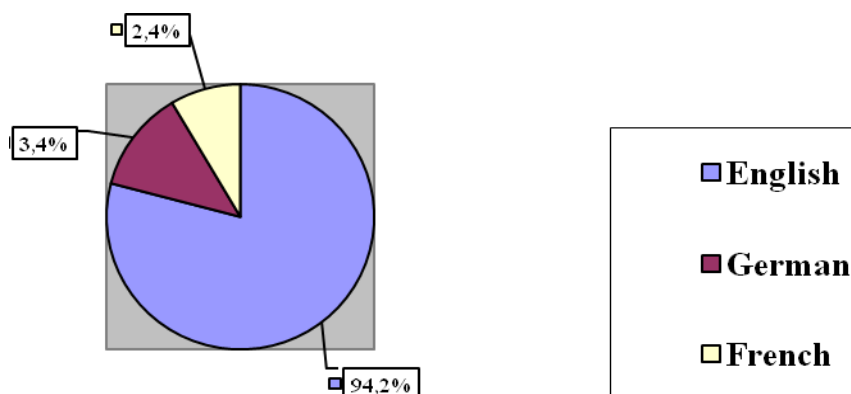


Figure 1. Pupils learning foreign languages in primary classroom

Learning and teaching foreign languages is distinctively different from traditional Russian language acquisition in Uzbekistan situation because of the following factors:

³ <http://www.uzedu.uz>. Accesses date: 14.03.2019

- a limited amount of time spent on foreign languages (on average, pupils in grade 1 have two 45-minute foreign language lessons per week (66 hours a year), pupils in grades 2-4 have two 45-minute lessons per week (68 hours a year), pupils in grades 5-9 have three 45-minute lessons per week (102 hours a year),
- no need or reason for using foreign languages as the country is located far from Europe and one can hardly see a native speaker,
- a formal learning environment with the focus mainly on correctness,
- native teachers previously taught in secondary classrooms,
- a limited and controlled language input.

Taking above mentioned factors the government of Uzbekistan initiated a nation-wide curriculum innovation in 2014 to promote learning English, German and French as foreign languages in primary schools.

§ 1.2. Goals and approaches in foreign language teaching in Uzbekistan

Foreign language education in primary schools in Uzbekistan is based on the National State Standard and Core Curriculum for Foreign Languages of the Republic of Uzbekistan approved by Cabinet Ministers and on Core Syllabus of Foreign Languages for Basic Education (grades 1-9) prepared by the Republican Center for Education under the Ministry of Public Education in 2013. The Core Curriculum and Syllabus are normative guidelines for teaching and educational work and it provides the goals, practical, general educational and developmental objectives and main content of the foreign language subjects. The primary foreign language studies form the ground for future lifelong language learning – formal and informal.

The philosophy underlying the Uzbek educational system is to equip younger generation with the competencies required for their future lives and jobs and to encourage life-long learning. The concept of language teaching is based on the communicative-cumulative method and child-centered approach. According to

the recent reformations, the overall goal of foreign language teaching and learning is to prepare a culturally aware and cognitive language user. Practical objective of foreign language teaching is to facilitate mastering the language proficiency at A1 level. Level A1 is divided further into more specified levels A1/1 for grade 1, A1/2 for grade 2, A1/3 for grades 3-4. Primary MFL (modern foreign language) is not only an investment for the future but it also reflects our values as modern citizens and our conception of what it means to be educated. The goals of primary MFL are to prepare specialists capable in the target languages, and on the base of this to provide them with the opportunities to enjoy the boons of modern world civilization and to access the intellectual wealth (Core Syllabus for general educational schools (for 1-9 grades)). In the Core Curriculum the aims and evaluation criteria concerning language teaching are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). These pan-European recommendations have been modified to suit the context in Uzbekistan. In the core curriculum the aim of enabling learners to communicate and express themselves in a foreign language is expressed in terms of four areas of proficiency known as the four major skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

According to the Core Curriculum for grade 1 listening comprehension and speaking skills are emphasized whereas writing is not introduced. A further aim is to encourage the pupils to use the language in a functional and creative way (plays, games, nursery rhymes, songs etc.). Emphasis is not only placed on language use, but also on creating a basis for language study skills and taking an interest in foreign language learning. The core contents are related to the pupils' interests and everyday life such as home and school. In addition, pupils are introduced to the target language's culture. In grades 3 – 4, the objectives and core contents for foreign language education are more specified than in grades 1 – 2. The objectives include language proficiency, cultural skills and learning strategies. The general objective of foreign language instruction is that pupils learn to communicate in the target language in simple speaking situations. Writing is increased gradually and emphasis is put on everyday life needs such as short messages. A further objective

is that the pupils - besides getting to know the culture of the target language - realize that there are differences in cultures and languages and despite these they are equal in value. Another objective of the instruction is that pupils develop good language study habits such as recognizing their own strengths and weaknesses as a language learner. The authors (Jalolov J.J. et al) of the Core Syllabus advocate communicative-cumulative integrated approach in language teaching focused on developing individuals' specific communicative competence to function more successfully in order to survive in different sectors of the rapidly changing society⁴. Despite world-wide criticism pointing out that CLT is a method that has its origins in EFL teaching for adults in western countries where groups are small and classrooms well-equipped⁵. It may not, therefore, be appropriate for teaching children in over-crowded classrooms with few resources and very different educational traditions⁶. But state policy in Uzbekistan remains unchanged and the government is supporting and compensating this approach by equipping classrooms with all necessary technical aids and complex of methodological materials (pupil's book, teacher's book, workbook, exercises book, reading book) approved by the government ("Kids' English 1,2,3,4", "Deutsch macht Spaß 1,2,3,4" and "Hirondelle 1,2,3,4") and limiting the amount of learners to 15. The government also financing English-only summer camps to provide the opportunity to be exposed to English outside of school all the learners regardless of socioeconomic background. Care takers in these camps are foreign language faculty students who want to earn during summer holiday.

⁴Ministry of Public Education, Curriculum on English (German, French) for General comprehensive schools. Tashkent: Public Education – scientific methodological journal. - 2013.

⁵Enever, J., and Moon, J., New global contexts for teaching Primary ELT: change and challenge. In J. Enever, J. Moon and U. Raman (Eds.), *Young Learner English Language Policy and Implementation: International Perspectives* Reading: Garnet Education. - 2009. pp. 5–21.

⁶Hu, G. Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: the case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*. - 2002. 15(2), pp. 93–105.

Although government policies and curricula typically advocate teaching communicatively, this approach is often incompatible with the demands of national examinations which continue to be grammar-based. Many teachers still use traditional formal grammar-focused approaches because they a) have no appropriate competency on the methodology of foreign language teaching to young learners and high proficiency, b) compensate their low level of communicative competence and try to keep the class under control, c) are under pressure to complete the syllabus and prepare for grammar based examinations.

In many societies, teaching children is seen as an extension of mothering rather than as an intellectual enterprise. Teachers at primary level are then often given less training, lower status, and lower pay, than their colleagues in the same educational system who teach teenagers or adults⁷. In Uzbekistan primary classroom teachers are privileged. Because teaching children is considered a difficult and time consuming job and it takes a very special person who understands how children make sense of the world and how they learn, plus a knowledge of the language, of language teaching, and of language learning. Persons specializing in the teaching of two foreign languages have been the norm in secondary education for decades. At a time when Uzbekistan was lowering the age of initial foreign language learning, it faced an acute shortage of adequately trained teachers for primary education. The country thus started training specialists for this level, in addition to their language specialization, were experts in the teaching methodology for the corresponding age-group.

Uzbekistan is still a novice in preparation primary foreign language teachers and there is no unified path on how to become an appropriately trained primary MFL teacher. According to the “Law about Education”, all primary school subjects are taught by class teachers but foreign languages are taught by language teachers with bachelors degree of philology and language teaching (5120100) or foreign languages and literature (5111400). In order to provide foreign language learning

⁷Cameron, L. Teaching Languages to Young Learners. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. - 2001. P.12.

on high standards, government is providing classrooms with multimedia-based modern technologies (interactive whiteboards, CD-ROMS). This may be viewed as a way of compensating for underqualified teachers or those with low proficiency.

Conclusion

Considering that young learners themselves wish to have teachers who are confident in their use of English (Butler, 2007), policy has focused on local teachers and encouraging them to become fluent speakers. State Test Center under the Cabinet Ministers holds proficiency tests for foreign language teachers. Most successful applicants will be certified for extra 30 percent payment to their monthly salary. That means those obtained Certificate endorsed by State Test Center or other internationally appreciated certificates as TOEFL or IELTS are more likely to be paid more. This is the way the government encourages teachers to be more qualified specialists (of child psychology, pedagogy and foreign language teaching methodology) of primary foreign language teaching. The government also offers 120 hours of mandatory training courses in regional teacher training and retraining institutions. As above mentioned 4116420 pupils are enrolled in primary classrooms and to teach this amount of learners 27532 teachers (21758 English, 3414 German, 2345 French) have been employed in this sector. Every Friday these teachers have local meetings for seminars, webinars and workshops held by Seeded teachers (expert teacher trainers with foreign experience) in certain responsible schools and branches of UzTEA (Uzbekistan Teachers of English Association). Annually the Ministry of Public Education and the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education with teacher training practical-scientific center under Uzbekistan World Languages University, British Council, Goethe Institute and French Embassy in Tashkent organize “Best Teacher of the Year” contest to select the most appropriate candidates for scholarships to study abroad.

Taking into consideration above, we can make a conclusion that primary foreign language education in Uzbekistan is being developed on the following factors:

- positive and supporting attitude towards learning foreign languages at an early age in the society,
- designing age appropriately single core-curriculum, syllabus, methodological and pedagogical teaching materials focused and based on internationally approved framework criteria,
- specially equipped classrooms with display of wide range of choice of technical and non-technical materials to create optimal condition for learning to take place,
- minimizing the class size to no more than 15 learners,
- providing all teachers and learners with necessary materials free of charge,
- holding in-service teacher training courses, Friday workshops, seminars and on-line webinars for primary classroom practitioners,
- offering 30 percent extra payment to monthly salary of the teachers holding certificates by the State Test Center,
- organizing "The year's best teacher of foreign languages" contests that guarantee a scholarship for teacher training courses in Europe.

Since teaching modern foreign languages to young learners in its puberty in Uzbekistan there are some problematic issues of the day for quality improvement in this area. These are a) to establish special local university faculties oriented primary foreign language teachers with special competencies on pedagogy, psychology and foreign language teaching methodology, b) to organize retraining courses for candidates holding bachelor diploma of pedagogy or philology, c) to provide distant or on-line courses for the teachers from rural areas.

CHAPTER

2. PERSPECTIVES ON WHICH WORDS TO CHOOSE FOR INSTRUCTION

§ 2.1. History of vocabulary in language learning

Records of second and foreign language learning extend back at least to the second century B.C., where Roman children studied Greek, whereas in present territory of Uzbekistan children learned Arabic and Persian languages. In early schools, students learned to read by first mastering the alphabet, then progressing through syllables, words, and connected discourse. Some of the texts gave students lexical help by providing vocabulary that was either alphabetized or grouped under various topical areas.

N. Schmitt assumes that lexis was considered important at this point in time, as the art of rhetoric was highly prized, and would have been impossible without a highly developed vocabulary⁸. Later, in the medieval period, the study of grammar became predominant, as students studied Latin. Language instruction during the Renaissance continued to have a grammatical focus, although some reforming educators rebelled against the overemphasis on syntax. In 1611 William of Bath wrote a text that concentrated on vocabulary acquisition through contextualized presentation, presenting 1,200 proverbs that exemplified common Latin vocabulary and demonstrating homonyms in the context of sentences. John Amos Comenius created a textbook drawing on this idea of contextualized vocabulary. He suggested an inductive approach to language learning, with a limited vocabulary of eight thousand common Latin words, which were grouped acc

⁸Schmitt N. Vocabulary in language teaching.- Cambridge University Press. 1998. P.19.

ording to topics and illustrated with labeled pictures. The notion of a limited vocabulary was important and would be developed further in the early twentieth century as part of the "Vocabulary Control Movement." Scholars such as William and Comenius attempted to raise the status of vocabulary, while promoting translation as a means of directly using the target language, getting away from rote memorization, and avoiding such a strong grammar focus.

Unfortunately, the emphasis of language instruction remained firmly on deductive, rule-oriented treatments of Latin grammar. This preoccupation filtered over to English as well. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries brought the Age of Reason where people believed that there were natural laws for all things and that these laws could be derived from logic. Language was no different. Latin was held up as the language least corrupted by human use, so many grammars were written with the intent of purifying English based on Latin models. It was a time of prescription, when authors of grammar books took it upon themselves to decide correct usage and to condemn what seemed to them to be improper. Usually they had no qualifications to do so, other than being important men in the world. Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762) was one of the most influential of the prescriptive grammars, outlawing features in common use, such as double negatives (I don't want to study no more grammar rules!). These grammars received general acceptance, which helped prolong the domination of grammar over vocabulary. Attempts were also made to standardize vocabulary, which resulted in dictionaries being produced. The first was Robert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabeticall* (1604). Kelley notes that the first bilingual lexicology dates from around 2500 B.C. Many others followed until Samuel Johnson brought out his *Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755, which soon became the standard reference. With the exception of printing in general, his dictionary did more to fix standard spelling and lexical usage than any others in the history of English. Johnson's genius lay in his utilization of contemporary pr

pronunciation and usage to guide his spellings and definitions. Only in ambiguous cases did he resort to arbitrary decisions based on logic, analogy, or personal taste.

The result was a dictionary that would remain unchallenged in influence until Noah Webster published an American version in the following century.

The main language teaching methodology from the beginning of the nineteenth century was Grammar-Translation. A lesson would typically have one or two new grammar rules, a list of vocabulary items, and some practice examples to translate from L1 (first language) into L2 (second language) or vice versa. The approach was originally reformist in nature, an attempt to make language learning easier through the use of example sentences instead of whole texts⁹.

However, the method grew into a very controlled system, with a heavy emphasis on accuracy and explicit grammar rules, many of which were quite obscure. The content focused on reading and writing literary materials, which highlighted the obsolete vocabulary of the classics. In fact, the main criterion for vocabulary selection was often its ability to illustrate a grammar rule¹⁰. Students were largely expected to learn the necessary vocabulary themselves through bilingual word lists, which made the bilingual dictionary an important reference tool. As the method became increasingly pedantic, a new pedagogical direction was needed. One of the main problems with Grammar-Translation was that it focused on the ability to analyze language, and not the ability to use it.

In addition, the emphasis on reading and writing did little to promote an ability to communicate orally in the target language. By the end of the nineteenth century, new use-based ideas had coalesced into what became known as the Direct Method. It emphasized exposure to oral language, with listening as the primary skill. Meaning was related directly to the target language without the step of translation, and explicit grammar teaching was downplayed. It imitated how a native language is naturally learned, with listening first, then

⁹Howatt. A history of English language teaching. - Oxford: Oxford University Press. - 1994, p.136

¹⁰Zimmerman, C.B. Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), Second language vocabulary acquisition – 1997, pp.5-19

speaking, and only later reading and writing. The focus was squarely on use of the second language, with some of the stronger proponents banishing any employment of the L1 in the classroom. It was thought that vocabulary would be acquired naturally through the interaction during lessons. Concrete vocabulary was explained with pictures or through physical demonstration, with initial vocabulary being kept simple and familiar, for example, objects in the classroom or clothing.

Thus, vocabulary was connected with reality as much as possible. Only abstract words were represented in the traditional way of being grouped according to topic or association of ideas. Like all other approaches, the Direct Method had its problems. It required teachers to be proficient in the target language, which wasn't always the case. It mimicked L1 learning, but did not take into account the differences between L1 and L2 acquisition. One key difference is that L1 learners have abundant exposure to the language, whereas learners of a second language typically have little, usually only a few hours per week for a year or two.

In the United States, the 1929 Coleman Report took this limited instruction time into account, and concluded that it was not sufficient to develop overall language proficiency. It decided to recommend a more limited goal: teaching secondary students how to read in a foreign language. This, was considered the most useful skill that could be taken from schooling, particularly as relatively few people traveled internationally in the early twentieth century. At the same time, in Britain, Michael West was stressing the need to facilitate reading skills by improving vocabulary learning. The result was an approach called the Reading Method, and it held sway, along with Grammar-Translation and the Direct Method, until World War II.

During the war, the weaknesses of all of the above approaches became obvious, as the American military found itself short of people who were conversationally fluent in foreign languages. It needed a means to quickly train its soldiers in oral/aural skills. American structural linguists

stepped into the gap and developed a program that borrowed from the Direct Method, especially its emphasis on listening and speaking. It drew its rationale from behaviorism, which essentially said that language learning was a result of habit formation. Thus the method included activities that were believed to reinforce “good” language habits, such as close attention to pronunciation, intensive oral drilling, a focus on sentence patterns, and memorization. In short, students were expected to learn through drills rather than through an analysis of the target language. The students who went through this “Army Method” were mostly mature and highly motivated, and their success was dramatic. This success meant that the method naturally continued on after the war, and it came to be known as Audiolingualism. Because the emphasis in Audiolingualism was on teaching structural patterns, the vocabulary needed to be relatively easy, and so was selected according to its simplicity and familiarity. New vocabulary was rationed, and only added when necessary to keep the drills viable. “It was assumed that good language habits, and exposure to the language itself, would eventually lead to an increased vocabulary”¹¹, so no clear method of extending vocabulary later on was spelled out. A similar approach was current in Britain from the 1940s to the 1960s. It was called the Situational Approach, from its grouping of lexical and grammatical items according to what would be required in various situations (e.g., at the post office, at the store, at the dinner table)¹².

Consequently, the Situational Approach treated vocabulary in a more principled way than Audiolingualism. Noam Chomsky's attack on the behaviorist underpinnings of Audiolingualism in the late 1950s proved decisive, and it began to fall out of favor. Supplanting the behaviorist idea of habit formation, language was now seen

¹¹Coady, J., & Huckin, T. (Eds.). *Second language vocabulary acquisition*. - Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. - 1997, p.4

¹²Celce-Murcia, M. *Language teaching approaches: An overview*. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Boston, MA.: Newbury House. - 1991, pp.3-11.

was governed by cognitive factors, particularly a set of abstract rules that were assumed to be innate. In 1972, Hymes added the concept to communicative competence, which he emphasized sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors. This helped to swing the focus from language “correctness” (accuracy) to how suitable language was for a particular context (appropriateness). The approach that developed from these notions emphasized using language for meaningful communication - Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The focus was on the message and fluency rather than grammatical accuracy. It was taught through problem-solving activities, and tasks that required students to transact information, such as information gap exercises. In these, one student is given information the other does not have, with the two having to negotiate the exchange of that information. In any meaning-based approach, one would expect vocabulary to be given a prominent place.

Once again, however, vocabulary was given a secondary status, this time to issues of mastering functional language (e.g., how to make a request, how to make an apology) and how language connects together into larger discourse. CLT gives little guidance about how to handle vocabulary, other than a support vocabulary for the functions on all language use mentioned above. As in previous approaches, it was assumed that L2 vocabulary, like L1 vocabulary, would take care of itself¹³. It has now been realized that mere exposure to language and practice with functional communication will not ensure the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary (or an adequate grammar, for that matter), so current best practice includes both a principled selection of vocabulary, often according to frequency lists, and an instruction methodology that encourages meaningful engagement with words over a number of recyclings. One of the most important current lines of thought is the realization that grammar and vocabulary are fundamentally linked. Evidence from

¹³Coady, J., & Huckin, T. (Eds.). Second language vocabulary acquisition. - Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. - 1997, p.4

large corpora (language databases) show that there is more lexical patterning than ever imagined, and that much of what was previously considered grammars is actually constrained by lexical choices. In effect, this makes it difficult to think of vocabulary and grammar as separate entities. Rather, one must conceptualize them as partners in synergy with no discrete boundary, sometimes referred to as lexico-grammar. Pursuing this idea should finally put to rest the notion that a second language can be acquired without both essential areas being addressed.

§ 2.2. Size and sequence in vocabulary development: Implications for choosing words for primary and secondary school learners

Vocabulary is all about words. When we use language, we use words all the time, thousands of them. If we know a language well, we know how to write its words and how to say its words.

Reports of the size of the English language in the popular press have a very wide range: from 400,000 to 600,000 words, from a half million to over 2 million, about 1 million, and 200,000 words in common use, although adding technical and scientific terms would stretch the total in to the millions¹⁴. This discrepancy is due largely to differing definitions of a word, and so a study attempted to produce a more reliable estimate by using word families instead of words as the unit of counting. Goulden, Nation, and Read (1990) counted the number of word families in Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1963), which is one of the largest non-historical dictionaries of English. Dictionaries such as this obviously cannot contain every current word family, but they are still the best resource available, and there for estimates of the number of words in a language have usually been based on them.

After excluding entries such as proper names and alternative spellings, Goulden et al. found that the dictionary contained about 54,000 word families. This

¹⁴Schmitt N. Vocabulary in language teaching.- Cambridge University Press.- 1998. P.19.

is a huge number of items (remember that each word family contains several words), and so we as teachers must give up on the idea of teaching all of them to our students in a classroom situation. Only a fraction is likely to be acquired through formal study, leaving the pedagogical implication that any others will have to be acquired through simple exposure to the language or not acquired at all. This puts a premium on non-teaching activities that can bolster exposure to a language, with reading being an especially important source.

Mastery of the complete lexicon of English (and probably any other language) is beyond not only second language learners but also native speakers. Still, the amount of vocabulary the average native speaker acquires is prodigious. This is shown by studies that have estimated that English native-speaking university graduates will have a vocabulary size of about 20,000 word families¹⁵.

Nation and Waring¹⁶ review vocabulary size studies and conclude that the best conservative rule of thumb that we have is that up to a vocabulary size of around 20,000 word families, we should expect that (English) native speakers will add roughly 1,000 word families a year to their vocabulary size. This means that a (L1) five-year-old beginning school will have a vocabulary of around 4,000 to 5,000 word families. This would be consistent with a 20-year-old university student having 20,000 word families. In contrast to the impossibility of learning every word in English, these figures indicate that building a native-sized vocabulary might be a feasible, although ambitious, undertaking for a second language learner.

Let us put the scope of this task into perspective. Imagine learning 15,000 to 20,000 telephone numbers. For each of these numbers you must remember the person and address connected with those numbers. This might be somewhat analogous to learning all of the various kinds of lexical

¹⁵Жалолов Ж.Ж. Чет тил ўқитиш методикаси: чет тиллар олий ўқув юртлари (факултетлари) талабалари учун дарслик. – Т.: Ўқитувчи, 2012. – 432 б.

¹⁶Nation, P., & Waring, R. Vocabulary size, text coverage and word lists. In Schmitt, N., & Mc Carthy, M. (Eds.), Vocabulary: Description, acquisition, and pedagogy. - Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997. - p.7

knowledge attached to each word. Then, because these are word families and not single words, you would have to learn not only the single number, but also the home, work, and facsimile variants. Of course, vocabulary and phone numbers are not directly comparable, but the example does indicate the magnitude of achievement in learning such a vocabulary.

Indeed, learning language is probably the most cognitively (mentally) challenging task a person goes through. But whereas the grammar of a language is largely in place by the time a child's 10 years old, vocabulary continues to be learned throughout one's lifetime. This is because the grammar of a language is made up of a limited set of rules, but a person is unlikely to ever run out of words to learn.

Teaching vocabulary is a very important and vital objective in the curriculum. According to psychologists, human beings learn the life experience by words, because thoughts are made by words. Word is a central unit of a language: language first of all is the system of words. Without a sufficient vocabulary, pupils cannot communicate effectively and express their ideas in the target language. Having a limited vocabulary is also a barrier that prevents learners from learning a foreign language.

The necessity of vocabulary enrichment is pointed out in the Core Curriculum. Fortunately, for learners and teachers, the most vocabulary growth takes place through self-discovery learning that is through exposure to comprehensible language input in reading¹⁷.

The main practical aim of teaching vocabulary in the primary and secondary schools is to develop the learners' vocabulary subskills as a basic component of all language and communicative activities. According to the Core Curriculum pupils are to acquire the following amount of lexical items in English (See table 2.)

Table 2.

Number of lexical items for foreign languages

¹⁷Jalolov J.J., Makhkamova G.T., Ashurov Sh.S. English Teaching methodology. – Fan va Texnologiya, 2015. – Pp-112.

Grades	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
Lexical items									
Active	150	150	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Passive	-	-	-	-	100	100	100	100	100
Potential	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	150	300	400	500	700	900	1100	1300	1500

§ 2.3. Investigating the usefulness of lexical phrases in contemporary course books

Over the past decade, lexical theory, corpus statistics, and psycholinguistic research have pointed to the pedagogical value of lexical phrases. In response, commercial publishers have been quick to import these insights into their materials in a bid to accommodate consumers and to profit from the ‘lexical chunk’ phenomenon. Contemporary Uzbek coursebooks now routinely offer a generous and diverse mix of multi-word lexical items: collocations, compounds, idioms, phrasal verbs, binomials, fixed and semi-fixed expressions. But while designers have been enthusiastic about adding chunks to the syllabus, the process of selecting items has been highly subjective and conducted without reference to corpus data.

By analyzing the usefulness of lexical phrases in three contemporary coursebooks, this chapter offers a lexical profile of the items specified for each course. It is shown that nearly a quarter of the multi-word lexical items specified may be of limited pedagogic value to learners.

Over the past decade, the convergence of corpus data, lexical theory and psycholinguistics has revealed the pedagogic value of multi-word lexical items or ‘chunks’; that is, vocabulary consisting of a sequence of two or more words which semantically (e.g. kick the bucket, take a picture, make tea) or syntactically

(e.g. of course, due to, apart from) form a meaningful or inseparable unit¹⁸. In response, coursebook developers have been quick to incorporate these insights into their materials in a bid to satisfy consumers and to keep up with the latest in linguistic fashion.

Today, it is not uncommon to find a generous helping of collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms, fixed expressions, and other lexical phrases in mainstream ELT texts. One major problem confronting coursebook writers, however, is the enormous number of lexical chunks available in the language. To put the dilemma into perspective, one American dictionary lists over 7,000 fixed expressions¹⁹ and a newly revised collocation dictionary boasts over 90,000 'essential' word combinations²⁰. There is clearly a bewildering array of lexical phrases to choose from and this makes the selection process much more problematic.

While more and more lexical chunks are appearing in course books, it is worth asking whether designers are exercising sufficient care in specifying the most useful ones. While writers may take a pragmatic approach by relying on intuition, experience, and common sense, there is some scepticism as to how accurate these introspective sources really are²¹. In the end, the words and phrases that go into a course book may, to a large extent, be arbitrary. If we consider also that, in many teaching contexts, there is no distinction between course book and syllabus, course book designers may in fact be doing learners a real disservice.

¹⁸Moon, R. 'Vocabulary connections: multiword items in English' in N. Schmitt and M. McCarthy (eds.). *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1997. – P.43.

¹⁹Spears, R., B. Birner, and S. Kleinedler. *NTC's Dictionary of Everyday American English Expressions*. Lincolnwood, IL: NTC Publishing Group. 1994.

²⁰Benson, M., E. Benson, and R. Ilson. *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations* (Revised edition). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company. 1997.

²¹Sinclair, J. M. *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, - 1991. P.98.

While the learning of lexical chunks may be a good thing, it is conceivable that students are not being exposed to the most useful ones.

In a recent study, three contemporary ELT course books were the subject of investigation to determine the general usefulness of the lexical phrases specified. They include *New Headway* (Soars and Soars 1998), *New Fly High* (L. Jo`rayev, S. Xan, L. Kamalova 2017), and *Inside Out* (Kay and Jones 2000). The three course books were selected as they represented a sample of mainstream general English course books designed for the A2 level learner. The lexical syllabus of each course book was examined and inventoried by lexical phrase type: collocations, phrasal verbs, binomials, idioms, compound nouns, and fixed and semi-fixed expressions. (A glossary of lexical terms appears at the end of this article.) One caveat is in order: the process of classification was not a quick and tidy procedure. There is considerable disagreement, even among scholars, as to what precisely constitutes a lexical phrase or lexical category. Moreover, there is certain to be some lexical overlap; that is, one lexical item may arguably fit the criteria of a different category. Ultimately, subjective judgments had to be made and with the understanding that some margin of error would be inevitable.

The lexical data drawn from the course books was comprehensive; that is, every lexical phrase explicitly presented (822 items in total) was included in the analysis: there is no sampling. By including a full lexical spectrum, one can also more readily make comparisons involving lexical priority. That is, one course book may emphasize phrasal verbs while another gives greater weight to collocation. Other qualities and features inherent in the course books (e.g. methodology, layout, authenticity of texts) were not analyzed or assessed in the study.

As hundreds of thousands of multi-word lexical items pervade the language, it is clear that not every pattern can be brought into a syllabus nor will all combinations be equally useful for learners. For example, one of the most common words in the English language, 'time', may have as many as 171 possible lexical

combinations²². A number of criteria, however, have been proposed throughout the years, which aim to offer some form of principled selection for syllabus design. These include but are not limited to frequency, range, availability, coverage, learnability, and opportunism²³. However, in determining the general utility of words and phrases, it is frequency and range that have usually been regarded as the most appropriate measures.

Frequency has received nearly unanimous support. In theory, the commonest units in the language are the ones most likely to be met by learners outside the classroom and should therefore be at the center of the learning program. Nation and Waring state that frequency information ensures that 'learners get the best return for their vocabulary learning effort' and that lexical items learned on a course are likely to be met again in the future.

Range, the other widely-endorsed criterion, relates to the number of text types in which a lexical item can be found. A unit which exists in a wide variety of registers is generally considered much more useful than an item found in just one, even if that item is highly frequent. White notes:

Obviously, both frequency and range need to be taken into account in vocabulary selection to ensure that items selected are representative of a wide sample and so that high frequency is not merely the fortuitous result of high occurrence in a restricted area of the total corpus²⁴.

While other criteria may be judiciously applied (e.g. lexical sets or practical classroom language), of the specification options available, frequency and range appear to offer the most objective, empirically substantiated, and least controversial

²²Benson, M., E. Benson, and R. Ilson. *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations* (Revised edition). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1997. – p. 120.

²³Mackey, W. *Language Teaching Analysis*. London: Longman, 1995. – p.89-90.

²⁴White, R. V. *The ELT Curriculum: Design, Innovation and Management*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1998. - P. 49.

starting points for assessing the basic utility of vocabulary used in general course books. They were therefore adopted for the lexical investigation undertaken.

To establish frequency data across a number of relevant text types, the COBUILD Bank of English, a computerized corpus of over 330 million words was used. The corpus, established in 1980, contains 17 different British and American native-speaker subcorpora. It includes newspapers (130 million words), magazines (48 million words), books (74 million words), radio (40 million words), informal conversation (20 million words), and ephemera (80 million words).

Every lexical phrase taken from the course books was assigned a usefulness score, a figure derived from both frequency and range. In the Innovations course book, for example, the compound noun, 'shopping mall', is presented. By keying in 'shopping mall' using the COBUILD concordancer, within seconds, the frequency (number of times the item occurs per million words) is displayed for each of the 17 subcorpora. In considering range, it was decided that frequency data would be collected for the 5 subcorpora the lexical item was most commonly found in. This would reflect nearly one third of the text types found in the corpus and, for the purposes of the study, would demonstrate a sufficient measure of range.

Each multi-word item in the study was presented in the following way:

The five figures which follow the usefulness score reveal that 'shopping mall' occurs, at the most, 6.7 times for every million words in one text type, 5.9 times for each million words in another text type, and so on. For 'shopping mall', the five frequency scores, as shown above, are then simply averaged, giving the item a usefulness score of 5.1. It is important to recognize that this derived value of 5.1 does not directly correspond to raw frequency but to a value which reflects both frequency and range across five text types (See table 3.).

Table 3.

Multi-word items	Usefulness score	Five commonest subcorpora					Course book
		Frequency per million words					
Shopping mall	5.1	6.7	5.9	5.4	3.8	3.7	Innovations

A high score would generally mark an item as having a common occurrence in several text types. This would satisfy a basic measurement of utility (See table 4).

Table 4.

Multi-word item	Usefulness score	Five commonest subcorpora					Course book
		Frequency per million words					
take part in	56.2	122.7	40.9	36.9	39.4	38	
make money	26.12	42.4	26.1	23	19.6	20	
make a mistake	25.54	41.7	28.8	20	18.7	19	
get away with	16.8	20.9	18.2	16.9	14.6	13	
close friend	15.6	27.9	17.2	11.8	10.6	11	
put up with	10.06	11.8	10.6	9.6	9.6	8.7	
tackle a problem	7.66	12.6	9.7	5.9	5.7	4.4	
go shopping	5.74	13.5	4.4	4.2	3.3	3.4	
have a good time	5.66	7.5	6.3	5.7	4.7	4.2	
shopping mall	5.1	6.7	5.9	5.4	3.8	3.7	
take drugs	3.97	5.6	4.1	3.6	3.2	3.2	
tell the difference	2.32	4.6	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	
wide awake	1.26	2.2	1.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	
safe and sound	1.06	2.4	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.6	
distant relative	0.96	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	
go clubbing	0.7	2.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	
Chance acquaintance	0.02	0.1	0	0	0	0	

This was done for all 822 multi-word lexical items specified in the course books. Not noted in the listing however are the particular names for each of the five

subcorpora. It was decided that this information would be omitted on pragmatic grounds to ensure a compact and more readable listing.

If viewed in a vacuum, a usefulness score conveys extremely little. The item 'shopping mall' has a usefulness value of 5.1. What does this mean exactly? Statistically, we can know that 5.1 is marginally more useful than an item that scores 5.0 and slightly less useful than an item yielding 5.2. This becomes evident upon viewing a ranked sample of phrases (below) in descending order of usefulness, taken from the Innovations course book.

We can know that 'shopping mall' at 5.1 is likely to be much more useful than an item which ranks far below it, such as 'distant relative' or 'chance acquaintance'. And, again, we know that some items can have much larger usefulness scores such as 'take part in' and 'make money', which both score higher than 20. A usefulness score alone is of esoteric and limited value. However, as noted, its statistical relationship to other items can grant tangible meaning and practical application.

The isolating and counting of lexical phrases in each course allows us to compare the size of the lexical syllabus from each course. As shown in Figure 1, New Headway Upper Intermediate offers a total of 260 lexical phrases; Inside Out specifies 209, and New Fly High provides by far the largest number with 353 items. As the items were catalogued by lexical phrase type, we are also able to readily indicate what kinds of items were specified in each course book. This is illustrated in Figure 2.

A large number of collocations or word partnerships are contained in each course book. New Headway offers the greatest number with 133 and Innovation the least.

Only one course book, New Headway, explicitly specified fixed expressions and a generous number: 91. This is, in fact, a disproportionate share considering that only 32 phrasal verbs, 35 compounds, and 10 idioms were specified. Also, only New Headway considered binomials important enough to specify. What is unclear, however, is why exactly the designers proportioned the

syllabus in the manner they did. The proportions for all three course books are illustrated by percent in Figures 3, 4, and 5.

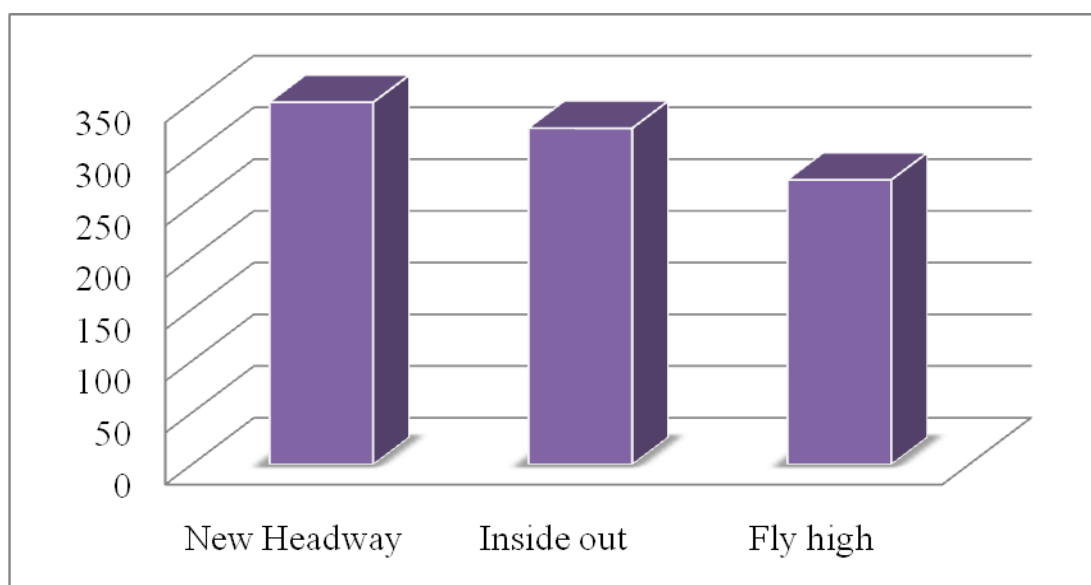


Figure 1. Total number of multi-word items per coursebook

It is also possible to total all the usefulness scores from each course and produce an overall average usefulness rating for each course book. As depicted in Figure 6, Inside Out showed the greatest average usefulness value with a score of 7.20. New Headway was in second, with a score of 4.83 and New Fly High showed to have the lowest usefulness score with 3.32, less than half of the usefulness score of Inside Out. This may be the result of the designers specifying a large number of fixed expressions.

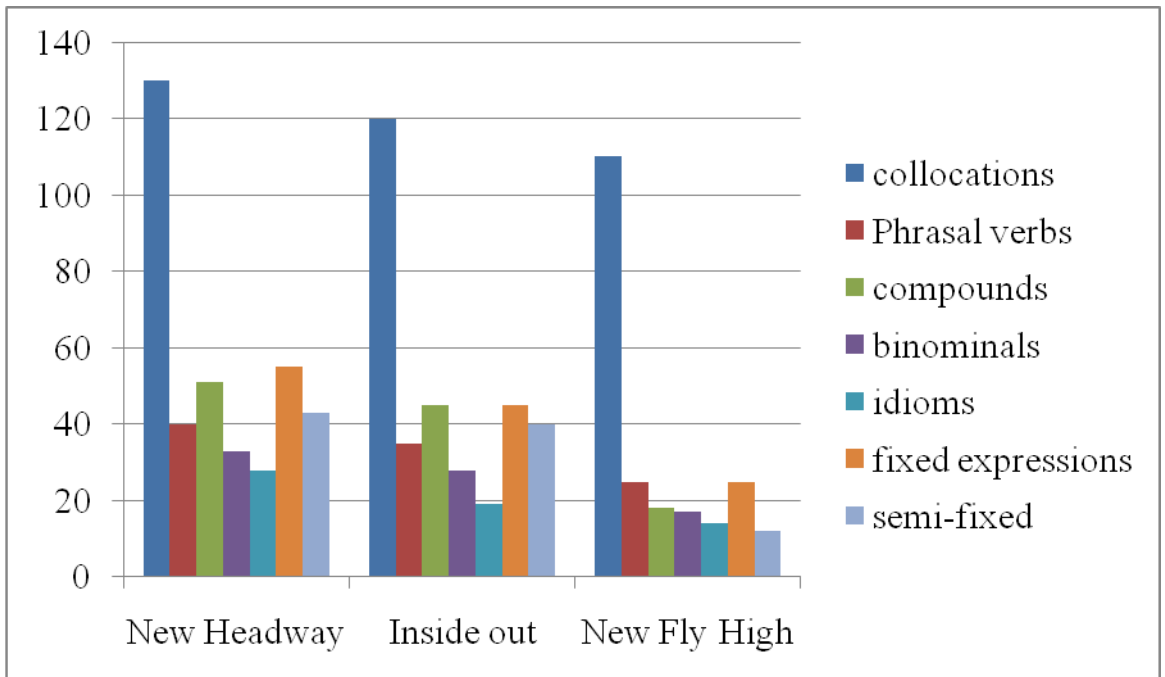


Figure 2. Number of multi-word items per course book by type

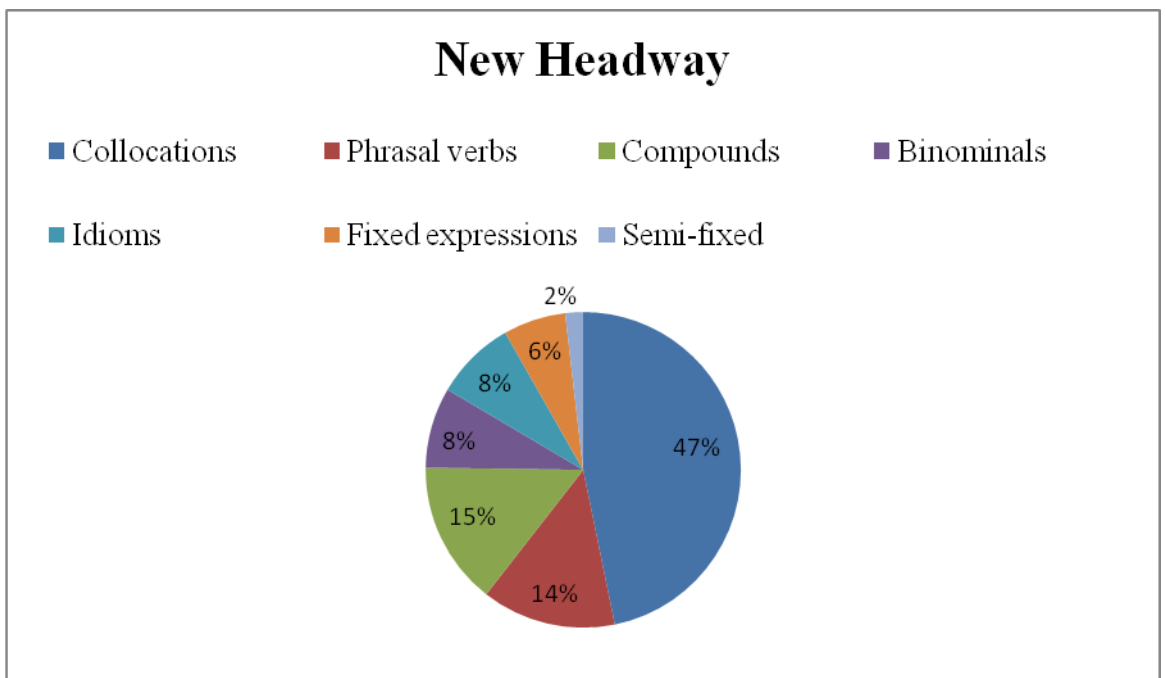


Figure 3. New Headway: profile of multi-word items by per cent

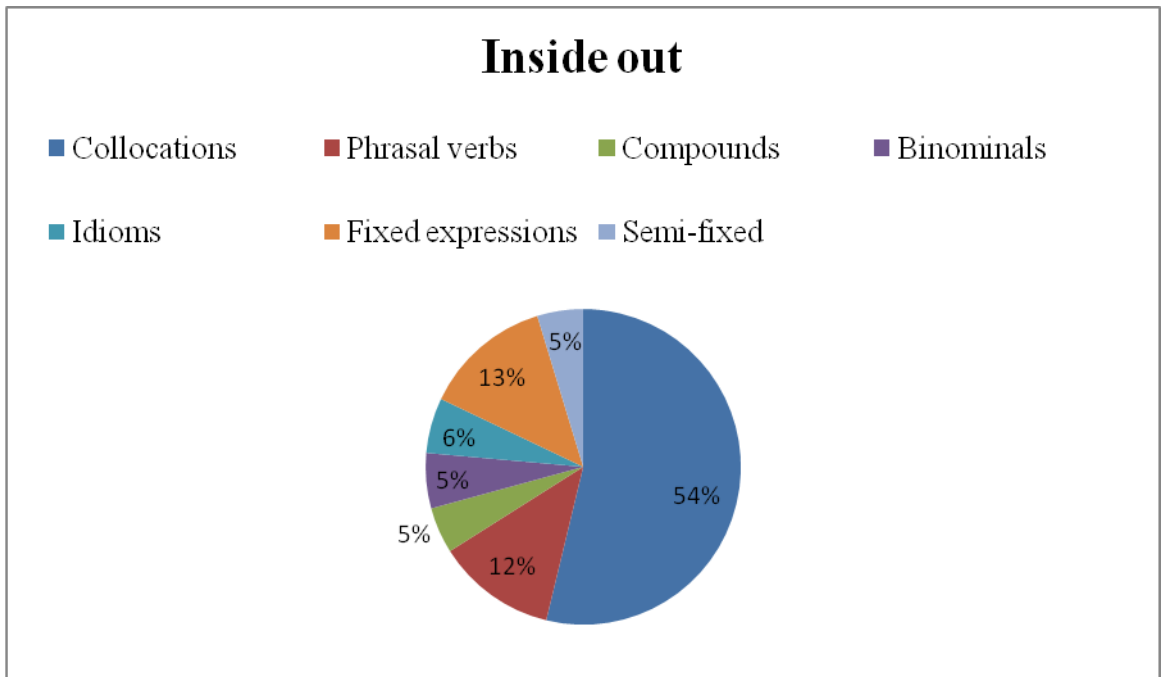


Figure 4. *Inside Out: profile of multi-word items by per cent*

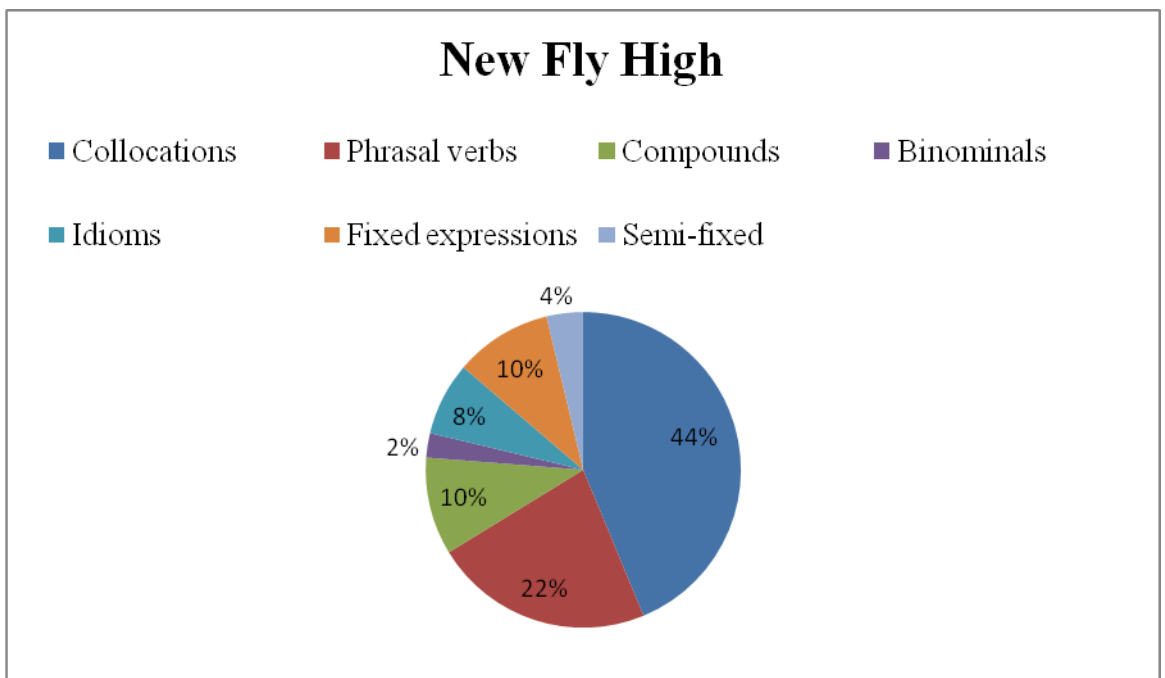


Figure 5. *New Fly High: profile of multi-word items by per cent*

Investigating the usefulness of lexical phrases in contemporary course books. Generally speaking, the longer the unit, the less frequent it is in a corpus²⁵.

²⁵Biber, D., G. Leech, and S. Conrad. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London: Longman. 1999.

Therefore, fixed expressions and idioms, which usually represent the longest chunks, will be seen as comparatively less useful in the overall results.

The great disparity of usefulness scores found in the study lends considerable weight to the assertion that course book designers may have been remiss in adequately ensuring that their choice of lexical phrases have a consistent and reasonable measure of frequency and range, both considered fundamental criteria for pedagogic usefulness. Of the 822 multi-word items examined, 118 phrases (more than 14 per cent) were not found to be in the COBUILD corpus even one time. While such items as 'recommend fully', 'believe seriously', 'bitter apple' and 'on its last feet' appear prominently in the course books, they fail to appear even one time in a 330-million word corpus. 192 (or 23 per cent) of the lexical phrases specified received a usefulness value of less than .10. Given the ease and convenience now of checking corpus statistics, these figures are disconcerting. 'Cheap steak', 'mild cigarette', and 'imprisoned man' were included in a course book for explicit attention. Given that there are hundreds of thousands of multi-word lexical items out there to choose from, to specify these particular items over other more potentially useful phrases suggests an unprincipled and careless selection process.

Course book writers, as educators, have a professional and pedagogic responsibility to minimize or eradicate the inclusion of questionably useful lexical phrases and, at least, exclude the extremely rare ones. The process of specifying useful lexical phrases is far from tedious: establishing or confirming the frequency or text range of an item by way of a large corpus requires only a minimum of keystrokes. Large publishing companies, many now promoting their own corpora, have the access and means to do this—students do not.

Examination of the course books suggests that the organizational choices made by the designers tend to compromise the usefulness of lexical phrases

in two main ways: by specifying numerous lexical phrases of onetype, and by organizing lexical phrases around particular structural items.

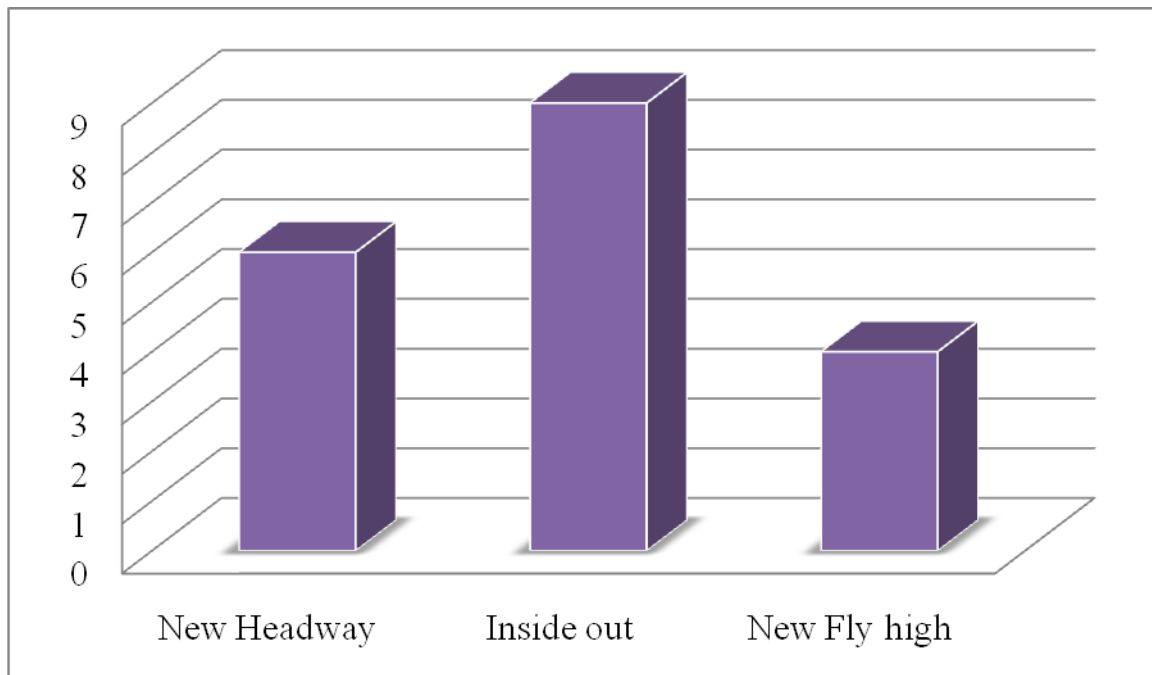


Figure 6. Total average usefulness value per course book.

Upon a thorough examination of the data, one noteworthy finding is that the more lexical phrases in a course, the less useful the items tend to be on average. This is visually evident upon comparing Figures 1 and 6. Innovation exhibits the greatest number of multi-word lexical items with 353 yet yields the lowest average usefulness value: 3.32. Conversely, InsideOut, with the least number of phrases, 209, yields the greatest average usefulness score with an average of 7.20, twice the usefulness score of New Fly High.

One conceivable explanation involves the magnitude of the lexical syllabus. It is possible that the designers, in specifying multi-word lexical items, based their initial selection on intuition and other introspective methods. However, intuition can only go so far and these introspective means become increasingly less reliable when endeavoring to expand and enrich the syllabus. Intuition may point to an obvious selection, but in an effort to be comprehensive, some of the items among the set diminish in relative usefulness. Designers aim for adequate coverage of

alexical area, but in the process, the general utility of the lexical set becomes compromised.

This tendency is epitomized in *Inside Out*²⁶. The designers include 26 sport nouns which combine with the verbs 'go', 'play', and 'do' (e.g. 'go swimming', 'play tennis', 'do weightlifting'). To ensure adequate coverage and aesthetic balance, the designers listed an equal variety of sports. While some combinations, according to the data, are clearly useful, such as 'play football' and 'play rugby', their lexical counterparts clearly fail to meet this standard: 'do weightlifting' and 'do judo' both score under 10 for usefulness. This tendency to give sufficient coverage to a lexical area is evident in all three course books, yet the wish to be comprehensive undermines the usefulness value of many of the items specified. Regrettably, from the perspective of students, all of the items selected within a lexical area may be seen to be of equal pedagogic value. After all, why would designers include an item that was not useful? The research undertaken, however, clearly shows that all items do not carry a similar utility.

Another organizing principle is the organization of lexis around structure. For example, in *New Headway Upper-Intermediate*, the designers start with 'very' and 'absolutely' and list over 30 adjectives that combine with one of these intensifying adverbs (e.g. 'very good', 'absolutely ridiculous'). Again, we seem to have a case where the designers enthusiastically insist upon good coverage, yet the adverb/adjective pairs exhibit a wide disparity of utility.

Similarly, Soars and Soars also clustered both collocations and phrasal verbs around de-lexicalized verbs. For example, they begin with highly frequent verbs such as 'take' and 'put' and specify a series of combinable items such as 'put sb in charge', 'put a plan into action', and 'take a risk'. This is similarly done with other de-lexicalized or 'hot verbs': 'get', 'put', 'have', 'go', 'come', 'make', and 'do'.

²⁶Kay, S. and V. Jones. *Inside Out. Student's Book. Intermediate*. Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann. 2000.

For 'take' and 'put', the designers have included over 25 combinations which again display a widerange of usefulness. While the designers have included 'take no notice', it is unclear why they did not specify, for example, 'take part in' or 'take advantage of', both of which are of much higher utility. And given that the section does not appear to be tied to a particular theme or topic, one wonders what guiding principles the selection process was based on.

While much of New Fly High is also organized thematically, the designers have also pooled lexical units around structural items. For instance, in some sections, phrasal verbs are organized around particles such as 'out' or 'up' (e.g. 'split up', 'look up', 'pick up') or by common words such as 'thing' (e.g. 'for one thing', 'the thing is') and 'alright' (e.g. 'Is everything alright, sir?'). But it is unclear why one lexical phrase is chosen over another, or why it is specified for inclusion at all.

Given the disparity of usefulness scores, it is evident that the designers did not structure their course around a body of useful lexical phrases, but rather, started in most cases with a theme, topic, or structure and then considered items related to these basic concepts. It is apparent that the writers did not begin by looking at attested items. If this were the case, we would find that many of the collocations, compounds or idioms would have similar usefulness values within their respective categories, but the data suggests just the contrary.

Another striking finding involves the number of lexical phrases the three course books have in common. The data reveals that, of the 822 multiword items collected, only seven items, less than 1 per cent, are shared by any of the course books. Even more surprising is that not one lexical phrase is shared by all three course books despite them being British general English course books targeted for intermediate level students.

This raises a curious and important design question: in the early stages of development, where do writers begin when choosing their vocabulary? The lack of agreement evident in the data appears to indicate that there is no one magical

well where designers conveniently draw their idioms, phrasal verbs, collocations, and so on. Moreover, this finding also casts doubt on the idea that course designers rely on or defer to existing or older, well-established course books as a lexical resource. If this were a common design strategy, with the three course books examined, one might expect to see a lexical agreement greater than 1 per cent. Again, this finding lends weight to the claim that designers, by and large, start with topic or theme and then intuit what they consider to be relevant or 'useful' lexical phrases. This selection process appears to be unscientific, largely grounded on the personal discretion and intuition of the writers.

Conclusion

From a naive consumer point of view, it is usually assumed that what goes into a course book will be maximally useful. The printed word has the power to authenticate itself and both teachers and students may find little reason to doubt or scrutinize the products of well-established ELT publishers. But the findings in this study suggest that the designers may have done an unsatisfactory job in specifying consistently useful lexical phrases.

If we hold frequency and range to be important criteria for lexical specification, then every effort should be made to ensure that what goes into the syllabus is going to be maximally useful for consumers; moreover, superficial and rare items need to be excluded. Writers and publishers may need to reassess their priorities and avoid careless, convenient, or arbitrary specification.

As Sinclair recommends, materials writers need to begin with attested language data as their starting point²⁷. If this is too much to ask, then course designers might at least confirm their intuitively-based data with a corpus. While the labor needed to integrate highly useful items coherently into a course may tax convenience from a design perspective, it is a viable undertaking, and the

²⁷Sinclair, J. M. *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1991

educational payoff must certainly be worth it. The major ELT publishing firms have the resources to do this, and it would be commercially and pedagogically responsible to do so.

CHAPTER

3. INSTRUCTION AND INTERVENTIONS THAT ENHANCE VOCABULARY

§3.1. Bringing words to life in classrooms

It has been said. “There is one English word that is known everywhere. The word is **cowboy**.” This remark has a certain amount of truth. Such words as **rock star** and **cowboy** seem to be known by almost everyone (by almost young people at least). Indeed, such English words are usually learned without being taught, without being explained or drilled in class. All too often, however, a student who has easily acquired **cowboy** and **rock star** seems unable to master the words in the textbook, even after the teacher’s explanations and drills. This is unfortunate, as experienced teachers know. Much of the vocabulary in English textbooks must be learned. Without it, no one can speak or understand the language. The question is what can teachers do while presenting the textbook words, so that students will learn them as well as **rock star** and **cowboy**.

In books that are intended for the first stage of English, the vocabulary lessons usually contain words for persons and things in the classrooms, words like **boy, girl, book, pencil, window, door**. For teachers, and for authors of textbooks, it is easy to see why the beginning lessons should introduce such words. One reason is that the meaning can easily be made clear. Windows, walls, desks, and doors are things that the students can see while they are hearing the foreign names for them. Furthermore, things in the classroom can also be touched. This is important, because success in learning often depends on the number of senses which are used in the learning process. When students can touch something, in addition to hearing and seeing the word that names it, there is a stronger chance that the word will be learned. Even if there are practical reasons why each learner

cannot touch the object, just seeing it while hearing its name is helpful. At least those two senses (sight and hearing) are working together to focus the learner's attention.

Teachers and textbook writers understand the value of lessons that introduce basic words, like the names of things found in classrooms and in the local community. They know that much of this vocabulary found in lessons for beginners will be needed for writing and speaking English in future months and years. It is good to make an early start on such important words. Why, then, aren't they learned more easily?

Why are students often slow to learn foreign words for familiar objects? To answer that question, we must look at vocabulary from the student's point of view. The students already have satisfactory words – in their own language – for everything in the classroom that they might want to name. They have been able to talk about such familiar objects for many years. Therefore, most members of the class feel no real need to learn other words for such things now. This is a problem that does not arise when words like rock star and cowboy are being acquired outside the classroom. (Those are words for new experiences that are not already named by words in student's mother tongue.) But it is a problem to be solved when we teach the basic words that textbooks introduce. From the students' point of view, such words do not seem really necessary because words in the mother tongue serve all practical purposes.

There is something to be noticed about vocabulary learning in and out of class. Let's imagine what happened years ago, when each of our students was learning words for familiar objects – words in the mother tongue. Quite probably, each word came to the child's attention as part of an experience that had special importance for him. Perhaps the words for window and door were learned when he heard an adult say (in the home language), "*Grandma's gone, but we'll go to the window and wave goodbye,*" and "*Daddy's is here! Let's go to the door and let him in.*" Of course we don't know what really occurred on the day when the child learned those words in his own language, but one thing is sure. We do know that

he was not told, for example, “Here are some words to learn. You will need them some day. The first word is **window**. **Window** means ...” yet that is how vocabulary is often presented in the language class.

When we think about vocabulary lessons in this way, we become aware of five facts:

1. Foreign words for familiar objects and persons are important to teach, but we cannot expect most members of the class to learn them easily.
2. Teaching such words will require special skills because students often feel their native-language words for familiar objects and persons are all they really need.
3. Students are very likely to feel that foreign words for familiar objects are not really needed when the foreign language is not used for communication outside the language class.
4. When a student feels no real need to learn something, a feeling of need must be created – by the teacher.
5. To create in students’ minds a sense of personal need for a foreign word, it is not enough to say, “Here is a word to learn.” “Here is what the word means.” “The word will be useful to you someday.”

What is real need or personal need in relation to vocabulary learning? If a student feels he must learn certain words in order to please the teacher or to pass an examination, how real is that feeling of need? The need may indeed produce learning, especially among certain individuals and in certain cultures, but more often than not students who learn for such reasons - and for no other reasons – will gain little of permanent value. Among those who still cannot speak, write, or even read English after years of instruction, there are many with fine school records. They studied vocabulary in preparation for each examination during those years, and they answered the exam questions well; but their efforts did not produce the ability to communicate. There is more practical command of vocabulary among

those who have needed English words for their own purpose (for communication in business or travel, or in friendships with speakers of English).

Of course it is usually not possible to create in a classroom the same conditions that produce successful vocabulary learning outside of school. It is especially impossible to create again the conditions that once helped our students learn fundamental vocabulary in their mother tongue. Nevertheless, it is useful to think about those conditions. When we have noticed certain facts about vocabulary learning outside of class, we can make some use of those facts while developing techniques for the classroom.

To see how this can be done, let's look at several words that are introduced in first year textbooks, words representing nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Other kinds of words (such as prepositions, conjunctions, articles, and auxiliaries) are generally taught in grammar lesson.

Suppose we are about to teach from one of many textbooks where a vocabulary lesson looks more or less like this:

VOCABULATY

boy door girl picture wall
clock floor person room window

To the right of each listed word, we may find a corresponding word in the students' language. Somewhere on the page there may be a picture showing a boy and a girl in a room with a clock on the wall. With those aids to learning, the students will be expected to read (and perhaps to translate) the following sentences, which appear next in the textbook:

This is a picture of a room. The room has a door and two windows. There is a clock on the wall. There are two persons in the room. The boy is sitting near the clock. The girl is sitting near the door.

That is how a page may look in a fairly typical textbook. As we consider techniques for teaching such a lesson – and as we compare it to vocabulary

learning outside the school – we look first at the alphabetized list. What kind of help should we give students here? When words are learned in the real world, they are not met in alphabetical order. Early in the lesson, we must be prepared to take these words out of the list and to group together words that belong together in real life. This is not to say, of course, that alphabetical order cannot other purposes. Without alphabetical order, for example, dictionaries and telephone directories would be useless. Even for a list of new words (as on our sample textbook page) alphabetizing may be appropriate in helping students to find a word during periods of study at home. At any rate, the alphabetized list is there, on the page. And if we consider it only one part of the lesson – if we are really to move on quickly to other activities – the list does no harm. Let's consider techniques for dealing quickly with such a list.

§3.2. Principles for teaching vocabulary

Foreign Language Learning (SLA), as a sub-discipline of applied linguistics, is still a very young field of study. While it may not be possible to identify its precise starting point, many researchers would agree that the late sixties marked the onset of an intense period of empirical and theoretical interest in how vocabulary is learned. Much of this research has been directed at understanding and contributing to more effective instructed language learning. In addition to the numerous studies that have investigated the effects of instruction on learning vocabulary, much of the theorizing about foreign language instruction has been specifically undertaken with language pedagogy in mind, for example Long's Interaction Hypothesis²⁸, DeKeyser's skill-learning theory²⁹, VanPatten's input processing theory³⁰, R.Ellis's principles of instructed language learning³¹ all address the role of instruction in foreign language learning.

²⁸Long, M. The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*. - San Diego: Academic Press. - 1996. pp. 413-468.

²⁹DeKeyser, R. Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.). - 1998.

³⁰VanPatten, B. Processing instruction: An update. *Language Learning*, 2002. Pp. 52, 755-803.

³¹Ellis, R. Second language acquisition and the structural syllabus. *TESOL Quarterly*, - 1993.27, 91-113.

However, the research and theory do not afford a uniform account of how instruction can best facilitate vocabulary learning. There is considerable controversy. R. Ellis does not expect that all SLA researchers or all language teachers will agree with the principles he developed. He hopes, though, that they will provide a basis for argument and for reflection. Here are the principles.

Principle 1: Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.

Principle 2: Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning. The opportunity to focus on pragmatic meaning is important for a number of reasons:

1. In the eyes of many theorists (e.g. Prabhu 1987; Long 1996), only when learners are engaged in decoding and encoding messages in the context of actual acts of communication are the conditions created for acquisition to take place.

2. To develop true fluency in an L2, learners must have opportunities to create pragmatic meaning (DeKeyser, 1998).

3. Engaging learners in activities where they are focused on creating pragmatic meaning is intrinsically motivating.

Principle 3: Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form. Instruction can cater to a focus on form in a number of ways:

1. Through grammar lessons designed to teach specific grammatical features by means of input- or output processing. An inductive approach to grammar teaching is designed to encourage 'noticing' of pre-selected forms; a deductive approach seeks to establish an awareness of the grammatical rule.

2. Through focused tasks (i.e. tasks that require learners to comprehend and process specific grammatical structures in the input, and/or to produce the structures in the performance of the task).

3. By means of methodological options that induce attention to form in the context of performing a task. Two methodological options that have received considerable attention from researchers are (a) the provision of time for strategic

and on-line planning (Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Foster and Skehan, 1996) and (b) corrective feedback (Lyster, 2004).

Principle 4: Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.

Principle 5: Instruction needs to take into account the learner's 'built-in syllabus'. How, then, can instruction take account of the learner's built-in syllabus? There are a number of possibilities:

1. Adopt a zero grammar approach, as proposed by Krashen. That is, employ a task-based approach that makes no attempt to predetermine the linguistic content of a lesson.

2. Ensure that learners are developmentally ready to acquire a specific target feature. However, this is probably impractical as teachers have no easy way of determining where individual students have reached and it would necessitate a highly individualized approach to cater for differences in developmental level among the students. Also, as we noted earlier, such fine-tuning may not be necessary. While instruction in a target feature may not enable learners to 'beat' the built-in syllabus, it may serve to push them along it as long as the target structure is not too far ahead of their developmental stage.

3. Focus the instruction on explicit rather than implicit knowledge as explicit knowledge is not subject to the same developmental constraints as implicit knowledge. While it is probably true that some declarative facts about language are easier to master than others, this is likely to reflect their cognitive rather than their developmental complexity, which can more easily be taken into account in deciding the order of instruction. Traditional structural syllabuses, in fact, are graded on the basis of cognitive complexity.

Principle 6: Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input.

Principle 7: Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.

Principle 8: The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.

Principle 9: Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.

While there are identifiable universal aspects of L2 acquisition, there is also considerable variability in the rate of learning and in the ultimate level of achievement. In particular, learning will be more successful when:

1. The instruction is matched to students' particular aptitude for learning.
2. The students are motivated.

Principle 10: In assessing learners' L2 proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of studies investigating form-focused instruction demonstrated that the extent of the effectiveness of instruction is contingent on the way in which it is measured. They distinguished four types of measurement:

1. metalinguistic judgement (e.g. a grammaticality judgment test)
2. selected response (e.g. multiple choice)
3. constrained constructed response (e.g. gap filling exercises)
4. free constructed response (e.g. a communicative task).

We consider D.Brown's principles for teaching vocabulary³² as more applicable in Uzbekistan context. D.Brown proposes the following guidelines for the communicative treatment of vocabulary instruction.

1. Allocate specific class time to vocabulary learning.

In the hustle and bustle of our interactive classrooms, sometimes we get so caught up in lively group work and meaningful communication that we don't pause to develop some attention to words. After all, words are basic building blocks of language; in fact, survival-level (A1) communication can take place quite intelligibly when people simply string words together - without applying any

³² Brown D.H. Teaching by principles. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. - NY: Longman. 2007. – PP. 436-437.

grammatical rules at all! So, if we are interested in being communicative, words are among the first priorities.

2. Help students to learn vocabulary in context.

The best internalization of vocabulary comes from encounters (comprehension or production) with words within the context of surrounding discourse. Data from linguistic corpora can provide real-world actual language that has been printed or spoken. Rather than isolating words and/or focusing on dictionary definitions, learners can benefit from attending to vocabulary within a communicative framework in which items appear. Students will then associate new words with a meaningful context to which they apply.

3. Play down role of bilingual dictionaries.

A corollary to the above is to help students to resist the temptation to overuse their bilingual dictionaries. In recent years, with the common availability of electronic dictionaries in mobile phones, students are even more easily tempted to punch in a word they don't know and get an instant response. It is unfortunate that such practices rarely help students to internalize the word for later recall and use.

However, recent years have seen an increasing popularity of learners' dictionaries – which are English – English dictionaries modified for more learner-friendly definitions, metaphors, idioms, and contrasts. When a dictionary is warranted, such publications can be very useful.

4. Encourage students to develop strategies for determining the meaning of words (self-discovery approach).

Included in the discussion of learning strategies in paragraph 3.1 are references to learning words. A number of “clues” are available to learners to develop “word attack” strategies. Figure 7 on the upcoming pages will provide a detailed taxonomy of such strategies with examples.

5. Engage in “unplanned” vocabulary teaching.

In all likelihood, most of the attention you give to vocabulary learning will be unplanned: those moments when a student asks about a word or when a word has appeared that you feel deserves some attention. These impromptu moments are very important. Sometimes, they are simply brief little pointers; for example, the word ‘clumsy’ once appeared in a paragraph students were reading and the teacher volunteered:

T: Okey. ‘clumsy’. Does anyone know what that mean? [write the word on the board]

T: no one? Okey, well, take a look at the sentence it is in. “His clumsy efforts to imitate a dancer were almost amusing.” Now, was Bernard a good dancer? [S1 raises her hand.] Okey. Mohidil?

S1: Well, no. He was a very bad dancer, as we see in the next sentence.

T: Excellent! So, what do you think “clumsy” might mean?

S2: Not graceful?

T: Good, what else? Anyone?

S3: Not smooth, eh, ... uncoordinated?

T: Great! Okey, so “clumsy” means awkward, ungraceful, uncoordinated.

[writes synonyms on the board] Is that clear now?

Ss: [most Ss not in agreement]

Sometimes, such impromptu moments may be extended: The teacher gives several examples and/or encourages students to use the word in other sentences. Make sure that such unplanned teaching, however, doesn’t detract from the central focus of the activity by drilling into a long and possibly irrelevant tangent.

Figure 7. Vocabulary development strategies (From D.Brown. 2007, p. 438-439)

A PROGRAM FOR TEACHING VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT SKILLS	
1. Goals	
a.	To improve the reading vocabulary skills of EFL students.

- b. To teach EFL students word-building skills.
- c. To teach EFL students to guess word meaning from context clues.

2. Word building

- a. Suffixes: it may be a good idea simply to give a list of these to the students for memorizing. Roots used for this section should be familiar.

(1) Practice in suffix recognition, i.e., simple exercises in isolation of suffixes: goodness / family (ar) (ly)

(2) lesson and practice in noting grammatical changes effected by suffixes. Word tables might be very useful here.

Adj. (good)+ness= N (goodness)

Adj. (gloomy)+ly= Adv. (gloomily)

(3) Practice in word formation through exercises in which the student adds and subtracts suffixes. Again the word table is useful. The student fills in the appropriate forms of a word by manipulating suffixes. It is of great importance to group words by the way they form variations so that all words being studied at one time add the same suffixes in the same manner and regularity of change can be emphasized.

- b. Prefixes: These are more varied and less regular and therefore should not be presented until after suffixes have been mastered. A list of these can also be memorized.

(1) Practice in prefix recognition.

(2) Lesson and practice in meaning changes resulting from the use of prefixes, e.g., in + formal = not formal = casual.

This is fairly difficult. The examples used should be straightforward in the early stages. Here again, the groupings must be of words that add the same prefixes in the same manner to achieve the same type of meaning. Groupings like *un* in *unite* and *un* in *unfair* must be avoided. As these are mastered, more difficult items requiring progressively higher degrees of interpretation may be introduced.

(3) Practice in word formation:

(a) Addition of prefixes. These exercises should progress in difficulty. E.g., Make a word meaning “*not natural*” (*unnatural*).

(b) Addition of prefixes and suffixes.

c. Roots: These are quite difficult and shouldn't be taught at all unless the student is fairly advanced and flexible in his approach to word forms.

(1) Recognizing roots. Isolation of root forms.

(2) Effect of prefixes and suffixes on root forms.

3. Definition Clues

a. Parenthesis and footnotes X (Y); X^{*}

(1) A lesson would first be given on these two types of clues, stressing their physical structure and how to read them correctly.

(2) Practice in recognizing these clues. E.g., Draw a line under the words in parenthesis: *The panther (a large black animal related to a cat) is very dangerous and deadly.*

(3) Practice in using the clues. Here exercises of the following sort are useful: *The principle (main) reason for wearing clothes is to keep warm.* What is the meaning of *principle* in the sentence?

b. Synonyms and antonyms: Most students have studied and enjoy learning words with similar and opposite meanings. The task is to get them to recognize the definitional role these often play.

(1) X is Y; X, that is, Y. Student can be taught that an unfamiliar word is often defined in a sentence using the copula *be* and a synonym.

(a) Clue recognitions, both of signal words and synonyms. E.g., Underline the signal word is or that is: A birthday party is an observance, that is, a remembrance of someone's day of birth.

(b) Practice in using the clue. Again exercises in producing or recognizing a synonym are useful.

(2) X – Y - ; X, which is Y; X. or Y; X, Y. Appositive constructions.

This can be approached in essentially the same manner as the *is* and *that* *is* clues were.

4. Inference Clues.

These types of clues require a higher level of analytical skill and practice than previous types dealt with. They should be approached slowly, moving from obvious answers to increasingly vague exercises. The ESL or EFL student should never be expected to do the same kind of inferring that a native speaker could do, but should be encouraged to go as far as possible as long as guessing is not allowed to become wild. For all three types of clues (example, summary, and experience) the same method of practice in (i) recognition of clue elements and (ii) obtaining meaning from the elements can be followed.

a. *Examples:*

(1) Specific clues: X, e.g., Y; X, i.e., Y; X, for example, Y. E.g., Iran is trying to restore many of its ancient monuments. Persepolis, for example, is being partly rebuilt by a group of Italian experts.

(2) No physical clue.

E.g., Roberta Flack, Aretha Franklin, and Olivia Newton-John are popular female vocalists.

b. *Summary:*

(1) Restatement

(a) With a physical clue: ... X. This Y ...; ... X. X is Y.

E.g., Many products are sold to stop perspiration. This wetness that comes from your body whenever you are too warm, work very hard, or are afraid, usually doesn't smell very good.

(b) Without physical clue.

Either: The same meaning. X, Y.

E.g., He is really good *athlete*. He plays sports well.

Or: Opposite meaning. X. (neg) Y.

E.g., He is bound to win. He can't lose.

(2) Information: E.g., The forsythia was covered with the golden flowers that bloom early in the spring.

C. *Experience*: The reader must decide from his own experience what is probably meant by a word. E.g., The old dog snuffled and moped as he slowly walked from the room.

Unfortunately, professional pendulums have a disturbing way of swinging too far one way or the other; and sometimes the only way we can get enough perspective to see these overly long arcs is through hindsight. Hindsight has now taught us that there was over correction to the almost exclusive attention that grammar and vocabulary received in the first two-thirds of the twentieth century. So-called “natural” approaches in which grammar was considered damaging were equally over corrective. Advocating the “absorption” of grammar and vocabulary with no overt attention whatsoever to language forms went too far. We now seem to have a healthy respect for the place of form-focused instruction - attention to those basic “bits and pieces” of a language – in an interactive curriculum. And now we can pursue the business of finding better and better techniques for getting these bits and pieces into the communicative repertoires of our learners.

§3.3. Exercises and games for teaching vocabulary

In this chapter we will give some sample exercises for teaching suffixes, prefixes, and roots.

Making tables for word-classes is a good idea, since one can fill in the gaps over time. What do you this learner will put in the remaining gaps in the table?

<i>noun</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>adjectives</i>	<i>person</i>
production	produce
industry	industrial
export

Suffixes can change the word-class and the meaning of the word.

Common noun suffixes

-er [ə] is used for the person who does an activity, e.g. writer, shopper, teacher.

-or [ə] is used for the person who does an activity, e.g. actor, operator, doctor, projector.

-er and -ee can contrast with each meaning person who does something. (-er) and 'person who receives or experiences the action' (-ee), e.g. employer/employee, sender/addressee, payee (e.g. of a cheque).

-(t)ion [ʃən] is used to make nouns from verbs. E.g., complication, population, reduction, alteration, donation, admission.

-ist (person) and -ism (activity or ideology): used for people's politics, beliefs and ideologies, and sometimes their profession, e.g. Marxism, Buddhism, journalism, anarchist, physicist, terrorist.

-ist is also often used for people who play musical instruments, e.g. pianist, violist, cellist.

-ness is used to make nouns from adjectives. Note what happens to adjectives that end in -y: goodness, readiness, forgetfulness, happiness, sadness, weakness.

Adjective suffixes

-able/-ible [əbl] with verbs, means 'can be done', e.g. drinkable, washable, readable, recognizable, countable, forgivable, edible, flexible.

Verbs

-ise (or ize) makes verbs from adjectives, e.g. modernize, commercialize, industrialize.

Other suffixes that can help you recognize the word class

-ment: (nouns) excitement, enjoyment, replacement

-ity: (nouns) flexibility, productivity, scarcity

-hood: (abstract nouns especially family terms) childhood, motherhood

-ship (abstract nouns especially status) friendship, partnership, membership

- ive: (adjectives) passive, productive, active
- al: (adjectives) brutal, legal, refusal, arrival
- ous: (adjectives) delicious, outrageous, furious
- ful: (adjectives) forgetful, hopeful, useful

-less: (adjectives) useless, harmless, cloudless

-ify: (verbs) beatify, purify, terrify

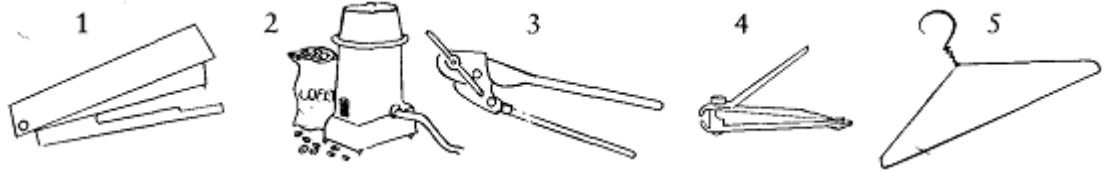
Note: the informal suffix –ish, which can be added to most common adjectives, ages and times to make them less precise, e.g. She is thirtyish. He has reddish hair. Come about eightish.

Ex. 1. The –er/ -or, -ee and –ist suffixes. Use the suffixes to give the names of the following.

Example: A person who plays jazz on the piano. A jazz pianist.

1. The thing that wipes rain of your car windscreen.
2. A person who plays classical violin.
3. A person who takes professional photographs.
4. A person who acts in amateur theatre.
5. A person to whom a cheque is made out.
6. A machine for washing dishes.
7. A person who donates the kidney upon their death.
8. The person to whom a letter is addressed.

Ex. 2. Each picture is of an object ending in -er. Can you name them?



Ex. 3. Do these words mean a thing, a person, or both?

a doctor	a ticket-holder	a cleaner	a drinker
a typewriter	a record player	a smoker	ant eater

Ex. 4. Spelling changes. Rewrite each sentence by changing the underlined words, using a suffix from the left-hand page. Make any spelling changes needed.

1. Most of his crimes can be forgiven.
Most of his crimes are
2. The Club refuses to admit anyone not wearing a tie.
The Club refuses to anyone not wearing a tie.
3. Her only fault is that she is lazy.
Her only fault is
4. This firm has produced a lot in recent years.
This firm has been very in recent years.
5. I found the book very easy and pleasant to read.
I found the book very

Ex. 5. Which word is the odd one out in each group and why?

- | | |
|----|--|
| 1. | brotherhood /
neighborhood / manhood / priesthood |
| 2. | hair-restorer / plant-holder
/ step-ladder / oven-cleaner |
| 3. | appointment / involvement
/ compliment / arrangement |
| 4. | tearful / spiteful / dreadful /
handful |
| 5. | worship / kindship /
friendship / partnership |

Prefixes

A.Prefixes are often used to give adjectives a negative meaning. The opposite of ‘comfortable’ is ‘uncomfortable’, the opposite of ‘convenient’ is ‘inconvenient’ and the opposite of ‘similar’ is ‘dissimilar’. Other examples are ‘unjust’, ‘inedible’, ‘disloyal’. Unfortunately, there is no easy way of knowing which prefix any adjective will use to form its opposite. When you learn a new adjective note down whether it has an opposite formed with a prefix and, if so, what it is.

Note: in- becomes im- before a root beginning with ‘m’ or ‘p’, e.g. immature, impatient, impartial, improbable. Similarly, in- becomes ir- before a word beginning with ‘r’, and il- before a word beginning with ‘l’, e.g. irreplaceable, irregular, irreversible, illegal, illiterate.

The prefix in- does not always have a negative meaning – often it gives the idea of inside or into, e.g. internal, important, income.

B. Although it is mainly adjectives which are made negative by prefixes, un- and dis- can also form the opposites of verbs too, e.g. appear – disappear. The prefix is used here to reverse the action of the verb. Here are some more examples: disagree, disapprove, dislike, disbelieve, disconnect, discredit, dismount, disprove,

disqualify, unbend, unbutton, undo, undress, unfold, unload, unlock, unveil, unwrap, unzip

C. Many other prefixes are used in English. Here is a list of prefixes which are useful in helping you to understand unfamiliar words. Some of these words are used with a hyphen. Check in a dictionary if you are not sure.

prefix	meaning	examples
anti	against	anti-war, antisocial, antibiotic
auto	of or by oneself	autograph, auto-pilot, autobiography
bi	two, twice	bicycle, bi-monthly, biannual, bilingual
ex	former	ex-wife, ex-student, ex-president
ex	out of	extract, exhale, excommunicate
micro	small	micro-computer, microwave, microscopic
mis	badly-wrongly	misunderstand, mistranslate, misinform, misbehave
mono	one/single	monotonous, monologue, monogamous
multi	many	multi-national, multi-purpose, multi-racial
over	too much	overdo, overtired, oversleep, overeat, overcook
post	after	postwar, postgraduate, post-revolutionary
pro	in favor of	pro-government, pro-revolutionary
pseudo	false	pseudo-government, pseudo-intellectual
re	again or back	retype, reread, replace, rewind
semi	half	semicircular, semi-final, semi-detached
sub	under	subway, submarine, subdivision
under	not enough	underworked, underused, undercooked

Ex.1. Practice using words with negative prefixes. Contradict the following statements in the same way as the example. Not all words you need are on the left-hand page. Example: he is a very honest man. I don't agree. I think he is dishonest.

1. I am sure she is discreet.
2. I always find him very sensitive.
3. It's a convincing argument.
6. He's very efficient.
7. I always find her responsible.
8. He seems grateful for our help.

4. That's a very relevant point.

9. I'm sure she's loyal to the firm.

5. She's always obedient.

10. He's a tolerant person.

Ex.2. Which negative adjective fits each of the following definitions?

1. means not having a husband or wife.

2. means impossible to eat.

3. means unable to read or write.

4. means not having a job.

5. means fair in giving judgement, not favoring one side.

6. means unable to be replaced.

Ex.3. Choose a negative verb from B to fit each of the sentences below. Put it in the correct form. *Example: The runner was disqualified after a blood test.*

1. Children (and adults) love parcels at Christmas time.

2. I almost always find that I with his opinion.

3. I'm sure he's lying but it's going to be hard to his story.

4. After a brief speech the Queen the new statue.

5. It took the removal man an hour our things from the van.

6. His phone was Because he didn't pay his last bill.

Ex.4. Answer the following questions. The answers are all in the table opposite.

1. What kind of oven cooks things particularly fast?

2. What kind of drug can help somebody with an infection?

3. What kind of company has branches in many countries?

4. How does a passenger aero plane normally fly?

5. What is a student who is studying for a second degree?

6. What means 'underground railway' in the US and 'underground passage' in the UK?

Ex.5. Using the table opposite construct words or phrases to replace the underlined words. *Example: he's in favor of the American approach. He's is pro-American.*

1. The BBC tries to avoid pronouncing foreign words incorrectly.
2. Most people say they have to work too hard but are paid too little.
3. He dated his cheque with a date that was later than the real date.
4. She's still on good terms with the man who used to be her husband.
5. He made so many mistakes in the letter that he had to write it again.

Roots

A. Many words in English are formed from a set of Latin roots with different prefixes and suffixes. Knowing the roots of such words may help you to remember or guess their meaning when you see them in context. These words are usually fairly formal. In their formation, they can perhaps be seen as the Latinate, formal, equivalent or phrasal verbs.

B. Here are some examples of the more common Latin roots, with some of the verbs derived from them. In each case an example sentence is given with the meaning of the verb in brackets at the end. You'll find some easier to understand than others.

spect: see, look

You should respect your parents / the laws of a country. [look up to]

The police suspected he was guilty but they had no proof. [had a feeling]

Many pioneers travelled west in America to prospect for gold. [search]

vert: turn

I tried a word-processor but I soon reverted to my old typewriter. [went back]

Missioners went to Africa to convert people to Christianity. [change beliefs]

The royal scandal diverted attention from the political crisis. [took attention away]

port: carry, take

How are you going to transport your things to the States? [send across]

Britain imports cotton and exports wool. [buys in, sells out]

The roof is supported by the old beams. [held up]

duc, duct: lead

She was educated abroad. [went to school]

He conducted the orchestra with great vigor. [led]

Japan produces a lot of electronic equipment. [makes]

press: press, push

She was impressed by his presentation. [full of admiration and respect]

This weather depresses me. [makes me feel miserable]

She always expresses herself very articulately. [puts her thoughts into words]

pose, pone: place, put

The meeting has been postponed until next week. [changed to a later date]

The king was deposed by his own son. [put off the throne]

I don't want to impose my views on you. [force]

C. Above you only have examples of verbs. Note that for all the verbs listed, there is usually at least one noun and at least one adjective as well. Here are some examples.

verb	person noun	adjective	abstract noun
inspect	inspector	inspecting	inspection
advertise	advertiser	advertising	advertisement
deport	deportee	deported	deportation
introduce	Introducer	introductory	introduction
oppress	oppressor	oppressive	oppression
compose	composer	composite	composition

Ex.1. complete as much as possible of the table with other forms of some of the words presented in B. use a dictionary to help you if necessary.

verb	person noun	adjective	abstract noun
convert
produce

conduct
impress
support
impose

Ex.2. Fill in the gaps in the sentences below using words from the table in C.

1. We stayed in a town surrounded by high mountains. I found it very
2. He from the USA for having a forget passport.
3. May I you to my boss?
4. The magazine seems to have nothing in it but for cosmetics.
5. The tax decided I owed a lot for money.
6. The new take-away pizza service has a very good offer.
7. Business people always say that it pays
8. Tchaikovsky some wonderful ballet music.

Ex.3. Can you work out the meanings of the underlined words in the sentences below? To help you, here are the meanings of the main Latin prefixes.

intro: within, in word / o, ob: against / in, im: in, into / re: again, back / de: down, from / ex: out / sub: under / trans: across

1. She's a very introspective person and he's also very introverted.
2. He always seems to oppose everything I suggest.
3. They have a very good induction programme for new staff in that company.
4. I don't think it is healthy to repress one's emotions too much.
5. Perhaps you can deduce what the word means from the way it is formed.
6. The documentary exposed corruption in high places.
7. She tried hard to suppress a laugh.
8. She transported the music for the flute.

Here are some games for vocabulary teaching

Balderdash

Produced by Gameworks Creations, Inc. through Western Publishing Company, Inc., Racine, WI 53404, distributed by Games Gang Ltd., New York, NY 10010.

Played like the parlor game dictionary. Players create phony but believable definitions for given words and earn points for selecting the correct definition or if their “bluff” definition is selected. Great for assessing suffix, prefix, and root word knowledge.

Boggle

Produced by Parker Brothers, P.O. Box 1012, Beverly, MA 01915. The “three-minute word game” in which players decipher words from a sixteen-letter cube tray, spelling any word diagonally, horizontally, vertically, or snakily formed in the tray. If the letters are connected, they will spell - longer words are rewarded with more points. This game has the advantage of being quick and allowing everyone to play at once.

Charades

Produced perhaps in some royal parlor or maybe even some fire-lit cave. Get that kinesthetic energy and dramatic expression working in your vocabulary favor! Use vocab words, history terms, geometric shapes, famous names, places, or things—words from any content area can be used in this improvisational technique.

Listen Up!

Produced by The Game Works, Inc. under license from Steven Stroh, Inventor. “Say what you see, draw what you hear.” You’ve seen this premise before – you see a collection of lines, angles, and arcs on a card and must describe verbally what you see accurately enough for your partner to duplicate your words in picture. Great for math and science vocab - shapes, angular degrees, and fun.

Outburst

Produced by Parker Brothers, a division of Tonka Corporation, Beverly, MA

01915, under license from Hersch and Company. Players are given a topic, such as “commands you give your dog” and then have sixty seconds to identify the ten listed on the playing card. This “game of verbal explosions” is played in teams.

Oodles

Produced by Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, MA 01101, a division of Hasbro, Inc. Teams of players try to guess words beginning with a given letter, based on catchy clues. For example, the letter is B—“tiny mistake, or Yogi’s buddy” (BooBoo), “the deer politicians love to pass” (buck).

Password

Produced by Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, MA 01101. Played like the old TV game show, players give one-word clues to guide their partners to the target word. Great for antonym and synonym play, also to assess vocabulary comprehension.

Pictionary

Produced by Western Publishing Company, Inc., Racine, WI 53404, distributed by the Games Gang, Ltd., New York, NY 10010. Pictionary is literally charades on paper. Players identify unknown words through sketches. A one-minute time limit and a race around the board make for great word play through tactile translations, the “game of quick draw.”

Probe

Produced by Parker Brothers, a division of General Mills Fun Group, Inc., Salem, MA 01970. Played much like hangman, players choose a word, record it on a word tray, and expose letters as they are guessed, ultimately attempting to guess the word. Great for fun with phonemic awareness.

Scattergories

Produced by Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, MA 01101, a division of Hasbro. This “fast-thinking categories game” combines the critical thinking strategy of categorization with word knowledge and beginning sounds. Players list words beginning with a specific letter in a given category. Points are earned only for those words no one else lists.

Scrabble

Manufactured by Selchow and Righter Company, Bay Shore, NY 11706. If you don't know this one, ask your grandma. It's been on the market since 1948 and continues to make word play popular and fun.

Taboo

Produced by Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, MA 01101, a division of Hasbro, Inc. Played in teams; players try to get their team to say the secret word, but there is a list of words that are taboo and cannot be spoken in the attempt. Great way to encourage your students to become on-the-spot thesauruses.

Win, Lose, or Draw

Produced by Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, MA 01101, a division of Hasbro, Inc. Played just like Pictionary, only with familiar phrases instead of individual words. Based on the TV game show.

Word Yahtzee

Produced by E. S. Lowe, a Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, MA 01101. Played like the popular numbers game, only with letters. "Roll the dice, build words and score big!"

Conclusion

Growth in word knowledge is slow, incremental, and requires multiple exposures over time. Much of a student's vocabulary is learned incidentally through multiple exposures to words in multiple contexts (Nagy & Scott, 2000; Stahl, 2003). Through these encounters, students add to their growing network of knowledge about the word. However, not all children learn words from context at an equal rate, nor are all words equally learned from context. Many children arrive at our doorsteps with little background in the use of academic language or vocabulary. They depend on schools and schooling to become knowledgeable about the words found in an academic discourse. As educators, it is incumbent on us to provide the maximum opportunity for all students to gain access and knowledge about the academic discourse needed to succeed in schools.

There are still many gaps in our research knowledge. However, it seems that a concerted effort on the part of publishers, authors, teachers, and researchers could improve the chances that all students, including those who have been marginalized by texts that are too difficult and inconsiderate, will learn important words. A multifaceted approach is necessary; words are unique, like individual students, and no type of instruction is not adequate. Acquiring both word knowledge and world knowledge is a gradual and cumulative process (Hirsch, 2003). Designing materials intentionally, teaching word knowledge in conjunction with world knowledge, and recognizing those words that are likely to be "picked up" incidentally in texts and those that need more active instruction are necessary steps in closing the language gap.

FINAL CONCLUSION

Just as word learning is daunting for the student, vocabulary teaching may appear intimidating to the instructor. There are so many words! There is so much to know about each word! And there is so little time! Teachers should remind themselves that no single teacher is responsible for covering every word that a student needs or everything a student needs to know about a word. Students come to class with partial word knowledge that they have picked up on their own or from other teachers. Teachers should be aware of what it means to know a word, and help their students move from this partial knowledge to effective word use. Teachers should use principled instruction as they show learners how to select the new words they invest in, what they need to know about the words and how to use word learning strategies. And teachers should use every opportunity to demonstrate the importance of repeated exposure to words and of the effective use of word-learning strategies. With a balance of respect for the awareness of the word learning task, teachers can contribute greatly to the language learning of their students.

While vocabulary research once provided little information about how words were learned, much has changed. Considerable research today illuminates the task

of word learning and the role of the students as agents of their own word learning. Individual learner variables and learner needs are better understood. As research and technology continue to advance, we can expect more access to information about brain function in word learning. We can expect that corpus-based research will continue to help us better understand the nature of authentic language use and will lead to advances in the authentic representation of language in research and instructional materials. Ease of online access should make increasingly targeted information more readily available to classroom teachers. It is hoped that these developments will allow teachers and learners more access to focused and relevant research and information about language use and that the result will be an increase in principled vocabulary instruction in foreign language classroom.

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