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THEME: PRESENTING VOCABULARY: USING CORPUS DATA FOR PEDAGOGICAL PURPOSES

GRADUATE QUALIFICATION WORK

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Introduction.

After getting the Independence the Republic of Uzbekistan has worked out an own model of development, taking into account the specific social and political traditions in the country. One of the most important conditions for the development of any country is a well functioning education system ensures the formation of a highly developed that must be able to live highly, with social and personal activity ability to function independently in the public and political life.

By 1997 on the basis of the National Model of development there had been worked out the national program for Personal Training which defined conceptional ways and concentrate details, mechanisms for radical reforming the education system and personnel training.

The program is the normative scientific basis for reforms. Starting from 1997 it is being put into practice stage by stage. The document paves the way for radical in the structure and content of education system of the National Program we need to change some ways of teaching the English language under school conditions as the old approaches longer meet the requirements of the last year. The historic changes took place in Uzbekistan since there have been obtained. Independence and sovereignty after September 1991, in Independent Uzbekistan many political, economical, cultural and social factors have changed. Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of the republic I. A. Karimov attended to change Educational System and the attempts reflected on changing in Educational System in 1997, the Educational System and personnel. Training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirements of democratic and marked changes occurred in the Republic today.

It should be noted that the National Program of personnel training had some unique features. The reforms are carried out on a extensive scale and are supported

scientifically.

As the president I. A. Karimov emphasized in his book "Uzbekistan along the road of independence and progress" there are four path of reform and development is based:

- Adherence to universal human values;
- Consolidated and development of the nation's spiritual heritage;
- Freedom for the individuals realization;
- Patriotism.

The highest objective of reformation in Uzbekistan is to revive those traditions, fill them with new content and set up all necessary conditions achieving peace and democracy, prosperity, cultural advancement freedom of conscience and intellectual maturity for every person on earth.

According to the requirement on the National Program of personnel training and reforming of highest education in the Republic of Uzbekistan it is important to make effective changes in the System of Higher Education. As I. A. Karimov highlighted "Our young generation must be quick-cutter, wiser, healthier and of course, must be happier than us." In order to achieve "Harmoniously developed generation" education should use all the suitable aids.

The graduate qualification work under discussion is devoted to teaching and learning vocabulary and strategies in teaching good vocabulary. The research work presented the ways of presenting vocabulary: teaching academic vocabulary with corpora: data-driven learning in second language acquisition, history of corpus linguistics, corpora in linguistic research and language teaching, data-driven learning (DDL) and vocabulary instruction, the ways of illustrate meaning and form of the vocabulary, the ways of involving the learners into the learning process. Besides, the work depicts learner training strategies and techniques, where using mnemonics and word cards in learning vocabulary, guessing vocabulary from context, key skills involved in effective dictionary use, the importance of spelling in learning vocabulary and keeping records were discussed. In addition to all mentioned things applying different activities in teaching vocabulary were

suggested to the readers of the target research work. In this chapter the author of the work proposed different decision making tasks: identifying, selecting, matching, sorting, ranking and sequencing, besides production tasks such as completion, gap-fills, multiple-choice tasks, using games in teaching vocabulary were also mentioned.

"Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed." This is how linguist David Wilkins summed up the importance of vocabulary learning. His view is echoed in this advice to students: "If you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve much. You will see most improvement if you learn more more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words!"

Most learners, too, acknowledge the importance of vocabulary acquisition. However, vocabulary teaching has not always been very responsive to such problems, and teachers have not fully recognized the tremendous communicative advantage in developing an extensive vocabulary. The target research work penetrates with the stages of presenting vocabulary, as for presentation, we mean those pre-planned lesson stages in which learners are taught pre-selected vocabulary items. Of course, incidental vocabulary teaching can occur at other times of the lesson, as when a text or a discussion throws up unfamiliar vocabulary. learners need to learn both the meaning and the form of a new word.

The greater the gap between the presentation of a word's form and its meaning, the less likely that the learner will make a mental connection between the two. The number of new words presented should not overstretch the learners' capacity to remember them, nor should the presentation extend so far into the lesson that no time is available to put the words to work. Having decided on the number of items to teach, there is then the choice of the **sequence** of presentation, either: meaning first, then form, or form first, then meaning. There is an argument that presenting the meaning first creates a need for the form, opening the appropriate mental 'files', and making the presentation both more efficient and more memorable. On the other hand, 'form first' presentation works best when the

words are presented in some kind of context, so that the learners can work out the meaning for themselves.

Since the mid-1960's, linguists have been using computerized corpora, or large principled collections of electronic texts, to facilitate descriptive analyses of language. In those early years, using corpora to study language (corpus linguistics) was little more than a technology. However, over the years, corpus linguists, as they have come to be called, have outlined principles to justify how and why this technology can be used by linguists. As a result, corpus linguistics has developed into a methodology within the field of linguistics. One of the primary principles which corpus linguists assert is that the study of language should be primarily an empirical endeavor and descriptions and theories of language should be based on the systematic observation of actual language behavior.

The earliest uses of corpora were largely restricted to research. However, advancements in computer technology have permitted greater access to corpora. This democratization of technology has lead to an explosion of research by linguists of every persuasion who have realized the remarkable potential of corpora and accompanying software to facilitate and supplement most linguistic studies.

At the same time many linguists were becoming interested in using corpora to do linguistic research, which lead to many new avenues of linguistic enquiry and more complete and accurate descriptions of language structure and use than ever before, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) arrived as the dominant paradigm for teaching second and foreign languages in the U.S. in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Because this approach emphasized exposing learners to authentic language in context, gave form-focused instruction a warranted place in the curriculum, and encouraged the use of inductive learning techniques where appropriate, linguists soon began to see the overlap between the methods used by corpus linguists to discover facts about language and the principles of teaching second languages within the CLT paradigm. As a result, linguists who were also language instructors began experimenting with using corpora directly with language learners in the classroom to facilitate language acquisition.

Corpora had been indirectly contributing to language instruction through their use in the creation of reference materials and textbooks for some time before Tim Johns, one of the first advocates for giving language learners direct access to corpus data, began criticizing these materials for keeping learners a step removed from the data. Johns felt that learners could benefit more from corpora by becoming language researchers themselves and analyzing the language data from a corpus first hand, a technique he named "Data-driven learning" (DDL).

Data-driven learning (DDL) is the use in the classroom of computer-generated concordances to help students explore patterns in the target language, and the creation of activities and exercises based on concordance output. Over the years, enthusiasm for using DDL and concordance output in the classroom with language learners has grown. Today, although there are a limited number of empirical studies outlining a clear connection between DDL and improved learning outcomes, applied linguists have outlined multiple theoretical reasons for using DDL with language learners. The main argument being that DDL creates learning conditions which have been found to facilitate second language acquisition (SLA) processes.

Vocabulary instruction is one area of language teaching currently being greatly informed by descriptive analyses of corpora, and which may have a growing need for DDL activities. Specifically, the creation of general academic and discipline specific wordlists from corpora are beginning to inform vocabulary instruction for English for Academic purposes (EAP) and English for Specific purposes (ESP) courses. At the same time, vocabulary instruction within the CLT paradigm is moving away from teaching words in isolation, and placing a greater emphasis on exposing learners to lexical items in authentic and meaningful contexts. Furthermore, there is a growing amount of evidence that much of the English language is formulaic (i.e., stored and retrieved in the mind as chunks of language), which suggests that teaching vocabulary as separate from grammar has limitations. DDL has been viewed as a possible technique which can keep vocabulary instruction current with the research by placing words from wordlists back into

authentic and meaningful contexts. Furthermore, DDL, because it utilizes concordance lines of naturally occurring language, will contain many instances of formulaic language, which can be highlighted to a greater or lesser extent, to promote noticing of these linguistic structures.

In addition to its relevance to current developments in applied linguistics, DDL also has empirical support for its use in vocabulary teaching. Viewing concordance lines has been found to lead to small but consistent gains in students' vocabulary knowledge, greater recall, and to the acquisition of transferable word knowledge compared with traditional vocabulary teaching methods, such as using a dictionary.

While pitting DDL against traditional methods for teaching vocabulary is effective in proving that DDL is a powerful teaching technique, it is problematic in that it seems to suggest that DDL activities should be favored over these methods and materials. Because it is unlikely that traditional reference materials and methods for teaching vocabulary will be abandoned by the language teaching profession, it is more realistic, beneficial and progressive to consider how to best exploit DDL in conjunction with more traditional methods of vocabulary instruction.

The goal of the current study was to examine students' perceptions of the benefits of one type of DDL activity over their own methods for studying unknown words in an attempt to begin to outline how and for what purposes DDL can best be exploited to teach vocabulary.

The research work under discussion presented the experiences observed in teaching vocabulary which were given in Appendix Part. I hope, these activities could become a good example to teaching the target issue for other teachers as well.

II. Teaching academic vocabulary with corpora: data-driven learning in second language acquisition

§1. The importance of teaching vocabulary and the ways of illustrating the meaning and form of the vocabulary.

Teaching English vocabulary is an important area worthy of effort and investigation. Recently methodologists and linguists emphasize and recommend teaching vocabulary because of its importance in language teaching. Vocabulary is needed for expressing meaning and in using the receptive (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing) skills. "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (Harmer)

Vocabulary is not a syllabus, i.e., a list of words that teachers prepare for their learners to memorize and learn by heart. Memorizing may be good and useful as a temporary technique for tests, but not for learning a foreign language. Language students need to learn vocabulary of the target language in another way. If we are really to teach students what words mean and how they are used, we need to show them being used together in context. Words do not just exist on their own; they live together and they depend upon each other. Therefore, teaching vocabulary correctly is a very important element in language learning. Correct vocabulary instruction involves vocabulary selection, word knowledge and techniques.

To know a language means to master its structure and words. Thus, vocabulary is one of the aspects of the language to be taught at school. The problem is what words and idioms pupils should retain. It is evident that the number of words should be limited because pupils have only 2-4 periods a week; the size of the group is not small enough to provide each pupil with practice in speaking; schools are not fully equipped with special laboratories for individual language learning. The number of words pupil should acquire in school depends wholly on the syllabus requirement. The latter are determined by the conditions and methods used. For example, experiments have proved that the use of programmed instructions for vocabulary learning allows us to increase the number of words to be learned since pupils are able to assimilate them while working

independently with the program.

The vocabulary, therefore, must be carefully selected in accordance with the principle of selecting linguistic material, the conditions of teaching and learning a foreign language in school.

Scientific principles of selecting vocabulary have been worked out. The words selected should be:

1. frequently used in the language;
2. easily combined (nice room, nice girl, nice weather);
3. unlimited from the point of view of style (oral, written);
4. included in the topics the syllabus sets;
5. valuable from the point of view of word-building (use, used, useful, useless, usefully, user, usage).

The first principle, word frequency, is an example of purely linguistic approach to word selection. It is claimed to be the soundest criterion because it is completely objective. It is derived by counting the number of occurrences of words appearing in representative printed material comprising novels, essays, plays, newspapers, textbooks and magazines.

Modern tendency is to apply this principles depending on the language activities to be developed. For developing reading skills pupils need "reading vocabulary", thus various printed texts are analyzed from the point of view of word frequency. For developing speaking skills pupils need "speaking vocabulary". In this case the material for analysis is the spoken language recorded. The occurrences of words are counted in it and the words more frequently used in speaking are selected.

The other principles are of didactic value, they serve teaching aims.

The words selected may be grouped under the following two classes (M. West):

1. Words that we talk with or form (structural) words which make up the form (structure) of the language.
2. Words that we talk about or content words.

In teaching vocabulary for practical needs both structural words and content

words are of great importance. That is why they are included in the vocabulary minimum.

The number of words and phraseological units the syllabus sets for a pupil to assimilate is 800 words.

The selection of the vocabulary although important is not the teacher's chief concern. It is only the "what" of teaching and is usually prescribed for him by textbooks and study - guides he uses. The teacher's concern is "how" to get his pupils to assimilate the vocabulary prescribed. This is a difficult problem and it is still in the process of being solved.

The teacher should bear in mind that a word is considered to be learned when:

1. it is spontaneously recognized while auding and reading;
2. it is correctly used in speech, the right word in the right place.

An alternative to translation - and an obvious choice if presenting a set of concrete objects such as clothes items - is to somehow illustrate or demonstrate them. This can be done either by using real objects (called **realia**) or pictures or mime. The use of **realia**, pictures and demonstration was a defining technique of the **Direct Method.** The Direct Method, in rejecting the use of translation, developed as a reaction to such highly intellectual approaches to language learning as Grammar-Translation. Here, for example, is advice for teachers from a popular Direct Method course of the 1940s:

How to teach the names of objects

The usual procedure is as follows. The teacher first selects a number of objects, in batches of say from 10 to 20. The objects may be:

(a) those that are usually found in the place where the lesson is given, e.g. door, window, knife, match, book; or parts of the body or articles of clothing.

(b) those collected specially for the purposes of the lesson, e.g. a stick, a stone, a nail, a piece of wire, a piece of string etc.

(c) those represented by pictures, such as those printed on picture cards or wall charts, or by rough drawings or- the blackboard.

The teacher shows or points to each object in turn and names it. He says the name clearly (but **naturally)** three or four times. When the pupils have had sufficient opportunity to *bear* the words and sentences (and to grasp their meaning) they are called upon to *say* them. In the first instance they may repeat them after the teacher.

Such an approach is especially appropriate if teaching beginners, and with mixed nationality classes, where translation is not an option. It is also a technique that has been reclaimed by practitioners of **Total Physical Response** (TPR), a method that promotes initial immersion in a high quantity of comprehensible input. In making use of the immediate environment of the classroom, and of things that can be brought into the classroom, the intention is to replicate the experience of learning one's mother tongue. A TPR lesson typically involves the teacher demonstrating actions, using real objects, and then getting the learners to perform the same or similar actions in response to commands. Typical classroom commands might be:

Point to the apple.

Put the banana next to the apple.

Give the apple to Natasha.

Offer the banana to Maxim. (Plastic fruit and vegetables are ideal for this kind of activity.)

Visual aids take many forms: flashcards (published and home-made), wall charts, transparencies projected on to the board or wall using the overhead projector, and board drawings. Many teachers collect their own sets of flashcards from magazines, calendars, etc. Especially useful are pictures of items belonging to the following *sets: food and drink, clothing, house interiors and furniture, landscapes/exteriors, forms of transport* plus a wide selection of pictures of people, sub-divided into sets such as *jobs, nationalities, sports, activities* and *appearance (tall, strong, sad, healthy, old*). Not only can such pictures be used to present new vocabulary items, but they can be used to practice them.

The use of pictures or objects as prompts for vocabulary teaching can be enhanced if some basic principles of memory are taken into account, including the principle of distributed practice. In teaching a set of, say, ten clothing items, it is important to keep reviewing the previously introduced items, preferably in a varying order - something like this:

present *shirt*
present *jacket*
present *trousers*
review *skirt*
review *trousers*
present *dress*
review *jacket*
present *sweater*
review *dress*
review *shirt*
present *socks*

Another principle underlying effective memorization is, as much as is possible, to allow learners to work at their own pace. In this way they can form associations and think of mnemonic devices that are personally relevant, and appropriate to the degree of difficulty the word is causing them. This is more likely to happen if they are working on their own or in small groups. But by building pauses into a teacher-led presentation, the teacher can provide learners with time to 'catch up' and to reflect. Here, byway of example, are some activities using flashcards:

The teacher shows cards one at a time and either elicits or says the word it represents. As a rule of thumb, about ten unfamiliar words are probably sufficient. Periodically the teacher backtracks and changes the older. Finally, stick all the cards on to the board, and write the words alongside (or ask learners to come up and write them).

- Stick a collection of picture cards (e.g. clothes) on the board and number

them. (If you are working round a large table, place the cards face up on the table.) Invite learners to ask you about the words they are unfamiliar with. For example: *What's number 6?* Check to see if someone else knows before giving the answer. When students are sufficiently familiar go through them all, asking, *What's number 8?* As a check, turn the cards around, one at a time, so that they can't be seen, and again ask *What's number 8?* Finally, write the words on the board alongside each picture.

- Stick a selection of cards on the board and allow learners to use bilingual dictionaries to find the words they represent. They can then write the words adjacent to the pictures.
- Give pairs or groups of three a selection of cards each. They can use bilingual dictionaries to find out the word for each picture. Then, representatives from each group can 'teach' the rest of the class the words they have discovered, using the visual aids.
- Show the class a wall chart or a large picture containing many different items (e.g. a street scene or an airport) for a short period of time, say ten seconds. Individually or in pairs, the learners then have to write down as many words - in English - as they can remember having seen represented in the picture. Allow them to use dictionaries. Show the picture again for another few seconds, to let them extend their lists of words. Reveal the picture for the checking stage: the individual or pair with the most correct words is the winner.

Of course, reliance on real objects, illustration, or demonstration, is limited. It is one thing to mime a chicken, but quite another to physically represent the meaning of a word like- - *intuition* or *become* or *trustworthy*. Also, words frequently come up incidentally, words for which the teacher won't have visual aids or realia at hand. An alternative way of conveying the meaning of a new word is simply to use words - other words. This is the principle behind dictionary definitions. Non-visual, verbal means of clarifying meaning include:

- providing an example situation

- giving several example sentences
- giving synonyms, antonyms, or super ordinate terms
- giving a full definition

How to highlight the form

I noted the fact that the sound of words, as much as their meaning, determines the way they are stored in the mental lexicon. The fact-that like-sounding words are often confused *(tambourines* for *trampolines, of chicken* for *kitchen,* is evidence of this. This suggests that-highlighting the spoken form of word is very important in terms of ensuring it is appropriately stored. This in turn means drawing learner attention to the way the word *sounds.*

Words seem to be stored and accessed primarily according to their overall syllable structure and stress. Hence it is easy to confuse *tambourine and trampoline* because they have the same general shape, despite some differences of individual sounds. This suggests that highlighting the stress and general shape of the word is a useful aid to retention and deserves at, much attention as the individual sounds.

§2. History of corpus linguistics

Corpus Linguistics is a methodology within the field of linguistics that has been developing rapidly since the year 1964 when the first computerized corpus, The Brown Corpus[1], was completed. Corpus linguists are mainly interested in descriptive or functional interpretations of language, and study linguistic phenomena through the empirical analysis of large computerized databases of language called corpora (corpus, sing.). A corpus is "a large and principled collection of natural texts", which is compiled so that it is representative of the language in general, a dialect, or other subset of the language. Corpora may contain language based on written texts, transcribed speech, or both. These texts are stored electronically, and then analyzed using computer software programs

[1] Henry Kucera and W. Nelson Francis compiled the first computerized corpus, The Brown Corpus, at Brown University, which was completed in 1964. The size of the corpus was one million words; a large corpus for its time (Leech, 1997).

called *concordance generators, concordancers,* or, generically, *concordancing software*.

Collecting large amounts of text in order to analyze linguistic phenomena was not a new concept when corpus linguistics arrived as a methodology. As Meyer points out in a recent article, early dictionaries were based on a large body of published works and millions of citation slips of naturally occurring language. Furthermore, concordance lines (i.e., a word displayed within a surrounding context) as a format for displaying every instance of a word in a text or collection of texts has been around for centuries, as Tribble and Jones explain:

In its original sense a concordance is a reference book containing all the words used in a particular text or in the works of a particular author (except, usually, the very common grammatical words such as articles and prepositions), together with a list of contexts in which each word occurs. Books like this have been in use since the Middle Ages, especially in Biblical Scholarship. The earliest known complete concordance of the Latin Bible was compiled by the Benedictine Hugo de San Charo in the thirteenth century. Hugo, it is said, was assisted by no fewer than 500 monks.

In modern linguistics, the work of collecting and analyzing large databases of language, though still a time-consuming and tedious task, has been greatly simplified and largely automated by powerful computers and concordancing software programs, of which Laurence Anthony's *AntConc* is just one example. These powerful software programs have the capacity to rapidly and accurately locate every word in a text together with its surrounding context, including even those very common words like articles and prepositions that were a burden, and often not included, in concordances that were collected manually, such as those by the monks of Hugo de San Charo. In addition to their capacity to search for keywords and their surrounding contexts, these programs also have the capability of calculating frequency information about words, which is often presented in the form of hierarchical lists (usually with the most frequently occurring word appearing at the top of the list). Computerized corpus searches are not limited to

word-level searches, however. Users may also choose to run searches on two or more words (i.e., collocations), phrases, clauses, or, if the corpus is tagged, on grammatical categories (e.g, prepositions and articles).

As this short history of corpora and concordancers shows, this method of studying language was not invented by corpus linguists nor was it incidental to the creation of the computer. Instead, old methods of doing linguistic research have been greatly supported by modern technology, and this has caused linguists to return to the "empirical tradition", to borrow a term from Meyer. A tradition which Meyer claims, "fell into disfavor following the rise of Chomsky's theory of generative grammar in the 1960s". This return to the empirical tradition in linguistics comes at the same time that language teaching theorists are emphasizing the facilitative effects of exposing learners to authentic examples of language in the classroom; teachers in addition to their counterparts in research are beginning to find uses for corpora.

§2. Corpora in linguistic research and language teaching

Since their beginning, computerized corpora have been mainly used for research or "for finding out about language and texts". Today, nearly every subdiscipline within linguistics uses corpora, to a greater or lesser extent, to inform their studies.

Although corpora have been used by linguists for research purposes for over forty years, researchers who are also language instructors are beginning to have greater interest in exploiting corpora for the teaching of second and foreign languages. According to Leech, corpora can have a direct or indirect effect on the language classroom. Indirectly, corpora are impacting the language classroom because they are being used by materials developers to create improved reference materials (e.g., dictionaries, grammars, and thesauri) and textbooks. Furthermore, corpora are being exploiting by language instructors to inform syllabus and course design, and to create tests. Moreover, corpora have been used to create both general academic, and discipline specific wordlists. Wordlists like Coxhead's Academic World List (AWL) contain the most frequently occurring headwords of

a discourse; in the case of the AWL, the words are those which occur most frequently in general academic discourse, regardless of discipline. Coxhead's list is based on three principles: teaching the most relevant, useful, and frequent lexical items to students first. The list has contributed to the prioritization of vocabulary for the EAP curriculum. However, while useful for prioritizing vocabulary instruction, wordlists need to be taught using a principled approach to teaching vocabulary accompanied by appropriate classroom techniques in order to assure that students acquire and are able to correctly and creatively use these words in their own speech and writing. Corpus-based methods and activities can help. This brings us to the discussion of how corpora are having a direct effect on the language classroom.

Essentially, there are two ways to directly engage second language learners in corpus work in the classroom: 1) they can be given direct access to a corpus and concordancing program on a computer; or 2) they can be given print-outs containing the raw data, or concordance output, from a corpus. The discussion here will be restricted to the latter option as the current study focused on teaching academic vocabulary to learners who had never engaged in corpus-based work prior to the study, and therefore needed to be exposed to this "first stage" of corpus consultation in order to become familiar with how to use and analyze concordance results, though, students should ultimately be given access and taught how to use online corpora to encourage and support autonomous language learning beyond the classroom.

The term "Data-driven learning" (DDL) has been coined to denote activities in which language learners are given printouts of computer-generated concordances in the classroom in order to explore language patterns. The term was coined by Tim Johns to describe a method he used, and was largely responsible for developing and popularizing. Johns' DDL is largely based on the methods used by the linguists involved in the COBUILD project at Birmingham University. This project, directed by John Sinclair, made extensive use of key-word-in-context (KWIC) concordance data in order to create a range of reference and teaching

materials for English language learners, most notably dictionaries. The project was revolutionary in that it was the first attempt by lexicographers to build a comprehensive profile for each word entry in a dictionary based on empirical evidence of actual native speaker use of the language. Inspired by the project's approach toward the description of linguistic phenomenon, Johns perceived the benefit this new technology and methods of analysis could bring to the language learner.

Therefore, he developed DDL in order to "cut out the middleman as far as possible and to give the learner direct access to the language data". Johns concisely describes the difference between the goals of his DDL and those of the COBUILD project in the following excerpt:

From the start, it was clear that there would be a small but significant difference between the approach taken by our colleagues in COBUILD and what I wanted to do in the English for International Students Unit. In the COBUILD materials the data was to some extent 'hidden' from the learner by the team of researcher and lexicographers. My approach was rather to confront the learner as directly as possible with the data, and to make the learner a linguistic researcher. The metaphor I use with my students is that of the detective.

Over the years, a significant body of research has developed which promotes the use of corpus-based activities, such as DDL, with second language learners. Many strong theoretical arguments have been made which align corpus work with principles of second-language acquisition (SLA) and situate it within the communicative language teaching (CLT) paradigm. Researchers who have commented on the potential facilitative effects on SLA processes of corpus consultation by second language learners believe that the same procedures which corpus linguists use to conduct descriptive studies of language can be taught to and used by language learners themselves to promote SLA processes. Using corpus analysis methods with second language learners has the added effect of reassigning traditional classroom roles, whereby students become linguistic "researchers", and teachers become directors or coordinators of research. However, Bernardini states

that "descriptive insights and research methodologies have not simply been borrowed from the descriptive paradigm, but have been adapted, reformulated, and often extended in various ways to fit pedagogic concerns and priorities". In this newly structured classroom, students are encouraged to engage in linguistic research which involves raising questions about the target language and engaging in a process of hypothesis formation and testing of particular rules of the language, a process by which interlanguage development is thought to progress. Furthermore, Aston argues extensively that "corpora can play a useful role in the acquisition and restructuring of schematic knowledge". His argument is that concordance lines expose learners to contextual repetition and variation of linguistic structures, promoting a process of synthesis and analysis of information on the part of the learners, which, in turn is a key to acquisition. Finally, many researchers have noted that engaging students in corpus-based activities promotes noticing or consciousness-raising.

In addition to facilitating SLA, corpus-based activities are viewed as being consistent with a variety of principles and learning goals within the CLT paradigm, which currently dominates the English language teaching (ELT) profession. First, concordance output exposes learners to linguistic phenomena in authentic contexts, which learners have to analyze and categorize inductively (i.e., they must categorize the data and are thus lead to discover the rules of the language on their own). Furthermore, the redefined role of the learner as researcher shifts control of learning from teacher to student, causing the classroom to become more student-centered during these activities. Finally, corpus- based activities are thought to increase learner autonomy "as students are taught how to observe language and make generalizations rather than depending on a teacher".

In addition to the benefits of using corpora in the classroom, there also exist many caveats which have to be considered before engaging learners in this type of work; the most important being the issue of training learners to analyze and categorize linguistic data. Gavioli explains that training learners to work with corpus data is difficult because "Unlike dictionaries, grammars and textbooks

concordance data does not offer explanations; it merely provides data which it is up to the user to explain". The difficulty of training nonnative speakers to analyze and make generalizations about the target language is further compounded by the fact that they are unable to rely on their intuitions to help guide their analyses as native speakers were found to do in a 2004 study by Sripicharn. In addition to making the process harder, a lack of intuition about the target language often leads nonnative speakers to make overgeneralizations about the language. However, these same nonnative-speaking students were also found to adopt alternative strategies, such as forming and testing hypotheses, since they could not rely on their intuitions, suggesting that with additional guidance from the language instructor, nonnative speakers can benefit greatly from analyzing concordance output.

§3. Data-driven learning (DDL) and vocabulary instruction

Because corpus-based activities, such as DDL, have strong theoretical reasons backing their implementation in the classroom with language learners and because these activities are viewed as being in alignment with current language teaching philosophies, there has been a growing number of publications outlining a wide range of uses for DDL in the classroom of which teaching vocabulary is just one.

Many researchers have outlined the uses and benefits of using DDL or concordance output to teach vocabulary to second language learners. These studies have demonstrated how to create more traditional vocabulary activities (e.g., fill-in-the-blank or matching exercises) that have the added advantage of being based on authentic texts and also exposing learners to multiple, novel contexts at one time. Researchers have also created and demonstrated the efficacy of complex online self-access vocabulary packages for extensive vocabulary study using concordance data alongside more traditional reference materials.

In addition to supplying teachers with ideas for creating corpus-based vocabulary activities, researchers have outlined the facilitative effects of using corpus-based materials. For example, Stevens found that concordance-based vocabulary exercises can be more easily solved by learners than traditional gap-

filler exercises, suggesting they should be used "if the purpose of the exercise is to reinforce the vocabulary, as opposed to testing, and if the proclivity of the teacher is to engender a sense of confidence and well-being in the students". However, Stevens could not make any claims about the efficacy of the activity because he did not empirically test learning outcomes from engaging in DDL. Tom Cobb's work is the only research which has empirically tested the effectiveness of corpus-based techniques to teach vocabulary. Picking up where Steven's study left off, Cobb compared the vocabulary learning outcomes of his students when new words were learned by viewing multiple concordance lines vs. a single sentence accompanied by a short definition of the word, and found that viewing concordance lines lead to small but consistent gains in his students' vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, in a follow up study, Cobb found that viewing concordance lines also facilitates the acquisition of transferable word knowledge, supported by the fact that these students were able to apply their knowledge of the word in novel activities and contexts.

This empirical evidence suggests that DDL has an important and meaningful place in the vocabulary teaching curriculum. However, many studies have tended to pit DDL against other more traditional vocabulary teaching activities and materials in an effort to see which leads to greater learning outcomes. Although doing this proves that DDL is an effective and powerful learning tool, it is problematic because it seems to suggest that DDL should be favored over these materials which have been facilitating language acquisition for centuries.

Instead of promoting DDL over the use of more traditional vocabulary teaching methods and activities, DDL should be seen as but one part of a holistic plan to teach vocabulary and used in conjunction with traditional methods and activities. However, because DDL has often been viewed as in competition with traditional methods for teaching vocabulary, there has been little research on the unique contributions this activity has to make to the teaching of vocabulary.

Therefore, the main goal of the current study was to determine how DDL can be used to complement traditional vocabulary learning methods (i.e., with

dictionaries and by guessing the meaning of a word from its context). In other words, what can DDL teach students about a word that traditional methods either cannot or fail to? A second goal of the study was to determine how best to design offline DDL activities in order to support students' analyses and to teach collocations. Since much of the research has either focused on teaching vocabulary with online concordancing or by using concordance lines to amend the format of traditional vocabulary exercises (e.g., gap-fillers), there is a need for research which seeks to discover how to best design and exploit DDL activities in their purest, offline form (i.e., as raw language data extracted from an appropriate corpus and subsequently given to language learners for analysis). Furthermore, this study contributes to the growing body of literature which is seeking to discover how the theoretical benefits of corpora are being realized through the collection of students own accounts of their experiences working with concordance data.

Before the study and its results are discussed, however, a review of the literature on formulaic language follows, as this is a fairly new and important area of current linguistic enquiry that has implications for teaching vocabulary to nonnative speakers, and for this study, which examined the efficacy of two DDL designs in promoting the noticing of collocations - one type of formulaic language.

III. Difficulties of teaching formulaic language: learner training strategies and techniques.

Some scholars fear, however, that collocations are too numerous to be taught and that the only way non-native speakers are to acquire some degree of competence in using them is through years of study, reading, and observation of the language. Indeed, learners face many barriers when attempting to acquire formulaic language. However, most of the difficulties students will face in learning formulaic language are also difficulties they face when attempting to acquire the lexis and grammar of a language in general. For example, students' first language background plays an important role in determining the difficulty a student will have learning new formulaic sequences. Also, lack of exposure to the target

language or comprehensible input can be a factor. Other factors include: the rare occurrence of some collocations and idioms, the fact that many idioms do not appear in their canonical form in academic discourse (e.g., many are subject to truncation, creative blending, or performance variations), rendering most treatments of idioms and collocations in special dictionaries and course books ineffectual because students are unlikely to meet these formulaic sequences in the form that they appear in these materials. Furthermore, idioms and some collocations rely on and assume a specific cultural schema for interpretation which is difficult for learners to understand and interpret.

Keeping the reasons for teaching formulaic language and the difficulties learners face in learning it in mind, many researchers have suggested methodologies and techniques for teaching formulaic language. Many of these methodologies and techniques echo the principles outlined in CLT; namely, that formulaic language should be taught using authentic texts, both explicit and implicit teaching strategies, and students should learn through repeated exposure and authentic production.

If the best method for teaching second language learners formulaic language is through multiple exposures to formulaic sequences in authentic, and preferably meaningful, contexts, then DDL seems especially appropriate for bridging theory and practice, though few studies on collocations mention DDL as a solution for teaching them. This study fills this gap by attempting to use DDL to teach collocations to university students.

Some years ago a leading authority on second language learning. Wilga Rivers, wrote: **"***Vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, and experienced in all manner of associations ... but ultimately it is learned by the individual. As language teachers, we must arouse interest in words and a certain excitement in personal development in this area ... We can help our students by giving them ideas on how to learn***,** *but each will finally learn a very personal selection of items, organized into relationships in an individual way."*

This does not mean, however, that the teacher is redundant. On the contrary, the teacher can play a major role in motivating learners to take vocabulary seriously, and in giving them ideas on how to learner training.

Learner -Training - i.e. training learners to learn effectively - has been informed by research into the strategies that successful learners use. Studies have shown that good learners do the following things:

- They pay attention to form - which, in vocabulary terms, means paying attention to the constituents of words, to their spelling, to their pronunciation and to the way they are stressed.
- They pay attention to meaning — which means they pay attention to the way words are similar or different in meaning, to the connotations of words, to their style and to their associations.
- They are good guessers - which mean they work out the meanings of unfamiliar words from their form and from contextual clues.
- They take risks and are not afraid of making mistakes - which means they make the most of limited resources, and they adopt strategies to cope when the right words simply don't come forth.
- They know how to organize their own learning - by, for example, keeping a systematic record of new words, using dictionaries and other study aids resourcefully, using memorizing techniques, and putting time aside for the 'spade work' in language learning, such as repetitive practice.

This last point suggests that good language learners have achieved a measure of autonomy and have developed their own techniques - that they don't need to be trained how to learn. Nevertheless, less self-directed learners might benefit from guidance - by, for example, being shown a range of vocabulary learning techniques, and choosing those which best suit their preferred learning style.

§1. Using mnemonics and word cards in traditional teaching vocabulary.

The best-known mnemonic technique is called the keyword technique. This involves devising an image that typically connects the pronunciation of the second

language word with the meaning of a first language word. For example, the Maori word *te aroba (love)* the word sounds a little like the English word *arrow + -er*, so a picture of Cupid with a bow and arrow can be drawn.

Devising keywords takes time, and a certain amount of training. Indeed, it can take more time and training than some practitioners think it is worth. However, the research evidence is compelling: there seems to be no other single technique that works as well. Therefore, when teaching new vocabulary items, it may be a good idea to allow learners a few minutes to silently and individually devise keywords. Then, if you ask them to tell their neighbors about their keywords it will not only reinforce them, but it may help train learners who are having trouble adopting this technique.

Word cards

Apart from the keyword technique, there is probably no vocabulary learning technique more rewarding than the use of word cards. In fact, it is arguably effective than the keyword technique, since there are some learners who find 'imaging' difficult, but all learners can be trained to prepare and use sets of word cards.

The **word card** technique involves these steps:

- Learners write a word to be learned on one side of a small card (about the size of a business card) and its mother tongue translation on the other.
- Depending on the difficulty of the words a full set at any one time should consist of between 20 and 50 cards.
- Words do not have to belong to lexical sets - in fact it is probably better that they don't, so as to avoid the interference effect of words of similar meaning being learned together.
- Learners test themselves on the words by first recalling the meaning of the new words - i.e. looking at each new word and then checking their understanding of each one by looking at the word's translation.
- They then reverse the process, using the translation to trigger the form of the new word.

- Words that cause difficulty should be moved to the top of the pile. In any case, the cards should be shuffled periodically to avoid 'serial effects' - that is, remembering words because of the order they come in and not for any other reason.
- The sequence of learning and review should become increasingly spaced.
- As words are learned they should be discarded, and new word cards made and added to the set.

To train learners to adopt this technique - and to always carry around with them a set of cards - it pays at first to supply students with blank cards until they get into the habit of obtaining their own. Hand out the cards after a vocabulary-rich stage of a lesson and demonstrate how to prepare half a dozen cards, letting individuals choose which words they want to learn.

It helps if you have a set of cards of your own as examples, with which you can demonstrate a simple sequence of activities. It is not important what language you choose for your own L2. The purpose is simply to demonstrate the method. This is the basic procedure:

1 Look at the L2 word first *(te aroba)* and then check the meaning ***(love).*** Repeat this with the whole set.

2 Look at the LI word first ***(foot)*** and try to recall the L2 word *(te aroha};* check and continue through the whole set.

3 Repeat this sequence two or three times.

4 Shuffle the cards so that they are in a different order, and repeat steps 1 to 3.

In subsequent lessons, ask learners to produce their word card sets, and invite them to comment on their usefulness, how many words they have learned, and how often they reviewed them. Some learners, of course, will not have used their cards at all. Others will already be in the habit. Continue incorporating word card activities into lessons, until the majority of learners are using them on a regular basis.

Here are some other activities that can be done in class to encourage the independent use of word cards. Note that some of them depend on learners sharing the same L1:

Peer teaching and testing: At the beginning of the lesson, pair students off, and ask them to compare their current word card sets. Encourage them to teach each other the words in their sets that they do not share, and to test each other.

Association games: For example, each learner lays down one card at the same time, with the L2 word face up. The first to make a coherent sentence incorporating both words gets a point. (The teacher may have to adjudicate the coherence of some of the sentences.) If no association can be made by either player, put the cards aside and deal two more. Continue in this way until all the cards are used.

Guess my word: When learners are already familiar with each other's word cards, each takes a word at random, and the other has to guess which word it is by asking yes/no questions, such as *Is it a noun/ verb/adjective ...? Does it begin with ...? Has if got one/two/three syllables ...?*etc.

De-vowelled words: Each of a pair selects a word from their word cards and writes it down without its vowels - their partner has to work out what the word is.

Ghost writing: Each of a pair takes turns to write the word in the air, or on their partner's back. Their partner has to work out what the word is.

Categories: In pairs or small groups, learners organize their words into categories, e.g. according to whether the words have hot or cold, or masculine or feminine, or good or bad, or sweet or sour, associations.

Learners can use the cards as material for other word games such as Word Race, Back to Board, and Pictionary.

§2. Guessing vocabulary from context: a useful skill for learners.

It was argued that learners need a threshold vocabulary of at least 2000 words families, and that this would provide familiarity with roughly nine out of ten words in a non-specialist text. In fact, no matter how many words learners acquire, they will always be coming across unfamiliar words in their reading and listening.

This is why they will always need to be able to make intelligent guesses as to the meaning of unknown words. Guessing from context is probably one of the most useful skills learners can acquire and apply both inside and outside the classroom. What's more, it seems to be one that can be taught and implemented relatively easily. It is also one that we all already use - perhaps unconsciously -when reading and listening in our mother tongue. So it is probably less a case of learning a new skill than transferring an existing one. The problem for most learners when guessing the meaning of words in a second language is that they are less confident about their understanding of the context than they would be in their Li. They therefore tend to rely on the context less. For this reason, vocabulary 'guesswork' should be integrated as often as possible into text-based activities, such as reading or listening for comprehension, and will be most effective after a global or gist understanding of the text has been established.

Recommended **steps for guessing from context** are these:

- Decide the part of speech of the unknown word - whether, for example, it is a noun, verb, adjective, etc. Its position in the sentence may be a guide, as might its ending (e.g. an *–ed or -ing* ending might indicate it is a verb).
- Look for further clues in the word's immediate collocates - if it is a noun, does it have an article (which might suggest whether it is countable or not)? If it is a verb, does it have an object?
- Look at the wider context, including the surrounding clauses and sentences - especially if there are 'signposting' words, such as *but, and, however, so*, that might give a clue as to how the new word is connected to its context. For example: *We got home, tired but **elated:*** the presence of *but* suggests that *elated* is not similar in meaning to *tired.* Compare: *We got home, tired and **downhearted.***
- Look at the form of the word for any clues as to meaning. For example: *downhearted* is made up of *down + heart +* a participle affix (*-ed).*
- Make a guess as to the meaning of the word, on the basis of the above strategies.

- Read on and see if the guess is confirmed; if not - and if the word seems critical to the understanding of the text - go back and repeat the above steps. If the word does not seem critical, carry on reading. Maybe the meaning will become clearer later on.
- When all else fails, consult a dictionary.

Many useful exercise types have been devised to train learners in these strategies. It is a particular focus of instruction for students preparing for examinations, where they will not have access to dictionaries. Here are two course book exercises which target guessing from context strategies:

Guessing vocabulary in context (activities)

Part A

Look at the sentences below. All the words in *italics* are nonsense words. Work out what those words mean from the context of the sentence. Example:

Tribbet *must mean scarf, because it is something you put round your neck when it's cold.*

a) It was a very cold day so I put a ***tribbet*** round my neck.

b) I was ***sofliglive*** that I drank a whole bottle of Coke.

c) I did three ***tralets*** yesterday but I failed them all because I hadn't studied enough.

d) I did the exam very ***trodly*** because I had a-headache.

e) I ***sarked*** very late at work because I overslept.

Part B

In the sentences above decide whether the nonsense words are:

adverbs; verbs (past tense); nouns; adjectives.

Example: ***Tribbet*** *must be a noun, because a comes before it.*

Exercise 1.

Read the following text once, and then look carefully at each of the words printed in italics. Remember when looking at each word (if its meaning is unknown to you) that you should decide:

(a) what kind of word it is

(b) what information is given in the sentence or the whole passage which can help you to work out the meaning.

We got in a little blue car heavily decorated with shining *brass* and upholstered in deep red plush: we were the only ones in a car made to take six. As we waited to start, I tried to make myself comfortable on the seats, but they were so high and *vast* that I could only sit on the edge with my legs *dangling* and my hands tightly *clutching* the brass safety *rail* in front: I felt like a pea in a pod (...) (from *The Only Child* by James Kirkup)

When you have done this, look at the questions which follow and in each case write down from the four choices given, the word which seems closest in meaning to the word quoted from the passage.

1 brass

A cloth B wood C paper D metal

2 vast

A small B hard C big D soft

3 dangling

A running B hanging C moving D standing (etc.)

§3. Key skills involved in effective dictionary use.

Dictionaries - as we have seen - can be used as a last resort when 'guessing from context' strategies fail. But they can also be used productively, both for generating text and as resources for vocabulary acquisition. Their usefulness depends on learners being able to access the information they contain both speedily and accurately. Training learners in effective dictionary use is particularly important since many learners may not be familiar with dictionary conventions, even in their own language. Such training also provides them with the means to

continue vocabulary acquisition long after their course of formal study has been completed.

Key skills involved in effective dictionary use are the following:

- Recognizing features of dictionary layout, such as use of alphabetical order, headwords, grammar and pronunciation information, definitions, etc.
- Understanding the way dictionary entries are coded - particularly the use of abbreviations such as *adj* (adjective), *sth* (something), *ScotE* (Scottish English), etc.
- Discriminating between the different meanings of a word, especially a word with many **polysemes** such as *course or fair,* or words that are homonyms such as *bill, bat* and *shed or* homographs such as *windy, live* and *lead*.
- Cross-checking (when using a bilingual dictionary) that the translation equivalent that is offered is the best choice for the meaning that is required. For example, a French learner wishing to express *embrasser* (as *mje t'embrasse]* in English may find several different equivalents in their dictionary: *1 embrace. 2 bug. 3 kiss. 4 include.* Only by checking 'backwards' (e.g. by looking up the entry for *kiss)* will they discover that some of the English words may have a more restricted meaning and may not be appropriate for their purpose.
- Using synonyms, antonyms and other information to narrow the choice of best word for the meaning intended. For example, a learner wanting to convey the meaning *carefree* but knowing only *careless* could use this as the starting point in a dictionary search. Similarly, the learner who wants to correct the sentence *'They told everyone their engaged'* find both the noun *engagement* and the correct verb *announced* under the entries alongside *engaged* in any good learners' dictionary. Or a learner wondering if *steed* substitutes for *horse* will find that it has poetic connotations and is generally only used in a literary context.
- Inferring the spelling of an unfamiliar word from only having heard it, in order to check its meaning in the dictionary.

Ways of training learners in the above skills include the following:

- Direct attention to the dictionary's layout information, as displayed in ' a typical entry. Such example entries can usually be found in the introductory matter at the front of the dictionary. You could prepare a wall chart or overhead transparency that displays this information. Then prepare a quiz that learners can answer in groups, using their dictionaries. The words should be obscure because, if the learners already know the words, there would be no incentive to use their dictionaries. For example:

1 Which one in each of the following lists are not English words?

a *terrapin* b *termagant* c *terkle* d *tern*

a *ivede* b *wedlock* c *weenie* d *wedge*

a *caterpillar* b *cattery* c *catism* d *caterwaul*

2 What part of speech are

a *gaggfe* b *parch* c *barring* d *peaky*

3 What is the past tense of

a *abide* b *rend* *c rid* d *strive*

4 Find the words from which these words are derived:

a *shies* b *racily* c *begotten* d *gravelly*

5 What preposition usually follows each of these words?

a *believe* b *ashamed* c *opposed* d *consist*

6 In terms of pronunciation, which is the odd one out in each group?

a *incise* b *concise* *c precise*

a *death* b *breath* c *sheath*

7 What is the American equivalent of

a *dinner jacket* b *pavement artist* c *holiday maker* d spare tire?

- Design a similar set of activities based on just one page of a learners' dictionary.
- Set learners the task of identifying which of different headwords matches a given meaning. A headword is any word which has an entry

of its own. In the case of homonyms and homographs, most dictionaries give separate entries, and number the headwords accordingly. Thus:

spar[1] to practice boxing with someone

spar[2] a thick pole, especially one on a ship to support sails or ropes

(adapted from the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English)*

Here is an exercise aimed at sensitizing learners to this dictionary feature:

1. Find the entries for post in your dictionary.
2. Notice that there are 5 separate entries, each with a numbered headword.
3. Write the number of the headword used in these sentences.

e g I'll *post the letter tomorrow post* has the meaning of headword number	*Head-word number*
	4
a The soldier stood at his post.	
b There are two large gateposts in front of the house.	
c At sunset, bugles blew the last post.	
d Is the post delivered to each house?	

- Set similar tasks that require learners to discriminate between the different meanings (or **polysemes)** under one headword, or the different phrasal verbs associated with one headword (e.g. *get up, get on, get over).*
- With groups of students speaking the same mother tongue and using bilingual dictionaries, set translation tasks involving words with multiple meanings in both the Ll and L2. Encourage them to cross-check the words to ensure that the translation matches the meaning

required by the context. English words which could be targeted in such exercises because their translation is problematic include: *country, to meet, way, to spend, to stay, to stand, to get, trip, borne, fan, to join, mind,* and virtually all common prepositions.

- Set learners the task of devising word chains using dictionary entries. Different pairs can be given a starting word, and then ten minutes to produce as long a chain as possible, choosing only words that are related in some meaningful way with the immediately preceding word. They can then explain their word chains to other pairs. Here, for example, is a word chain that started from the word *horrid* in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English:*

horrid —> unpleasant —> (not) enjoyable —> pleasure —> happiness —> feelings —> anger —> offensive —> insulting —> rude —> annoy —> unhappy —> worried —> anxious

- Encourage dictionary use when learners are self-correcting their written work. Indicate, for example, where a mistake is due to the wrong spelling *(wich* for *which),* the wrong choice of word *(nervous* for *angry),* or the wrong form of the word chosen *(argues* for *arguments).* As preparation, distribute examples of vocabulary errors collected from homework, and ask learners to work in pairs or small groups, using dictionaries, to correct them.
- Encourage learners to guess the spelling of unknown words that occur when they are listening to a recorded cassette, for example. Pause the cassette after words known to be unfamiliar, and allow learners time to work in pairs to work out the spelling. They may then check the spelling in the dictionary, looking up the meaning at the same time.

It was pointed out that the first line of attack on meeting unfamiliar words in a text is to use 'guessing from context' strategies and that dictionaries should only be consulted as a last resort. If learners are

shortcutting the guessing stage, one way of reducing their dependence on dictionaries is the following:

- Hand out a text that has a number of words in it that you expect will be unfamiliar to learners. Ask them individually to choose just five words that they are allowed to look up. Before handing out dictionaries, ask them to compare and revise their 'shortlists[1] in pairs. If one student thinks they know a word on their partner's list (through having worked it out from context, for example) they can explain it to them and delete that word from their list. They continue in the same way in successively larger groups, before submitting the words to a class vote. Only when the class agrees on a definitive short-list of five words can the dictionaries be consulted. In this way, learners can negotiate which words are most important for an understanding of the text, and which cannot be deduced from context. The activity also requires learners to make repeated decisions about words, which - as we have seen - is an aid to memorization.

IV. Applying different activities in teaching vocabulary: good teaching tips.

Traditionally, the presentation of new language items would swiftly be followed by the practice of these items. This practice would typically take the form of some of kind of oral repetition, such as a drill. This notion of mechanical practice underlies the popular belief that 'practice makes'. Simply repeating newly learned words is no guarantee that they will move from the short-term memory store into permanent memory. New knowledge - i.e. new words - needs to be integrated into existing knowledge - i.e. the learners' existing network of word associations, or what we called the **mental lexicon.** As we also saw in the discussion on memory, there is a greater likelihood of the word being integrated into this network if many 'deep' decisions have been made about it. In other words, to ensure long-term retention and recall, words need to be 'put to work'. They need

to be placed in **working memory,** and subjected to different operations. Such operations might include: being taken apart and put back together again, being compared, combined, matched, sorted, visualized and re-shuffled, as well as being repeatedly filed away and recalled (since the more often a word is recalled, the easier recall becomes). I will look at a range of activity types designed to do just that. They might best be thought of as **integration** activities, rather than 'practice activities' or 'reinforcement activities', since both these latter terms have associations with a more mechanical, less cognitive, approach to language teaching.

§1. Decision making tasks: identifying, selecting, matching, sorting, ranking and sequencing.

There are many different kinds of tasks that teachers can set learners in order to help move words into long-term memory. Some of these tasks will require more brain work than others. That is to say, they will be more cognitively demanding. Tasks in which learners make decisions about words can be divided into the following types, roughly arranged in an order from least cognitively demanding to most **demanding:**

- identifying
- selecting
- matching
- sorting
- ranking and sequencing

The more of these task types that can be performed on a set of words the better. In other words, an identification task could be followed by a matching task, which in turn could be followed by a ranking task.

Identifying words simply means finding them where they may otherwise be 'hidden', such as in texts.

Here, for example, are some identification tasks relating to the text *Fear of Flying*.

Give the learners the text and ask them to:

- Count the number of times *plane(s)* and *train(s)* occur in the text.

- Find four words connected -*with flying* in the text.
- Find five phrasal verbs in the text.
- Find eight comparative adjectives in the text.
- Underline all the words ending in -*ing* in the text.

Ask them to read the text, then turn it over, and then ask:

- 'Did the following words occur in the text?'

busy crowded fast dangerous uncomfortable dirty convenient inconvenient noisy

- 'Now check the text to see if you were right.'

Listening out for particular words in a spoken or recorded text is also a form of identification activity. Below is a selection of identification tasks based on this text:

> *OK, that's Mr. Brown. He's wearing a jacket and trousers, no tie, and he's talking to the woman with the long dark hair - she's wearing a black dress. Now Mrs. Brown is over there. She's wearing a skirt and a blouse, and she's talking to a tall man with fair hair. And their son, Richard ... yes, there he is, he's over in the corner. He's wearing jeans and a T-shirt - he's the one with very short hai[1]r.*

- List all the clothes items that you hear.
- Raise your hand when you hear a clothes item.
- Put these items in the order that you hear them:

blouse tie skirt jeans jacket T-shirt dress trousers

- Tick the items that you hear:

blouse shoes tie shorts skirt socks jeans jacket hat T-shirt dress trousers suit shirt

Identification is also the process learners apply in tasks in which they have to unscramble anagrams or when they have to search for words in a 'word soup', such as the following activity **(See Appendix 3).**

[1] Doff A and Jones C, *Language in Use (Beginner Workbook),* CUP, 2000 pp.78

Selecting tasks are cognitively more complex than identification tasks, since they involve both recognizing words and making choices amongst them.

This may take the form of choosing the 'odd one out', as in this task.

Choose the odd one out in each group:

1	**trousers**	**socks**	**jeans**	**T-shirt**
2	**blouse**	**skirt**	**tie**	**dress**
3	**T-shirt**	**suit**	**shorts**	**trainers**

Note that with this kind of activity, there is no 'right' answer necessarily. What is important is that learners are able to justify their choice, whatever their answer. It is the cognitive work that counts - not getting the right answer.

A matching task involves first recognizing words and then pairing them with - for example - a visual representation, a translation, a synonym, an antonym, a definition, or a collocate. As an example of this last type, here is a verb-noun matching task which is called word pair race **(See Appendix 4).**

Pelmanism is a memory game which involves nothing but matching. Word pairs (or picture-word matches) are printed on individual cards which are placed face down in a random distribution. Players take turns to pick up a card and then search for its partner. If they correctly locate the partner (initially by guesswork, but, as the game progresses, by remembering where individual cards are located), they keep the pair, and have another turn. If not, they lay the cards face down where they found them, and the next player has a turn. The player with the most pairs at the end of the game is the winner. Typical pairs might be:

- antonyms *(tall - short, thick - thin, dark - light*, etc.)
- British and American equivalents *(bill - check, pharmacy - drugstore, lift - elevator*, etc.), or
- collocations *(wide + awake, stark + naked, fast + asleep*, etc.)

Sorting activities require learners to sort words into different categories. The categories can either be given, or guessed. Here is an example of the fonder (from Thornbury S, *Highlight Pre-Intermediate,* Heinemann):

Word field: characteristics			
Put these adjectives into two groups - positive and negative.			
emotional	friendly	good-humored	outgoing
confident	ambitious	rude	self-centered
offensive	kind	selfish	nice

Here is an activity in which learners (at a fairly advanced level) decide the categories themselves:

Put these words into four groups of three words each. Then, think of a title for each group.

goal net piece club racket shoot board green court hole pitch referee check serve tee move

Finally, **ranking and sequencing** activities require learners to put the words into some kind of order. This may involve arranging the words on a cline: for example, adverbs of frequency *(a/ways, sometimes, never, occasionally, often,* etc). Or learners may be asked to rank items according to preference:

K Imagine you have just moved into a completely empty flat. You can afford to buy one piece of furniture a week. Put the following items in the order in which you would buy them:

fridge bed desk dining table sofa wardrobe chair dishwasher bookcase cooker washing machine chest of drawers

Now, compare your list with another student and explain your order. If you were sharing the flat together, would you agree? If not, make a new list that you both agree about.

Here is an example of a ranking activity that can be adapted to different levels by changing the selected words.

D/13 classifying knowledge

LEVEL: Intermediate to Advanced

TIME: 20-30 minutes

IN CLASS:

1 Put the students in threes and ask them to rank the following types of skill/knowledge (a) for their usefulness in everyday life; (b) in terms of the value of qualifications that might be gained through acquiring such knowledge.

tooth care soil chemistry surgery psychiatry arithmetic micro-computing knitting geometry plain cookery darning league football literary criticism music nuclear physics cordon bleu cookery pop music servicing a motor car ancient Greek carpentry road safety filling in tax forms

2 Ask the threes to come together into nines and compare their rankings.

Ordering items chronologically is another way of getting students to make judgments about words. For example:

Put the following words in the order in which they typically happen in your country:

graduate get married be born get divorced get engaged die retire leave home have children re-marry start school

Any sequence of activities - from starting a car to buying a home - lends itself to the same treatment. Here, for example, is a task that focuses on the language of air travel (from Garton-Sprenger J and Greenall S, *Flying Colours 2,* Heinemann):

Work in pairs. Think about what people do when they travel by plane. Put the actions below in the correct column.

before the flight

Check In

leave the plane

land

unfasten your seatbelt

go into the departure lounge

go to the departure gate

fasten your seatbelt

go through passport control

after the flight

leave the plane

check **in**

collect your baggage

go through passport control

listen to the safety instructions

go through customs

board the plane

go into the arrivals hall

Number the actions in the order people do them.

Note that there may not be a 'right answer' in a ranking or sequencing task, but that the exercise of making the choices and - even better - comparing them with a classmate's choices, is good 'brain work'.

§2. Production tasks: completion, gap-fills, multiple-choice tasks.

The decision-making tasks we have been looking at are principally receptive: learners make judgments about words, but don't necessarily produce them. (Of course, they can then become production tasks by the simple expedient of inviting the learners to talk about these judgments.) However, tasks that are productive from the outset are those in which the learners are required to incorporate the newly studied words into some kind of speaking or writing activity. These can be classified as being of two main types;

- *completion - of sentences and texts*
- *creation - of sentences and texts*

Sentence and text **completion** tasks are what are more generally known as . **gap-fills.** They are usually writing tasks and they are often used in tests (see

Chapter 8) as they are easy to design and mark. They have many different formats, but a basic distinction can be made between **open** and **closed** gap-fills. The open type is one where the learner fills the gaps by drawing on their mental lexicon. (There may be a clue, though, such as the first letter of the word.) In a closed gap-fill, on the other hand, the words are provided, in the form of a list at the beginning of the exercise, for example. It is simply a matter of deciding which word goes in which gap.

Here are some example instructions for open and closed gap-fill tasks:

- Complete the text by writing an appropriate word in each space:

'Greta Garbo, the Swedish-born film____, was born in 1905. She won a scholarship to drama school, where she learned to____. In 1924 a film director chose her for a____in a Swedish film called ...'

- Choose the best word from the list to complete each sentence. Use each word once ...
- Select words from the list to complete these sentences. Note that there are more words than sentences ...
- Choose words from the text you have just read to complete these sentences ...
- Choose the best word to complete each sentence:

1 When I feel tired, I can't stop___.

a sneezing b yawning c coughing d weeping etc.

Note that the last example is a **multiple choice** task. These are very popular with designers of vocabulary tests.

In completion tasks, the context is provided, and it is simply a matter of slotting the right word in. Sentence and text **creation** tasks, however, require learners to create the contexts for given words. Here are some typical task instructions:

- Use each of these words to make a sentence which clearly shows the meaning of the word.
- Choose six words from the list and write a sentence using each one.

- Use each of these words to write a *true* sentence about yourself or someone you know.
- Write a short narrative which includes at least five words from the list.

Tasks such as these lead naturally into speaking activities - either reading aloud or performing dialogues to the class, or comparing and explaining sentences in pairs or small groups. These activities involve many of the processes that serve to promote retention in long-term memory, such as rehearsal, repetition and explanation.

Not all creation activities need start as writing tasks. Here is a speaking task which requires learners to create sentences using pre-selected vocabulary:

Work in pairs. Ask and say how you feel about your town or village.

I love it. It's all right. I can't stand it.

Which of the following adjectives can you use to describe your town or village?

interesting boring annoying depressing frightening marvelous beautiful peaceful noisy lively

Can you explain why?

I find it boring because there's nothing to do in the evenings.

The use of questionnaires is a good way of putting vocabulary to work in the form of question-and-answer exchanges. Many areas of vocabulary lend themselves to some kind of questionnaire or survey. The same vocabulary items in the preceding example could be used as the basis of a questionnaire or survey.

Students can prepare a survey - using these examples as a model:

- Is your hometown boring or interesting? Why?
- Do you find big cities: depressing, interesting, lively or noisy? Why? etc.

They then ask each other their prepared questions, and report the results to the class, using full sentences; such as *Mario thinks his hometown is interesting because it has a lot of historical monuments.*

§3. Using games in teaching vocabulary.

While the title of this chapter is 'How to put words to work', it would be wrong to suggest that vocabulary learning has to be all work and no play. Language play, including word games, has a long history. Children of all cultures seem to enjoy games of the 'I spy . . .' or 'Hangman' type, and there is a long tradition of adult word games, a number of which have been adapted for television. Most first-language word games transfer comfortably to the second-language classroom. For example, the more often a word is successfully retrieved from memory, the easier it becomes to recall it. Therefore, useful games are those that encourage learners to recall words and, preferably, at speed. Or, consistent with the principle that learners need to make multiple decisions about words, a useful game would be one like a 'dictionary race', where students first sort words into alphabetical order, then into parts of speech, and then into lexical sets - the first group to complete all three tasks correctly being the winner.

However, since many word games deal solely with isolated - rather than contextualized - words, and often require only shallow processing on the part of the learner, they should be used judiciously. The time spent on a single de - contextualized word in a game of 'Hangman, for example, has to be weighed up against the more productive, contextualized and cognitively deep activities outlined earlier in this chapter. Too often games are used to plug holes in lessons which could more usefully be filled with language-rich talk. Nevertheless, the fun factor may help make words more memorable, and, like it or not, a competitive element often serves to animate even the most lethargic students.

So, here are some word games to try:

Word clap: Students stand or sit in a circle, and, following the teacher's lead, maintain a four-beat rhythm, clapping their hands on their thighs three times (one-two-three ...) and then both hands together (four!). The game should start slowly, but the pace of the clapping can gradually increase. The idea is to take turns, clockwise, to shout out a different word from a pre-selected lexical set (for example, fruit and vegetables) on every fourth beat. Players who either repeat a

word already used, or break the rhythm - or say nothing - is 'out' and the game resumes without them, until only one player is left. The teacher can change the lexical set by shouting out the name of a new set at strategic points: *Furniture! Nationalities! Jobs!* etc.

Categories: Learners work in pairs or small groups. On a piece of paper, they draw up a number of columns, according to a model on the board, each column labeled with the name of a lexical set: e.*g. fruit, transport, clothes, animals, sports.* The teacher calls out a letter of the alphabet (e.g. *Bf),* and to a time limit (e.g. three minutes), students write down as many words as they can beginning with that letter in the separate columns *(banana, berry; bus; bikini, blouse; bear, bat, baseball, basketball* . . .). The group with the most (correct) words wins.

Noughts and crosses: Draw two noughts and crosses grids on the board **(See Appendix 5)**

One is blank. In the other each square is labeled with a category, or with nine different phrasal verb particles *(up, on, off, in, back,* etc), or nine different affixes (-*UN*, *non-, -less, iton,* etc). Prepare a number of questions relating to each category. For example (if the class is monolingual): *How do you say 'tamburo' in English?* Or, *What is the opposite of shy?* Divide the class into two teams: noughts and crosses. The object is to take turns choosing a category and answering a question in this category correctly so as to earn the right to place their team's symbol in the corresponding position in the blank grid. The winning team is the first to create a line of three (noughts or crosses), either vertically, horizontally, or diagonally.

Coffeepot: This is a guessing game. One learner answers yes/no questions from the rest of the class (or group) about a verb that she has thought of, or that the teacher has whispered to her. In the questions the word *coffeepot* is used in place of the mystery verb. So, for example, students might ask *Do you coffeepot indoors or outdoors? Is coffee potting easy or difficult? Can you coffeepot*

-*with your hands?* If the verb that the student has selected is *yawn* the answers would be: *Both indoors and outdoors; It's easy; No, you can't, but you might use your hands* ... To make the game easier a list of, say, twenty verbs can be put on the board and the person who is 'it[1] chooses one of them. This can also be played in pairs.

Back to board: This is another guessing game, but this time the student who is 'it' has to guess a word by asking the rest of the class questions. The student sits facing the class, back to the board; the teacher writes a recently studied word or phrase or idiom on the board, out of sight of the student. The student asks different students yes/no or either/or questions in order to guess the word. For example: *Helga, is it a verb or a noun? (A verb.) Dittmar, is it an action? (No.) Karl-Heinz, is it something you do with your mind? (Yes.)* ... etc. To make the game easier, the words chosen can be limited in some way — e.g. all phrasal verbs; all character adjectives, and so on.

Pictionary: Based on the commercialized game of the same name, this involves students guessing words or phrases from drawings. They work in teams, each member of the team taking turns to be the 'artist'. If there are three teams, for example, the three 'artists' go to the front of the class where the teacher shows them a word (or phrase) on a card. At a cue, they quickly return to their group and try to get their group to correctly guess the word by drawing it with pen and paper. The first team to guess correctly earns a point, and three new 'artists' have a turn with another word. This is good for reviewing idiomatic expressions, such as *green with envy, down in the dumps, under the weather, in the dark, over the moon.* At the end of the game, groups can use the pictures as memory prompts in order to recall and write down the expressions that came up in the game, and then to put them into a sentence to show what they mean.

Word snap: Using word cards - e.g. from the class word bag or word box students work in small groups, with the aim of collecting as many word 'pairs' as possible. One player 'deals' two word cards face up, so that everyone can read them. The first player to think of a way the words are connected gets to keep the

pair, and two more words are laid down. A connection could be: same part of speech; synonyms or antonyms; same lexical set; or, simply, a meaningful sentence can be made using both words. If no connection can be made, the two cards are shuffled back into the pack. The teacher will need to be available to decide in the case of connections being 'challenged'.

Word race: The class is divided into teams and each team is given a board marker pen (or piece of chalk). The board is divided into as many sections as there are teams. The teacher (or a specially appointed student) says a word in the students' language, and the first team to get the correct English translation on to the board earns a point. The game continues for as many words as it is felt necessary to review. The game is suitable for a monolingual class, but a variation of it, which would be suitable for multilingual classes, would be to read out definitions of words, or give synonyms or show pictures, rather than give translations.

Spelling race: The board is divided in two halves, and a representative from each of two team? Stands at the board with a board marker pen or chalk. The teacher shows the rest of the class a word on a card. The teams must simultaneously spell (not say) the word to their representative, who cannot see the word. The first team to get the word on to the board with its correct spelling earns a point. The game continues with different students taking turns to be the team representative. This game is more difficult than it sounds, especially if words are chosen that include letters which are frequently confused such as *i* and *e, v* and *b, j* and *g.* Lots of variations of this game are possible. The word could be displayed as a picture, so that the teams have to decide what the word is before spelling it.

The above is by no means an exhaustive list of word games, but is representative of some generic game types, guessing being one of the most favoured. Used with discretion, putting words to play is a valid and enjoyable way of putting words to work.

CONCLUSION

The graduate qualification work under discussion depicted presenting vocabulary: using corpus data for pedagogical purposes and learning vocabulary and strategies in teaching good vocabulary. The research work presented the ways of presenting vocabulary: teaching academic vocabulary with corpora: data-driven learning in second language acquisition, history of corpus linguistics, corpora in linguistic research and language teaching, data-driven learning (DDL) and vocabulary instruction, the ways of illustrate meaning and form of the vocabulary, the ways of involving the learners into the learning process. Besides, the work depicts learner training strategies and techniques, where using mnemonics and word cards in learning vocabulary, guessing vocabulary from context, key skills involved in effective dictionary use, the importance of spelling in learning vocabulary and keeping records were discussed.

In addition to facilitating SLA, corpus-based activities are viewed as being consistent with a variety of principles and learning goals within the CLT paradigm, which currently dominates the English language teaching (ELT) profession. First, concordance output exposes learners to linguistic phenomena in authentic contexts, which learners have to analyze and categorize inductively (i.e., they must categorize the data and are thus lead to discover the rules of the language on their own). Furthermore, the redefined role of the learner as researcher shifts control of learning from teacher to student, causing the classroom to become more student-centered during these activities. Finally, corpus- based activities are thought to increase learner autonomy "as students are taught how to observe language and make generalizations rather than depending on a teacher".

This empirical evidence suggests that DDL has an important and meaningful place in the vocabulary teaching curriculum. However, many studies have tended to pit DDL against other more traditional vocabulary teaching activities and materials in an effort to see which leads to greater learning outcomes. Although doing this proves that DDL is an effective and powerful learning tool, it is

problematic because it seems to suggest that DDL should be favored over these materials which have been facilitating language acquisition for centuries.

I looked at techniques and procedures which involve direct teacher intervention in the teaching of pre-selected items of vocabulary. Among the choices available to the teacher when planning a vocabulary presentation are the following:

- how many words to present at a time
- whether to present the meaning of words first or the form first
- whether to use translation as the means of presenting meaning, or
- whether to use some form of illustration, such as realia, visual aids, or mime, or
- whether to use a verbal means of presentation, such as an example situation, example sentences, synonyms, or definitions
- how to present the spoken form and whether this should involve student repetition
- how soon to present the written form
- how, and to what extent, to involve the learners in the presentation, through the use of elicitation, personalization, and peer teaching, for example

Some of the conclusions reached include the following:

- the number of words that can be learned is constrained by factors such as word difficulty, but need not be limited to only a few words
- establishing the meaning of a new word first and then presenting its form is a standard approach
- translation is an economical way 01 presenting meaning but may not be the most memorable
- illustrating meaning is effective, but is limited to certain kinds of words
- explaining meaning verbally is time-consuming but can be effective if explanations are kept clear and simple
- the spoken form can be highlighted through the giving of clear models, the use of phonemic script, and repetition
- the written form should not be withheld too long

- learners should be actively involved in the presentation

In one of the chapters of the target research work we looked at classroom activities designed to integrate newly acquired words into the learner's mental lexicon. Key principles underlying such activities are the importance of:

- making successive decisions about words
- productive as well as receptive tasks
- the judicious use of highly engaging activities such as games

Decision-making tasks include the following types:

- identification
- selecting
- matching
- sorting
- ranking and sequencing

Production tasks can be divided into those that require;

- completion of sentences and texts
- creation of sentences and texts

Games that draw attention to newly learned words often encourage recall through guessing and categorizing. Besides games help students become interested in learning vocabulary, they motivate learners to the process.

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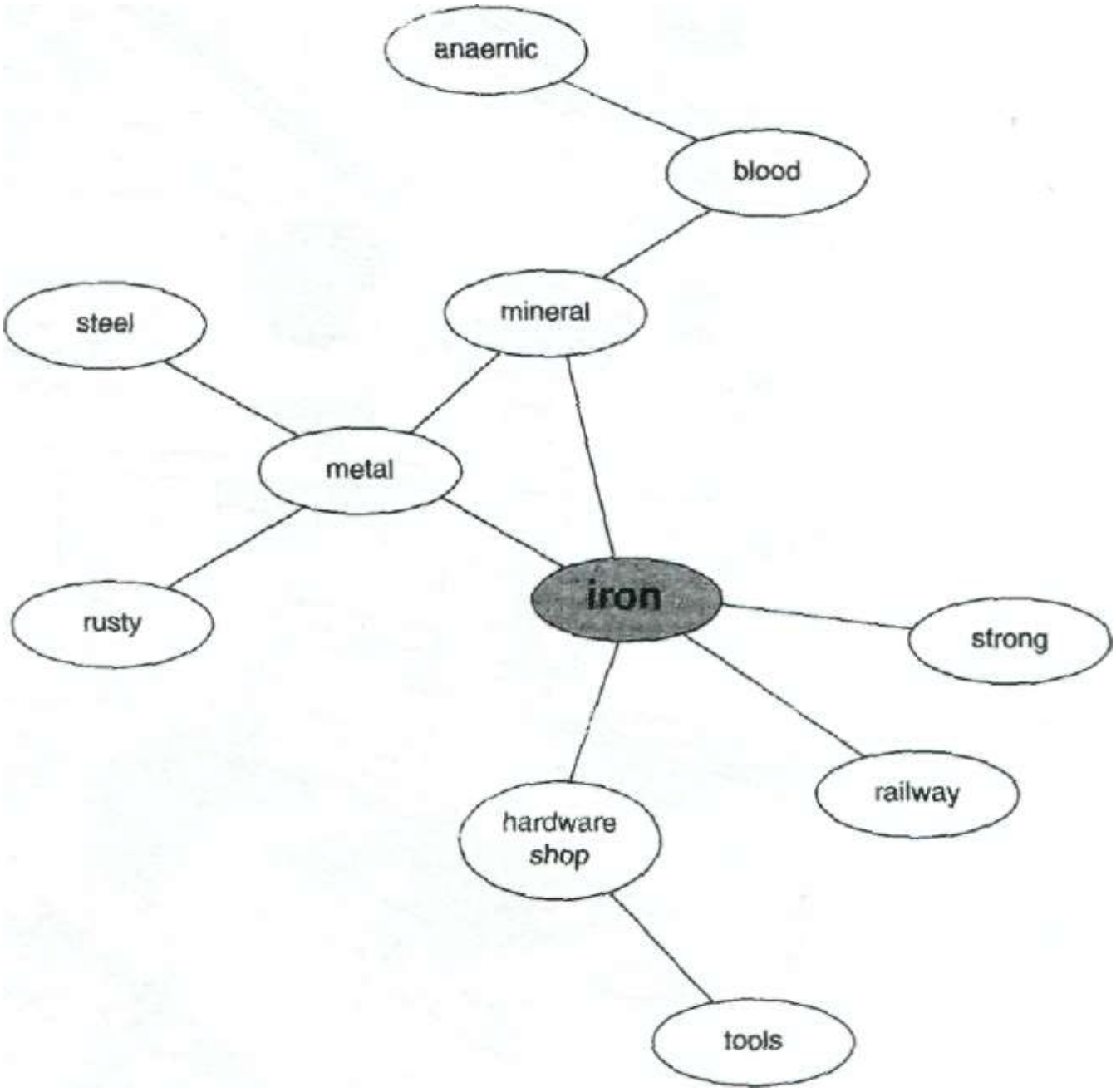
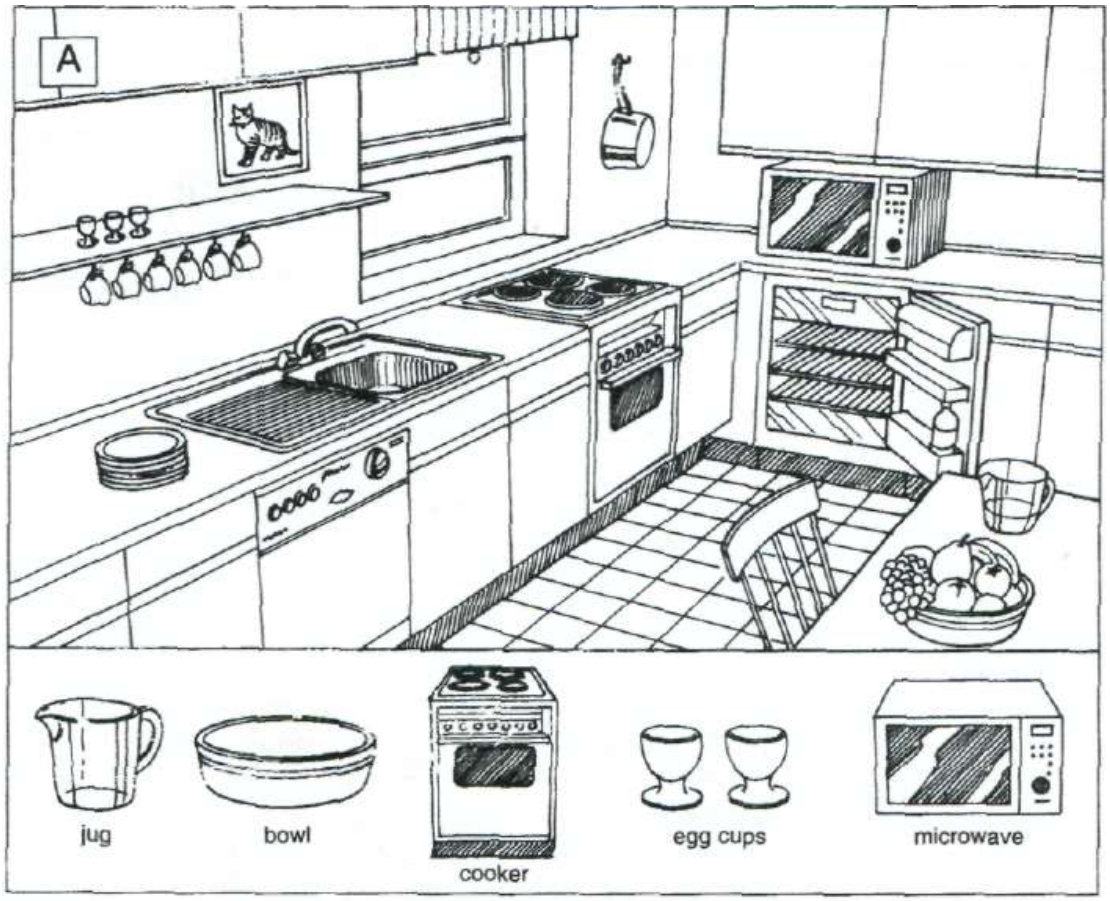
APPENDIX 1

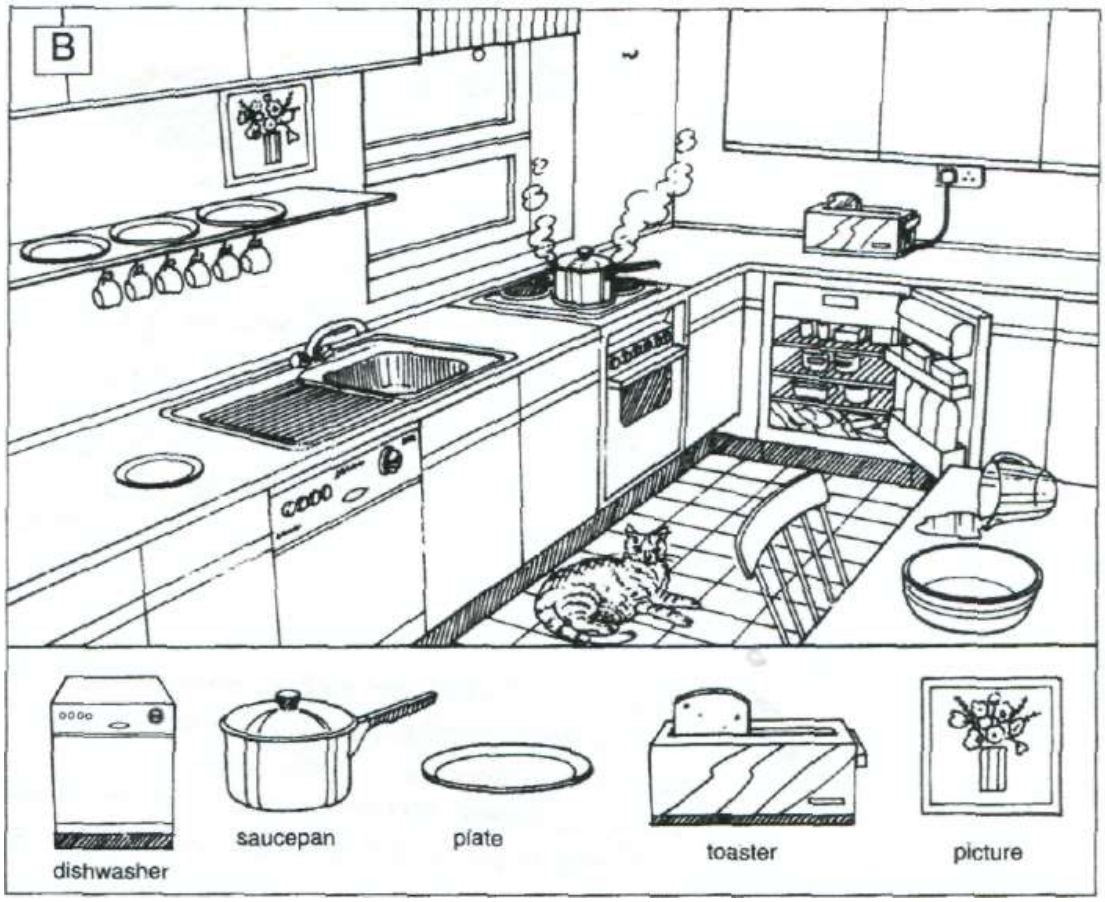
Brainstorming with

Iron.



APPENDIX2

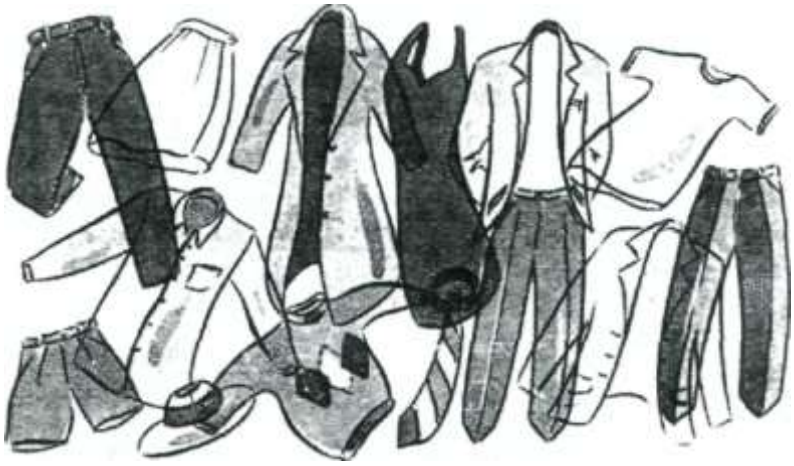

A
jug
bowl
cooker
egg cups
microwave


B
dishwasher
saucepan
plate
toaster
picture

APPENDIX 3

What are these clothes in English?

The answers are all in the word square.

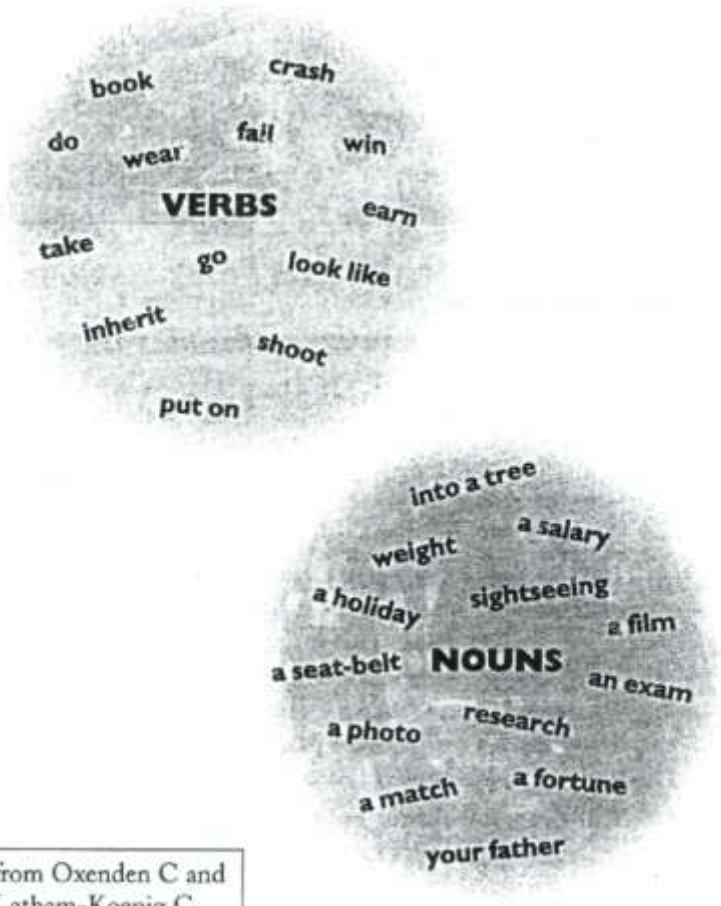


S	**H**	**I**	**R**	**T**	**O**	**S**	**I**
J	**A**	**C**	**K**	**E**	**T**	**H**	**L**
A	**T**	**C**	**J**	**N**	**J**	**O**	***T***
T	**R**	**0**	**U**	**S**	**E**	**R**	***S***
1	**D**	**A**	**M**	**W**	**A**	**T**	***H***
E	**X**	**T**	**P**	**U**	**N**	**S**	***I***
0	**D**	**R**	**E**	**S**	**S**	**J**	***R***
S	**K**	**I**	**R**	**T**	**U**	**P**	***T***
S	**U**	**S**	**U**	**I**	**T**	**J**	**E**

APPENDIX 4

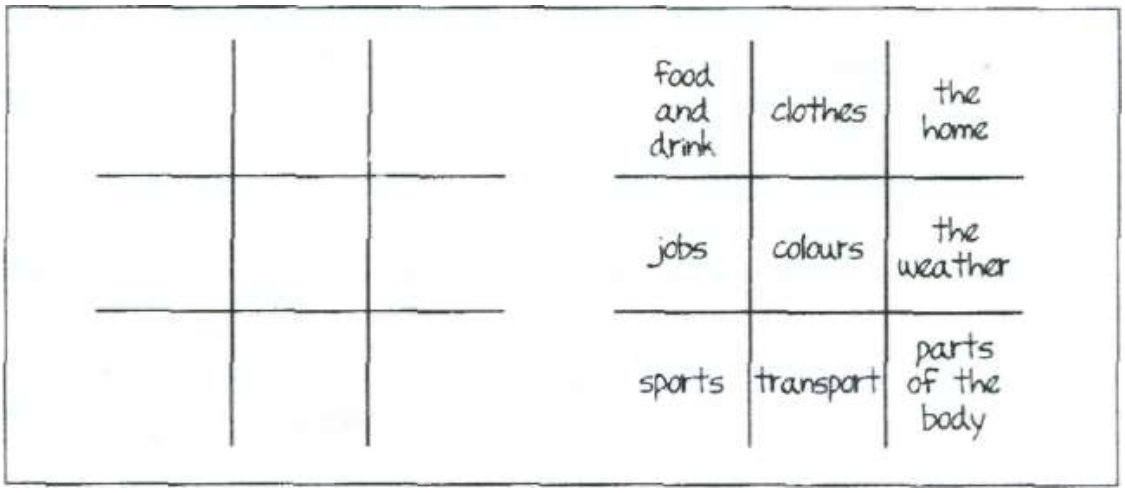
WORD PAIR RACE

In five minutes, write as many correct pairs of verb + noun phrases as possible.



from Oxenden C and Latham-Koenig C,

APPENDIX 5


food and drink
clothes
the home
jobs
colours
the weather
sports
transport
parts of the body