EAP VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION: A TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS AND
LESSON TEMPLATE

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to everyone who has helped me through the writing process. You were so helpful in so many ways, and I am forever indebted to you for your wonderful suggestions. Most importantly, I dedicate this thesis to those of you who put up with my constant moaning and whining.
Students of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) need to command a large specialized vocabulary in order to succeed at the university level. Since second language learners are at a disadvantage compared to native speakers with regard to vocabulary exposure in the target language, EAP instructors need to provide rich instruction that will help them overcome this deficit. Rich instruction must include assessing which words to focus on, providing repetition and spaced retrieval of target words, encouraging depth of processing for each word, using various tasks that promote lexical acquisition, and providing strategies for independent word learning. This thesis explores the research in the field of second language vocabulary instruction, specifically as it relates to academic English, in order to analyze the vocabulary component of four English language textbooks. After a thorough review of the textbooks, a vocabulary lesson plan is proposed that is intended to serve as a template for instruction which is grounded in current research.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge is at the core of language learning. It is doubtful that anyone would disagree with the idea that it is very difficult to learn and use a language without a large base vocabulary. Vocabulary knowledge is especially vital for second language (L2) learners who wish to advance to the level of academic proficiency. If they do not have the knowledge and understanding of a specialized vocabulary that does not appear frequently in non-academic discourse, they may not succeed.

To date, most research in this area has focused on learners of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and various studies have attempted to identify the ideal number of words that a non-native speaker needs to command in order to successfully interact in a given English language community. Though these studies provide some insight into the number of words needed to understand a text, there is no one agreed-upon threshold that a student must reach. In addition, most studies refer to the number of word families that are needed for adequate understanding of the text. A word family is the base word, plus all derived forms with affixes such as \(-ly\), \(-ness\), and \(un\)-, as well as verbs inflected for tense and person (Nation, 2001). Nation shows that learners have difficulty comprehending a text if fewer than 95% of the words are known, which is about 4,000 word families in an academic text. Hu and Nation (2000) found that for learners to understand a fiction text on their own, some of their subjects gained text comprehension at the 90-95% level, but most needed to understand between 98-99% of the running words in the text. Additionally, Hsueh-Chao and Nation (2000) found that at 80%, adult students preparing to enter an English speaking university were unable to achieve adequate comprehension of the texts they read. Nation (2006) investigated how many words were required for learners to read and understand a range of authentic texts, including novels, newspapers and graded readers. The results of Nation’s study indicate that a reader needs to understand 8,000 to 9,000 word families to successfully read texts in these three genres. In addition to breadth of knowledge (the quantity of words known), the depth of knowledge (the quality of words known), which is
much more complex, is at least as important. This issue will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

L2 learners are clearly at a disadvantage compared to native speakers, who have been building their first language (L1) vocabularies their entire lives; the second language learner has a much more limited time to acquire new words (Sökman, 1997). As Laufer (2005) indicates, because the L2 student is at a disadvantage with exposure to, and use of, the L2, rich instruction can compensate for this and speed up “the incremental process of expanding and consolidating word knowledge” (p. 234). Teachers and materials developers have a lot of work to do, but on the positive side, learners are well aware of the fact that they need to learn a lot of words in the L2 (Read, 2004; Zhou, 2009), and teachers can capitalize on this awareness and provide their students with ample opportunities to learn vocabulary words.

Reading is considered by many to be a natural source of exposure to new vocabulary, and university students are often required to read large quantities of texts, and to write from those readings (Carson, 2001; Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Horowitz, 1986). The aim of this thesis is to focus on second language academic vocabulary learning for students of EAP as it relates to textbooks for academic reading. Specifically, this thesis will review the current literature in the field of vocabulary acquisition, determine a set of guidelines for EAP vocabulary instruction, analyze current EAP reading textbooks for their methods in addressing vocabulary acquisition based on these criteria, and propose a model lesson for teaching vocabulary to EAP students.

The remainder of this thesis is organized into four chapters. Chapter 2 reviews the current research in the field of vocabulary instruction, briefly explaining what it means to know a word and laying the foundation for the instruction of words. The rest of the chapter is divided into incidental vocabulary learning and intentional vocabulary learning. Incidental learning is defined as the acquisition of words when the main purpose of the activity is to do something other than learn words, such as comprehend a written text; intentional vocabulary learning is defined as learning words when that is the primary goal of the activity. These two sections are further subdivided. The former is broken down into two sub-sections that relate to teaching strategies for learning words independently: inferring meaning from context and dictionary use. The latter is subdivided into four categories for explicit vocabulary instruction: target word assessment, depth of processing and engagement, repetition and
spaced retrieval, and various tasks. These four categories, together with the previously mentioned strategies for independent word learning, serve as five guidelines that can be used in order to promote the successful acquisition of second language vocabulary.

Chapter 3 provides a comprehensive description and evaluation of four commercially produced textbooks appropriate for learners at the high-intermediate level which are currently used in community college classes in the San Diego area in California: *Inside Reading 4: The Academic Word List in Context* (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007); *Interactions 2: Reading* (Hartman & Kirn, 2006); *World of Reading: A Thematic Approach to Reading Comprehension 3* (Baker-González & Blau, 2009); and *Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List* (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005). The focus of the first three books is primarily on improving the learner’s reading ability, though each has a large vocabulary component in each section. The primary focus of the fourth book (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005) is on vocabulary instruction. Additionally, it is not required in a community college in San Diego; however, it is included in the books for analysis because it uses reading passages which mostly come from college-level textbooks as the source of context for vocabulary words. These texts will be critiqued based on the research presented in Chapter 2 with regard to the guidelines for vocabulary instruction that the research supports. Finally, recommendations for adaptations to each book that a teacher could use to make the exercises more pedagogically sound will be presented.

Chapter 4 provides a lesson built on the guidelines presented in Chapter 2 for effective vocabulary instruction that would be appropriate for a supplement to a reading lesson. The goals of the tasks in this lesson are to promote the acquisition of academic vocabulary in a way that is consistent with the principles of vocabulary instruction. The lesson will use “Folk and Popular Culture,” a textbook passage from *Contemporary Human Geography* (Rubenstein, 2009) that is currently in use at San Diego State University.

Finally, Chapter 5 concludes the thesis by discussing the implications of textbook choice, as well as the role of the instructor in adapting textbooks for use in a language classroom. I conclude by reviewing the major principles of a good vocabulary component to a reading textbook.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Vocabulary acquisition in a second language (L2) is a challenging and time-consuming process. It is also not an easy task to assess what it means to “acquire” a word. Nevertheless, it is a vital process in learning a new language, especially if one hopes to achieve a post-secondary education in that language. The approaches to, and levels of emphasis on, vocabulary instruction have changed over the years to the point where there is now a good base to examine the place of vocabulary instruction in the classroom. In this chapter, I will give a brief explanation of what it means to know a word. Then I will discuss the literature as it pertains to major areas of vocabulary acquisition. I will focus on incidental vocabulary acquisition, specifically as it pertains to developing strategies for students to build their lexicon on their own, and intentional vocabulary instruction and all of the concepts that go with it. Finally, I will conclude the chapter with a brief summary of the various types of vocabulary learning techniques that can be used to promote lexical development.

WHAT IT MEANS TO KNOW A WORD

Truly knowing a word includes knowing all of the components that make up a word; this includes knowledge of a word’s form (orthographic and phonological representation), its meaning (basic and derived, as well as meanings that change with context), knowledge of the syntactic features of a word, word use in idioms, and many other components (de la Fuente, 2006; Ellis, 1997; Nassaji, 2006; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). Knowing these components of a word is often referred to as “depth” of vocabulary knowledge, and as Schmitt (2008) states, it is “as important as vocabulary size” (p. 333). Additionally, a learner must have receptive and productive knowledge of a word since there are believed to be two different cognitive processes that allow a person to understand and to use a word (de la Fuente, 2006). Receptive vocabulary knowledge of Japanese L1 university students, for example, was found to be higher than productive knowledge in a recent study by Webb (2008b), in which he
measured partial knowledge and full knowledge of the target words. However, he only found a small difference between the two and he cautions that the difference may vary from group to group. There is also evidence that the direction of instruction affects the knowledge of the target word (Webb, 2009). If learners use productive tasks for the vocabulary words, they will score higher on productive tests. Conversely, if they are instructed in receptive knowledge, they score better on receptive tests. These findings indicate that instruction in production does not lead to better receptive knowledge, only better productive knowledge and vice-versa. As a result, knowing a word involves more than simply being able to understand a word or to use a word; a person must be able to do both.

Additionally, with regard to learning new words, some words are more difficult than others to learn. This is what Nation (2001) calls the “learning burden.” This is, according to Nation, the result of the different aspects that are required to know a word. Some words may be easier for a learner to acquire due to certain patterns or previous knowledge that a learner already has about a word. Other words are more difficult due to a lack of knowledge of the current word. These patterns and knowledge, according to Nation (2001), can come from previous exposure to the word, or from the L1. Instructors should, as Nation argues, reduce the learning burden on the student by increasing the student’s knowledge of individual words. Therefore, students may have partial knowledge of words, full knowledge of words, or no knowledge at all of words. In addition, a learner may not know the spoken form of a word even if he or she knows the written form. In her study on listening comprehension, Goh (2000) found that many students were unable to recognize certain words by sound even though they knew those words by sight. As a result, there is a difference between a sight vocabulary and a listening vocabulary, and both must be known in order to know a word.

Furthermore, if learners are to become successful in their recognition and use of a large number of vocabulary items in the L2, they must develop “lexical competence,” which Laufer (2005) defines as a “combination of different aspects of vocabulary knowledge together with vocabulary use, speed of access and strategic competence” (p. 244). The job of a language teacher is complex; however, one aspect of that job is to promote lexical development that allows learners to competently use the language in a way that fits the needs of the student.
INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING

Laufer (2003) defines incidental vocabulary acquisition as “the acquisition of vocabulary as a by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to lexical competence” (p. 574). Thus, a learner whose goal is reading may employ several different tactics to figure out unknown vocabulary words, but he or she is only doing so in order to comprehend the text, not to learn new words. Research has shown that the use of certain tactics does, in fact, lead to incidental vocabulary acquisition (Brown, Waring, & Donkaewbua, 2008; Cheng & Good, 2009; Knight, 1994; Laufer, 2003; Rott, Williams, & Cameron, 2002; Webb, 2007a), though most researchers demonstrate that the level of acquisition is slow and incremental. Rott et al. (2002) point out that even with this caveat, it is still useful because it accomplishes two goals at once: the student learns some new words, and the student comprehends the text. Additionally, multiple encounters with a word in a variety of contexts provide a deeper understanding of the word and its meaning (DeCarrico, 2001), so providing opportunities for incidental acquisition will help the learners to build both depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge.

One way to build this knowledge is through massive amounts of exposure, which many researchers have claimed is how vocabulary is learned. This stems from L1 research that has argued that it is not possible for children to have been explicitly taught all of the thousands of words that they know by the time they enter school, or the approximately 1,000 words they learn each year while they attend school (Nation, 2001). Additionally, Hazenburg and Hulstijn (1996) claim that non-native speakers of Dutch who enter a Dutch university have a receptive knowledge of about 11,000 words in the L2. It seems unlikely that students reached this level from explicit teaching alone, and research in recent years has confirmed that words are acquired incidentally by exposure (Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Webb, 2008a). However, most research suggests that extensive reading alone is not enough. Specifically, Hill and Laufer (2003) claim that a person would need to read 420 novels in order to gain 2000 words. This does not seem like a very practical scenario. Yet Webb (2008a) did find that context, if it is rich, has more of an effect on vocabulary acquisition than the number of encounters that a student has with the target word, indicating that reading is vital to the vocabulary acquisition process.
In sum, incidental learning does occur, and it can be viewed as efficient and productive. Also, students must learn to learn words on their own if they expect to reach a high enough threshold to be successful in an academic setting. However, by definition there is little that a teacher can do to promote “incidental” vocabulary acquisition with the exception of massive amounts of exposure to language. In addition to exposure, an instructor can teach students how to learn words independently when unknown words appear in a text. Therefore, providing guidance with strategies for independent vocabulary learning should be a key component in promoting vocabulary acquisition in the L2 classroom.

Inferring Meaning from Context

Students who acquire vocabulary from reading alone often need to rely on guessing the meaning of a word from context. Drawing on a wealth of previous research, Laufer (2003) lists four assumptions that must become realities, in succession, in order for a learner to successfully guess the meaning of a word. First, students must notice unknown words as unknown words, which is unlikely, according to Laufer, because learners who understand the content of a reading do not pay attention to the exact meanings of words. Also, learners may have problems with homonyms, false cognates, and words with similar spellings (e.g., “adapt” vs. “adopt”, p. 570). Secondly, the context must be sufficient enough for the learner to be able to guess the meaning, yet even if the context is rich for guessing, if the learner does not know at least 98% of the words in the text, he or she will still have a tremendous amount of difficulty inferring the word’s meaning (Hirsh & Nation, 1992, cited in Laufer, 2003). Thirdly, the meaning guessed from context must be retained. She cites Mondria and Wit de Boer’s (1991) study that found that guessing may help in comprehension, but it does not lead to long-term retention (cited in Laufer). Other studies, however, as Laufer explains, have demonstrated long-term gains for difficult vocabulary words (Jacoby, Crails, & Begg, 1979 and Hasstrup, 1991, cited in Laufer, 2003). Finally, the “cumulative gain assumption” assumes that learners will come into contact with the new word multiple times, since each successive exposure leads to a richer knowledge of the word. If these four assumptions are met, a learner may build his or her vocabulary from reading alone.
Many researchers continue to advocate teaching learners how to guess from context, even in light of the previously mentioned problems with guessing. This is due to the fact that learners do have a need to learn vocabulary words on their own, and new encounters with old words provide new contexts for those words. Therefore, teaching students how to guess from context is one strategy that can be used among many strategies. However, Mondria (2003) found that students who inferred the meaning of vocabulary words, with the aid of ‘pregnant’ texts (texts which provide rich context for the target word), did no better on a post-instruction test than students who were given the meaning of words. She attributed this lack of success to the learners incorrectly inferring the meaning of the words, so she suggests adding a verification stage after guessing to counteract the incorrect inferences.

One method that has been investigated heavily with reference to incidental vocabulary instruction is the effect of glosses. Though glossing is not a strategy that can be taught to the student, it does provide a way to increase the chances that learners notice the vocabulary word which can help override the noticing assumption. Additionally, many studies have demonstrated that glossing alone leads to better vocabulary acquisition than just reading (Cheng & Good, 2009; Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Rott et al., 2002; Webb, 2007c). Researchers have looked at different types of glosses (L1 translation, L2 definitions or synonyms, multiple choice glosses, in text glosses, marginal glosses, L2 example sentences) and the general consensus is that any gloss is better than no gloss with no one particular type of gloss significantly improving a learner’s knowledge of the word. However, the gains are overwhelming low with any strategy. Therefore, glossing a text may provide a way to focus the learner’s attention on a given word that he or she may be able to guess the meaning of from context, but it should not be the only method used.

In sum, guessing the meaning of a word from the context is a complex task. There are clearly benefits and reasons to believe that it can work; however, the instructor or textbook needs to approach the situation cautiously and provide guidance in the process by providing glosses, indicating which specific words the instructor thinks are guessable, and having learners verify the meaning of words which they have guessed from context.
Dictionary Use

Another vocabulary strategy that learners may use to independently learn words is the dictionary, which has been shown to be an effective way to learn vocabulary words while reading (Knight, 1994; Prichard, 2008). Knight found that dictionary use both enabled comprehension and led to better gains in vocabulary acquisition than guessing from context, especially among students who were at a high language ability. Prichard’s study also demonstrates that vocabulary can be learned from dictionary use. However, he cautions that dictionaries should only be used for unknown words that are important to understanding the text. Prichard demonstrated that, at least for the 34 Japanese university students in his study, high proficiency learners generally have good judgment when it comes to selecting which words to look up in a dictionary, yet if a teacher wants to encourage this in the classroom, he or she could limit the number of times a student is permitted to use a dictionary. According to Prichard, this may help force the students to select only the most important words.

In addition to providing opportunities for learners to use a dictionary, it might also be worthwhile to provide explicit instruction on how to use a dictionary (Hunt & Beglar, 1998). For example, learners should be taught that each definition entry for a word in a dictionary provides a different meaning of the word, and the context should be checked to ensure that an appropriate meaning has been selected. In addition, a dictionary entry is commonly filled with abbreviations that tell the reader the part of speech of the word, the pronunciation, the word origins, etc, which can all be taught explicitly to the learners.

Due to the large number of vocabulary items that EAP students need to know, they may need to learn words on their own. As a result, strategies for independent vocabulary learning should be used in the classroom to promote vocabulary acquisition.

INTENTIONAL VOCABULARY LEARNING

As opposed to incidental vocabulary acquisition, intentional vocabulary learning is designed with the explicit intention of learning the vocabulary items, not just reading a text (Laufer, 2003). In this sense, all of the activities that will be discussed in this section are for the express purpose of engaging the learner in the process of the acquisition of words and phrases to increase the number of words that a learner knows and to improve the quality of knowledge of each word.
Target Word Assessment

Given the large number of vocabulary words that a learner needs in order to succeed in academic reading, and the fact that a teacher often does not have a lot of time to devote to vocabulary instruction, one of the primary tasks for an instructor and/or textbook designer is to assess which words are the most important to address explicitly. A good way to accomplish this is to determine, and then teach, the most frequent words that a student will encounter, and word frequency lists are a good place to locate these words.

There are two good corpora that can be used to determine word frequency. In 1953, West developed the General Service List (GSL) containing the most useful 2,000 word families in English for EFL learners based on a corpus of five million words from a variety of genres including fiction and nonfiction. Although the GSL is rather old, it still serves as a reliable guide and there has yet to be a comparable replacement (Coxhead, 2000). These 2,000 word families are considered to be a good starting point for teaching English language learners. However, when it comes to Academic English, and the vocabulary thresholds which non-native speakers need to meet in order to succeed in a university setting, these words are just the beginning.

The Academic Word List (AWL) was developed to assist L2 learners in their pursuit of academic English. Coxhead (2000) created the AWL as a specialized vocabulary for EAP students. The list is composed of 570 word families that account for 10% of the total words that appear in academic texts (excluding the 2,000 word families in the GSL) and is based on a corpus of 3.5 million running words from academic texts in 28 disciplines from the arts, commerce, law, and science. In order for the words to be included, they had to appear at least 100 times in the corpus and at least 10 times in each of the four fields; also, they had to appear in 15 or more of each of the 28 disciplines that comprised the four main sections. Combined with the GSL, the AWL accounts for 86% of academic vocabulary (Coxhead, 2000), which pushes the learner closer to the “ideal” threshold of at least 95% discussed in Chapter 1. Though this percentage still falls short of the desired level, it does allow teachers a method to assess which vocabulary words might be worth teaching explicitly in the classroom.

The AWL is not without criticism, however. Hyland and Tse (2007) suggest that there may not be “one” academic vocabulary, but in fact, several technical vocabularies that
are field specific. Furthermore, the researchers argue that, based on their corpus of science, social science, and engineering texts, the sciences in general are not properly served by the AWL. They also explain that the AWL does not account for words which may be frequent across academic disciplines but behave differently in different contexts, and they caution that generality based on word families is not enough. Additionally, research into academic agriculture articles found that only 92 of the word families in the AWL were common in this field, leading the researchers to argue for more field specific word lists (Martínez, Beck, & Panza, 2009). However, since teachers might find themselves in classes with students from many fields, the AWL could provide a good starting point for increasing the learners’ vocabulary. Also, at least in the United States, many university students must take general education classes that cover a range of academic fields which could be served well by the AWL.

Another method for selecting words for instruction based on a reading text is for the teacher to determine (a) which words are necessary for text comprehension and are useful in other settings, (b) which words are necessary for text comprehension but are not particularly useful in other settings, and (c) which words are neither necessary for text comprehension nor useful in other settings (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). Following this suggestion, an instructor must assess each possible word that he or she feels will be unknown to the students, and then use these guidelines to determine which words will be best served with intentional instruction. This decision could be left completely to the instructor’s intuition; however, McCrostie (2007) found that trained instructors who are native-speakers of English did not fare any better than first year undergraduates in determining frequently occurring words. In reviewing McCrostie’s study, Schmitt (2008) suggests that it may be good to use frequency lists (e.g., the AWL) together with intuition, which would fit nicely with the guidelines discussed above.

The use of frequency lists, in general, might also pose a problem for learners if the words are not adequately addressed. Lynch (1996), while discussing potential problems with the simplification of vocabulary for the purpose of easier comprehension, notes that, in English, “the simpler and more common a word is, the more likely it is to have more than one meaning” (p. 29). As a result, using more common vocabulary may further complicate the situation. However, when the goal is to teach words elaborately, as discussed in this
section, this may actually benefit the learners since they will learn more about the words and the contexts in which they appear.

Once an instructor has determined which words are the most frequent and most necessary for text comprehension, he or she can take it a step further and let the students determine which words from the final selection they need to emphasize. One way to do this is with a “knowledge rating checklist” (Stahl, 1999). A teacher can list the words determined from the above methods, or put them in a chart, and instruct the students to mark each word as (a) can define, (b) have seen or heard the word, or (c) don’t know the word (Stahl). The information from this exercise will allow the teacher to avoid teaching words that are frequent or necessary for comprehension, but already known by many of the students. Additionally, it might be appropriate to have students define the words that they feel they can define in order to avoid misunderstandings of words, false cognates, and words that appear in the current text with a different meaning than with which they are familiar.

**Depth of Processing and Engagement with Words**

Once the instructor finally decides which words will be explicitly taught, it is not enough to simply teach the form-meaning connection, though this initial stage is, of course, very important. Having knowledge of the depth of a vocabulary word, as explained at the beginning of this chapter, is also necessary in order to “know” a word. *Depth* includes not only knowing the spelling, pronunciation, and meaning of a word, but also the idioms and collocations in which the word appears, the syntactic role of the word, semantic variation, and other factors that can make a word less transparent. There are various ways that a teacher can help promote depth of processing of vocabulary words, all of which involve the learner being engaged with the word, which Schmitt (2008) aptly terms “engagement” (p.339).

For research purposes, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) developed the “involvement load hypothesis” to determine the depth of processing of second language vocabulary. They based their hypothesis on Craik and Lockhart’s (1972) work on depth of processing, which claims that when lexical items are semantically processed, the words are being processed at a deep level. As a result, learners will retain words better than if they only practice and process the words at a “shallow” level, such as the orthographic and phonological levels.
Laufer and Hulstijn propose three components of “involvement” that increase the learner’s “load” with the target word: need, search, and evaluation. Need is the motivation to understand a lexical item. For example, while reading a text, a student might need to know the meaning of a word in order to comprehend it sufficiently. Search is the component that a learner uses when he or she tries to find the meaning of a word, which may include using a dictionary or asking for help. Evaluation is the comparison of the word with other words to determine if it is supported by the context. The researchers propose that different levels of processing – weak, moderate, and strong - support each of these.

Since Laufer and Hulstijn’s (2001) proposal of the involvement load hypothesis, other researchers have used it to test for vocabulary acquisition. For example, Kim (2008) investigated three different vocabulary tasks rated for task induced involvement. The findings indicate that tasks which demand a higher level of learner involvement produce better results than tasks that are less demanding, both on immediate recall and delayed recall of the target vocabulary. Additionally, different tasks with the same level of involvement produce similar results; Kim found no significant difference between a group that wrote sentences with the target words and a group that wrote short compositions with the target words.

Another method for fostering deep processing is generation, which is based on the idea that when a person meets or uses a word in ways that are different from the initial contact, he or she will process the word more elaborately and, as a result, increase his or her knowledge of that word (Nation, 2001; Stahl, 1999). Nation provides an example of this method with the word cement. If a learner first encounters the word in “We cemented the path” and later encounters the word in “We cemented our relationship with a drink,” the learner has to reassess his or her understanding of the word, which will help to retain this word in his or her memory (p. 69). Moreover, Nation emphasizes that generation is not only true for metaphors, but also “a range of variations from inflection through collocation and grammatical context to reference and meaning” (p. 69).

This method could be particularly useful with reference to word families. As discussed in Chapter 1, a word family is the basic counting unit for determining how many words a second language learner needs to successfully read and comprehend a text, and as the studies cited demonstrate, the number of word families that a learner needs to know is
very high, upwards of 9,000 to read a range of texts (Nation, 2006). However, the concept of a word family can be difficult to determine. For example, the word *state* not only includes the inflected forms of the verb, *stated* and *states*, and derived forms like *statement*, but also mental states, political states, stateroom, etc. (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p. 77). Furthermore, studies have shown that English L2 university students do not have sufficient derivational knowledge of English words (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002; Ward & Chuenjundaeng, 2009). Additionally, students tend to have a better understanding of nouns and verbs than adjectives and adverbs (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). As a result, if the teacher can raise the students’ awareness of word families, and provide time, strategies, and activities for the learners to participate in, the student will attain a deeper understanding of each word, and this will improve his or her chances of meeting the vocabulary thresholds for academic reading.

**Repetition and Spaced Retrieval**

One additional way to provide students with a deeper understanding of a word is through multiple exposures of that word in different contexts (DeCarrico, 2001). When a learner meets a word in different contexts, he or she must make new connections to that word and, as discussed above with regard to *generation*, reassess what the word means which will help him or her to retain the word. It is generally agreed upon that one encounter with a word will not lead a learner to retain knowledge of that word. Additionally, one encounter does not provide enough context to learn more than one meaning, and it certainly does not help with recognizing collocations, idioms or semantic relations. Many researchers have tried, with varied results, to determine the ideal number of times that a learner needs to encounter a word to actually learn it (Horst, Cobb, & Meara, 1998; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Rott, 1999; Waring & Takaki, 2003; Webb, 2007a).

Although the ideal number of encounters may differ, these studies all show that more encounters with a word are better than fewer. Rott (1999) showed that two encounters with a target word produced small gains in vocabulary acquisition, but the gains were not significant until a learner met the word six times. Webb (2007a) found that at least ten encounters lead to significant gains for tangible nouns in rich contexts. Waring and Takaki (2003), on the other hand, provide evidence than even 20 encounters with a word may not be enough.
Additionally, Webb (2008a) found context to be more important than encounters on word meaning; the opposite was found to be true for form. The generally agreed upon minimum number of exposures appears to be ten (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999), but at the very least, eight encounters with a word may give learners a reasonable chance to learn the new word (Schmitt, 2008). Therefore, it is imperative that learners repeatedly encounter new vocabulary items.

Related to repetition is the notion of “spaced retrieval.” If words are encountered at increasing intervals, e.g., after class, then the next day, then a week later, they are more likely to be remembered than if a word is encountered at regular intervals, e.g., at the end of every class (Nation, 2001; Sökman, 1997). One way to provide spaced retrieval is to consciously reintroduce target words at predetermined intervals throughout a course. In doing so, the goal is not to spend more time on each vocabulary word, rather to just space out the amount of time devoted to each word (Nation, 2001). Laufer (2005) suggests that learners can take charge of their own spaced retrievals by making note cards with the target words on them that can be reviewed by the learners on their own schedule. This could also be incorporated into vocabulary notebooks which will be discussed in the next section. Further suggestions include vocabulary quizzes in class, using cloze activities, putting new words on note cards and putting the cards in a “vocabulary box” in the classroom which students can review at their leisure, as well as explaining the strategy of spaced retrieval to the students so that they are aware of its benefits (Coxhead, 2006).

Most of the studies discussed in this section investigate the number of encounters of words in relation to incidental vocabulary acquisition. They are included in the section on intentional vocabulary learning, however, because language instructors may have more of an ability to affect repetition of new words through vocabulary tasks than through additional reading materials. Tasks will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

**Variety of Tasks**

Providing depth of processing and repeated exposures to vocabulary words in order to foster depth and breadth of knowledge are two important strategies related to intentional vocabulary learning. The issue at this point is how best to accomplish these two strategies. Vocabulary learning is, as Schmitt (2008) states, “a complex and gradual process, and
different approaches may be appropriate at different points along the incremental learning process” (p. 353), and there are numerous tasks that are commonly used by language teachers to promote the development of this process. The purpose of this section is to review current literature with regard to a variety of vocabulary activities.

One task that is commonly used for vocabulary activities is the cloze task, or fill-in-the-blank. Kim (2008), for example, tested the effects of glosses, a cloze activity, and writing original sentences with a vocabulary word; the intent was to test activities that have different involvement loads as set forth by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001). Her results indicate that the original sentence writing group significantly improved in vocabulary knowledge compared to the other two groups, which did not show significant improvement. These results would seem to mean that cloze activities are no different than glosses and are probably not the most effective task for vocabulary acquisition. However, Folse (2006) found that a series of three cloze activities produced significantly better results than either one cloze activity or an original sentence writing activity, suggesting that the number of encounters with a word is more important than depth of processing. However, he justifies the cloze activity as effective and efficient; the student, as Folse explains, must spend a great deal of time and effort in writing original sentences with a new vocabulary item, and the teacher must respond to each sentence appropriately and with effective feedback, whereas the cloze activity is much simpler and less time consuming and, as this study indicates, more effective if used repeatedly.

Cloze activities are not limited to single word units. Webb and Kagimoto (2009) used a cloze activity, as well as glosses, in the study of collocations. Understanding the words that appear frequently in relation to other words is one aspect of deep processing. As previously stated, truly knowing a word includes knowing all of the components that make up a word, and keeping the learners engaged in these aspects helps to promote depth of vocabulary knowledge. This study shows that traditional tasks can promote knowledge of collocations. In their study, Webb and Kagimoto indicate that exposure to collocations is rare and time between encounters is greater than that for single word units. As a result, they suggest explicitly teaching collocations. Moreover, with all of the facets of words that need to be taught in a language class, as well as the other skills that need to go with vocabulary, collocational instruction may help to raise the learners’ awareness that words often appear
more frequently with certain words than other words. As Webb and Kagimoto found, cloze activities are one way of effectively teaching collocations to students.

Another common activity that instructors use is to teach new words through known synonyms. This may often come in the context of providing glosses with synonyms, but synonyms can also be used for explicit instruction. Webb (2007b) finds evidence in his study that synonyms can be an effective way to learn new words, especially for learners at later stages of development. However, he emphasizes that his study was not for the purpose of advocating the teaching of synonyms, but rather to see if students can learn new words from synonyms. In his study, he refers to research that has demonstrated that synonyms may be confusing for learners, but he counters this with the argument that synonyms provide L2 to L2 transfer of known words and may lead to the transfer of grammar and collocations associated with those words to less frequent synonyms.

As discussed above, instructors cannot assume that learners have a good knowledge of word families, and, as the research shows, students need to know many word families to succeed academically. Therefore, it is very important to instruct students on word families. In addition, instructors can promote a deeper understanding of a word through the teaching of affixes. In Ward and Chuenjundaeng’s (2009) study, the researchers found that affix learning proceeds from the stem to the derived form and not vice versa. Consequently, teachers need to create activities that allow students to learn derivations of words, and as this study suggests, start with the base form and move outward. In addition, 82% of the words in the AWL are of either Greek or Latin origin, which suggests that teaching suffixes could be beneficial for academic vocabulary (Coxhead, 2000). Sökman (1997), Coxhead (2006), and Stahl and Nagy (2006) provide several examples that an instructor can use for a variety of affix activities to help build the students’ knowledge of words and word forms.

Explaining and supporting the use of vocabulary notebooks also has been shown to promote vocabulary development (Walters & Bozkurt, 2009). Though the idea of vocabulary notebooks is nothing new (DeCarrico, 2001; Nation, 2001; Sökman, 1997), Walters and Bozkurt (2009) investigated the effectiveness of notebooks combined with the explicit teaching of vocabulary words among adult Turkish students of English for a period of four weeks. The students not only had to enter new vocabulary words into their notebooks, as well as word meanings, synonyms, etc., but the teacher also explicitly instructed students as
to which words to keep. The teacher additionally created one activity for classroom work each week that featured the words kept in the notebook. The results show that receptive and productive knowledge increased significantly from the control group. Moreover, students reported that they found the vocabulary notebooks to be helpful and a good way to learn vocabulary. However, most students reported that they would not continue to use them on their own if the notebooks were not going to be collected, as they were in the study. The teacher, although she liked the progress, thought it would be difficult to continue with the notebooks in the future due to the extra time that the in-class instructions and activities took in relation to the school curriculum.

There are also numerous interactive tasks that have been studied and shown to be effective for vocabulary instruction (Atay & Kurt, 2006; de la Fuente, 2002; Lee, 2008; Zimmerman, 1997). For example, role-play activities with a planned focus on form and meaning (de la Fuente, 2006) and post-reading story retells in jigsaw activities (Atay & Kurt) led to gains in vocabulary acquisition. Lee studied the effects of interactive tasks on single vocabulary words and lexical phrases that used the movie *Mulan*, combined with a written script, as the source of input for a group of middle school students in Vancouver. The activities included six cloze procedures, the use of dictionaries or electronic translators, peer discussions of the words, story rewrites, and teacher-led discussions in which the teacher provided feedback and elaboration while constantly relating the words to other words and contexts. The results showed significant gains for both productive and receptive vocabulary knowledge.

With regard to explicit vocabulary instruction, an instructor must be sure to properly teach the lexical items. Chang and Read (2006), who investigated the effects of support on listening comprehension with EFL learners, found that the group which received vocabulary instruction before the listening task did worse at comprehension than any of the other experimental groups. They posit that this may be due to only acquiring a partial understanding of words and not having enough practice with the words to allow them to be retrieved in real-time, and this possibly caused an undue focus on the words leading the learners to miss the content of the text. Paying too much attention to words may not be as much of a problem with reading, since the reader generally can take his or her time with the text, but it does suggest that inadequate vocabulary instruction may be worse than no
instruction at all. Teachers and material developers must keep in mind that a perfunctory introduction of a word may not only lead to the word not being learned, but it may also cause problems in overall comprehension of the text. With that in mind, Chapter 4 seeks to overcome this obstacle by presenting a lesson based on the research discussed in the present chapter, which would prevent inadequate vocabulary instruction.

Overall, there are numerous activities that can be used to promote vocabulary acquisition. Some vocabulary activities require less planning and effort, others are more involved. However, as the research demonstrates, the point is to provide varied activities that encourage the learners to process the words elaborately and encounter them in multiple contexts. In addition, focusing on word parts, word families, collocations and lexical bundles may help learners to develop a deeper understanding of the words they encounter, which will support their acquisition of academic vocabulary.

**Conclusion**

Vocabulary acquisition is challenging and time consuming, but it is imperative that instructors provide opportunities for learners to build their L2 lexicon with regard to both quantity and quality of word knowledge. In this chapter, the complex nature of what it means to know a word was reviewed. Then incidental vocabulary acquisition was discussed, especially as it relates to teaching students strategies to learn words on their own. This was followed by a discussion of explicit vocabulary instruction and the components needed to properly teach words in a classroom: target word assessment, depth of processing, repetition and spaced retrieval, and the use of various tasks that promote lexical acquisition. These four components, together with providing strategies for independent vocabulary learning, serve as five broad guidelines for effectively teaching vocabulary to L2 learners. This discussion lays the foundation for Chapter 3, in which the vocabulary component of four EAP reading textbooks will be evaluated with regard to the research reviewed in Chapter 2.
CHAPTER 3

TEXTBOOK REVIEW

In order to assess the current role of vocabulary instruction for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) textbooks, this chapter analyzes four commercially produced and available English as a Second Language (ESL) textbooks that focus on academic reading and vocabulary instruction: (1) *Inside Reading The Academic Word List in Context 4* (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007); (2) *Interactions 2: Reading* (Hartman & Kirn, 2006); (3) *World of Reading: A Thematic Approach to Reading Comprehension 3* (Baker-González & Blau, 2009); and (4) *Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List* (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005). These materials will be evaluated based on the literature reviewed and presented in Chapter 2. Specifically, the textbooks will be evaluated based on the research with regard to the assessment and presentation of the target words, the recycling of target words, the activities that are used for explicit instruction of the vocabulary items, and the presentation of strategies that support independent word learning.

All of the textbooks that are analyzed in this chapter were selected based on their use in Community Colleges in the San Diego area with the exception of *Focus on Vocabulary*, which was selected because it is primarily a vocabulary textbook with a reading component, whereas the other three are primarily reading textbooks with a vocabulary component. The current versions of all four books are relatively new and have been published since 2005. Furthermore, each of these textbooks is designed for academic reading and vocabulary development. The levels range from high-intermediate to advanced proficiency English language learners. Since the focus of this evaluation is vocabulary, the reading component of these textbooks will not be discussed except in relation to the way in which it addresses vocabulary.

The population for the classes which use these texts in the San Diego Community College district are adult immigrant and international ESL students, some of whom are preparing to transfer to a four-year university.
This section reviews the textbook *Inside Reading: The Academic Word List in Context 4* (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007).

**Introduction to Inside Reading 4**

*Inside Reading 4* is a new textbook, published in 2009, which links academic reading and vocabulary development. The book is one of a four-level series, each of which includes ten units based on “high interest academic readings” from various academic content areas (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. vii). Throughout the four levels, all 570 words from the Academic Word List (AWL) are addressed with approximately 15 words per unit. In *Inside Reading 4*, each unit contains two readings from magazine articles or websites that discuss various subjects ranging from psychology and economics to music and film studies. Each unit begins with pre-reading questions, a vocabulary preview and assessment, and then an article. All of the vocabulary target words in each unit are taken from the AWL. After the article, various reading comprehension activities and strategies are presented before vocabulary strategies and activities. Each unit ends with questions for discussion or writing. This format is repeated with the second reading in each unit, minus the vocabulary assessment since the assessment at the beginning of the unit covers all of the target words for the unit, including both readings. According to the authors, the ten units in each book are designed to be taught in order or randomly, depending on students’ needs.

**Vocabulary Assessment and Presentation in Inside Reading 4**

The use of frequency lists to assess vocabulary, especially the AWL for academic vocabulary, is suggested to be an effective way to select words for explicit instruction (Schmitt, 2008). Each unit of *Inside Reading 4* contains 14 or 15 target words that are taken directly from the AWL and that appear in at least one of the two readings in the unit. Each unit begins with an objectives box which includes the target words for the unit, followed by a self-assessment of the target words in order to, as the authors claim, “heighten student awareness of their own word knowledge” (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2009, p. x). It is also intended to be returned to at the end of the unit for students to reassess the words covered in
the unit. The format of the self-assessment is similar to Stahl’s (1999) “knowledge rating check list” discussed in Chapter 2, but it is more detailed, as seen in Figure 1. Although this is not explicitly intended for the teacher to assess which words to focus on, it does allow the students to become aware of which words in this unit require extra attention. If time is an issue, however, the checklist could be adapted by the instructor to determine which words are most necessary for the class as a whole and he or she can select activities which would be the most beneficial for the students in that particular class. Unit 1 also has a brief explanation of what it means to know a word and explains why students need to learn both receptive and productive uses of new vocabulary words.

Figure 1. Word Assessment.

Since each unit in *Inside Reading 4* begins, as previously stated, with an objectives box that contains the target words for the unit, students are immediately focused on which words will be covered in the unit. Additionally, each reading has the target words highlighted in bold. Both of these tactics help students to “notice” the new words, which Laufer (2003) claims they are not likely to do otherwise; if students do not notice the word,
they cannot learn the word. Furthermore, immediately before each reading is a section called “More Words You’ll Need” which contains between two and six words with definitions and/or synonyms that are necessary for text comprehension but are either not from the AWL, or are addressed in more detail in a different level book in the series. In the reading itself, there are difficult words and phrases which are footnoted; a gloss appears at the bottom of each page with a definition of these words or phrases (e.g., “gizmo: gadget or small device,” Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. 18). These words appear to be necessary for text comprehension, but they are probably not that useful outside of the text itself, or at least not as useful as the words from the AWL. Grabe and Stoller (2001) suggest that words be assessed for their necessity in the current reading and/or the outside world. The presentation of these words in *Inside Reading 4* seems to follow Grabe and Stoller’s notion and includes words and phrases necessary for text comprehension but which are not particularly useful elsewhere by providing glosses for those lexical items in lieu of dedicating time to explicit activities.

### Repetition and Spaced Retrieval in *Inside Reading 4*

As the research demonstrates, for a word to be learned a student must encounter the word many times, and the generally agreed upon number of encounters is ten (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999). However, in a textbook it may be difficult to deliberately provide ten encounters. What a textbook can do is provide each new word several times in a variety of activities and contexts explicitly and recycle vocabulary through the book incidentally. *Inside Reading 4* does just that. In the “To the Teacher” section of the book, the author states that *Inside Reading* “provides multiple exposures to words at varying intervals and recycles vocabulary throughout the book” (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. viii).

Although target words do appear throughout the book, and across the books in the series, each target word is also addressed many times in each chapter. For example, in Unit 2, which is about psychology, the target word *issue* is encountered four individual times. It initially appears, as all the target words do, on the first page of the unit in the vocabulary preview section. It appears again in the first article in bold face to draw the students’ attention to the word in context. It subsequently appears in a box of word forms for all of the target words. Most of the words appear in a cloze activity following the word form box, but
issue does not. However, it does appear isolated in a box with additional information about the word and verbs that commonly occur with it. Following the box is an activity that lists statements such as “College tuition has been rising steadily” (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. 22). Students are to name the issue (e.g., how people afford college) and form questions that could be used to begin a discussion of the issue. This is really only four encounters, and the first encounter is just a preview for the sake of noticing and self-assessment, but the student then uses the word in context to complete the final activity.

On the other hand, in the same unit the word benefit is used ten times, including in both readings in the unit, though it is not bolded in the second reading. However, it appears as a noun, in both plural and singular forms, and is part of a count/non-count noun activity. Students also encounter the word as the noun beneficiary and as the adjective beneficial. The word is used explicitly in receptive tasks, such as the count/non-count activity, and productive tasks, such as a sentence writing task.

Without examining all four levels of the book series, it does seem that words appear outside of the chapter in which they are presented. In Unit 6, which is about economics, the first reading, “Economic Bubbles,” was randomly selected and entered into the AWL Highlighter, a website designed to highlight the words of a text which appear in the AWL (http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/~alzsh3/acvocab/awlhighlighter.htm). In addition to the target words for the unit which appear in the text, an additional 24 words from the AWL occur inside the same article. Since the four levels of this book series explicitly address each of the 570 words in the AWL (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. vii), many of the words appear in contexts outside of their original presentation.

In sum, Inside Reading 4 effectively provides multiple encounters with the target words, many of which appear incidentally at places outside of their original unit.

**Activities that Promote Depth of Processing in Inside Reading 4**

Knowing a word, as Nation (2001) claims, involves knowing a great deal about the word, including its spelling, base and derived forms, changes in context, etc. In addition to providing students with encounters at varying levels of word knowledge, activities need to promote high levels of involvement; the higher the learner involvement, the better the student learns the word (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). The vocabulary activities throughout Inside
*Reading 4* reflect these views by involving the learners at varying levels with each word. After each reading in *Inside Reading 4*, the learners are presented with a word form box that includes all, or most, of the derivations of each word as they apply to the context presented, which follows Coxhead’s (2000) explanation that since 82% of the words in the AWL have their origins in Greek or Latin, word form activities could be greatly beneficial for target words from the AWL. In Unit 7 in *Inside Reading 4* for example, the verb *imply*, which appears in the text as a verb inflected for third person, *implies*, is accompanied in the word form chart with the noun *implication*, and the adjective *implied* (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. 102). Following each word form box is a cloze activity that uses several, but not all, of the target words presented in the box.

There is no obvious attempt in *Inside Reading 4* to address words from the stem to derived form as Ward and Chuenjundaeng (2009) find to be the direction of how derivations are learned, though all of the target words appear in a box on the first page of each unit in noun or verb form when possible. Still, there is no definition or context at that point. The next encounter for each word occurs in the reading selections. This is the first encounter with any hint at meaning, but the base form does not appear first, due largely to the fact that the words appear in authentic texts.

The textbook uses a variety of cloze activities, usually directly after the word form boxes and collocation charts. This use of multiple cloze activities is supported by Folse (2006), who found that three cloze activities promote the learning of words better than one sentence writing activity. Additionally, Webb and Kagimoto (2009) found that cloze activities also work well for collocations. In *Inside Reading 4*, each unit has a box, similar to the word form box, with collocations. Since collocations occur in language much less frequently than individual words (Webb & Kagimoto, 2009), they need extra attention. However, the boxes for collocations in *Inside Reading 4* are rather difficult to follow since lists of words are packed into many of the boxes. This can be seen in Figure 2. The teacher would have to do a good job of explaining the box and, possibly, redoing it for the learners’ benefit.

*Inside Reading 4* also provides many activities at the word level and at the sentence and discourse levels. In addition to the cloze activities, boxes and charts, and multiple choice word meaning activities already discussed, the textbook uses a variety of sentence writing
One such activity directs the students to rewrite a sentence using a given target word, often in a phrase, for example, “Blue whales can weigh over 170 tons (in excess of)” (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. 8) where the target word is *excess*. This type of activity follows Kim’s (2008) findings that sentence-writing activities such as these lead to better word retention than glosses and cloze activities. There are also sentence activities in *Inside Reading 4* which contain two columns of target words. According to the directions, the teacher or a partner calls out one word from each column and the student must write an original sentence using both words. The words in the columns are all the target words from the unit with some derivations of a few of the words; for example, the activity on p. 78 has the words *cycle* and *cyclical* as individual words in the activity (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007).
In sum, *Inside Reading 4* provides multiple activities that promote varying degrees of learner involvement, such as cloze tasks and sentence writing activities, which lead to word learning. Additionally, this book provides many tasks that expose learners to a variety of features regarding word knowledge, such as collocations, context, and derivations.

**Strategies for Independent Learning in *Inside Reading 4***

Due to the large quantity of words that learners need to know in order to succeed academically, it may be beneficial to provide strategies that students can use to learn words independently. One possible strategy is dictionary use. Prichard (2008) and Knight (1994) both demonstrate that using a dictionary for unknown words leads to vocabulary acquisition. In addition, Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest that teaching strategies for dictionary use is a worthwhile activity to promote learner independence. Although the “To the Teacher” section at the beginning of *Inside Reading 4* states that “instruction and practice in dictionary use and online resources are provided throughout the book” (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. viii), there is very little instruction for dictionary use. Each unit has at least one word, though often more than one word, isolated in a box with an explanation that the word has multiple meanings. This is followed by the different meanings with example sentences or synonyms loosely following the format of a standard dictionary. The only real dictionary strategy instruction occurs with regard to common abbreviations that appear in dictionaries. For example, one of the meanings of *element* is “a basic part of sth*” (Richmond & Zimmerman, 2007, p. 8). The asterisk directs the student to a note below the box that explains that “sth” is a common abbreviation for *something*, as seen in Figure 3. This type of strategy appears throughout the book.

Furthermore, there are no real strategies for guessing a word from context, which is understandable given the problems with using this strategy (Laufer, 2003) as discussed in Chapter 2. However, the authors do provide activities that are designed to increase the learners’ awareness of different meanings in different contexts, such as in the previous example. DeCarrico (2001) explains that encounters with words in a variety of contexts provides a deeper understanding of the word and its meaning. One step that could be added to these activities is a verification step that would allow the learners to use their dictionaries.
Figure 3. Strategies for dictionary use.

to ensure that they guessed the proper meaning from the context, as suggested by Mondria (2003).

**Adaptation Recommendations for Inside Reading 4**

As far as providing opportunities for incidental vocabulary learning, this book succeeds in many ways, but falls short in others. For example, this textbook provides minimal strategies to teach the learners how to successfully use a dictionary. Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest that explicit instruction in this activity may be beneficial for the learners in developing independent learning abilities. However, since only the final textbook in the four book Inside Reading series is reviewed here, it is possible that strategies are discussed in more detail in the previous textbooks, but this book does very little in this area. A teacher using this book, therefore, might want to add strategies for dictionary use. Also, there are no strategies for teaching learners how they might guess a meaning from context, though they do provide opportunities for learners to practice guessing from context at the sentence level with ‘pregnant’ texts, and at the discourse level with words that appear in the readings. It might be advisable for an instructor to provide some strategy training to demonstrate how to guess a meaning from context, or even to determine if it is possible to guess a meaning from context. Finally, with regard to the activities that provide opportunities to infer meaning from context, it would be beneficial for instructors to add what Mondria (2003) advises, which is a verification stage in which learners look up guessed words in their dictionaries to ensure that they have not incorrectly inferred the meaning of the word.
The only other recommendation for Inside Reading 4 is to bold all target words in a given unit if they appear in both texts inside the unit. In Unit 2, discussed above, the target word *benefits* appears in the first reading where it is bolded since it is addressed explicitly following that reading. It appears again in the second reading in the unit, but it is not bolded. It is likely that the authors did not do so because they did not wish to overwhelm the learner, but if it is in the same unit, the second appearance in a text provides additional context, a feature which Webb (2008a) finds to be more beneficial than repetition. Furthermore, an additional bolding would help the learner to *notice* the word in context, which Laufer (2003) states that the learner may not do on his or her own.

**Conclusion to Inside Reading 4**

On the whole, Inside Reading 4 is a theoretically sound textbook for vocabulary instruction. It focuses almost exclusively on words from the AWL which are essential for students who are in, or are preparing to enter, a university in English. Other words are also glossed in the texts in which they appear to help the students notice the words and to provide opportunities for learners to incidentally acquire some knowledge about these words. The target words are repeated and recycled throughout the unit in a variety of tasks that work on receptive knowledge, productive knowledge, and varying levels of knowledge regarding different features of the words, such as derivations and collocations. Additionally, the tasks are designed to engage the learners with the words at varying levels of involvement. The words are also recycled throughout the series, providing new encounters at varying intervals.

**INTERACTIONS 2: READING**

This section reviews the textbook *Interactions 2: Reading*, Silver Edition (Hartman & Kirn, 2006).

**Introduction to Interactions 2**

This edition of Interactions 2 was published in 2007. Although there is no explicit purpose stated for the book, it is understood that the primary focus of this book is to improve the learners’ academic reading skills. The book has ten chapters, each addressing an academic content area such as education, student life, and economics. There are two readings in each chapter that come from magazine articles, textbook passages, essays and
website articles. Vocabulary is a large component of the book, but the focus is on reading, as the book’s subtitle indicates. Each chapter is divided into four parts and each part begins with a schema activation activity, followed by a preview of vocabulary. Some chapters contain a strategy section for vocabulary or reading before students are directed to read the passage. This is then followed by a section composed of tasks for reading skills and strategies, including a new reading passage. The third section of each chapter is dedicated to vocabulary skills with a focus on the AWL. This section consists of a paragraph or two from one of the previous readings followed by a variety of vocabulary tasks. Finally, there is a “focus on testing” section that provides brief practice and strategies for the TOEFL (Test Of English as a Foreign Language). Each chapter also includes a final page for self-assessment of reading and vocabulary strategies and target vocabulary words.

**Vocabulary Assessment and Presentation in Interactions 2**

In *Interactions 2*, each chapter has between 17 and 46 target words, depending on the chapter and how the words are counted. Some of the words come directly from the AWL, which Schmitt (2008) suggests is an effective way to choose vocabulary words for explicit instruction. Other words are presumably selected for text comprehension. However, some of the words that are listed as being in the AWL are, in fact, not from the AWL. For instance, *so, over, under,* and *call* all appear in *Interactions 2* as words from the AWL; however, all four words actually appear in the General Service List of the 2,000 most frequent words in the English language. However, the primary target words from each chapter are content based; the AWL serves as an additional component. In addition to single words, idioms and expressions are often included in the vocabulary preview which is presented before the first reading. The vocabulary is also presented orally on a CD which must be purchased in addition to the textbook, or in a textbook/CD combination at a higher price. In the presentation, students are directed to check the words they already know; however, there are no instructions to look up words in a dictionary or discuss them prior to the first reading.

Some chapters, including Chapter 1, provide vocabulary strategy information after the vocabulary preview and before the first reading. The strategies generally promote inferring meaning from context but also include recognizing synonyms and other strategies. For example, Chapter 3 features a strategy box that coaches students on using parts of speech to
understand words. This is then followed by a practice activity in which students must read a sentence with a vocabulary word underlined, list its part of speech, then guess possible meanings. Part of this activity can be seen in Figure 4. After students complete the task, they are instructed to compare their answers with a partner. However, since there is usually only one sentence provided for each word, there may not be enough context for them to correctly determine the meaning of the word.

Figure 4. Using parts of speech to understand vocabulary.

After students preview the vocabulary and work on strategies, they then read the article that contains the target words from the preview list. All of the words included in the vocabulary preview section are printed in bold on their first appearance for each part of speech, a feature that encourages students to notice the new words. As noted earlier, Laufer (2003) claims that students often do not notice unknown words as unknown, so using bold helps the students to recognize a new word as new. There are, however, other words that appear in various later activities which are not in bold, or with any other type of highlighting, in the text.
At the end of each chapter in the book there is a self-assessment log which students can use to check the strategies (both reading and vocabulary) that they learned, as well as vocabulary items, including single words, phrases, and expressions. The vocabulary section is titled “Target Vocabulary,” but the words are not necessarily the same as the vocabulary preview section at the beginning of the unit; there are new words at the end that do not appear at the beginning, and there are words that appear at the beginning which do not appear at the end.

**Repetition and Spaced Retrieval in Interactions 2**

According to the introduction to *Interactions 2*, the introduction and practice of vocabulary words “ensures students will interact meaningfully with each target word at least four times (Hartman & Kirn, 2006, p. vi). As previously stated, ten encounters with a lexical item seems to be the accepted norm (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999), but all research in the area shows that more encounters with a word is better than fewer encounters with a word (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Rott, 1999; Waring & Takaki, 2003; Webb, 2007a). In *Interactions 2*, it is difficult to assess which words are, in fact, the target words. However, since the end of each chapter has a self-assessment log which contains a section titled “Target Vocabulary,” two words from this section of Chapter 3 were randomly selected to determine their frequency in the chapter. The word *secure* appears in the “Target Vocabulary” section at the end of the chapter; it also appears in the vocabulary preview at the beginning of the chapter, and appears again in a cloze activity dedicated to the Academic Word List. This word also appears in bold in the reading as *secure* and *security*. It appears two additional times in the reading as *security*. In addition to these occurrences, this word appears 12 other times in guessing from context activities, text comprehension questions, compound words activities, and other activities or discussions, generally as the noun *security*. If the vocabulary preview and self-assessment log are excluded due to the fact that they do not necessarily promote a meaningful encounter with the word, students still encounter *secure* in one of its forms 17 different times. This is well above the standard ten encounters (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999) necessary for learning a word. However, another one of the words from the “target vocabulary” section in the self-assessment log is *liveliness*, and it occurs only three times in the chapter, including the presentation, a guessing from context activity, and in the reading in
bold. This falls short of the authors’ claim that words are encountered at least four times in meaningful ways (Hartman & Kirn, 2006).

**Activities that Promote Depth of Processing in Interactions 2**

The vocabulary activities in *Interactions 2* largely appear in Part 3 of each chapter, which is dedicated to vocabulary and study skills (Hartman & Kirn, 2006). Each unit has at least one cloze activity, which Folse (2006) finds is an effective way to learn vocabulary if a series of three cloze activities is used. In *Interactions 2*, there are a few chapters that have up to three cloze activities; however, there are also different words that are used in each activity. Additionally, in each unit there is a cloze activity that takes a paragraph or two from the reading passage and deletes the words that appear in the AWL, though there is no previous discussion of the words that are to be used. It is assumed that students will be able to figure out which word to use based on the context. However, the students are directed to return to the page of the reading passage where the paragraph(s) originally appear to check their answers once they have finished, so there is a verification stage, which Mondria (2003) suggests is a good way to ensure that words are not learned incorrectly.

*Interactions 2* also incorporates vocabulary words in text comprehension questions (Hartman & Kirn, 2006). Kim (2008) found that original sentence writing with a target word leads to better word knowledge than a cloze activity, and in these comprehension activities, *Interactions 2* instructs the students to write their answers to the questions. However, the students are not required to use the target word. On the other hand, they must be able to understand the word in order to answer the question. For example, in the question “What is a subsidiary effect of microlending programs?” the word *subsidiary* appears both in the vocabulary preview at the beginning of Chapter 3, and in the self-assessment log at the end of the chapter (Hartman & Kirn). This type of activity involves the learners in the “need” to know the word (they must know it to answer the question). If they do not know the meaning of the word, they must “search” to find it, and they must then evaluate that meaning within the context of the question to make sure that they have correctly identified the meaning. This follows Laufer and Hulstijn’s (2001) involvement load hypothesis, which predicts that *need, search* and *evaluation* will improve the learners’ acquisition of the target vocabulary item.
One other type of activity in *Interactions 2* which is very strong involves affixes. All of the activities for affixes involve the use of a chart to present prefixes and suffixes, and in some situations, word roots. With regard to the latter, Ward and Chuenjundaeng (2009) demonstrated that knowledge of derivations proceeds from the root to the affix, which these activities promote. Furthermore, if the intention is to improve a learner’s academic vocabulary, then the use of affixes is appropriate since so many academic words originate in Latin or Greek (Coxhead, 2000).

**Strategies for Independent Learning in Interactions 2**

There are many strategies that a student may use to learn vocabulary words on his or her own. As discussed in Chapter 2, inferring a word’s meaning from context has been shown to be difficult and sometimes misleading (Laufer, 2003), but others have shown that context can have a greater effect on word knowledge than the number of encounters with a word (Webb, 2008a). This might mean that teaching students to guess from context could be beneficial, but it needs to be approached carefully. Strategies for guessing from context abound in *Interactions 2* and they are usually introduced with a strategy box that explains some ways to use context in order to determine the meaning of a word. For example, in Chapter 1 the strategy box (Figure 5) explains that punctuation can sometimes be used to discern a definition of a word, such as when an appositive is set off by commas. There are numerous strategies and opportunities to practice guessing from context in *Interactions 2*, yet this tactic may be overused in the textbook. There are instances of practice activities which require the students to guess a word’s meaning from context, or to locate a word using context, yet there is no context whatsoever in the sample sentence given. On page 176, for example, an activity that follows a strategy box for guessing the meaning from context (Hartman & Kirn, 2006) directs the learner to use a definition and then find a word that matches the definition in the reading passage. Number 2 in the activity reads “something that a soldier wears to protect the body in a battle.” The sentence in the text which contains the answer, *armor*, reads, “In the Japanese city of Nara, the 8th century Shosoin Treasure House holds thousands of exquisite objects of great beauty—furniture, musical instruments, weapons, fabric, and military armor.” The subsequent sentence discusses the collective origins of the objects, providing no hint of their individual meanings. As Laufer indicated, in order for a
Figure 5. Strategy box.

learner to properly infer the meaning of a word, the context needs to be rich with contextual cues, which this example clearly is not. An additional problem with this task is that there are no page or paragraph numbers given to help the student; however, all of the target words for this activity are highlighted in bold in the text, which helps to narrow down the options.

One area in which Interactions 2 excels is in its presentation and use of dictionaries to encourage students to independently use dictionaries, which has been shown to be an effective strategy to use for learning new words (Knight, 1994; Prichard, 2008). Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest that learners may not know how to use a dictionary properly, and Interactions 2 uses multiple examples from dictionary entries that students must analyze before and during dictionary practice.

Another strategy that is covered in great detail in Interactions 2 is the use of parts of speech to understand a word’s meaning. Having a good understanding of the words in a family is necessary if students are to reach the minimum word number exposures required to read academic texts, though research has shown that English L2 university students do not have much derivational knowledge (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002; Ward & Chuenjundaeng,
As with other strategies in this book, this strategy is first presented in a box with an explanation of how to use word form knowledge to get the meaning of a word, followed by activities to practice the strategy (Hartman & Kirn, 2006).

Adaptations and Recommendations for Interactions 2

There are several vocabulary issues in Interactions 2 that do not adequately reflect the research discussed in Chapter 2. Some of these shortcomings can be overcome by teacher adaptations while others cannot. For example, even though this is primarily a reading textbook and not a vocabulary textbook, there might be too many guessing from context activities. As research has shown, there are many problems with guessing from context (Laufer, 2003) and Interactions 2 seems to rely too heavily on this one strategy for learning vocabulary. Additionally, since there are apparently so many “target words” in each chapter, they should be highlighted in bold in the reading. This would help raise the students’ awareness of the new words and their contexts. Moreover, in the second reading passage in each chapter, there are no words in bold even though words from these passages often occur in activities that follow them. Noticing words in different contexts helps students to improve their understanding (DeCarrico, 2001; Webb, 2008a) so that new lexical items should be highlighted in some fashion. Furthermore, many of the guessing from context activities require learners to guess the meanings of words for which there is insufficient context, which does not benefit the students. One recommendation for teachers using Interactions 2, then, is to clarify which words are target words, and then address each word properly, providing sufficient context to infer the meaning, or directing students not to guess from context when the context is not sufficient.

Another feature that this textbook lacks is any kind of glossing. Glosses have been shown to lead to better vocabulary acquisition than just reading (Cheng & Good, 2009; Webb, 2007c; Rott et al., 2002). Since many words are addressed in each chapter, and there is a mixing of target words with content words, glosses would help the students to see exactly where the words are when they appear in the text. It would also be a way to eliminate the confusion over which words are supposed to be emphasized and learned in each chapter.

One recommendation for an instructor using this textbook is to narrow instruction to the words he or she finds to be the most important out of the preview and final
self-assessment log. Selecting words would require the instructor to pay close attention to each activity, though, since some words are addressed explicitly and others are not.

**Conclusion to Interactions 2**

*Interactions 2* has some strong points and some weak points with regard to its vocabulary instruction. On the whole, it does a very good job explaining vocabulary strategies, particularly dictionary use, as well as the use of affixes and word families. Strategies for guessing from context are plentiful, and ample opportunities are presented to practice these strategies. The use of target words in comprehension questions is another strong feature of this textbook. Where *Interactions 2* falls short is mainly in its presentation and selection of target vocabulary because it is not often clear which words are the target words; also, it is overly reliant on guessing from context, especially when a reading selection provides no, or minimal, context.

**World of Reading: A Thematic Approach to Reading Comprehension 3**

The following section reviews the textbook *World of Reading: A Thematic Approach to Reading Comprehension 3* (Baker-González & Blau, 2009).

**Introduction to World of Reading 3**

*World of Reading 3*, which was published in 2009, is the final level in a three part series that focuses on multi-genre thematic reading with an academic focus (Baker-González & Blau, 2009). The first book in the series begins with texts that have been adapted for the level of the student; by book three, all of the readings are unadapted and authentic. The textbook has six units that focus on themes which the authors indicate are common at the college level, such as friendship, ethics, and the environment. Each unit is subsequently divided into four chapters which have at least one reading each. The first three chapters of a unit contain non-fiction articles, and the fourth contains a reading from literature. In addition, *World of Reading 3* has one reading selection from an environmental science textbook, and one from a psychology textbook, as well as some readings from academic journals. Following the Table of Contents, there is a “Teacher’s Introduction” and a “Student’s Introductory Chapter.” Each chapter, with the exception of the chapters focusing
on literature, has a vocabulary component. Each chapter includes marginal multiple choice
glosses, glosses with definitions and/or synonyms, word meaning matching, a vocabulary
review cloze activity, and a few other tasks that vary from chapter to chapter. Each unit
concludes with a section on word families and one other activity that varies by unit.

**Vocabulary Assessment and Presentation in *World of Reading 3***

In the “Teacher’s Introduction” to *World of Reading 3*, the authors indicate that each
reading in the textbook was analyzed by tools that are available at the Compleat Lexical Tutor website (http://www.lextutor.ca) to determine words on the AWL. The targeted vocabulary in *World of Reading 3* generally comes from words that occur less frequently than the most frequent 2500 words, including words from the AWL and multi-word expressions (Baker-González & Blau, 2009). Throughout the textbook, very few words are presented before a reading selection. In Chapter 6, for example, words that describe *anger*, *embarrassment*, and *hatred* are addressed in the “Thinking about the Topic” section before the first reading (p. 40). Otherwise, the prereading sections are largely devoid of any sort of vocabulary presentation.

Due largely to a lack of vocabulary presentation, it is difficult to assess how many target words are contained in each chapter. The first real vocabulary presentation occurs in the reading itself. Some words that are partially inferable have marginal multiple choice glosses (Baker-González & Blau, 2009); others have footnotes that direct students to glosses at the bottom of the page. The latter are generally for technical words, proper names, acronyms, etc., rather than general target words. In the activities that follow the readings, some, but usually not many, of the words addressed explicitly in vocabulary tasks come from one of the glosses. This means that the words that appear in explicit activities are not bolded or otherwise highlighted in the reading passages so that the students’ attention is not drawn to these words while they the reading. Laufer (2003) indicates that students may not recognize a word as unknown, especially if he or she understands the text, so that without any focus on these words in context, students may be missing a valuable noticing opportunity. This lack of attention is another reason why vocabulary counts are difficult to determine for this text. However, for the students’ benefit, in each activity, the paragraph number is given so that students can look back and locate the word. There is also a vocabulary review activity in
each chapter that generally has from seven to eighteen vocabulary words or expressions. Some of these words are from one of the glosses, some are from vocabulary activities, and some of them appear in the text with no way to focus the students’ attention.

**Repetition and Spaced Retrieval in *World of Reading 3***

As previously noted, it is difficult to determine exactly what the target words are for each chapter since they are not specifically identified as such. However, each chapter has a vocabulary review cloze activity. Since this is a review, words from this activity were chosen to determine the number of repetitions. In Chapter 3, which is in a unit about friendship, two of the words from the vocabulary review are *contradict* and *attractive*. *Contradict* appears only three times in the chapter and one more time in the “Unit Wrap-Up” at the end of the unit, where it appears in a word family presentation and in a cloze activity. Though this falls short of the ten encounters that have been found to encourage vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999), it does provide several encounters with the words in different contexts and activities. *Attractive*, on the other hand, first appears in the book’s only vocabulary preview section, which asks students to choose one of two possible meanings for the word. It then appears six times within the reading alone, which includes the forms *attraction, attract, attractive, unattractive*, and *attractiveness*. It also appears three separate times in various forms in text comprehension questions, as well as in the vocabulary review cloze activity for a total of eleven exposures, taking it beyond the recommended number of ten (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999).

With regard to spaced retrievals, some of the words from early chapters in each unit are readdressed in the “Unit Wrap-Up” in word family activities (e.g., *contradict* discussed in the previous paragraph), or in activities that focus on collocations or polysemous words in the same section. Otherwise, several of the words are undoubtedly repeated in later readings, though they are not addressed explicitly after the unit in which they are first covered. In addition, as previously mentioned, the authors suggest that students keep vocabulary note-cards for their own vocabulary development, a practice which Laufer (2005) and Coxhead (2006) have suggested works well for students retrieving words on their own time schedule.
Activities that Promote Depth of Processing in *World of Reading 3*

Most of the vocabulary activities in *World of Reading 3* are matching, multiple choice, or cloze activities. The cloze activities are the only productive activities in the book. As a result, the level of learner involvement with each word is not as high as it could be based on Kim’s (2008) study, which shows that original sentence writing activities are better than glosses and cloze activities. However, Webb (2009) demonstrated that the direction of instruction affects the knowledge of vocabulary words. Since this is primarily a reading textbook, it is not unreasonable to have more receptive tasks than productive tasks.

Each reading in *World of Reading 3* is followed by a vocabulary activity (after reading comprehension questions) in which students are presented with sentences or partial sentences from the text with a word underlined that appears on the left side of the page. On the right side are possible definitions or synonyms for all of the words. Additionally, the paragraph number is presented so that students can look up the sentence with more context if they need. They are also directed to use their dictionary if they need to. This type of matching activity does seem to provide a deep level of involvement (*need, search, evaluation*) based on Laufer and Hulstijn’s (2001) involvement load hypothesis discussed in Chapter 2. The learners have a *need*; they need to understand the word to complete the activity; they have to *search*, either in the context or in a dictionary to determine to correct answer; and they need to *evaluate* their selection with the other possible choices to determine if their answer is correct for the context. There are also matching activities that focus specifically on synonyms, though these activities vary from matching activities in the other texts in the sense that there is generally only one synonym given for each possibility.

There are also activities for vocabulary development that use paraphrases to learn more about the word meanings. In a chart, a sentence or partial sentence from the text is presented with the paragraph number. On the right side of the sentence is a paraphrase. Students are directed to underline difficult words on the left and, with a partner, use the paraphrase to find the meaning. Again, they are instructed to use a dictionary when necessary. This can be seen in Figure 6.

*World of Reading 3* also addresses word families in each unit. The “Unit Wrap-Up” section of each unit contains a box with between eight and ten vocabulary words in all the
**Vocabulary Building: Using Paraphrases**

Work with a partner. Study the sentence on the left. Underline the difficult words in the sentence and find their meanings in the paraphrase on the right. Use a dictionary if necessary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence from the Text</th>
<th>Paraphrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. He had, in fact, returned half an hour later and deliberately rubbed his body up against hers as he retrieved his wallet . . . (11)</td>
<td>He had, in fact, returned half an hour later and rubbed his body up against hers on purpose as he got his wallet back . . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. They had made awkward small talk in the cramped booth . . . (11)</td>
<td>They had talked uncomfortably about unimportant things in the small, crowded booth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Now, as she settled onto the stool for her shift, she could smell his lingering presence. (12)</td>
<td>Now, as she got comfortable on the high seat for her eight hours of work, she could smell his continuing presence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. (Sam) was another lecherous type . . . (12)</td>
<td>Sam was another guy who thought about women as sex objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The brakes screeched, the muffler roared: it was a little yellow Chevette, an eighties car pocked with rust. (14)</td>
<td>The brakes made a high, loud unpleasant sound, the muffler made a deep, very loud sound: it was a little yellow Chevette, an eighties car covered with reddish spots where the paint was gone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. [The driver] turned now and Elaine saw her bleary eyes and splotched face. (17)</td>
<td>She turned now and Elaine saw her tired, unclear, teary eyes and her face covered with marks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. There was an ugly gash below one eye and the skin around it had swollen up and turned purple. (17)</td>
<td>There was an ugly cut below one eye and the skin around it had gotten puffy and purple.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Her stare was bitter and bold . . . (17)</td>
<td>The look on her face didn’t change; she looked angry and confident.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6. Vocabulary building: Using paraphrases.

word forms that are applicable for the unit. Additionally, there are often two words for one part of speech, such as *immunity* and *immunization* (p. 90), when they are necessary. Since learners need to know upwards of 9,000 word families to successfully read a range of genres (Nation, 2006), any work with word families benefits students. Each box of word forms in this textbook is followed by a cloze activity in which the student must not only choose the correct word, but the correct word form as well.

Somewhat related to word forms are affixes. Since 82% of the words in the Academic Word List are of Latin or Greek origin, teaching affixes can benefit students in the development of their academic English (Coxhead, 2000). *World of Reading 3* addresses
affixes twice: once in Chapter 1, and additionally in Chapter 21. Both activities begin with a box that explains affixes, and, in the case of Chapter 1, compounding. Chapter 21 focuses on the Latin prefixes inter-, sub-, equi/equa-, ultim-, rupt-, and nov-. After the presentation of these words with definitions and example words, students are presented with two or three partial sentences from the text which contain each prefix. For example, the prefix inter- is presented in three sentences: one with interact, one with interdisciplinary, and one with interfaith (Baker-González & Blau, 2009, p. 178). The students are directed to work with a partner and analyze the word and explain the meaning.

One last type of activity that is prominent in this textbook is a multiword expressions activity. This type of activity is good in the sense that it familiarizes learners with the meaning of multiword units which cannot often be determined by the individual words. This makes them particularly difficult to understand. However, the way in which these activities are presented is unnecessarily difficult. Students are presented with a synonym or definition of the multiword expression and a paragraph number from the text in which the expression is located. For example, in Chapter 9, one synonym is “events in which something bad almost happens (¶5)” (Baker-González & Blau, 2009, p. 68). The student then must read through paragraph 5 and find a multiword expression that would fit the definition, in this case “a close call.” Since these are not single words, identification could be extremely difficult. It might be more beneficial to do this as a matching activity.

Strategies for Independent Learning in World of Reading 3

Since students need to learn so many words to function at the academic level, strategies can be taught to help promote independent vocabulary learning. In World of Reading 3, a great deal of vocabulary is addressed through strategy instruction. Additionally, World of Reading 3 provides multiple opportunities for incidental learning. Several words appear in context in the reading, though, as previously stated, most of them have no attention getting features. The words that are bolded or footnoted encourage students to continue reading without taking their focus off the content, which is why they are glossed. Bolding, as noted previously, is one way to draw students’ attention to the words, to help them notice new words (Laufer, 2003). However, most of these words are not target words. After every non-fiction reading in the textbook, the first vocabulary activity is a “guess the meaning”
activity, yet it is not a blind guessing activity. There is either a list of words on the left in partial sentences, with a list of possible meanings on the right which students can select from, or a partial sentence with the target word and a choice of three possible synonyms beneath it. Additionally, the paragraph number is indicated to assist the students to find more context for each word. In the directions to this particular activity, the students are instructed to use their dictionaries if they need to do so (Baker-González & Blau, 2009), which Prichard (2008) and Knight (1994) demonstrate is one way for a student to learn new words.

*World of Reading 3* addresses vocabulary strategies in the “Student’s Introductory Chapter” that are designed to help students learn vocabulary on their own, or at the very least, determine which vocabulary words are worth looking up in a dictionary. The authors list five steps for a student to take when they encounter unfamiliar vocabulary in the reading:

**Step 1:** Locate the problem. (Is the problem a single word or multiword expression? Does it look like a word in your own language?)

**Step 2:** Decide if the word or phrase is important or not. If you can understand the sentence without it, you can continue reading.

**Step 3:** Look for a definition in the text.

**Step 4:** Check the parts of the word and the context.

**Step 5:** Get help: use your dictionary. (Baker-González & Blau, 2009, p. xviii)

These steps provide guidance to help the learner read better, but if the unknown word is deemed necessary to understand the text, these steps help suggest how to identify the meaning. This could prove to be very effective because Prichard (2008) found that most learners in his study were generally able to determine which words were necessary for comprehension and which were not. Additionally, the authors suggest making note-cards for unknown vocabulary. This connects somewhat to the notion of vocabulary notebooks, which Walters and Bozkurt (2009) found to be an effective vocabulary learning strategy. Moreover, making use of vocabulary note-cards has been suggested as a method to encourage students to take charge of their own spaced-retrieval (Coxhead, 2006; Laufer, 2005) of target words, which has been argued to be a necessary component in learning a new word (Nation, 2001; Sökman, 1997).

One final strategy that is discussed in the “Student’s Introductory Chapter” in *World of Reading 3* is the use of dictionaries. Specifically, the authors discuss the benefits of using a “learner’s dictionary” because they contain example sentences and provide multiword
expressions that are generally not available in a native speaker dictionary. Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest that it might be worthwhile to teach students how to use a dictionary, which World of Reading 3 does not do. Furthermore, every intentional vocabulary activity, except for cloze activities and activities with multiword expressions, directs the students to use their dictionaries if they need to.

Adaptation Recommendations for World of Reading 3

Instruction and practice of incidental vocabulary learning are strong features in World of Reading 3. Where the book falls short is not providing explicit instruction on how to use dictionaries as Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest, although the authors do provide many opportunities to practice using the dictionary, as well as motivation for students to invest in a learner dictionary. Providing an activity or two on the uses of a dictionary would strengthen this area. These activities are also something that could be done by the instructor as an addition to the book. Also, the use of two distinct types of glosses serves the incidental process well. Strategies for guessing the meaning of a word from context is presented in the “Student’s Introductory Chapter,” as well as when to guess and not to guess. World of Reading 3 also does well with its selection of words, basing the decision on websites with frequency lists, including the AWL, which Schmitt (2008) suggests is a good way to overcome the problems with native speaker intuition in determining which words occur most frequently. Furthermore, the authors’ suggestion of using vocabulary note-cards is a good way for students to provide themselves with spaced retrieval of vocabulary words (Coxhead, 2006; Laufer, 2005).

Because each chapter has so many words that are addressed either by specific activities or with glosses, it would be beneficial to provide a vocabulary presentation that includes all of the target words that should be learned in each chapter, either before the readings or at the end of the chapter. This would provide some way for students to assess their own vocabulary development as the lessons progress and it could be done using something similar to Stahl’s (1999) “knowledge rating checklist” discussed in Chapter 2.

World of Reading 3 also overemphasizes receptive vocabulary tasks. Although this is a reading book and Webb (2009) shows that subjects who learn words receptively perform better on receptive tests (e.g., reading), overall vocabulary development is better achieved
when a student learns both receptive and productive knowledge (de la Fuente, 2006). As Kim (2008) demonstrated, original sentence writing activities lead to greater vocabulary gains than glosses or cloze activities. Therefore, more productive tasks could be added to this book to better improve overall vocabulary learning.

One last suggestion for *World of Reading* 3 is to clear up confusing tasks. The multiword expression tasks are more confusing than they need to be because they provide a definition or synonym of the expression and make the student search a paragraph for a series of words that may or may not be noticeable as a unit. This could be overcome by providing the expression in context and providing possible synonyms or definitions from which the student needs to choose.

**Conclusion to World of Reading 3**

*World of Reading* 3, as a reading textbook, does a good job of focusing on vocabulary, both incidentally and intentionally. It could be a little clearer in certain areas (target vocabulary, multiword expression activities, production tasks), but it uses activities well for receptive vocabulary learning as well as analyzing words, expressions, word parts, and word families. Additionally, the selection of words from word lists provides a good selection of words which will help students to improve their academic vocabularies.

**Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List**

This section reviews *Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List* (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005).

**Introduction to Focus on Vocabulary**

The emphasis of *Focus on Vocabulary*, which was published in 2005, is on the vocabulary that appears frequently in academic discourse following the Academic Word List. The 66 most frequent words in the AWL are not addressed in this book because, as stated in the “To the Teacher” section of the book, the authors believe that students are already familiar with these words (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005). The remaining 504 words are explicitly covered in *Focus on Vocabulary* at a rate of 24 words per chapter. The book is divided into seven units, which are subdivided into four chapters. Each unit addresses a
different academic topic, and each chapter, minus the fourth in each unit, contains a reading passage, most of which are taken from college-level textbooks. The fourth chapter in each unit is a strategy chapter which addresses vocabulary learning strategies ranging from dictionary use to understanding affixes and derivations. Each of the three main chapters in each unit is designed as follows. The chapter begins with warm-up questions which are designed to get the students focused on the topic that will be covered, as well as to activate the students’ schemata. The 24 target words are then presented, and followed by a reading passage. In the reading passage, all target words are bolded. Next, there are a few text comprehension questions, and word meaning activities. After this are word family boxes and/or activities and collocation tasks. Each chapter ends with an “expansion” task that is generally either a writing or discussion activity which often explicitly involves the target vocabulary.

**Vocabulary Assessment and Presentation in *Focus on Vocabulary***

In *Focus on Vocabulary*, all of the target words for each unit are taken from the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), and research suggests that the use of word frequency lists is a good way to select vocabulary words for explicit instruction (Schmitt, 2008). Each main chapter begins with vocabulary presentation and an opportunity for students to assess their knowledge of the target words. Stahl (1999) calls this a “knowledge rating checklist” but Schmitt and Schmitt (2005) take it a step further than Stahl’s suggestion. Stahl suggested three ratings for each word: (a) can define, (b) have seen or heard the word, and (c) don’t know the word (p. 30). Schmitt and Schmitt divide rating (a) into two possible responses: (a) I understand it when I see it or hear it in a sentence, but I don’t know how to use it in my own speaking and writing; (b) I know this word and can use it in my own speaking and writing. Following the vocabulary presentation and knowledge rating checklist is a reading passage. Each of the target words appear in bold each time they occur in the reading passage. For example, in Chapter 7, the target word *expose* appears in bold in the text as *exposure* one time and *exposed* two times (Schmitt & Schmitt). As discussed in Chapter 2, highlighting words in a text is one way to focus the students’ attention on the target words so that they may notice them and possibly use context to recognize their meaning (Laufer, 2003).
Repetition and Spaced Retrieval in Focus on Vocabulary

As the research indicates, a student must encounter a word several times for him or her to learn the word (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Schmitt, 2008; Webb, 2007a). According to the authors of Focus on Vocabulary, each of the target words appears at least four times in each chapter and most appear in other parts of the book many times (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005). In Chapter 7, for example, the target words achieve and motivate both occur five times. The first encounter of each word is in the vocabulary presentation and assessment box at the beginning of the chapter. Each word then occurs on two separate occasions in the reading passage, both as a noun and as a verb. Both words then appear in a word meaning activity in which a sample sentence is provided with the target word in bold and the students have to select the appropriate meaning from three possible answers. The word motivation appears one more time in a word family activity, and achieve appears one last time in a chapter expansion activity in which the students must read a sentence and decide whether they agree or disagree.

Allowing for the spaced retrieval of vocabulary words is another vital component to gaining knowledge of words (Nation, 2001; Sökman, 1997). Since most of the texts in Focus on Vocabulary are from academic textbooks, it is likely that AWL words are repeated at varying intervals throughout the book. The authors explain that these words only appear in bold in the reading passages in the chapter in which they are presented in order to “avoid excess clutter” in subsequent readings (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005, p. vii). In addition, the authors provide instruction on creating and using vocabulary note cards in the “To the Student” chapter of the book, and using note cards has been suggested as a means of providing students with their own spaced retrieval (Laufer, 2005).

Activities that Promote Depth of Processing in FoV

The explicit activities in Focus on Vocabulary are varied and they each address one particular aspect of word knowledge in the attempt to involve the learner in multiple levels of word knowledge and engagement. Knowing a word, as Nation (2001) states, involves knowing a lot about each word. After the reading passage in each chapter in which the students first become acquainted with the target words in context, there are at least two activities that promote knowledge of word meaning. One such task is a matching activity in
which the target word is provided and the student must choose the better definition out of two possible choices. Another common activity is a cloze activity (see Figure 7) which has a series of sentences with two synonyms provided in each blank that the student must use, with the context provided to determine the correct target word from a box. Cloze activities have been shown to provide for depth of processing and, if used three times, will contribute to word knowledge (Folse, 2006). Each chapter in *Focus on Vocabulary* contains between one and three cloze activities. In addition, all of the activities in this section are meaning focused activities that engage the learner with varying levels of each word. Furthermore, each target word appears in at least one word meaning activity.

After each set of word meaning activities, each chapter has a section dedicated to word families. Since research has shown that a knowledge of up to 9,000 word families may be necessary to read a variety of texts (Nation, 2006), it is imperative to familiarize students with word families. Each chapter in *Focus on Vocabulary* generally has a chart for the word families of between nine and ten of the target words. Some of these charts are already completed; others are partially completed and students must fill in any blank boxes. Whether the chapter has a chart or not, there are activities that the students must complete which focus on understanding and using word forms. For example, there are some activities in which students must fill in the blank in a sentence with the correct form of a target word, or the students might be given a sample sentence with a target word in bold that they must evaluate to determine if the correct form of the word has been used.

Every chapter also includes at least one activity that focuses on the target words and common collocations that occur with those words. This is important because understanding words that appear frequently with other words is one aspect of word knowledge that students must know in order to become more familiar with the target word (Nation, 2001). In Chapter 1 of *Focus on Vocabulary*, the authors provide an explanation and examples to help the student understand what collocations are and why they are important to know (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005). This is followed by the most common collocation activity in the book. In this activity, students are presented with three sentences containing a target word and one collocation. Students must then provide a fourth sentence that uses the collocation originally, reflecting Kim’s (2008) finding that original sentence writing activities promoted a higher level of involvement with the target words than glosses or cloze activities. Another
collocation activity which appears in *Focus on Vocabulary* is a cloze activity where students must provide the correct word in the blank space in a sentence, which Webb and Kagimoto (2009) found to be an effective way to learn collocations.
The explicit vocabulary activities in *Focus on Vocabulary* are varied and systematic. After the words are presented, they are practiced in meaning-based activities as well as in activities that promote depth of processing, which helps the learners to become engaged in the vocabulary words on many levels.

**Strategies for Independent Learning in *Focus on Vocabulary***

Prior to the chapters in the textbook, there is a “To the Student” section in which the authors explain why studying academic vocabulary is important. Additionally, students are instructed on what it means to know a word, which is accompanied by a quiz that demonstrates the various features of word knowledge. Finally, the authors explain the concept of vocabulary cards and how to create and use them. This is both a strategy and an activity that students can do on their own for their own personal vocabulary development, and it is one method for providing a spaced retrieval of target words.

Each of the seven units in *Focus on Vocabulary* ends with a chapter dedicated to vocabulary strategies. One strategy that is addressed in each of these chapters is dictionary use. Dictionary use has been shown to be an effective way to learn vocabulary words (Knight, 1994; Prichard, 2008), but as Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest, students should be instructed on how to properly use a dictionary. In *Focus on Vocabulary*, the dictionary strategies vary in each unit. Unit 1, for instance, provides strategies for finding the correct meanings of words in a dictionary (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005) and how to locate word forms. After the presentation and explanation of these tactics, the authors provide opportunities to practice the strategies learned. Other chapters address understanding abbreviations in dictionaries, finding example sentences, understanding synonyms, understanding pronunciation guides in dictionaries including pronunciation and stress patterns, as well as using a dictionary to fix grammatical errors. In each chapter, the authors provide sample dictionary passages for students to analyze and use.

Following the dictionary strategies, each chapter addresses one additional strategy such as using affixes to understand words, which Coxhead (2000) indicates is a good strategy for academic vocabulary since most of the words on the AWL are of Greek or Latin origin. Furthermore, the authors present affix learning in the sequence of root to derived form, a process which Ward and Chuenjundaeng’s (2009) study demonstrates is how students learn
affixes. Other strategies include guessing from context, for which the authors provide a step-by-step guide to help learners to correctly infer the meaning of a word from context. Other activities involve using keywords to make associations, comparing the frequencies of academic words with more conversational words, and the use of collocations.

**Adaptations and Recommendations for Focus on Vocabulary**

Since vocabulary words have been shown to be learned incidentally by exposure (Kweon & Kim, 2008; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Webb, 2008a), *Focus on Vocabulary* should provide opportunities for such acquisition. In each of the reading passages, the students may benefit from glosses of difficult words that are non-academic. As Laufer (2003) explains, learners may not notice unknown words as unknown if they understand the text. Therefore, these words could simply be footnoted and definitions or synonyms could be provided at the bottom of the text. This would help the students to notice words which are possibly new which might allow them to gain some understanding of words which are not the focus of the lesson.

**Conclusion to Focus on Vocabulary**

*Focus on Vocabulary* is a well structured textbook for students to learn academic vocabulary. The research on L2 vocabulary learning is strongly reflected in this textbook’s selection and presentation of vocabulary items, as well as in the activities that engage the learner in various levels of word knowledge. Furthermore, the amount of time dedicated to teaching vocabulary learning strategies provides the opportunity for students to become independent vocabulary learners.

**CONCLUSION**

All of the textbooks reviewed in Chapter 3, *Inside Reading The Academic Word List in Context 4, Interactions 2: Reading, World of Reading: A Thematic Approach to Reading Comprehension 3,* and *Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List,* have their strong areas and weak areas in the manner in which they approach vocabulary learning. Two of the textbooks, *Inside Reading 4* and *Focus on Vocabulary* are outstanding in most respects, with only a few areas that could be improved on. Moreover, these two textbooks
focus almost exclusively on the Academic Word List, whereas the other two books use the AWL as a component of a wider range of target vocabulary items.

Five broad guidelines for effective vocabulary instruction (target word assessment, depth of processing, repetition and spaced retrieval, the use of various tasks that promote lexical acquisition, and teaching strategies for independent word learning) were presented at the end of Chapter 2. The textbooks were analyzed in Chapter 3 according to these guidelines, but they were examined in more detail. The results of the analysis are summarized in Table 1. A “+” indicates that the textbook strongly reflects the research in that area. A “0” indicates that the textbook is in some way strong in that area, but weak in some other way. A “-” indicates that the textbook was weak regarding its reflection of the research in that area.

Table 1. Textbook Overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guidelines</th>
<th>Inside Reading 4</th>
<th>Interactions 2</th>
<th>World of Reading 3</th>
<th>Focus on Vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selection</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glosses for Non-Target Words</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth of Processing</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depth of Knowledge</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy to Follow Activities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 illustrates, the vocabulary instruction in both Inside Reading 4 and Focus on Vocabulary strongly reflects the current theory in the field. Inside Reading 4 received an average score for activities that are easy to follow and for repetition of target words, although no textbook analyzed reached the level of ten repetitions for each target word. In addition to an average score in the repetition of target words, Focus on Vocabulary scored below average for its use of glosses for non-target words since no words in the textbook were glossed. Interactions 2 and World of Reading 3, on the other hand, were only average in most categories, but they both fell short in their presentation of target words. They both excelled, however, in providing activities that promote depth of knowledge of lexical items.
Since vocabulary instruction may not be properly covered in EAP textbooks, Table 1 could serve as a brief guide for carefully selecting a textbook. However, since most of these textbooks are reading textbooks and the analysis presented in Chapter 3 does not reflect their approach to reading instruction, Table 1 could also be used as a quick guide to show which areas of vocabulary instruction each book is lacking. The instructor could thus create vocabulary activities that properly address the different aspects of word knowledge as discussed in Chapter 2.
CHAPTER 4

TEMPLATE FOR A VOCABULARY LESSON

Following the research in Chapter 2 and the textbook critique in Chapter 3 which is based on the research, it is now appropriate to propose a lesson template for teaching vocabulary for an English for Academic Purposes classroom. The following lesson draws on the previously mentioned research and provides a template that may be used to design an effective vocabulary component to a lesson, or as a vocabulary lesson in its own right. The lesson described in this template is intended for an upper intermediate to advanced population of EAP students; however, it can be adapted for virtually any level. Furthermore, the activities in this lesson, while designed to be used together to create a holistic vocabulary lesson, could be used individually to focus on various aspects of word knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

As discussed in Chapter 1, second language learners need to understand upwards of 9,000 word families in order to be able to read a variety of texts (Nation, 2006). Additionally, to truly understand a word, learners must have a deep knowledge of each word (i.e. knowing a great deal about each word), including spelling, pronunciation, understanding meanings in multiple contexts, using words in multiple contexts, etc. (Nation, 2001). Since they are at a disadvantage in comparison to native-speakers regarding the amount of time dedicated to, and exposure to the vocabulary of the language, quality instruction can help L2 students overcome this obstacle and further develop their word knowledge (Laufer, 2005). As such, a pedagogically sound lesson must aim to not only increase the number of items in a student’s lexicon, but also the depth of knowledge of each of those words. In this lesson, each activity has been designed to provide a high degree of learner involvement with each word in multiple contexts to promote depth of processing. The words have been selected in order to increase the vocabulary necessary for academic study. Opportunities for incidental vocabulary learning are provided also.
The Lesson: Origin and Diffusion of Folk Culture

The lesson contained in this chapter is a template for a vocabulary lesson that is designed to be used with an academic reading activity. Since the target population of this lesson is students who are studying academic English, a text that contains a large number of academic words was required. Additionally, research shows that students must often read large quantities of texts in universities and use those texts to inform their writing (Carson, 2001; Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Horowitz, 1986). A reading passage from a college-level textbook was thus selected. The passage was also selected due to the fact that, as a college-level text, it contains a good selection of academic words. The passage, “Origin and Diffusion of Folk Culture”, is from a textbook, *Contemporary Human Geography* (Rubenstein, 2009), that is currently required reading in the Geography 102 class at San Diego State University, which is a class that may be taken to fulfill one of the university’s General Education requirements, and therefore, is a textbook that is likely to be used by college students from multiple majors.

The lesson to follow is loosely divided into four sections: vocabulary presentation, receptive knowledge, productive knowledge, and vocabulary review. The lesson begins with a target word presentation, self-assessment, and discussion of the words. This is followed by the reading passage, and numerous activities that promote receptive knowledge of each word. After this, the tasks promote productive knowledge of the target words. Finally, the lesson ends with a review of the vocabulary items as well as instruction on how students can continue to study any words which they still do not feel comfortable with after the lesson is complete.

The lesson template is followed by a student’s version of the plan and a teacher’s guide for the lesson.

Selecting Target Words

The use of frequency lists to assess which words to explicitly teach in a classroom can be a good way for instructors to determine which words should be explicitly taught in a class (Schmitt, 2008). Since this lesson emphasizes academic vocabulary, the reading passage for this unit, “Origin and Diffusion of Folk Culture,” was entered into the Academic Word List (AWL) Highlighter (http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/~alzsh3/acvocab/)
awlhighlighter.htm). The AWL is divided into ten levels, or sub-lists, which represent the most frequent words in level 1, and the least frequent words out of the 570 words on the AWL in level 10 (Coxhead, 2000). Level 10 was selected for the text which determined that approximately 30 words in the reading passage are common academic vocabulary words according to the AWL. In an attempt to not overload the learners with too many target words, the list was narrowed down using Grabe and Stoller’s (2001) rating scale discussed in Chapter 1. If the words selected were determined not to be necessary for text comprehension, the words were not targeted for specific instruction. This left ten words as target words for the lesson: adequate, distribution, distinct, emerge, illustrate, innovation, isolated, migration, portion, retained.

In addition to the target words, other words were deemed to be difficult yet necessary for text comprehension, though they are not from the AWL, which is the focus of this lesson. Also, because the use of glosses for vocabulary acquisition has been shown to be more effective than reading alone (Cheng & Good, 2009; Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Rott et al., 2002; Webb, 2007c), glosses were added to the text for words which are not from the AWL but are necessary for understanding the text. The glossed words are in italics with superscript numbers. On the bottom of the page is the gloss with either a definition or a synonym which the students can use if they do not understand the word.

**Providing Repetition and Spaced Retrieval**

As noted previously, research has demonstrated that the more encounters that a learner has with a word, the better he or she will remember that word (Horst et al., 1998; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Rott, 1999; Waring & Takaki, 2003; Webb, 2007a), and the generally accepted minimum is ten encounters (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999). Consequently, this lesson attempts to recycle vocabulary as much as possible, and learners, therefore, encounter each word between six and 13 times. What this lesson is not able to account for is the spaced retrieval of words. If words are encountered at increasing intervals, as opposed to regular intervals (e.g., at the beginning of each class), learners are more likely to remember them (Nation, 2001; Sökman, 1997). Since this is one lesson, words are not able to be retrieved at increasing intervals. However, the last activity in the lesson is an instruction on the use of vocabulary cards, and as Laufer (2005) suggests, the use of
vocabulary cards can allow students to take charge of their own spaced retrieval. In this activity, learners are instructed to reassess their knowledge of the target words. For the words that a student is still not comfortable with after the multiple exposures provided by the lesson, he or she is directed to use index cards to write the following: the word; its part of speech; a definition, synonym, or L2 translation; a sentence with the word in context, and any other information that may help the student to learn the word.

**Presenting Target Words**

At the beginning of the unit is the vocabulary presentation which appears in a chart in Part 1. The instructor reads aloud the target words as the students follow along silently. This allows the students to begin to make phonologic and orthographic connections to the new words, which Nation (2001) describes as two of the elements of word knowledge that a learner must master. Additionally, learners are often unable to recognize words by sound even if they know those same words by sight (Goh, 2000). This part of the activity, then, helps learners to make a connection between the written word and its spoken form. Then, the students must put a check in the box that best describes their familiarity with the target words. This follows Stahl’s (1999) “knowledge rating checklist” that lets students assess which words they know and can define, which words they have seen or heard before, and which words they do not know at all. If the students can define one or more of the words, they are directed to write the definition or synonym below the words. The students then discuss the words with the teacher as a class using their definitions as a starting point. This serves two functions: students get more practice with the form, and they become familiar with the meaning before first encountering the words in the reading passage. Furthermore, since students may not notice new words as unknown, and they might misread homonyms, false cognates, or words with similar spellings to other words (Laufer, 2003), all of the target words also appear in bold in the reading passage. This is designed to help focus the learners’ attention on the words in context, as encountering words in various contexts is said to provide a deeper understanding of the words (DeCarrico, 2001).

In addition to introducing the vocabulary, the students should be asked a few questions to build their background information about the topic before reading. These questions could be about migration, immigration, customs, cultures, etc. in order to get them
focused on the reading passage that they will read. Students should answer these questions with a partner and then discuss as a class.

Following the vocabulary presentation and pre-reading activity, in Part 2 students are informed about the text which they will be reading, a passage from a college level Cultural Geography textbook. After their instruction, the students read the text.

**Comprehension Questions**

Part 3 is a basic reading comprehension activity that checks to see if the students understand the main ideas of the reading passage; however, since this is not a reading lesson, the focus of this task is to understand target words in relation to the text. The justification for Part 3 is threefold. First, the learners get to focus on the text and make sure that they understood what they read. Second, this activity focuses on receptive knowledge of the target words, and Webb (2009) found that the direction of study affects the way in which words are learned. Therefore, this activity promotes one way of learning words, but it also directly relates to the task which was just completed, reading the textbook passage. Third, this provides for the need, search, and evaluation process, which Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) claim is necessary to learn new words. In Part 3, the student needs to understand the word in order to understand the question and to answer it. If the student does not know the word, he must look it up in a dictionary, or in his notes, in order to understand the meaning, and then he must search for the answer in the text. Finally, he must evaluate the word by checking it against possible answers and ensuring that it is correct. The evaluation continues when he checks with a partner, and then again as a class.

**Word Meanings**

Activity 4 focuses on word meanings and is another meaning-focused task that emphasizes receptive knowledge of the lexical items. Understanding the meaning of a word is a major facet of word knowledge (de la Fuente, 2006; Ellis, 1997; Nassaji, 2006; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). In this activity, the students read a sentence that uses one target word in context. The word is highlighted in bold and underlined so that the students know which word is the target word. Following each sentence are three possible synonyms for the target word. Students are directed to use context and their previous knowledge of the word to determine which answer is the best synonym for the highlighted word. Research has shown
that context, if it is rich, can have more of an effect on vocabulary acquisition than the number of encounters (Webb, 2008a). In addition to providing context rich sentences, in this task students are given a choice between three possible answers. In this manner, their focus is narrowed and they are not simply searching through every word in their lexicon to find a suitable meaning. This activity is designed to reflect two of Laufer’s (2005) assumptions regarding guessing from context activities: (1) students must notice the word, and (2) the context must be rich. After students complete the task, they then compare their answers with a partner.

**Dictionaries**

Studies have demonstrated that students can acquire vocabulary by using a dictionary (Knight, 1994; Prichard, 2008), and since it is a strategy that a learner can use on his or her own with new words, it might be worthwhile to teach students how to use a dictionary. Furthermore, Hunt and Beglar (1998) suggest that learners might not know how to use a dictionary; therefore, this activity seeks to familiarize learners with using and understanding a dictionary. This particular task uses http://dictionary.reference.com as its dictionary because it is a free dictionary that all students with internet access can use. Additionally, each word entry has the pronunciation written in the International Phonetic Alphabet, and a button to click to hear the word spoken, which helps the learner to understand the spoken form of the word. Additionally, there is a hyperlink to click to see examples of the word in sentences as they appear on the web. Specifically, the word *adequate* is the focus of this task because it is one of the target words with the fewest encounters in the unit.

In this activity, the learner must read, or the instructor can read aloud to the class, information about different meanings of words in a dictionary entry. It is explained to the students that there are often several meanings for a single word in a dictionary. Additionally, students are informed of the list of synonyms that appears at the bottom of each entry on the website, but to use those with caution since they may refer to any of the meanings given above them. Then students must read the entries and synonyms listed. Finally, students must read questions that pertain to different meanings of the word *adequate* and its use in different contexts. This gives the learners practice with dictionary use, but it also gives learners more exposure to a single word, and understanding the different meanings of a word is a crucial
component to word knowledge (de la Fuente, 2006; Ellis, 1997; Nassaji, 2006; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000) and leads to a deeper understanding of the word (DeCarrico, 2001). When students finish this activity, they are directed to return to the previous word meaning activity, Part 4, and use the dictionary to check their answers. This follows Mondria’s (2003) study which found that learners often infer the meaning of a word incorrectly. As a result, she recommends adding a verification stage to counteract incorrect guesses. Even though the choice of three possible synonyms largely eliminates the chances of incorrectly guessing the meaning from context, using a dictionary provides verification for the previous activity.

**Synonyms**

Webb (2007b) found evidence that the use of synonyms can be an effective way to learn words. Therefore, five of the target words which do not get many exposures in the lesson were selected for Activity 6, which focuses on synonyms. In this particular task, four words are in a horizontal line; two of the words are synonyms for the target word and one word is unrelated. The students must read the line of words, with a partner, and determine which words are the closest synonyms for the target word and then explain their answers to the class. They are directed to use a dictionary for any words which they do not know.

**Word Families**

Most studies which have investigated how many words a learner needs to know in order to read successfully have used word families as the counting tool, and all of the studies have shown that a great many word families need to be learned (Hsueh-Chao & Nation, 2000; Hu & Nation, 2000; Nation, 2001, 2006), up to 9,000. Since a word family consists of a base word, plus all derived forms of the word as well as verbs inflected for tense and person (Nation, 2001), the 9,000 word families that need to be learned quickly turns into many tens of thousands of words that need to be learned. Furthermore, English as a Second Language (ESL) university students have basic, but not extensive, derivational knowledge of English words (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002; Ward & Chuenjundaeng, 2009). As a result, students need to learn the word families of the target words.

In Part 7, students are presented with a chart that contains each of the vocabulary words in the form that the words first appear in the text, plus empty spaces for the other three derivations. For example, *distribution* appears as the noun since that is how it first appears in
the text, and the boxes for the verb and adjective are left blank. The box for the adverb has a line through it since this word does not have an adverb form. Students are then directed to use their dictionary, if they need to, to complete the chart. When they are finished, they must work with a partner to compare their answers. If they are not sure, they can then ask the teacher.

Following the chart is a cloze activity. In this activity, each of the words is the correct answer for one of the sentences. Students must first determine which word is the correct word for the sentence. They must then determine which form of the word is correct in order to complete each sentence. This gives students more exposures to the target words in new contexts and new forms, both of which lead to a deeper understanding of the word. This also follows the notion of generation, in which a learner encounters a familiar word in a new way and processes the word more elaborately (Nation, 2001; Stahl, 1999). In this particular activity, the learner encounters each word in a new context and possibly in a new derivational form. Additionally, this task focuses on the productive knowledge of the target word as the learner must produce a word that fits a sentence, which also is a part of knowing a word.

After the cloze task in Part 7 is a pronunciation activity. Since knowing the form of a word is a necessary component of learning a word (de la Fuente, 2006; Ellis, 1997; Nassaji, 2006; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000), this task focuses on stress patterns in pronunciation. The teacher will read five verbs (distribute, isolate, illustrate, innovate, migrate) aloud to the class as they listen and check for stress. The first word, distribute, will be used as an example to model the stress. Students then must work with a partner to determine where the stress falls on each of the other four verbs. After this, the teacher will read the same five words, but in the noun form: distribution, isolation, illustration, innovation, migration. Again, students work with their partner to determine which syllable has the stress in each word.

This task, Activity C in Part 7, finishes with a production task. With a partner, students must use the ten words from the pronunciation tasks above as possible answers to complete a brief cloze task. Then they take turns reading their sentences to each other so that their partner can compare their stress with the correct answers from the previous tasks. The
teacher also walks around the class and listens to, and comments on, the students’ pronunciation.

The final activity in Part 7 is a listening activity which focuses on derivations. Here, the teacher will read eleven words that are part of five word families. Then, the teacher will read sentences in a cloze task which has part, or none, of a target word deleted. Under the word are possible choices that would complete that word, including null. Students must listen and choose the correct answer to complete the word. Then they will compare their answers with a partner, and then as a class.

**Sentence Writing with Collocations**

Understanding collocations is one of the many areas of word knowledge that need to be learned for a greater understanding of each word (Nation, 2001). Also, sentence writing activities have been shown to be an effective way to learn vocabulary (Kim, 2008). As a result, Part 8 is an original sentence writing activity that focuses on collocations. Students are required to find the occurrences of certain target words in the unit text. Once they have located the words, they must note either the word that precedes it or follows it, depending on the instructions for that particular number. Then, the students must write an original sentence with the word. Finally, they will compare their sentences with a partner.

**Second Cloze Activity**

Although this task is not that different from the previous cloze task, it is a way to further practice vocabulary production. In this task, three paragraphs from the reading passage were selected and nine occurrences of five target words were deleted. Three of the words appear twice each in different forms; one word appears twice in the same form, and one word appears one time. Folse (2006) demonstrated that three cloze activities lead to better vocabulary gains than either one cloze activity or an original sentence writing activity. Even though this is only the second cloze activity, the passage contains two words each for four of the target words making three encounters in the cloze activities for those four words.

**Vocabulary Review and Note-Cards**

The purpose of this activity is to bring a logical close to the lesson. Students are presented with each target word and they must rate how well they know each word. This is
similar to the “knowledge rating checklist” used at the beginning of the lesson. There is really no feedback provided; rather, the learner assesses her own knowledge of each word. If she feels comfortable with her knowledge of the word, she needs to take no further action. However, if she is still a little uncertain about some aspect of the word, the student is instructed to make a note-card for each of the words which need more attention.

Vocabulary note-cards have been suggested as a way for learners to control their own spaced retrieval of target words (Coxhead, 2006; Laufer, 2005). This allows learners to return to these words at varying intervals as they see fit. Learners are instructed to use one index card for each word. On one side of the card the learners should write the word, its part of speech and its pronunciation, if possible. Also, students should write other words that they associate with the word, as well as word families, including parts of speech and verb inflections. On the other side of the card, it is suggested that students write an English definition, synonyms, a sentence with the word in context and, if desired, an L1 translation. In addition, students should add any other information about the word that may help them to learn more about it, such as collocations or pictures. The purpose of all of this is to improve the learner’s overall knowledge of the word (de la Fuente, 2006; Ellis, 1997; Nassaji, 2006; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000), and compensate for a shortage of exposures for some of the target words, which studies have shown to be beneficial (Schmitt, 2008; Stahl, 1999).

LIMITATIONS TO THIS LESSON

Since this is only one lesson, there are various issues that are not addressed that need to be accounted for. First, the strategies presented here, dictionary use and note-cards, are merely two strategies for vocabulary acquisition. In a more comprehensive lesson, perhaps in a textbook, additional strategies should also be included. For example, teaching learners how to guess the meaning from context, when possible, might help to eliminate some of the many problems Laufer (2003) points out with guessing from context. In addition, instructors could explain the use of affixes (Ward & Chuenjundaeng, 2009) and word forms to infer the meaning of a word, as well as the use of vocabulary notebooks (Walters & Bozkurt, 2009) to learn more about words. Also, different readings, or vocabulary selections, may lend themselves to different tasks such as role-play activities (de la Fuente, 2006) and story retells and jigsaw activities (Atay & Kurt, 2006). Furthermore, for a well-rounded vocabulary
lesson, a listening text could be used as well, especially one that involves an authentic lecture from a college classroom on the same topic with speaking activities to coincide. As Schmitt (2008) states, vocabulary learning is “a complex and gradual process, and different approaches may be appropriate at different intervals along the incremental learning process” (p. 353).

**CONCLUSION**

All of the tasks in this lesson are designed to promote depth of word knowledge and encourage deep processing of the target words. Furthermore, by the nature of vocabulary instruction, the lesson is designed to improve breadth of knowledge as well. Additionally, students learn strategies for vocabulary acquisition on their own; they are provided with opportunities to learn words, incidentally, that are not target words; and, learners must complete a variety of tasks that foster engagement with the target words through repeated exposures and varying levels of word knowledge. The result of this lesson is to bring the learner closer to being able to function in an academic English environment.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Learning vocabulary in a second language is a long and difficult process. In an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classroom, if the textbook in use is not specifically designed for vocabulary instruction, it may or may not sufficiently address lexical acquisition. Furthermore, since so many word families must be known in order to effectively read in a language (Hsueh-Chao & Nation, 2000; Hu & Nation, 2000; Nation, 2006), and since second language (L2) learners are at a disadvantage when compared to native speakers with regard to their exposure to and use of the language (Laufer, 2005), quality vocabulary instruction is needed to counter the handicap that second language learners face in university-level classrooms. Rich instruction, moreover, helps learners to overcome a deficit in depth of word knowledge, which means that due to a lack of exposure, not only do learners not know enough words, but they may not know much about the words (e.g., derivations, inflections, collocations, different meanings, etc.) that they are familiar with. Additionally, proper instruction can raise students’ awareness of the various components of word knowledge.

Because EAP reading textbooks may not adequately cover new vocabulary items, it is important that reading instructors either choose a textbook carefully, or be prepared to supplement the textbook with well-designed vocabulary activities. The table at the end of Chapter 3 could serve either as a brief guide for teachers to use when selecting textbooks, or it could be used to create activities that would adequately cover the different aspects of word knowledge. In either case, instructors need to be familiar with the literature to be able to evaluate textbooks appropriately, or amend or supplement other reading activities with tasks that are known to be effective.

In Chapter 3, the main point was to determine how well EAP reading textbooks make use of the current research with regards to the vocabulary components in the books. In evaluating four textbooks, Inside Reading 4: The Academic Word List in Context (Richmond
& Zimmerman, 2007), *Interactions 2: Reading* (Hartman & Kirn, 2006), *World of Reading: A Thematic Approach to Reading Comprehension 3* (Baker-González & Blau, 2009), and *Focus on Vocabulary: Mastering the Academic Word List* (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2005), it is clear that some textbooks are better than others, but all of the textbooks have their strong areas. For instance, all of the books make use of frequency lists, specifically the Academic Word List, to some extent. Additionally, each book attempts to recycle vocabulary throughout each chapter, unit, book, or series, and each book works on varying degrees of word knowledge with activities that provide differing levels of involvement with each word. Admittedly, since most of these are EAP reading textbooks, the vocabulary component is not the main focus. As a result, there may be publishing constraints or other complications that could have rendered the vocabulary less effective than it might have been otherwise. However, with a well-informed instructor, this would not be an issue because he or she could make adaptations as necessary.

In Chapter 4, a template for a vocabulary lesson was provided to be used, or adapted for use, in conjunction with a reading lesson. This template is based on the literature discussed in Chapter 2 and, therefore, serves as a justification for the student lesson and accompanying teacher’s guide which appear in the Appendix. The lesson itself functions as a guide for instructors that could be modified for virtually any lesson since it is designed to address multiple aspects of word knowledge including receptive and productive knowledge, derivations and word families, different levels of learner involvement with words (e.g., original sentence writing activities and cloze tasks), and also strategies to help students to independently learn words. Clearly there is more that needs to be done to teach words to students, but used together with the research, this template serves as a model for a vocabulary lesson.

Based on the research reviewed and presented in Chapter 2, there are five essential principles for vocabulary instruction. First, teachers must provide strategies for independent vocabulary learning. This will help students to learn words on their own which, in turn, will bring them closer to knowing enough words to successfully read academic texts. Second, instructors must assess which words should be taught explicitly in a classroom. Frequency lists are a good place to determine words that are the most frequent; however, instructors also need to determine which words are beneficial for text comprehension. Third, language
teachers must recycle vocabulary at varying degrees throughout a lesson, unit, or term. This may not be an easy task in a short period of time, but if words are readdressed at different times throughout a term, students will get more exposure to words and, as a result, hopefully learn them better. Fourth, teachers need to develop activities that promote depth of processing and learner engagement with the target words. The more a learner must do with a word, the more likely he is to learn it. Finally, instructors need to provide a variety of tasks that take into account the above notions, as well as all of the different aspects of word knowledge that a learner needs, such as different meanings in different contexts, and collocations.

To conclude, there are many important aspects of vocabulary instruction that an EAP teacher must be familiar with, either to properly select a textbook for a reading class, or to develop activities on his or her own. The overall goal of vocabulary instruction is not only to increase the words in an L2 student’s lexicon, but also to develop knowledge of individual words. In order for learners to successfully understand and use a large number of words in their second language, they must develop what Laufer (2005) calls “lexical competence,” which is defined as a “combination of different aspects of vocabulary knowledge together with vocabulary use, speed of access and strategic competence” (p. 244). This is the ultimate goal of any instructor who hopes to teach words to his or her students.
REFERENCES


de la Fuente, M. (2002). Negotiation and oral acquisition of L2 vocabulary: The roles of input and output in the receptive and productive acquisition of words. SSLA, 24, 81-112.


APPENDIX

A VOCABULARY LESSON
Folk Culture

Part 1. Target Words.

The words in the box below appear in the subsequent text, either in the form given or in a related form. Read each word and indicate how well you already know the word by checking the appropriate box. If you can define the word, provide a definition or synonym on the lines below the box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>I can define the word</th>
<th>I have seen or heard the word</th>
<th>I don’t know the word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adequate</td>
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<td>distribution</td>
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<td>distinct</td>
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<td>emerge</td>
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<td>illustrate</td>
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<td>innovation</td>
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<tr>
<td>isolated</td>
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<td>migration</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>portion</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>retained</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Definitions:

___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________________
**Teacher’s Guide:** Explain to the students that the words on their paper are the target words for this unit and that they are part of a specialized vocabulary that often appears in academic texts. Since this lesson is for academic vocabulary, academic words were selected as the focus of the unit.

Read aloud the directions, the headings to each column, and the words while the students follow along silently.

Now instruct the students to check the appropriate box for each word. If a student feels confident enough about the word to define it, tell the students that they should write a definition or synonym for that word in the space provided.

Ask the students which words they were able to define. Write down definitions or synonyms on the board. For words that are unknown by the entire class, or for words that need supplemental definitions, the following definitions can be added to the board.

1. **adequate** (adj.) – enough in quantity or of a good enough quality for a particular purpose
2. **distribution** (n.) – the way in which something exists in different amounts in different parts of an area or group
3. **distinct** (adj.) – clearly different or belonging to a different type
4. **emerge** (v.) – to begin to be known or noticed
5. **illustrate** (v.) – to make the meaning of something clearer by giving examples
6. **innovation** (n.) – a new idea, method, or invention
7. **isolated** (adj.) – to be far away from others; alone
8. **migration** (n.) – when large numbers of people go to live in another area or country.
9. **portion** (n.) – a part of something larger
10. **retained** (v.) – to keep something or continue to have something
Part 2. Reading.

The following reading passage is from a Cultural Geography textbook. Read the passage. The target words are highlighted in **bold**. Additional words which are not necessarily from the Academic Word List, but are important for text comprehension, are highlighted in *italics* with a number. At the bottom of each page is the definition or synonym of each *italicized* word.

**Teacher’s Guide:** After properly addressing pre-reading issues, read the directions out loud to the students. Then, have the students read the text.

---

ORIGIN AND DIFFUSION OF CULTURE

4.1 Origin and diffusion of Folk Customs

| *Folk customs typically have anonymous origins.* | *Folk customs typically diffuse slowly through relocation migration.* |

A social custom originates at a hearth, a center of **innovation**. Folk customs often have anonymous hearths, originating from anonymous sources, at unknown dates, through
unidentified originators. They may also have multiple hearths originating independently in isolated locations.

Relocation diffusion was defined in Chapter 1 as the spread of characteristic through bodily movement of people from one place to another. This is the principal way that folk cultures diffuse—slowly and on a small scale, primarily through migration.

FOLK MUSIC
Music exemplifies the origins of folk customs. According to a Chinese legend, music was invented in 2697 B.C., when the Emperor Huang Ti sent Ling Lun to cut bamboo poles that would produce a flutelike sound matching the call of the phoenix bird.

Folk songs are usually composed anonymously and transmitted orally. A song may be modified from one generation to the next as conditions change, but the content is most often derived from events in daily life that are familiar to the majority of the people. Folk songs tell a story or convey information about daily activities such as farming, life-cycle events (birth, death, and marriage), or mysterious events such as storms and earthquakes.

In Vietnam, where most people are farmers, information about agricultural technology is conveyed through folk songs. For example, the following folk song provides advice about the difference between seeds planted in summer and seeds planted in winter:

Ma chiêm ba tháng không già
Ma mùa tháng rờoitắtlarờ không non

This song can be translated as follows:

While seedlings for the summer crop are not old
when they are three months of age
Seedlings for the winter crop are certainly not
young when they are one-and-a-half months old.

The song hardly sounds lyrical to a Western ear. But when English-language folk songs appear in print, similar themes emerge, even if the specific information conveyed about the environment differs.

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1 principal: main; primary
2 exemplifies: shows or illustrates by example.
3 lyrical: sounding musical or poetic.
THE AMISH

Amish customs illustrate how folk customs are distributed through relocation diffusion. The Amish have distinctive clothing, farming, religious practices, and other customs. They leave a unique pattern on landscapes where they settle. Shunning mechanical and electrical power, the Amish still travel by horse and buggy and continue to use hand tools for farming.

Although the Amish population in the United States numbers only about 227,000, a mere 0.07 percent of the total population, Amish folk culture remains visible on the landscape in at least 28 states. The distribution of Amish folk culture across a major portion of the U.S. landscape is explained by examining the diffusion of their culture through migration.

In the 1600s a Swiss Mennonite bishop named Jakob Ammann gathered a group of followers who became known as the Amish. The Amish originated in Bern, Switzerland; the Alsace region in northeastern France; and the Palatinate region of Southwestern Germany. They migrated to other portions of northwestern Europe in the 1700s, primarily for religious freedom. In Europe the Amish did not develop distinctive language, clothing or farming practices and generally merged with various Mennonite church groups.

Several hundred Amish families migrated to North America in two waves. The first group, primarily form Bern and Palatinate, settled in Pennsylvania in the early 1700s, enticed by William Penn’s offer of low-priced land. Because of lower land prices, the second group, from Alsace, settled in Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa in the United States and Ontario, Canada in the early 1800s. From these core areas, groups of Amish migrated to other locations where inexpensive land was available.

unique: single; sole; special
Living in rural and frontier settlements relatively isolated from other groups, Amish communities retained their traditional customs, even as other European immigrants to the United States adopted new ones. We can observe Amish customs on the landscape in such diverse areas as southeastern Pennsylvania, northeastern Ohio, and east-central Iowa. These communities are relatively isolated from each other but share cultural traditions distinct from those of other Americans.

Amish folk culture continues to diffuse slowly through interregional migration within the United States. In recent years, a number of Amish families have sold their farms in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania - the oldest and at one time largest Amish community in the United States- and migrated to Christian and Todd counties in southwestern Kentucky.

According to Amish tradition, every son is given a farm when he is an adult, but land suitable for farming is expensive and hard to find in Lancaster County because of its proximity to growing metropolitan areas. With the average price of farmland in southwestern Kentucky less than one-fifth that in Lancaster County, an Amish family can sell its farm in Pennsylvania and acquire enough land in Kentucky, to provide adequate farmland for all their sons. Amish families are also migrating from Lancaster County to escape the influx of tourists who come from the nearby metropolitan areas to gawk\(^5\) at the distinctive folk culture.

\(^5\) gawk: to stare at someone or something in amazement.
Part 3. Understanding the text.
Read the following questions. Write the answers in your notebook. When you finish, compare your answers with a partner. You can use a dictionary if you would like. If you are still unsure of your answers, ask the teacher.

Teacher’s Guide: After the students have completed the passage, read the directions out loud, and then read the three comprehension questions that follow while the students read along silently. Then complete the task.

Review the answers to the questions as a class. Answers may vary slightly.

1. How does migration help to spread folk culture?

2. What are some things that make the Amish distinct from other peoples in the United States?

3. Why do you think that living in isolated communities would help the Amish to retain their traditional customs?


In the sentences below, each target word is underlined and in bold. Circle the correct choice below each sentence that means about the same as the target word. The first one has been done for you.

Teacher’s Guide: Read the directions aloud. Additionally, instruct students to use their previous knowledge of the target word, plus context clues in the sentence to determine the correct word.

Read the first sentence out loud to the class. Elicit answers from the students.

Students should complete the task individually. Review answers with a partner. After the next activity, Part 5, students will verify their answers here with a dictionary.

Following are the answers.

1. a  2. c  3. a  4. b  5. b  6. a  7. c  8. a  9. c  10. c

1. The Amish have distinctive clothing, farming, religious practices, and other customs. They leave a unique pattern on landscapes where they settle.

   a. different  b. common  c. wonderful
2. Living in rural and frontier settlements relatively isolated from other groups, Amish communities retained their traditional customs, even as other European immigrants to the U.S. adopted new ones.
   a. friendly  b. clear  c. separated

3. The temporary hospital is not adequate enough to help the thousands of people injured in the earthquake. More temporary hospitals must be made in order to help more people.
   a. sufficient  b. different  c. common

4. No one could see the ship, but then it emerged from the fog into full view.
   a. drove  b. appeared  c. was painted

5. The innovations of the Industrial Revolution changed the world forever. Today, life is full of new and different ideas that lead to a higher standard of living.
   a. changes to the constitution  b. new things or methods  c. electricity

6. Living in rural and frontier settlements relatively isolated from other groups, Amish communities retained their traditional customs, even as other European immigrants to the U.S. adopted new ones.
   a. kept  b. lost  c. separated

7. I don’t want the whole chicken. I just need a portion of it to make my soup.
   a. pillow  b. box  c. part

8. The Amish, originally from Europe, migrated to North America. In their new homes, they found cheap land.
   a. moved  b. walked  c. marched

9. Bibles are distributed by Gideons to hotel rooms across the country. Virtually every hotel room has one.
   a. different  b. written  c. passed out

10. In order to illustrate his point, he used a PowerPoint presentation with pie charts.
    a. encounter  b. appear  c. make clear
Part 5. Dictionaries.

Dictionaries are a useful tool for taking charge of your own vocabulary learning. However, a dictionary entry contains a lot of information which can be confusing. Read the following tips for successfully using the online dictionary below that can be found at http://dictionary.reference.com.

Teacher’s Guide: Read the introduction to this section aloud to the class, or have a student do it, which will familiarize the class with the idea that dictionary entries can be confusing.

Read aloud, or again have a student read aloud, the four points in the strategy box stopping after each number to view the entry for adequate that appears on the next page.

After number 4, have a student read the three meanings for adequate.

For the final part of this activity, have the students find a partner. Read aloud the directions and the questions that the students must answer. Tell them to work together to answer them. When they are finished, review as a class. The answers are as follows:

1. (a) 3  
1. (b) 1
2. possible answers are satisfactory, competent, sufficient, enough, capable.
3. something related to click on the link “use adequate in a sentence”
4. adequately. Answers to the second part of this question will vary.

Finally, inform the students that they should go back to the previous word meaning activity (Part 4) and check their answers with a dictionary.
Directions: Read the passage below for adequate from http://dictionary.reference.com and answer the questions that follow it with your partner.

Related Searches
adequate - 4 dictionary results
Adequate seven
Adequate financial re...
Adequate yearly progr...
Inadequate
Sufficient
Advantageous
Adequately
Ambiguous
Benevolent
Wedding etiquette
Adaquit
Adapt

Synonyms
Use adequate in a Sentence
competent
passable
requisite
sufficient
decent
tolerable
unexceptional
More Synonyms »

Strategy
1. In the search bar at the top of the page, type in the target word and click “search”. In the example below, the word adequate was selected.
2. As you look down the page you will see the word adequate separated into syllables: ad - e - quate. Next to this are pronunciation guides, both written and oral.
3. Below this information is the part of speech of the word.
4. Following the part of speech are all of the definitions for adequate as an adjective. Each definition represents a different, sometimes only slightly different, meaning. When looking up a word in the dictionary, be sure to read the meanings and check the context in which the word appears so that you do not incorrectly identify the meaning of the word.

Origin:
1610–20; < L adequātus matched (ptp. of adaequāre). See ad-, equal, -ate1

—Related forms
ad·e·quate·ly, adverb
ad·e·quate·ness, noun

—and Synonyms
1. satisfactory, competent, sufficient, enough; capable.
1. Read the sentences below and determine which definition of *adequate* is expressed in the sentence. Write 1, 2, or 3 in the space provided after each sentence.

   a. After he spilled hot coffee on himself, his lawyer determined that he had *adequate* grounds to sue the restaurant. _____

   b. With the average price of farmland in southwestern Kentucky less than one-fifth that in Lancaster County, an Amish family can sell its farm in Pennsylvania and acquire enough land in Kentucky, to provide *adequate* farmland for all their sons. _____

2. What are three synonyms for *adequate* that the website provides:

   ___________________   ___________________   ___________________

3. If you wanted to see more example sentences with *adequate*, how does the website help you to do that?

4. What is the *adverb* form of *adequate*? How do you know which one to choose?

   ___________________

5. If there were any answers in Part 4, the word meaning activity, that you were not comfortable with, go back and check your answers with a dictionary.
Read the target words in bold after each number. Select the best synonym by putting an “A”, next to it. Then, find the next best synonym and put a “B”, then a “C”. The first one has been done for you. If you encounter any words which are not familiar to you, use your dictionary.

Teacher’s Guide: Read the directions aloud to the class. Discuss the answers for number 1. Elicit possible reasons why appear might be more closely related to emerge than arise.

Have students work on these with a partner. Tell them to be prepared to justify their answers. Then review as a class and ask partners to justify their choices.

Answers may vary slightly.

1. emerge arise B appear A disappear C
2. innovation tradition introduction addition
3. retained kept preserved spent
4. illustrate clarify hide explain
5. adequate sufficient enough inferior

A: Charting
In the following chart, write the correct form of each word in the boxes given. If a box has a line through it, this word either does not exist, or it is not particularly useful to this unit. Use your dictionary or an online dictionary to help you. The first two have been done for you.

Teacher’s Guide: Explain to the class that words are a part of a family and it is important for them to learn all of the words in a particular family. Also explain that by learning word families, every time that one word is learned, it is like learning 2, 3, or 4 words with essentially the effort of learning one.

If the students are not particularly good with parts of speech, it is recommended that the teachers review nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs at this point.

Read the directions aloud to the students. Then have a student read out loud the completed chart for the words adequate and distribution.

Allow time for the students to complete the chart individually and then review with a partner before reviewing as a class. The completed chart follows the student chart.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
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<td>______</td>
<td>1. distinct</td>
<td>2. distinctive</td>
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<td>innovation</td>
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<tr>
<td>migration</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
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<td>portion</td>
<td>______</td>
<td>______</td>
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<tr>
<td>retained</td>
<td>______</td>
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<td>______</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Teacher’s Guide:**

| adecquacy     | ______      | adequate     | adequately   |
| distribution  | distribute  | distributional| ______       |
| ______        | ______      | 1. distinct  | 2. distinctive| 1.          |
| ______        | ______      | ______       | ______       |
| ______        | ______      | ______       | ______       |
| ______        | ______      | ______       | ______       |
| illustration  | illustrate  | illustrative | ______       |
| innovation    | innovate    | innovative   | ______       |
| isolation     | isolate     | isolated     | ______       |
| migration     | migrate     | ______       | ______       |
| portion       | portion     | ______       | ______       |
| retention     | retained    | retainable   | ______       |
B: Cloze Activity

**Teacher’s Guide:** First, read the directions out loud to the class. Then, read sentence one aloud to the class and solicit an answer from one of the students. Allow time for the students to complete the activity and then review first with partners, and then as a class. The answers follow.

1. isolation   2. innovations  3. migrated  4. adequately  5. distributed  

Read the following sentences. Fill in the blank with one of the word forms in the chart on the previous page. Use your dictionary if you need help.

1. Since the fall of the Soviet Union, North Korea has lived in relative ________________, secluded from the rest of the world.

2. Steve Jobs and Bill Gates are best known for their ________________, which are many, in computer technology.

3. When the Irish first ________________ to the United States, they often faced a lot of discrimination in their new home.

4. The new worker was unable to do the job ________________. He needed more training before he could sufficiently accomplish his duties.

5. When Mansa Musa, the 14th century king of Mali, made his pilgrimage to Mecca, he ________________ so much gold along the way that the market for metals in the region suffered a 10 year recession.

6. The ________________ stripes of a zebra separate it from all other animals.

7. As the sun ________________ from behind the clouds, the cold dreary morning turned into a beautiful sunny fall afternoon.

8. I wanted the whole pizza, but my friend ________________ it into 8 equal pieces.

9. Even though the rainbow colored sweater has been washed many times, it still ________________ its original brightness.

10. The example sentence ________________ the meaning of the word. Before I read the sentence, I had no idea what it meant.
C: Pronunciation

Part (1). Listen to your instructor pronounce the following verbs:

Teacher’s Guide: Tell the students to listen as you pronounce five verbs. Then say the verbs out loud. Next, read the directions under the words and say the words again. Repeat the words as many times as necessary.

After the students have discussed the stress with their partner, make sure that stress was properly attributed to the first syllable in each word.

a. distribute
b. isolate
c. illustrate
d. innovate
e. migrate

The word “distribute” has stress on the second syllable: dis – TRI – bute. Listen again as your teacher pronounces “distribute”. Do you hear the stress?

Your teacher will reread words b – e. The stress on these words is in a different place than “distribute” but it is on the same syllable in each of these words. Which syllable is stressed in isolate, illustrate, innovate, and migrate?

Discuss your answers with a partner, then with the class.

Part (2). Listen to your instructor pronounce the following nouns:

Teacher’s Guide: Tell the students to listen as you pronounce five nouns. Then say the nouns out loud. Next, read the directions under the words and say the words again. Repeat the words as many times as necessary.

After the students have discussed the stress with their partner, make sure that stress was properly attributed to the penultimate syllable in each word.

a. distribution
b. isolation
c. illustration
d. innovation
e. migration

The stress is not on the same syllable as it is in the verb form of these words. Listen again and determine where the stress falls in each of these words. It is on the same syllable in each of the words. Discuss your answers with a partner, then with the class.
Part (3). With a partner, complete the following sentences with the correct noun or verb from the five words in Part 1 and Part 2. Take turns reading the completed sentences to your partner while he or she checks if you have stressed the word on the correct syllable.

**Teacher’s Guide:** Read the directions out loud to the class.

While students are working with their partners, walk around the room and help students with their pronunciation. The answers follow.

a. distributed  b. migrate  c. isolation  d. innovation  e. illustrate

a. After the band recorded their album, they ____________________ free CDs to all their fans.

b. Birds ___________________ from the north to the south every winter, but not if they live in Australia.

c. The monks lived in relative ____________________, secluded from most of the world.

d. There are many technological ___________________s from the 20th century, such as computers, the internet, and cell phones.

e. These sentences hopefully ___________________ the importance of stress in English.

**D: Listening**

**Teacher’s Guide:** Read the directions and words out loud to the class as they follow along silently.

Then read number 1 as an example. Then read each sentence with the target word as many times as students need. Have them review their answers with a partner, and then as a class.

The correct answers follow.

2. innovation  3. distribution, migration  4. migration  5. distinct  
6. isolation  7. distinctive
Read each of the following words silently as your instructor reads them aloud.

distinct  distinctive  distinctively  distribute

distribution  isolate  isolation  migrated

migration  illustration  innovation

In some of the following sentences, parts of the words have been removed. Listen as your instructor reads the sentences out loud. Select the correct missing part of a word from the choices below each sentence. Number 1 has been done for you.

1. Several hundred Amish families migrated ed___ to North America in two waves.
   
   a. 0   b. ed   c. e

2. A social custom originates at a center of ______________tion.
   
   a. innovate   b. isola   c. illustra

3. The (A) distribut_____ of Amish folk culture across a major portion of the U.S. landscape is explained by examining the diffusion of their culture through(B)_______ion.
   
   (A) a. e   b. ion   c. ed
   
   (B) a. innovat   b. migrat   c. distribut

4. The documentary, Winged Migrat_______, explores the movement of birds over the course of a year.
   
   a. e   b. ed   c. ion

5. The distinct_______ taste of soy sauce defines Japanese cuisine.
   
   a. 0   b. ive   c. ly

6. Learning words in __________tion can be difficult. But with context and explanations, learning of words can be a lot easier.
   
   a. illustra   b. isola   c. innova

7. The finest rice in all China used to be grown in fields around the village of Shatin. So distinct__ were its qualities that the entire crop was bought by the British Imperial Court.
   
   a. 0   b. ly   c. ive
Part 8. Sentence Writing with Collocations.

**Teacher’s Guide:** Read the directions aloud to the class. Do sentence 1 together as a class. First instruct students, with their partners, to locate the 4 occurrences of “migrated”. Then have a pair tell the class which words follow “migrated” in the text. In all 4 instances, the word that follows “migrated” is “to”. Then have partners create sentences with the collocation “migrated to” and review as a class.

Have students complete the activity individually. Then, have them compare their answers, and sentences, with a partner.

In English, words are often paired together with other words. These are called collocations. In order to speak and write more fluently, it is important to pay attention to the words that appear with other words. While reading and listening, knowing which words commonly appear with other words helps us to predict what words are coming next, which helps in comprehension. In speaking and writing, using common collocations sounds more fluent than using words which can go together but usually do not.

For each number below you will need to scan the reading at the beginning of the unit and find the word indicated below. Follow the directions after each number. When you finish, you will be asked to share some of your responses with the class.

1. Find the 4 occurrences of the verb “migrated”. Which word appears after “migrated” in all of these sentences? ____________________

Write a sentence with the word “migrate” and your answer to the question above.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

2. Find the 3 occurrences of the adjective “isolated”. Which word most commonly appears before “isolated” in these sentences? ____________________

Write a sentence with the word “isolated” and your answer to the question above.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

3. Find the 2 occurrences of the noun “portion(s)”. Which word most commonly appears
after “portion” in these sentences? ___________________________

Write a sentence with the word “portion” and your answer to the question above.
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

4. Find the 3 occurrences of the adjective “distinctive”. Which words appear after “distinctive” in these sentences?______________________________________________

Write a sentence with the word “distinctive” one of your answers to the question above.
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

5. Find the adjective “distinct”. Which words appear after “distinct” in this sentence? ____

Write a sentence with the word “distinct” your answer to the question above.
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

**Part 9. Cloze Activity II.**

**Teacher’s Guide:** Read the directions to this activity out loud to the class.

Then, read out loud, or have a student read out loud, the passage while pausing for the blanks as the students follow along silently. When the paragraphs have been read, read the vocabulary choices in the box below the passage.

Give students time to complete the activity on their own. When finished, have students review their answers with a partner. Specifically, have them explain to their partners which strategy (e.g. context, part of speech, etc.) they used to determine the correct word. Then, review as a class.
Directions: Fill in the blanks in the passage below with words from the box at the bottom of the page. Pay attention to parts of speech and context to determine which words and word forms are correct.

Amish customs (1)___________________ how folk customs are (2)___________________ through relocation diffusion. The Amish have (3)___________________ clothing, farming, religious practices, and other customs. They leave a unique pattern on landscapes where they settle. Shunning mechanical and electrical power, the Amish still travel by horse and buggy and continue to use hand tools for farming.

Although the Amish population in the United States numbers only about 227,000, a mere 0.07 percent of the total population, Amish folk culture remains visible on the landscape in at least 28 states. The (4)___________________ of Amish folk culture across a major (5)___________________ of the U.S. landscape is explained by examining the diffusion of their culture through (6)___________________.

In the 1600s a Swiss Mennonite bishop named Jakob Ammann gathered a group of followers who became known as the Amish. The Amish originated in Bern, Switzerland; the Alsace region in northeastern France; and the Palatinate region of Southwestern Germany. They (7)___________________ to other (8)___________________ of northwestern Europe in the 1700s, primarily for religious freedom. In Europe the Amish did not develop (9)___________________ language, clothing or farming practices and generally merged with various Mennonite church groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>portion</th>
<th>portions</th>
<th>distributed</th>
<th>distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>migrated</td>
<td>migration</td>
<td>distinctive</td>
<td>distinctive</td>
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<tr>
<td>illustrate</td>
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A: Vocabulary Review

**Teacher’s Guide:** Read the directions to this activity out loud to the students as they read along silently.

Then read the possible choices for each word that appear across the top of the chart. Have the students complete the chart. When they are finished, ask the class if there are any specific words that need more attention. These words can either be written on the board for later use, or the teacher can record them, and then include them in future lessons.

The target words for this unit are listed below. Check the boxes that describe your knowledge of that word. Check as many boxes as are appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I can understand it when I read it.</th>
<th>I can understand it when I hear it in speech.</th>
<th>I can use this word in my writing.</th>
<th>I can use this word in my speech.</th>
<th>I can define this word.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adequate</td>
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<td>distribution</td>
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<td>illustrate</td>
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<td>innovation</td>
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<td>isolated</td>
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B: Vocabulary Note-Cards

Teacher’s Guide: This activity is a follow up to the previous activity, and the unit as a whole. Explain to the class that if they want to learn words, they need to encounter the word many times, and they need to learn as much about that word as possible.

Read the introduction to this section aloud to the class. Then, read aloud the suggestions for what to include on a vocabulary note-card which appear in the “strategy” box.

Have students review the sample note-card for the word isolated. Ask the class what information it contains and what information has been left out. Ask the class what other information they might want to put on a note-card.

Have the students complete at least three note cards for homework.

If there are any words from this unit that you do not feel like you are completely comfortable with, you should make note cards for those words. This way, you can review the cards when you would like, and you will be increasing your exposure to the words which are causing you problems.

Below are some suggestions for what to include on each card. You might not need all of this information, or you might need additional information. Make a few cards and find out what you are comfortable with.

Strategy

Here are some suggestions on what to include on the front of your note cards.

1. Write the word, its part of speech, and its pronunciation if possible.
2. Write a few words that you associate with the target word.
3. Write the word in the word family of this word, as well as the verb forms.

Here are some suggestions on what to include on the back of your note card.

4. Write an English definition.
5. Write synonyms.
6. Write a sentence that uses the word in context.
7. If you would like, write the word in your native language.
Here is an example note-card for the word *isolated*.

**definition:** separated and alone

**synonyms:** alone, secluded, solitary

*ex. Living in rural and frontier settlements relatively *isolated* from other groups, Amish communities retained their traditional customs.*

And here is an example of the back of the note-card.

**isolated** (eye-sol-ate-id)  **associations**

adj.  islands, unusual

*isolation* -noun
*isolate* - verb
*-isolated, isolating, isolates*