

English Language Vocabulary Evaluation

A Case Study

(Evaluation of the Vocabulary Items of Spine Five and Six in Secondary Level – Sudan)

Dr. Khalid Ibrahim Abdelrahim Ibrahim

Jazan University

K.S.A

e-mail : mashiki@hotmail.com

Dr. Eldawo Mekki Eldawo Ahmed

Jazan University

K.S.A

e-mail: abumaki129@hotmail.com

Abstract

This study aims to study the importance of vocabulary in teaching and learning. The study aims at the evaluation of the new vocabulary items of spine five and spine six in the secondary school level in Sudan. The vocabulary items were taken from the teacher's guide books for the second and third grades in the secondary level. The vocabulary items were evaluated in the light of the criteria of vocabulary selection in materials; word frequency level, the capability of the word to replace another word, and the word gradation. Moreover the analysis aimed to compare the ratio of verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and preposition. In the textbooks with standard percentages exist in the Oxford Dictionary. In addition to that, a sample of teachers' definition for the new words was evaluated in the line with Grice's Co-operative Principles which are maxims of quantity, quality, relevance and manner beside clarity and brevity. The students' vocabulary standard was evaluated by giving students three vocabulary tests. The most significant result of this study is that the textbooks do not contain a high percentage of high frequency words and they include a low portion of words in the coverage list. This means the students will face difficulty in reading academic texts. Regarding the gradation of the words from Spine 5 to Spine 6 the study proved that Spine 5 contain more words of such difficulty than Spine 6 in all word levels. So, most English language teachers see that the gradation from Spine 5 to Spine 6 is not suitable. The study also showed that the density of the new words in the reading texts is too high. The results showed that the students face a great difficulty in understanding and answering reading comprehension texts because the density of the new words exceed the norm of density recommended by experts. Moreover, results showed that the words under study do not represent a natural sample for the ratio of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions recommended in the Oxford Dictionary. In addition to that, the results also showed that the teachers' definitions of the new words are in line with Grice's Co-operative Principles regarding the maxims of quantity, quality, relevance and manner, but they are not brief and clear. Moreover, the analysis

of the tests' results showed that the students face great difficulties in understanding the meanings of the new words. Besides, the study suggested a number of recommendations to avoid, simplify, and minimize the difficulties which the students face in understanding the meanings of the words and using them properly. Finally, the study proposes a number of further studies to be carried in other areas of vocabulary.

1.Introduction:

Vocabulary is the words used in a given language. Vocabulary is important for reading comprehension. When a reader encounters an unknown word in print they work to decode the word to speech. If the unknown word is in the reader's oral vocabulary, the reader will be able to understand it. If the word is not in the reader's oral vocabulary, the reader will have to try and figure out the unknown word's meaning. The larger the reader's vocabulary the easier it is for them to comprehend the text (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Vocabulary items deserve conscious and systematic efforts in the selection because they are important for language learning. Syllabus designers decide what vocabulary will be included in the material. They can benefit from the distinction which is made between the high level frequency words of the language and the large number of low frequency words. According to Nation (2008), this distinction is cost benefit. The cost is the time and effort to teach and learn the words as presented by the frequency of the words. In addition, syllabus designers could follow Nation's guide in presenting vocabulary in textbooks. Nation (2008) advised syllabus designers to focus on the following strands: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning and fluency-development. Firstly, meaning-focused input: Here the learners learn new words and establish previously met vocabulary through listening and reading. The learners should be focused on understanding and enjoying the material they read and listen to. Secondly, meaning-focused output: in this strand, learners enrich and establish their knowledge of vocabulary through speaking and writing. This strand should push learners to make use of vocabulary at the boundaries of their knowledge but shouldn't overload them with the need to use largely unfamiliar vocabulary. Thirdly, language-focused learning: here Learners deliberately learn new words and study more about previously met words and teachers give attention to vocabulary and vocabulary strategies. This strand develops explicit knowledge of particular words and draws attention to aspects of the meaning, form and use of words. Finally, fluency-development. Learners get more proficient at using the vocabulary that they already know.

1.1 Statement of the Problem of the Study:

The present study aims at the presenting the importance teaching and learning of vocabulary in English language. The research paper focuses on the techniques which should be followed by teachers while teaching new words. The paper also shows the learning strategies that should be acquired by English Language learners. Vocabulary is very significant in language learning. Many Researches were conducted long ago trying to answer many questions raised in the field of teaching and learning vocabulary. Some of these questions were: How many words do students need to learn to comprehend a text successfully? How many words can be studied within a set time? Why are some words more difficult than others? What is the optimal ratio of the unknown words to the known words in a text? How could we choose words to be included in the textbooks?

1.2 Significant of the study:

This study attempts to identify, describe, analyze and evaluate the problems face the students and lead them to commit errors when using the vocabulary items. So, this study is very important in many aspects. The main area of the study is vocabulary which is an important aspect in language learning. Moreover, this study aims to attract researchers, syllabus designers and educational supervisors' attention to this problem to give them the opportunity to understand how to deal with it and offer them information and solutions through which this problem can be solved or avoided.

The results of this study will add useful ways for teaching, learning and using the vocabulary items of the spine series especially at the secondary level.

1.2 Objectives of the Study:

This study aims at the valuation of the vocabulary items of the reading section in Spine five and Spine six. It attempts to achieve the following objectives.

1. To find out the difficulty of the vocabulary items based on frequency and coverage.
2. To find out the gradation from Spine five to Spine six.
3. To discover the difficulty of text compression based on word density.
4. To know the level of difficulty of teachers' definitions of new words.

1.4 Questions of the study:

The problems of this study can be treated in the light of the following questions:

1. What's the level of difficulty of the vocabulary items in the textbooks based on frequency and coverage?
2. Is there gradation in the vocabulary items from spine 5 to spine six?
3. What's the level of difficulty of text comprehension based on word density?
4. What's the level of difficulty of teachers' definitions of new words?
5. To what extent does students' achievement reflect the level of vocabulary in the textbooks?
6. How far do vocabulary items represent a natural language sample based on the words in a standard dictionary?
5. To measure how the students' achievement reflects the level of vocabulary in the textbooks.
6. To know how far vocabulary items represent a natural language sample based on the distribution of the grammatical categories of words in a standard dictionary.

1.5 Hypothesis of the Study:

The second and the third grades' students at the secondary level face many difficulties when using the vocabulary items of their textbooks. It is hypothesized that:

- The main reasons behind the problems of using the vocabulary items of spine 5 & spine 6 are word frequency, word density, gradation between spine 5 and spine 6, the teachers' definitions of new words and the students' vocabulary level.
- Students find difficulties in answering vocabulary questions in reading comprehension passages.
- Students face problems when using vocabulary items to form grammatical structure and write composition.
- A syllabus designer and a teacher can play a significant role in avoiding or dealing with this problem.

1.6 Study Design and Methodology:

The researcher will use the descriptive analytical method in conducting this study. The population of the study will be the students of the 1st and the 3rd grades at the secondary level in Wad Madani Greater Locality. The sample will be selected randomly using simple random sampling procedure.

1.7 Tools of Data Collection:

In this study, the researcher will use primary and secondary sources of data collection. In collecting primary data, the researcher will give tests to students distribute a questionnaire to teachers.

The data will be analyzed statically using the computer program (SPSS).

1.9 Limitation of the Study:

This study will take place in Wad Madani Greater Locality. It will be limited for grade two and three secondary level students only. The findings of the study can be generalized for students and teachers in other schools in other areas.

2. Literature Review:

2.1 Introduction

It seems that vocabulary has always been treated as the mainstream or at least as one of the major components of language learning and teaching (Wang, 2007 & Richards, 1974). More clearly, up to the mid-eighties, it was fashionable to describe vocabulary as of 'poor relation' to second language teaching and learning (Laufer, 1986; Carter, 1998 & Chow, 2007), whereas the nineties offer remarkably picture. It is a 'current word' in language pedagogy and research in the field is expanding by the minute (Nation, 1990; Laufer, 1997 & Savicky & Hlavacova, 2002). The recurrent research themes include: the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading proficiency (Hu & Nation 2000); and vocabulary development patterns over time (Laufer, 1998 & Meara, 1997) Hu & Nation (2000) examined what percentage coverage of the text was required for unassisted reading for pleasure, where readers were able to read without the interruption of looking up unknown words. For the patterns of vocabulary development over time, Laufer (1998) investigated the gains in three types of vocabulary Knowledge in one year of school instruction. Other research themes include learning new words versus learning new meaning of previously known words (Bogaards, 2001); learners' strategies to comprehend and learn new words (Schmitt, 1997) and testing vocabulary (Laufer & Nation, 1990; Nation 1983 & Read, 2000). The ever growing research interest in the field of vocabulary mirrors the importance of vocabulary in English language teaching and learning.

Moreover, Wang (2007) argued that a good number of researchers and scholars have noted a variety of very obvious practical reasons why lexical acquisition should be (and should long have been) one of the focal points in second language research. Both teachers and learners themselves are likely to agree with the position that a good amount of vocabulary, accompanied by minimal structural competence, makes for efficient comprehension and communication than near-perfect grammar, accompanied by seriously lacking lexical competence. This folk wisdom was condensed by McCarthy (1990); Allen (1983) and Carter & McCarthy (1988) in the following way no matter how well the student learn grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meaning, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way. In addition, Nation (2008) noted that if

grammar is like the skeleton of the language, vocabulary is like the flesh. Without words, interaction and understanding cannot be achieved. Vocabulary learning is seen as an integral area of language teaching by linguistic researchers. Words are the basic building blocks of language and the units of meaning form which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed (Read, 2000; Hashemi & gowdasiaaei, 2005 & Miloseric, 2008).

Concerning EFL, the prominent role of vocabulary Knowledge has been widely recognized by theorists and language learners (Kasper, 1993; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; paivio, 1986&Richards, 1980). Krashen (1989) argued that excellent reasons exist for giving attention to vocabulary and spelling. A large vocabulary is, of course, important for mastery of a language. Second language acquirers know the importance of learning vocabulary. So they carry dictionaries with them, not grammar books, and regularly mention that lack of vocabulary is a major problem.

In conclusion, vocabulary is one of the most important areas of language learning because it carries the main information load in a communicative situation either in EFL or ESL as mentioned by Miloseric (2008). The importance of vocabulary has been demonstrated and the inclusion of vocabulary into teaching materials depends on a number of criteria for vocabulary selection.

2.2.1 Vocabulary Acquisition:

Vocabulary is one of the means through which meanings, ideas, and feelings can be conveyed. Vocabulary has a significant role in teaching and learning any language. Learning vocabulary is an important aspect of language development. Some scholars consider vocabulary knowledge as the most important factor in academic achievement for second or foreign language learners. Researchers indicate that vocabulary knowledge is closely linked to reading proficiency, and additionally it leads to greater success in school (Tozcui & Coady, 2004).

Evans (1978) indicates that vocabulary has an important role in the development of the four language skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. He claims that vocabulary can provide clarity and can enable the speaker to diversify language. He further points out that wrong use of vocabulary can lead to misinterpretation, while correct use of vocabulary makes it easier for people to read and write better, understand the main ideas and speak correctly (as cited in Iheanacho, 1997). In this respect, Allen (1983) indicates that the reason for the importance of vocabulary is that: “through research, the scholars are finding that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words” (p. 5).

According to Knight (1994), vocabulary acquisition is considered by many to be the primary problem in second language learning. He indicates that the majority of students studying second languages and their teachers cite vocabulary as their first priority. The recognition of the importance of vocabulary in language learning by many researchers has encouraged the search for effective pedagogical methods of teaching new words.

In this respect, Shrum and Glisan (1994) provided many pedagogical methods for developing vocabulary skills. They expressed the view that new vocabulary should be introduced in a context using familiar vocabulary and grammar. In order to learn new words more effectively, they recommended the use of visuals for introducing new vocabulary (as cited in Iheanacho, 1997). In addition, Uberman (1998) pointed out some traditional techniques that help teachers in teaching vocabulary to their students. These techniques include verbal explanation, dictionaries, and visual techniques. He indicated that the visual techniques enable the students to

remember better the vocabulary items. Sutton (1999) adds other techniques such as pictorial schemata, word relations, examples, anecdotes, context, semantic mapping, word roots and affixes.

Ellis (1995) further reports that frequent exposure of the learner to new words for purposes of recognition and production enhances automatic lexical processing of these lexical items by the learner. Grasping all meanings of a given word requires conscious learning along with more in-depth strategies such as semantic mapping and imagery, which are mnemonic techniques related to explicit learning. Knowledge of a word requires conscious learning of its spelling, pronunciation, syntactic properties and relationships to other words in the semantic network. It also requires connecting these forms with extensive sets of visual referents (as cited in Duquette & Renié, 1998). This review supports the importance of vocabulary in learning a foreign language.

2-2.2 Knowing a word:

Knowledge of L2 vocabulary is multi-faceted. It should be related to syntactic, phonological, semantic or orthographic information and be concerned with pragmatics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics (Yule, 2001). As a scholar specializing in vocabulary teaching and learning Nation (2001) categorized it into three main aspects: form, meaning and use. Knowing the form of a word involves form and meaning concept and referents and associations. Knowing the use of a word includes grammatical function, collocations, and constraints on use for cultural, geographical, stylistic or register reasons. Chang (2002) & Nagan (2007) summarizes the view of a few linguists (Laufer, 1997; Nation, 1990 & Richards, 1974) concerning the Knowledge of Knowing a word and the synthesis is as follows:

Form: Both spoken and written namely pronunciation and spelling.

Word structure: the basic free morphemes and common derivations of the word and its inflection.

- Syntactic pattern word in a phrase and sentence
- Meaning: referential, affective and pragmatic
- Lexical relations of the word with other word: synonyms or antonyms
- Common collocations
- General frequency of use
- Generalizability

Nation (2001) classified vocabulary knowledge into receptive (R) and productive (P) categories. Receptive vocabulary knowledge is gained when we read or listen to language in put (passive). However, productive knowledge is used when we try to produce written or spoken out put (active). The differences could be clearly demonstrated from the following table illustrating the aspects of the word knowledge provided by Nation (1990).

Productive learning is more difficult because it requires the learners to know more about the feature of the words especially the forms of the words (Nation, 2001).

One's receptive vocabulary is usually larger than one's productive vocabulary. For instance, a learner may recognize the word "impede" and even be able to provide a synonym when encountering it within a context, but be unable to recall the word while written or speaking (Nation, 1990; Laufer, 1998 & Clark, 1993). After discussing the various aspects of knowing a word, it is important to talk about the importance of vocabulary in the teaching and learning.

2.2.2.1 What does it mean to “know words”?

Many skilled language users display “word consciousness” (Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle, & Watts-Taffe, 2006). They have a metacognitive understanding of how words are built, and can articulate the strategies they employ» as readers to solve unfamiliar words. Cognitive developmental research (Beers & Henderson, 1977, Read, 1971; Templeton, 1983) has revealed that most children acquire an understanding of word structure in a progressive, stage-like manner.

Through oral language, an exposure to written texts, and their own writing, they begin as young children to discover the patterns of sound, or graphophonemic concepts. Most students, in the middle grades, are able to add simple affixes to base words and to understand the rules for making words plural, changing verb tenses, forming possessives and contractions, and adjusting the spelling of base words when adding affixes such as -ed and -ing. Older students use morphological knowledge to apply the spelling/meaning connection to words derived from the same base. This knowledge also enables older students to read unfamiliar complex words and to grasp the meaning of these words when encountered in oral language. Throughout each of these stages, children also acquire a sight vocabulary of words they recognize automatically in their reading and use readily in speaking and writing. Many of these high frequency words, such as said, have, because do not follow typical word patterns and often are learned by applying a variety of word-level strategies. In addition to basic word recognition and spelling, however, students need to have a deep understanding of word meaning. Rather than simply knowing the literal meaning of a new concept, it is important that students explore the multiple meanings of words, and how similar words differ from one another. The connotations of new words is also worthy of discussion, so that children understand the subtle differences in meaning between words such as request and demand or cold and frigid. These distinctions are particularly acute in content-area studies, in which new words are introduced with each topic studied. In science, for example, it is important for students to understand the differences between words such as opaque, translucent, and transparent, and to be able to read and spell long words such as photosynthesis. Children come to school with wide variations in their levels of vocabulary. Biemiller (2004) found a 4,000 word difference in root vocabulary knowledge by the end of Grade 2 between children in the highest vocabulary quartile and those in the lowest quartile. He attributed these large differences to factors such as levels of parental language support and encouragement, other language sources (e.g. caregivers, day care, preschool etc.), and child constitutional differences in the ease of acquiring new words. A related finding is the gap in vocabulary knowledge between economically disadvantaged and economically advantaged children that begins in preschool and persists through the school years (Blachowicz et al., 2006). Since vocabulary knowledge is one of the best predictors of reading comprehension, these studies point to the need to address word study in classrooms at all grade levels.

2.2.2.2 Instruction That Fosters the Growth of Word Knowledge:

There is a general agreement among researchers regarding instructional principles underlying effective word study. Rather than supporting rote learning and a reliance on a narrow range of instructional strategies, current research calls for instruction that meets the needs of the diverse learners in each classroom, and that encourages higher level thinking about language. Applying these principles in elementary classrooms is, however, challenging. These approaches rely upon teachers who have a deep knowledge base in language and who possess a range of

instructional skills related to word study in reading, spelling, and vocabulary. Vocabulary instruction has not been given high priority in pre-service, in-service, or graduate courses until very recently (Manzo, Manzo, & Thomas, 2006). Templeton (2004) also points to a lack of adequate professional development in the area of spelling instruction. He maintains that teachers have not been provided with the knowledge foundation or the type of instructional resources that support a Well-grounded and systematic scope and sequence for spelling. Templeton also calls for the integration of spelling and vocabulary instruction, especially in the middle and later grades.

2.2.2.3 The Role of Vocabulary Knowledge in Reading Comprehension:

Comprehension is an active process that requires intentional and thoughtful interaction between the reader and the text in order to understand what is being read (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Knowledge is essential for success in reading. Students cannot understand what they read without understanding what most of the words mean. Decades of research have confirmed the important role that vocabulary plays in reading comprehension and in students' overall academic success (Hiebert & Kamil, 2005). Yet there is an alarming word-knowledge gap between students who come from economically advantaged backgrounds and those who live in poverty (Hart & Risley, 1995). The differences in vocabulary knowledge begin before children enter school and without intervention-the gap grows even wider as students move from grade to grade.

Given the pivotal role of vocabulary, it is surprising that typically very little class time has been focused on vocabulary instruction; Researchers including Durkin (1979), Scott and Nagy (1997), and Biemiller (2005) have documented the small percent of instructional time dedicated to vocabulary teaching and the general absence of systematic, explicit vocabulary instruction. The same situation exists in programs serving English language learners (Dutro & Moran, 2003; Gersten & Baker, 2000)

In the past, vocabulary instruction was often unplanned and incidental, primarily driven by student questions and “teachable moments.” When students encountered an unfamiliar word, they were directed to the glossary or a dictionary, or were given a quick oral definition. It's not surprising that this limited, on-the-fly exposure did not result in long term Word learning. Students need multiple exposures to Words in multiple contexts before they understand, remember, and apply them (Nagy, 2005).

Dictionary definitions typically have been a primary vehicle for teaching Words' meanings. However, even proficient adult readers often have difficulty deciphering a word's meanings from conventional dictionary definitions. By design, dictionary definitions are extremely concise and precise. The result can be so cryptic that it's difficult to grasp a word's meanings or apply those meanings in context (Beck, et al., 2002).

In addition to relying on dictionary definitions, vocabulary instruction has usually placed a great deal of emphasis on using context to figure out word meanings. Context clues do support incidental Word learning, but it's important to recognize the limitations of contextual analysis. The odds of accurately predicting a word's meaning from written context is very low ranging from 5 to 15% for both native English speakers and students who are English language learners (Beck et al., 2002; Nagy et al., 1985).

While the probability of learning a word from a single encounter is low, Swan born and de Glosper (1999) found that students at higher grade levels and students with higher reading

ability are better able to use context. Graves (2006) sums up the descriptive research on learning from context;

"The probability of learning a word from context increases substantially with additional occurrences of the word. That is how we typically learn from context. We learn a little from the first encounter with a word and then more and more about a word's meaning as we meet it in new and different contexts".

2.2.2.4 How Word Knowledge Affects Reading Comprehension

Vocabulary knowledge is one of the best predictors of reading achievement (Richek, 2005). Bromley (2004), in a comprehensive review of research on vocabulary development, concludes that vocabulary knowledge promotes reading fluency, boosts reading comprehension, improves academic achievement, and enhances thinking and communication. Spelling is also an important consideration in reading comprehension. The concepts about sound patterns that children learn in the early years through invented spelling and direct spelling instruction help them to decode new words in their reading. As they mature and begin to spell longer and more complex words, children apply the concepts of base words, prefixes, and suffixes to their spelling.

This knowledge of morphology, in turn, helps them to deconstruct longer words encountered in their reading. Templeton (2004) argues that spelling knowledge provides the basis for explicit awareness and understanding of morphology, which, in turn, may guide the systematic growth of vocabulary knowledge. Considering the strength of vocabulary knowledge in predicting reading achievement, the complex interrelationships among these areas are significant. Stanovich (1986) describes the cumulative effect of poor reading and vocabulary skills.

Children who are poor readers usually also lack a wide vocabulary.

When young children struggle with reading, they quite naturally read less than their more able classmates, and therefore are exposed to fewer new words. This restriction on their vocabulary growth, in turn, makes progress in reading even harder. The effect of these deficits makes learning in general more difficult, and as children progress through the grades, the gap between skilled and less skilled readers becomes increasingly pronounced.

2.2.3 Reading for Meaning: Vocabulary Building Strategies

Reading forms the basis of one's study skills. An active learner pursues information on his or her own through reading. Class reading assignments provide a chance for students to practice all the skills they have learned.

Studying vocabulary increases word recognition. As students read, they recognize the meaning of Words and interpret the information in the text. The more they read the more new words they acquire and understand. This builds students vocabulary, makes reading become easier and faster, and raises students reading comprehension.

([http://www. Google.com/url?sa](http://www.Google.com/url?sa)) Graves and Anderson stated that there are four strategies to improve vocabulary for reading comprehension:

2.2.3.1 Context Clues:

Learning the meaning of Words from the context of your reading material can be the most useful strategy to increase your vocabulary comprehension using the context that surrounds an unknown Word helps to reveal its meaning. There are several different types of context clues that you can use to find the meaning of a word within the context of what you are reading. They are:

Definition: The author equates the unknown word to a Word that is known or more familiar to you, Example; Physiology is a branch of biology that deals with the functions and activities of life or of living matter (as organs, tissues, or cells).

Synonyms: The author pairs the unknown word with a synonym or other closely related words.

Example: The President’s wife possessed the traits of a promising leader: wisdom, judgment, and Sagacity.

Comparison Clues: Often an unfamiliar word is used in a comparison with a familiar word. Your knowledge of the familiar word may help you figure out the meaning of the new one.

Example: The thatch in the roof was as likely to burn as any other straw.

Another example of a comparison clue is the use of an appositive. An appositive uses two adjacent nouns that refer to the same thing. For example, using the words poet and Burns adjacent to each other in the phrase “a biography of the poet Burns” helps define both words.

Contrast Clue: In a comparison clue, you learn that a new word is like a known word. In a contrast clue, you learn that a new word is a different from the known word.

Example: At night the street was pacific, unlike the crowded, noisy chaos it was during the day.

Examples in Context: You can predict the meaning of an unfamiliar word when it is used with an example of a familiar word.

Example: At the show we saw magicians, ventriloquists, and other performers.

Inferring Meaning Context: The author sets a mood (ironic, serious, funny, etc.) in which the meaning of the unknown word can be hypothesized.

Example: The tormented lion roared in pain as he tried to escape from his captors.

2.2.3.2 Word Structure:

Sometimes a word can give clues to the meaning in its structure. Analyzing the word’s structure and properties is a ‘vocabulary strategy that you can use to figure out the word’s meaning. When you approach an unknown word you can guess at its meaning by breaking down the parts of the word.

Longer words can be some of the most difficult to figure out, hut they can be put into categories that will help you.

- **Compound words:** are two known words joined together.

Examples: matchmaker, book keeper.

- Words that contain a familiar stem to which an affix (prefix or suffix) has been added.

Examples: microscope, tasteless.

- Words that can be broken down into regular pronounceable parts.

Example: subterfuge, strangulate.

- Words that contain irregular pronounceable parts so that there is no clear pronunciation.

Examples: louver, indictment.

2.2.3.3 Word Mapping:

A vocabulary word map is a graphic organizer that helps you think about new words or concepts in several ways. To build a word map, start by entering the new word in the middle of the map. Then, fill in the rest of the map with a definition, synonyms, antonyms, and a picture to help illustrate the new word. See the example below. The only drawback with this strategy is the time that it will take to complete, you could not use this for all the words that you are learning or having trouble with.

2.2.3.4 Visual Imaging:

When you use visual imaging, you think of a word that either looks like or sounds like the word whose meaning you are trying to learn. Thinking of the picture of the look-alike word and/or image will help you remember the word and its meaning.

For example, the word potable means suitable for drinking. You can break the Word down to a familiar word, pot. You can then associate the Word pot with something you can put in it, such as Water. When you see the new Word potable you will picture a pot with water for drinking and remember that the Word potable means something suitable for drinking.

2.3 Guidelines for Teaching Vocabulary

Learning words does not occur in a vacuum; that is, children do not acquire meanings of words in isolation. All learning—both personal and academic—occurs within the sociocultural environment of the home, community, and classroom. “Literacy is a social practice, so students learn academic vocabulary through social interactions as members of the learning community” (Scott, Nagy, & Flinspach, 2008, p. 197). Therefore, effective teachers of language and literacy provide practices that stimulate rich uses of language, designing their instructional programs within a social context that promotes literacy learning.

Teachers know that students who are learning to read and write and those who are reading to learn—that is, learning in content areas—will benefit from a sound instructional vocabulary program. This is especially true for classrooms where children have small vocabularies and are English language learners. Knowledge of words is acquired incidentally, where vocabulary is developed through immersion in language activities. Words are also learned through direct instruction, where students learn words through a structured approach. Thus, vocabulary programs should be designed to support children’s word learning through a combination of approaches to teaching, direct instruction, and incidental word learning. Michael Graves (2006) offers a framework for successful vocabulary programs that supports effective teaching and students’ development of word knowledge. The foundation of his instructional program includes a four-part approach to developing robust vocabularies: (1) Provide rich and varied language experiences, (2) teach individual words, (3) teach word-learning strategies, and (4) foster word consciousness (pp. 4–8).

2.2.5.1 Providing Rich and Varied Language Experiences:

Incidental word learning takes place when teachers offer and encourage students to participate in a variety of rich language experiences that occur throughout the day and across the curriculum. Examples of such experiences that promote rich and powerful vocabularies at all grade levels include

(1) interactive read-aloud of outstanding children’s literature, (2) dialogic-based instructional activities, (3) independent reading, (4) interactive writing, and (5) creating a print-rich environment where the “walls are dripping with words.”

2.2.5.2 Teaching Individual Words:

Although many words may be learned incidentally and vocabularies do become stronger when they are supported with a language-rich environment, children benefit from systematic and direct instruction of words. The research is clear with respect to effective teaching of words (Graves, 2006). Vocabulary instruction should (1) provide students with information that contains the context as well as the meaning of the word, (2) design instruction that engages students and allows sufficient time for word learning, (3) make sure students have multiple exposures to the words with review and practice, and (4) create a dialogue around the words.

2.2.5.3 Teaching Word-learning Strategies:

An important aspect of developing students' robust vocabularies is teaching them tools to unlock the meaning of unknown words. The most effective tools use the context of the surrounding words or sentences to infer the meaning of a word, using meaningful word parts to make sense out of the unknown word and using the dictionary effectively to help define an unknown word.

2.2.5.4 Building Word Consciousness in Readers and Writers:

An important aspect of a strong vocabulary program is to engage students in learning new words. As teachers, we need to develop word consciousness within our students and maintain their interest in words. Graves and Watts-Taffe (2008) suggest that teachers “(1) create a word-rich environment, (2) recognize and promote adept diction, (3) promote word play, (4) foster word consciousness through writing, (5) involve students in original investigations, and (6) teach students about words” (p. 186).

2.2.6 Vocabulary Teaching and Learning:

Vocabulary learning used to be seen as minor to language acquisition. Linguistic theorists considered vocabulary learning as a simple functional- associative model and the focus was on the quantity (Piu, 2005). Passing through decades of neglect from 1940 to 1970 (Fries, 1945; Lade, 1955; Carter, 1988 & Laufer, 1986), vocabulary is now recognized as central to both native language acquisition and non- native language learning (Allen, 1983; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Laufer, 1977, & Nation 1990). The emphasis on vocabulary might result from the significant role of vocabulary in language learning and teaching as a major factor in the four language skills and general language proficiency (Laufer & Shmueli, 1997). Thus, it is not surprising to find that the role of vocabulary is somewhat major throughout the whole of the Sudanese school education. The term “vocabulary” and the instructions on how vocabulary should be taught and learnt are discussed thoroughly. The emphasis is to help learners acquire sufficient and adequate vocabulary knowledge to express their ideas effectively. In addition, much attention is drawn to the teaching of grammar, culture and the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The result of this interest in vocabulary teaching and learning is reflected in the Sudan Secondary School Certificate Examination. Students are usually tested in a separate section and in other section such as comprehension and grammar. The same interest in vocabulary is seen in other EFL environments. For example, Chen (2000) presented that the Ministry of Education in Taiwan in 1994 promulgated some guidelines for editors and teachers to follow. The most specific criteria set by the MOE were about vocabulary such as suggesting the number of vocabulary occurring in each lesson and each volume. Moreover, the MOE offered a 2000-word vocabulary list for junior high school. This is also followed in Japan. Bowles (2000) mentioned that the Japanese Ministry of Education (hereafter: Monbusho) in 1998 provided guidelines for the objectives of teaching English. Monbusho's EFL pedagogical objectives were quite clear. They called for developing the “four language skills”: listening, speaking, reading and writing in current Standard English. The guidelines also included a prescribed list of 507 most common words required for inclusion in secondary school EFL textbooks. In addition, Calixto (2000) reported that the PCN (National Curriculum Parameters) required teaching English in primary and secondary schools in Brazil within the ability of reading and vocabulary knowledge. Finally, Hill (2005) mentioned that secondary school learners in Hong Kong should make their vocabulary levels close to 2000 words by the end of school. She added that this was the minimum goal for HKCEE (Hong Kong Examination & Assessment Authority) level students.

2.2.7 Criteria for Vocabulary Selection in Materials:

English has around 114,000 word families which were counted in a study conducted by Goulden, Nation and Read (1990). This number excludes proper names in Webster's Third New International Dictionary. The huge number is well beyond the goals of most first language learners. Consequently, the question of which words students should learn and in what order has traditionally been regarded as a matter for teachers and material writers rather than the learners themselves (Baker, 2007)

Research has focused on using word – specific criteria to help teachers make choices about what items to teach to which students at various levels of study (Savard & Richards, 1969; Salter, 2002; O'dell, 2005; White, 1998; & Davies & Face, 2006). However, the following have been found in the literature:

1. Frequency of use: high frequency words.
2. Coverage: word with a broader coverage
3. Range: words found in different text types.
4. Availability: words easy available to native speaker.
5. Learnability: easy words.
6. Opportunism: words connected with learners' immediate situation.
7. Centers of interest: word interesting to learners.
8. Gradation: sequencing the materials.

This study will focus on frequency, coverage and gradation and the other criteria mentioned above will be excluded concerning frequency and coverage, Savicky & Hlavacova (2002) stressed that the most frequent, 2000 words are essential for any real language use, and so are worth the effort and the time required to teach and learn them explicitly. It is promising and comforting that knowing about the 2000 word families provides nearly 80 percent coverage of written text and round 96 percent coverage of informal spoken text (Nation, 1995). The 2000 words are decisive and help full in a sense that if learners know these words, they will know a large number of running words in a text as they provide the essential lexical support for students (Schmitt, 2000; Lee, 2001 & Nation & Waring, 1997). In addition, Schonell, Medderton, & Shaw (1956) found that people regularly use about, 2000 words in their daily conversation. They found that the, 2000 words could satisfy interactions with native speakers on everyday topics. As for gradation, Wilkins (1978) raised the idea that learning could be made easier if some order could be brought to the business of deciding what language items to include and what sequence they should be placed.

As for availability and opportunism, they will be covered through frequency. Range; learn ability and centers of interest will be excluded from the study for the following reasons. Range is connected with words in written materials where as this study will focus only on words list (glossaries). Learn ability focuses on what goes through the learners' mind which isn't our concern a case in this study. Family, centers of interest are some sing personal. This study isn't interest because we are talking about vocabulary in school text books. To evaluate vocabulary selection, it's important to depend on frequency as first criterion.

2.2.7.1 Word Frequency

Frequency has been used in the past as a basis for selecting words for inclusion in concise dictionaries and in vocabulary lists second language courses (Hernandez, Izura & Ellis, 2006). The most frequent items are the most useful (Saint & Poirier, 2005 & Salter, 2002). More clearly, Nation (2003) provided a very simple but practical description when he mentioned that the most useful vocabulary that every English language learner needs whether they use the

language for listening, speaking, reading, or writing, or whether they use the language in formal and informal situation, is the most frequent, 1000 word families of English. Nation (2008) further explained that these 1000 word families are so important and useful that they cover around 75 percent of the running words in academic texts and newspapers, over 80 percent of the running words in novels and about 85 percent of running words in conversation. The most useful list in the second, 1000 words of English. Carter (1998) raised the idea that these findings have shed light on the number of vocabulary items learners need to know and given rise to the concept of 'core' vocabulary for English.

In addition, Feather & Brown (2005) noted that adult beginning readers often wanted to learn to read so they could read the Bible. To address this source of motivation, the researchers attempted to identify a sight word list that include high-frequency words often encountered in the Bible. When they found only one such list, they decided to create one of their own. They used Microsoft Excel to create a list of the fifty most-frequently occurring words in the young Reader's Bible, a version they believed would be appropriate for adult beginning readers.

Furthermore, Liu & Sloane (2006) used word frequency to select a list of target words to create a generative language system in Augmentative and Alternative communication (AAC) for both literate and non-literate user and non-literate users. This was an important problem because the selection of the encoded vocabulary would ultimately determine the language coverage of the AAC system. The vocabulary list should contain the most frequency used the vocabulary of the spoken language.

However, other research uses word frequency list to evaluate the level of word frequency in materials. For example, Tang (2005) conducted a research project to investigate the richness and the nature of the lexical input from two sets of English text books for the six-year primary and four sets of major English text books used for the three-year junior secondary level in Hong Kong's study was comprehensive because the analysis covered the nine-year lexical input from primary education to junior secondary level from major textbooks. Tang's study focused on examining the frequency of the words, repetition of word between grades and the lexical variation (LV) ratio of the text books. The research used Vocab-Profile (VP) to analyze the frequency of the vocabulary items of the text books. The results have shown that the textbooks had sufficient high frequency words which enabled students to communicate effectively.

Piu (2005) evaluated the vocabulary in some samples of three series of locally produce English text books at secondary level in Taiwan against a set of criteria in vocabulary selection which were frequency utility, range and economy. The on line software 'Vocab-profiler) and 'Range' were used to check the information about the frequency and range of the key words taken from the vocabulary sections in the text books. The results have shown that the two series of the text books out of three contained vocabulary of high frequency. As a result, the level of the difficulty of the words would be low. However, the third series of the text books under study contained vocabulary of low pedagogical value-low frequent words which were insufficient for learners to continue their studies at senior secondary level or university. Consequently, the researcher concluded that the level of difficulty of the words would be high.

Meara (1993) evaluated the lexical component of a popular BBC English course. The course vocabulary items were analyzed by VP and it was found that all the words, learners would be exposed to, came from the first 1,000 most frequent level and this did not change as the course moved through the levels from beginner to intermediate.

Recent research using text book samples indicated that common core vocabulary among introductory text books was not very large. Griggs, Johnson & Proctor (2004) analyzed the glossaries of current introductory text books to identify the set of common core concepts using 2 criteria, common to more than 50% and to 80% or more of the text books. Teachers could use these 2 sets of core concepts to help structure their introduction courses

In conclusion, word frequency research describes the creation of high-frequency word lists that can be used in teaching. On the other hand, it evaluates the level of the word frequency in material to determine the level of difficulty of words. According to Mackey & Savard (1967), the word frequency lists can be used by researchers seeking to control word frequency, and to teachers interested in the vocabulary to which learners are exposed in their reading material. Teaching the words from frequency list will benefit learners and facilitate their progress in learning. As a result, we will see whether the Sudanese English text books include low or high frequency words as it does in the English text books in other contexts. To evaluate word selection, it's necessary to depend not only on the level of word frequency but also on words coverage.

2.2.7.2 Word Coverage:

Mackey & Savard (1967) mentioned that word coverage has to do with the capacity of an item to take the place of others. The most usual replacements take place by restatement in other words. This is what happens in dictionary definition. We can say, for example, that 'a puppy' a young dog ' and that ' a kitten ' is ' a young cat ' , so that ' young ' covers part of ' puppy' and ' kitten' . Definition, therefore, is obviously one of the constituents of coverage.

A second way of replacing a word is to use another word instead. Instead of 'conflagration', for example, we can use the word 'fire' This is the sort of replacement found in certain dictionaries synonyms. Since one word includes the meaning or part of the meaning of another word, inclusion is another constituent of coverage.

A third way of replacing a word is to extend the meaning of a simpler word. By extending the meaning of the word "body", for example, to include the idea of "framework", we replace the word "fuselage" when speaking of "airplanes".

A fourth constituent is combination, or combining power. A word which can combine with a larger number of items can be used to replace a large number of words. "Newspaperman" (news+ paper+ man) replaces "journalists".

The criterion of word coverage captures the interest of research. There have been some attempts to create indices of coverage. For example Mackey & Savard (1967) presented a list that measured the capacity of 3,000 words of the French vocabulary to define, extend the meaning of, or to replace other words. The researchers hoped that these indices might be valuable in providing additional measures of the coverage of what was taught and perhaps in helping improve some of the basic lists which are now being employed. Other research attempts the lexical coverage in materials to evaluate the level of difficulty of the words. For junior secondary (1-3 grades) in Hong Kong, in order to investigate the lexical coverage of the text books, the research project was designed to

1. compile a small text book corpus, and
2. investigate the nature of the lexical input using two dictionaries. The first one was the Longman Dictionary Defining vocabulary from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 4th edition and the second ESL dictionary word list was the Oxford Dictionary. Results have shown that the users of the text books were exposed to a reasonable high proportion of words that were in the coverage lists of the two dictionaries (80%) . This word decrease the level

of word difficulty. Therefore, the books were useful as they contained words that covered the meaning of other words.

In conclusion, word coverage is an area of interest in the selection of items for language teaching. The focus of research is either on producing lists of word coverage or evaluating word coverage in materials. In addition to frequency and coverage, gradation is the third criterion for vocabulary selection.

3. The Study Design and Methodology

The researcher will carry out this study using the descriptive analytical method. This method is very useful and beneficial for investigating a variety of educational problems

3.1 Introduction:

In this part, the researcher is going to discuss the methodology of the research, the population of the study, the sample of the study, the methods of data collection and the procedures.

3.2 The Population of the Study:

This study is based on evaluating the vocabulary items of grade two and grade three at the secondary level. It is a case study in spine five and spine six. So, the study population of this study will be the students of the 2nd and the 3rd grades at the secondary level in Wad Madani Greater Locality. The sample will be selected randomly using simple random sampling procedure. Also, all English language teachers in Wad Madani Greater Locality belong to the population.

3.3 The Sample of the Study:

The sample of this study will be 600 male and female pupils from grade two and grade three of the secondary level. The sample will be selected randomly using the clustered [groups] sampling method. The sample also includes fifty English language teachers who will be selected randomly to fill in the questionnaire.

Table 3.4.1 Population and Sample of the study

	Male	Female	Total	sample	percent
2 nd grade students	2.973	3.221	7.194	300	4.17
3 rd grade students	3.562	4.324	7.886	300	3.80
Teachers	59	159	218	50	22.9 %

3.4 Tools of Data Collection:

The researcher will use both primary sources and secondary sources of data collection. The researcher will use a test to collect primary data. The test is made up of 25 questions. It is composed of two types of questions: multiple choice questions and subjective questions. In the multiple choice questions, the students must choose the correct answer from the given options. Concerning the subjective questions, the students have to write the correct word in the space provided.

The second tool, for collecting primary data, is the questionnaire. It is designed for English language teachers to give their opinions in the evaluation of the vocabulary items of spine 5 and spine 6. The questionnaire will compose of 14 items and is a five scale questionnaire. The questionnaire will be distributed for thirty three English language teachers who have been teaching English language for grade two and grade three of the secondary level in Wad Madani Greater Locality. The teachers should be teaching the mentioned grades for at least three years and they should be male and female teachers.

3.5.1 Validity:

The validity of the test and the questionnaire will be judged by three English language teachers. The validity was definitely be checked by many specialists. The tests are valid as they suit the level of the students according to the textbook designers' point of view. The questionnaire validity has been tested statically by analysing ten of the responses of teachers. The results reflected that the validity of the questionnaire is 95%.

3.5.2 Reliability:

The tests are reliable because the tests questions have been taken from previous tests which prepared for the students of grade two and three. Those tests were prepared by expert test designers and well qualified teachers. Also, the tests have been judged by expert English Language teachers and this research supervisor. It's reliable: it keeps giving the same result for the same person even though it was administered by different people. Moreover, the tests reliability is achieved because of the following: the tests measure what it is supposed to measure, the tests formats are familiar to the learners because they have taken such a test before, the instructions and way of answering are the same in all versions of the test, and the marking uses a marking key and criteria that take account of most possible variations in answering.

Regarding the questionnaire reliability, it has been done statically by analysing the responses of ten teachers. The results showed that the reliability of the questionnaire is 90 %.

3.6 Procedures:

The researcher used the following tools to collect the needed data: vocabulary level tests, teachers' questionnaire, General Service List, Thorndike & Lorge's Frequency List, The Academic Word List Level to determine word frequency level, and Coverage List in Longman Dictionary to assess the ability of the word to replace another one. The analysis of the collected data aimed to show the level of difficulty of the target vocabulary, the gradation of the vocabulary items from Spine 5 to Spine 6, and the evaluation of the new word percentage in the reading text to the total number of the words in the same reading text.

3.7 Questionnaire Preparation:

The questionnaire was designed form positive and negative statements which were set to be answered by English language teachers. The questions were set to find answer for the research questions. For Examples, statement No.8 "Teachers' definitions of the new words are not suitable" helps in finding answers to question No. 4 .The validity of the questionnaire was judged by three English language teachers. The validity was definitely be checked by many specialists. The questionnaire validity has been tested statically by analysing ten of the responses of teachers. The results reflected that the validity of the questionnaire is 95%.

4. Data Analysis and Discussion:

4.1 Introduction

In this part, the researcher will show the results of the study statistically. As mentioned in the third chapter, the researcher used many different procedures to analyse the collected data. The main purpose behind analyzing the data is to find adequate and valid results in order to answer the research questions raised in chapter one. Moreover, the outcomes or the results will help the researcher to draw the conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further studies for this study.

4.2 Analysis of the New Words in Spine 5 and 6:

4.2.1. Analysis of the Frequency Levels:

Table 4.2.1 Numbers and percentages of frequency levels of new words in Spine 5 and 6

Textbooks	No. & % in the range of 1000	No. & % in the range of 2000	No. & % in the range of 3000	No. & % in the range of 4000	No. & % in the range of 5000	No. & % aren't in the 1 st 5000	Total
Spine 5	56 12,78	69 15,18	167 36,98	116 25,38	29 6,34	20 4,37	457 100 %
Spine 6	25 19,68	22 17,32	40 31,49	25 19,68	10 7,87	5 3,93	127 100 %

Table 4.2.1 above shows that more than half of the new word in spine 5 is in the 3000 and 4000 levels (36,98; 25,38). The table also shows that half of the new words in spine 6 is in the 3000 and 4000 levels (31,49; 19,68).

2. 2.2. Analysis of the Academic Word Level:

Table 4.2.2 Numbers and percentages of the new words of spine 5 and 6 that appear in the AWL.

Textbooks	No. & % of New words in AWL	No. & % of New words not in AWL	Total
Spine 5	65 14,22	392 85,78	457 100 %
Spine 6	21 16,54	106 83,46	127 100 %

It is clear that the number of the academic words in both spine five and spine six is very limited. Regarding spine 5, results show that there are only 65 (14,22 %) words that are found in the AWL. Likewise, results show that spine 6 has only 21 (16,54) words in the AWL.

4.2.3. Measuring the Coverage of the New Vocabulary:

Table 4.2.3. Number and percentages of the new words in spine 5 and 6 that appear in the coverage list of Longman Dictionary.

Textbooks	No. & % of new Words in the coverage list	No. & % of new Words not in the coverage list	Total
Spine 5	168 36,76	289 63,24	457 100 %
Spine 6	31 24,40	96 75, 60	127 100 %

The results in the table above show that 36,76 % of the new words in spine 5 is in the coverage list whereas 63.24 % of the new words is not included in the coverage list. Results also show that 24, 40 % of the words in spine 6 is included in the coverage list while 75, 60 % of the words is not included in the Longman Dictionary Defining Coverage List.

4.2.4 Analysis of the Word Density in Spine 5 & 6 Reading Texts:

Table 4.2.4 Summary of Word density in all reading texts of spine 5 & 6

Textbooks	No. of texts	Total No. of all words in texts	No. of new words in texts	ratio of new words in texts

Spine 5	41	10.423	457	4.38 %
Spine 6	23	7.924	127	1.60 %

Table 4.2.4 shows that the norm of word density in spine five is 4.38 % which is higher than the recommended norm (2%). On the other hand, the norm of word density in spine 6 is 1.60 %. It is below the recommended norm.

4.2.5 Numbers and Percentages of Teachers' Definitions of New Words in Relation to Grice's Maxims:

Maxim	In line with Maxim	Not in line with Maxim	Total
Quantity	37 (56,9 %)	28 (43,1%)	65
Relation	42 (64,6 %)	23 (35,4%)	65
Manner	25 (38,5 %)	40 (61,5%)	65
Clarity	27 (41,5 %)	38 (58,5%)	65
Brevity	26 (40 %)	39 (60 %)	65

The above table shows the numbers and percentages of the sample of teachers' definitions of the vocabulary items of spine 5.

4.2.6 Distribution of the Grammatical Categories of New Words of Spine 5 & 6:

Textbook	Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Prepositions	Total
Spine 5	291	55	110	1	0	457
	63.68 %	12.04 %	24.07 %	0.21 %	0 %	100 %
Spine 6	64	39	23	0	1	127
	50.39 %	30.71 %	18.11 %	0 %	0.79 %	100 %

Table 4.2.6 shows the distribution of the grammatical categories of spine 5 and 6.

According to the Oxford Dictionary the distribution of the grammatical categories should be as follow: nouns 50 %, adjectives 25 %, verbs 14 %, adverbs 6 % and finally prepositions 2 %.

From the statistics shown in the table above, it is clear that the distribution of the grammatical categories in spine five and six respectively is as follow: nouns (63.68 %; 50.39 %), adjectives (12.04 %; 30.71 %), verbs (24.07 %; 18.11%), and adverbs (0.21 %; 0.00 %), and finally the prepositions (0 %; 0.79 %).

4.2.7 Analysis of the Questionnaire Results:

5 Conclusions:

This research is carried out to evaluate the new vocabulary elements of the reading texts in Spine five and Spine six English textbooks in the secondary level. The main objective of this study is to evaluate the vocabulary items of the criteria of vocabulary selection in materials, word density, and the definition of the vocabulary items given by teachers, students' vocabulary levels and the distribution of the grammatical categories.

5.1 Introduction:

This part is divided into four sections: the first section gives a summary for the main findings of the study. The second section, which is the recommendations, shows what can be carried out to analyse the vocabulary items of spine six and spine 6.

5.2 The Main Findings:

In general, the results showed that second and third grade students in the secondary level faced great difficulties in understanding the meaning of the new vocabulary words of the reading text. Besides, results also showed that the students found it difficult to understand and answer comprehension texts questions which involved the use of some new vocabulary items. Those difficulties were related to these major findings: the criteria of vocabulary selection in materials, word density, and the definition of the vocabulary items given by teachers, students' vocabulary levels and the distribution of the grammatical categories.

1. On the subject of vocabulary selection, Spine five and Spine six provide (especially spine 5) an insufficient input in terms of high frequency words. Spine 5 textbook contains few percentages on the first and second thousand levels (12, 78 %; 15.18 %). This result does not match the initial vocabulary learning for the junior learners as indicated by Chew (2007) and Nation (2008). They both stated that the learning goal for junior learners is to learn a large number of words in the first and second thousand levels. Concerning Spine 6, results show that it has reasonable percentages in the first and second thousands (19, 68 %; 17, 32). Results also show that Spine 5 has a high percentage of words on the 3000 and 4000 levels (36, 98 %; 25, 38%). On the other hand, results also show that Spine 6 has a high percentage of words on the 3000 and 4000 levels. Moreover, results show that Spine 5 and Spine 6 have nearly equal percentages in the range of words of 5000 words (6, 34; 7, 87).

Referring to the results mentioned above, it is obvious that the percentages of frequency levels in Spine 5 and Spine 6 do not match the systematic order that words should be learned as learners at this level should learn more words in the first and second thousand frequency levels than 4000 and 4000 and above word levels.

2. Coverage is another principle for vocabulary selection in materials. Statistical results show that less than half of words in both Spine 5 and Spine 6 are included in the Longman Dictionary Defining Coverage List (36,76; 24;40). This indicates that Spine 5 and Spine 6 textbooks include a low portion of words in the coverage list. As a result, the students of second and third secondary level are exposed to a very low portion of the 2000 words in the coverage list.

3. Regarding the gradation of the vocabulary items from Spine 5 to Spine 6, results show that the distribution of the new words in Spine 5 and Spine 6 does not grow successively..

4. With reference to lexical density, it has been found that the relation of the unknown words to the known in Spine 5 textbook is 4, 38 % whereas it is 1.60 % in Spine 6. This indicates that the students of the second grade face difficulty in understanding the reading comprehension passages because the ratio is above the norm recommended by experts (2%). Chen (2000) said that the high word density would make students lose learning interest.

5. On the topic of teachers' definitions of the new words it is found that they fit with the Grice's Maxims of quality and relation. (64.6) of the definition are related and (56,9) adequate. (38, 5) of the definitions are in line with Maxims manner in contrast with (61.5) To be more precise (41,5) of the teachers' definitions are clear in contrast with (58.5) and (40 %) of the definitions are brief in contrast with (60 %).

6. The evaluation of the students' vocabulary level shows that the students face great problems in answering vocabulary questions. Those problems are attributed to the difficulty of vocabulary items or inadequate teaching or training.

7. Regarding the distribution of the grammatical categories, results show that the overall distribution of the grammatical categories in Spine 5 and Spine 6 do not represent a natural sample. This great mismatch might refer to the interest of the syllabus designers.

6.3 Recommendation

In the light of the above findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following recommendations which can be addressed to the following:

6.3.1 For the Syllabus Designers

1. Syllabus designers should have a thorough grasp of the increasing development in the field of vocabulary. So their decisions will be well-informed about what words to be selected for inclusion in the textbooks.
2. Syllabus designers should include the target or standard percentages of the low and high frequency words in the textbooks.
3. Syllabus designers should choose texts with lower level of word density to be included in the textbooks in general and comprehension texts in particular.
4. Syllabus designers should supply each textbook of the Spine series and even each reading text with a glossary. So students will get better understanding especially for the reading comprehension texts.
5. Syllabus designers should provide the textbooks with the standard percentages of the grammatical categories according to the natural sample in the Oxford Dictionary.
6. Syllabus designers should prepare and publish practice books for more practice for the reading texts and vocabulary items.
7. Syllabus designers should supplement the Spine series with CDs or cassettes to improve and reinforce the listening skills among the students. In turn, this will help in learning and understanding vocabulary.

6.3.2 For the Ministry of Education:

1. Ministry of education administrators should hold training sessions and workshops for teachers in teaching methods in general and teaching vocabulary in particular.
2. Ministry of education administrators should also hold about workshops to inform teachers the importance of referring to dictionaries by both teachers and students.
3. Ministry of education should provide schools with teaching aids especially for teaching new vocabulary items.

6.3.3 For Teachers:

1. Teachers should use communicative method to help increasing the students' vocabulary.
2. Teachers should encourage students to do more practice on vocabulary and reading texts.
3. Teachers should involve students in vocabulary activities to expand the size of vocabulary. These activities include role play, retelling (stories), note-making, paragraph writing, essay writingetc. High frequency words should be taught explicitly and teachers should expose students to low frequency words through activities.
4. Teachers should keep the issue of word density in mind when guiding students in choosing extra materials for extensive reading.
5. Teachers should make their definitions of vocabulary items in line with relevance, clarity, brevity and quantity.
6. Teachers should test their students' achievement and interpret the tests' results to see where students stand in their vocabulary development. This information is then used to plan future teaching to motivate learning and help individual learners.
7. Teachers should encourage students to use dictionaries because this will help effectively in learning and building vocabulary.

6.3.4 For Students:

1. Students should find way out to build the target vocabulary in the reading comprehension texts.
2. Students should take the significance of building good vocabulary on consideration and belief, because to master English one first should know thousands of lexical items.
3. Students should revise the vocabulary items they learn in lower classes to decrease the ratio of unknown words.
4. Students should take care of the meanings of words, spelling and usage of words in meaningful grammatical sentences.
5. Students should read and summarize short stories to learn and reinforce vocabulary items.
6. Students should keep a portfolio for writing new words to read and think a lot of vocabulary as something to be acquired daily.
7. Students should use the target vocabulary in essay writing in order to reinforce vocabulary items.

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