UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EFFECTIVE VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AT THE PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KOMENDA-EDINA-EGUAFO-ABREM MUNICIPALITY

BY

JOSEPH APPIAH-BAIDOO

Thesis submitted to the Department of Basic Education of the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Basic Education

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date: Date:

Name: Joseph Appiah-Baidoo

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature...... Date......

Name: Prof. Mrs. Christine Adu -Yeboah

Co-supervisor's Signature..... Date......

Name: Dr. Mrs. F.K. Etsey

ABSTRACT

Vocabulary knowledge is one of the leading indicators of a student's ability to comprehend a text. With this in mind, it is necessary that English language teachers in every content area, search for best practices in vocabulary instruction that will benefit students in comprehension. The purpose of the study was to assess effective teaching of vocabulary learning in English language at the public junior high in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality. Sixty-six (66) English language teachers teaching English as a subject in the public junior high schools were purposively sampled for the study. Questionnaire items were used to collect data, as well observation activities were used to observe English language teachers vocabulary instruction lesson in reading comprehension. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. The study found that majority of the respondents used extensive reading, repetition method, interaction and background knowledge of students to teach vocabulary in English language. This led to a discussion in the conclusion about the need for vocabulary instruction to be taken seriously in reading lessons in English language especially at the public junior high schools. The outcome of the study would help educational policy-makers and English language teachers in basic schools to identify and resolve such concerns to increase the success rate of implementing the curriculum.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to all those who helped to make this study possible, including but certainly not limited to the following. First of all, I would like to thank my principal and cosupervisors: Prof. Mrs. Christine Adu -Yeboah and: Dr. Mrs. F.K. Etsey who have been very supportive to me throughout my stay at the University of Cape Coast. Their encouraging smiles and comments helped me through difficult times and their suggestions also helped strengthen my arguments in writing this dissertation.

My final appreciation goes to Head-Teacher and Staff of Bantuma/Akyinim M/A Basic, Prof. and Mrs. Ghartey Ampiah, Madam Mariam Araba Ampah, John Acquah-Mensah, Millicent Sappor, Kofi Abram Panyin Kwakye, Paul Dentu Otis and Andrews Quayson for their moral support and encouragements.

DEDICATION

To my family and friends

TABLE OF CONTENTS

F	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	7
Purpose of the Study	9
Research Questions	9
Significance of the Study	9
Delimitation of the Study	10
Limitations of the study	10
Organisation of the Rest of the Study	11
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	
Constructivist Theory	12
Vocabulary Instruction in English Language	16
Definition of Vocabulary Knowledge	16
Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Instruction	18
Reasons for Vocabulary Instruction in Reading	22
Amount of New Words Students Should Learn in Vocabulary Learning	25
Principles Useful in Vocabulary Instruction	26

Teachers' Belief Systems about Vocabulary Instruction	31
Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction	34
Strategies / Activities to Build Vocabulary Instruction	39
Background Knowledge	47
Challenges in Designing Effective Vocabulary Acquisition	53
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	
Research Design	57
Population	59
Sample and Sampling Procedures	61
Instruments for Data Collection	65
Observation	67
Pilot-Testing	68
Data Collection Procedure	69
Data Analysis	71
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
English Language Teachers' Demographic Information	72
Research Question 1	75
Research Question 2	81
Research question 3	87
Research Question 4	93
Chapter Summary	99
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS	
Summary	102
Summary of key Findings	103

Conclusions	104
Recommendations	104
Suggestions for Future Studies	105
REFERENCES	106

LIST OF TABLES

Ta	ble	Page
1	Circuit and Number of Public Junior High Schools in K.E.E.A	60
2	Circuit and Number of English Language Teachers in K.E.E.A	60
3	Trend of Basic Education Certificate Examination Pass Rate in	
	Komenda-Edina-Eguafo Abrem Municipality	61
4	Number of Schools Selected for the Study in the KEEA	64
5	Number of English Language Teachers selected from each	
	Circuit	64
6	Gender Distribution of the English Language Teachers	72
7	Age Distribution of the English Language Teachers	73
8	Current Rank Distribution of the English Language Teachers	73
9	Distribution of Educational Background of English Language	
	Teachers	74
10	Distribution of Teaching Experience of English Language	
	Teachers	75
11	Belief Systems which Influence Vocabulary Instruction	76
12	Instructional Approaches used in Teaching Vocabulary	81
13	Activities to Build Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge	88
14	Challenges English Language Teachers Face	94
15	Challenges Students Face	96

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Vocabulary knowledge is an important element in second language acquisition. By learning new words, students can increase their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills and can improve comprehension and production in the second language. Nassaji (2004) asserted that students who learn English language as their second language have a wider vocabulary knowledge, and make more effective use of certain types of lexical inferencing strategies than their counterparts who have less vocabulary knowledge. This implies that students who do more reading in comprehension in English language are able to acquire meaning of new words than their counterparts who do less reading in comprehension. According to Nassaji, students' depth of vocabulary knowledge made a significant contribution to inferential success over and above the contribution made by the learner's degree of strategy use.

Carlos, August & Snow (2005), also posited that English language learners who experienced slow vocabulary development were less able to comprehend texts at the grade level than their English-only peers. Such students were likely to perform poorly on assessments in these areas and were at risk of being diagnosed as learning disabled. Students can increase their vocabulary knowledge formally in the classroom and informally through communication with others and one word class activities.

Teaching and learning of English language in the various educational institutions has been beneficial to national development. Recipients of formal education are always encouraged to take the learning of English language seriously, both inside and outside classrooms. In addition, successive governments have also done well, in providing educational materials to support teaching and learning of English language. Effective teaching and learning of English language in our educational establishments has also helped to train the manpower needs of the country.

Basic education in Ghana is made up of two years kindergarten, six years primary and three years Junior High School (JHS). The Junior High School is the entry stage for a comprehensive Senior High School, training in vocational, technical, agricultural and general education. Students' performance in their final examination at this level must therefore be seen as the preparatory stage of education and the determining entry point into further levels of education in Ghana

However, the language policy for formal education in Ghana has been unpredictable at the implementation stages. Sometimes, it was specified that the mother tongue of students should be used for the first three years of school, as the language of instruction, whereas English language is taught as a subject in the classrooms.

The current national language policy for schools in Ghana states: "In the first three years of primary education, the Ghanaian language prevalent in the local area is to be used as the medium of instruction while English language is studied as a subject. From Primary four onwards, English replaces the Ghanaian language as the medium of instruction and the

Ghanaian language becomes another subject on the time table" (Ministry of Education. 1999 cited in Mfum-Mensah, 2005; Andoh-Kumi, 2000).

As Leherr (2009), puts it "children learn to read in their mother tongue (L1) and also learn to speak English (L2), with a framework based on GES Language and Literacy Standards and Milestones. The instructional approach is supported by a comprehensive and high quality set of instructional materials, developed in all 11 Ghanaian languages of instruction and including both teacher and learner materials" (p. i).

In Ghana, basic education with observable learning outcomes can be achieved from teachers' competencies, skills and zeal for their profession. English language teachers play a pivotal role to the fulfilment of educational goals, since the performance of learners lies on the competencies and skills of teachers. Teaching and learning of English language at the basic level serves as a background for learners to study other subjects and related course at the higher educational levels. Generally, good academic performance of learners in English language is reflected in performance in class exercises and end of term examinations.

Research findings on second language by Martino and Hoffman (2002), Espin and Foegen (1996), illustrate that vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of academic achievement across subject matter domains. Due to the pivotal role vocabulary knowledge plays in the overall school success and mobility, basic and secondary school teachers alike must devote more time and attention to selecting and explicitly teaching words that will

enable learners of the English Language to meet the demands of today's standards based curricula.

In contrast, there is a huge disparity between comprehension and vocabulary knowledge among students in the public junior high schools. Most learners of English language find it hard to link the new words acquired to other reading activities in English language. For this reason, certain aspects of the English language, such as vocabulary instruction, are often relegated. Indeed, from experience over the years, some teachers who are teaching English language at the junior high schools often shirk the responsibility of teaching vocabulary, which is the core of the language.

As Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborn (2003) put it students with lower vocabulary skills tend to struggle to understand the meaning of a story or article as a whole because vocabulary is a building block in learning to read. As students learn to decode words, previous aural experiences form the foundation to create meanings for print.

This is however not the case in many public schools in the country, especially at the junior high schools. This has compelled parents, guardians and other stakeholders of education to raise concerns on the issue of vocabulary instruction in English language. These concerns border on the students' inability to use the right amount of words to express themselves orally and in writing activities. These are also reflected in the inability of the pupils to transfer their knowledge and skills acquired in vocabulary, especially in the learning of English language, in responding to questions relating to other subjects of study.

Educational issues relating to teachers' competencies, pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, training, and instructional strategies in some topics in English language, have been the bone of contention among teachers and educational planners. Others have also commented on the competence levels of the teachers in teaching English language at the basic schools. These issues arise, as a result of teachers inability to link reading activities to vocabulary learning.

Another interesting aspect of the debate is on curriculum and content issues, which have not helped to improve learners' vocabulary competencies. Educational implementers and evaluators, especially for basic education have raised these issues, based on the performance of the pupils in their final examination results. This problem is seen in learners' writing and speaking abilities, where they find it difficult to use the right words in their communicative and interactive processes in their lives.

Teaching and learning of the English language at various levels of Ghana's educational system has become necessary due its relevancy to the socio-economic development of the country. English language is the official and administrative language, the political, economic and academic language for the country, in the area of training and educating the manpower needs of the nation. Dolphyne (1995) strengthened the statement further by stating that, English language has come to stay as the official language of the country and is used as the main medium of instruction in schools, and a means to conduct government business. It is used in parliament, in court, civil service, in the media and in the army and for preaching by many religious bodies.

Adams and Keene (2000) stated that English plays a significant role in education and therefore students are expected to communicate effectively in English in institutions where English is the medium of instruction. Learners face the task of mastering the content area in subjects such as Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, and Business programmes which are taught in the target language (English). In such cases, teaching and learning of English can help the students to deal successfully with their academic demands and to perform successfully in their disciplines and professional contexts. It is in this direction that the government of Ghana sees it as a necessity to include the teaching and learning of the English language, as a subject and a medium of instruction for all the various levels education in the country, as contained in the 2007 Education Reform Policy report.

Afful (2007) stated that although English is an official language in Ghana, its teaching and learning often pose some challenges to both teachers and students in schools, colleges and even universities. Studies have however revealed that the challenges posed by the use of English as second language in Ghana are as a result of how the language is taught and learned at all levels of education in the country. For example, studies have revealed that that some teachers of English as a second language do not have the requisite training or qualification before teaching the subject in some schools, colleges and even universities in Ghana.

Making a strong case for the teaching and learning of the language, does not necessarily lead to the success and the fulfilment of the objectives and purposes of the teaching and learning of English language, within the new educational reform. In the current *English Language Syllabus for Junior High*

Schools (2007), vocabulary instruction is not a topic on its own but rather infused into the teaching and learning of reading comprehension (Reading activities as an aspect in English language), where it is taught during reading lessons. The focus of vocabulary instruction as part of reading lessons is to help students build their vocabulary power. It is gradually introduced to students in their first year in their Junior High School through their final stage in Junior High School.

Statement of the Problem

According to the National Institute for Literacy (2001) and Sedita (2005) students have ideas in the word knowledge they bring to school. Also, their socioeconomic backgrounds and the language used in their homes and communities can significantly influence opportunities to expand their vocabularies. However, some students have limited vocabulary knowledge as a result of a language-based learning disability. Good oral vocabulary (words we use in speaking and listening) is linked directly to later success in reading, and students who have more vocabulary knowledge in kindergarten become better readers than those who have limited vocabulary.

Sedita (2005) and Chall and Jacobs (1983) declared there is a gap in the vocabulary knowledge that some students bring to school, and this gap widens as students progress through the learning stages in school. They added that students who lack adequate vocabulary knowledge have difficulty getting meaning from what they read, so they read less because they find reading difficult. As a result, they learn fewer words because they are not reading widely enough to encounter and learn new words. On the other hand, students

with well-developed vocabularies read more, which improves their reading skill, and they learn more words.

Stahl (1999) opined that the differences in children's word knowledge are due largely to differences in the amount of text to which they are exposed and that students need to read gradually more difficult materials to improve vocabulary. Children with reading problems read less and vocabulary knowledge suffers.

In Ghana, school-going children at the basic schools are having challenges in reading and understanding the text in English language textbooks because they are unable to recognize words, meanings of new words in the text. Also, students are unable to decode the meaning of the text which frustrate their efforts to do meaningful reading activities. This situation has made many basic school students to develop negative attitudes towards comprehension reading, and this situation of reading challenges among students at the basic schools has affected students speaking and writing abilities.

Inadequate textbooks, quality of the supplementary reading materials, teacher factor, home factors and many more are examples of the contributory factors to the problem. Above factors when combine partially have direct bearings on vocabulary instruction in English language. It is against this background that, the study assessed how effectively vocabulary instruction in English language is offered at the public junior high schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem District (K.E.E.A) in the Central Region.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine how teachers teach meanings of new words in reading lessons in English language at the public junior high schools and the approaches adopted by the teachers to build the vocabulary knowledge of students. The study also focused on the belief systems which influence English language teachers in vocabulary instruction and the challenges which English language teachers encounter in designing vocabulary instruction in English language.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions;

- 1. Which belief systems do English language teachers hold in vocabulary instruction in the Komenda- Edina- Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?
- 2. What instructional approaches do English language teachers adopt /use in teaching vocabulary in the Komenda- Edina- Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?
- 3. Which strategies do English language teachers use in building learners' vocabulary knowledge in the Komenda- Edina- Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?
- 4. What challenges do English language teachers encounter in designing vocabulary instruction in the Komenda- Edina- Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?

Significance of the Study

Teaching and learning of vocabulary in English language is necessary to the oral and writing development of the learners, especially at the Basic School. It was expected that, results from the study would among other things help the English language teachers in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality on the appropriate teaching methods in vocabulary instruction. Besides, policy-makers and implementers such as the Ghana Education Service, Ministry of Education will find the findings of the study useful and could integrate programmes and policies that are aimed at improving the quality of education. It was also expected that the results from the study would add to the existing literature on vocabulary instruction. Finally, the findings from the study would help in the development and evaluation of curriculum areas in the English language for the Basic Schools.

Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on vocabulary instruction in English language at the public J.H.S in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem (K.E.E.A.) Municipality of Ghana. The results from the study were delimited to the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality and focused on the teachers teaching English language at the public high schools.

Limitations of the Study

The study experienced certain difficulties that may affect its reliability and generalizability. Some of the respondents were not cooperative and supportive to the study, especially in soliciting their opinions on the research questions raised in the study. It was possible that some of the responses from the respondents might not reflect the actual situation within the district. This may place restrictions on the conclusion of the study and as a result limit the application of the conclusions.

Organisation of the Rest of the Study

The study is divided into five (5) chapters, and each chapter, has been divided into sub- headings/sub- chapters. Chapter One discussed the Background to the Study, Statement of the Problem, Purpose of the Study, Research Questions, Significance of the Study, Delimitation/ Limitation of the Study and Organisation of the rest of the Study. Chapter Two focused on the review of the related literature on the study. Chapter Three of the study described the methodology.

The methodology section of the study included sub-themes like the Research Design, Population, Sampling and Sampling Techniques, Research Instrument, Pilot-Testing, Data Collection Procedure and Data Analysis. The fourth chapter of the study centred on the Results and Discussion of the data collected. It also discussed the results of the data, which were collected, using statistical tools like Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 16) to bring out results from the study. Chapter five was the Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations of the Study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews studies conducted by other researchers considered relevant to this study. The review of related literature permits comparison of the findings of this study and similar researches to provide a basis for confirming or refuting earlier conclusions. This research study seeks to fill in the gaps on the assessment effective of vocabulary instruction in English language at the public junior high schools, which other review related paid less attention to literature to address. It breaks down the issues under theoretical and empirical literature.

The Constructivist theory is discussed as well as empirical studies on Vocabulary Instruction in English language, Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction, and Teachers' Belief Systems about Vocabulary Instruction, Strategies/Activities to Build Vocabulary Instruction, Challenges in Designing Effective Vocabulary Acquisition.

Constructivist Theory

Nyaradzo and Jennifer (2012) indicated that a classroom with different learning needs and diverse language backgrounds poses a great challenge to the class teacher. Students learning English language in schools present a specific challenge to teachers as they represent such a varied range of academic ability and English language abilities. Constructivism has emerged as one of the greatest influences on the practice of education in the last twenty-five years. Constructivism is widely considered as an approach to probe for

children's level of understanding and the ways in which that understanding can be taken to higher level thinking.

It is a way of learning and thinking. It describes how students make meanings of the material and how they can be taught most effectively. It also considered as an educational theory that holds that teachers should take into account what students know. Simply explained it is a collection of educational practices which are student-focused, meaning-based, process-oriented, interactive and responsive to students' personal interests and needs. Teachers then build on this knowledge and allow students to put their knowledge into practice as suggested by (Nyaradzo & Jennifer 2012).

However, the meanings of constructivism vary according to one's perspective and position. Within educational contexts there are philosophical meanings of constructivism, as well as personal constructivism as explained by Piaget (1967), social constructivism described by Vygtosky (1978), radical constructivism opined by von Glasersfeld (1995),epistemologies, and educational constructivism by Mathews (1998). Nevertheless, social constructivism and educational constructivism (including theories of learning and pedagogy) have gained acceptance and have had positive impacts on instruction and curriculum design because they are considered to be the most conducive to integration into current educational approaches, especially in the area of language acquisition and learning in English language.

Li (2005) held that learning is an active process in which learners construct their own knowledge and understanding. That is, the students should be the centre of teaching, although we should not neglect the importance of the

teacher's guidance. Constructivism defines learning as a process of active knowledge construction and not as passive knowledge absorption as asserted by Freiberg (1999), Reigeluth (1999) and von Glasersfeld (1995). Students integrate new information into pre-existing mental structures, and adjust personal interpretation through the acquisition of new information and experience (Jonassen, Davidson, Collins, Campbell & Haag, 1995).

According to Smith and Elley (1995) constructivism focus is on the learning processes as opposed to learning products. The process by which a student determines a particular answer is more important than retrieval of objective solutions. Student error is viewed as a mechanism of gaining insight into how students organize their experiential world.

Instructional activities focus on satisfying actual student needs and solving real problems. The teacher is conceptualized as a facilitator of student understanding as opposed to a transmitter of knowledge. The role of the teacher is not to dispense knowledge but to provide students with opportunities and incentives to make meaning, according to von Glasersfeld (1996).

Hoover (1996) suggested four ways through which students demonstrate their constructive skills in learning situations. First, learners construct new understandings using what they already know. They come to learning situations with knowledge gained from previous experiences. That prior knowledge influences what new or modified knowledge they will construct from the new learning experiences.

Secondly, if learning is centred on prior knowledge, then teachers must pay attention to that knowledge and provide learning environments that exploit inconsistencies between learners' current understandings and the new experiences before them. This puts a challenge for teachers as they cannot assume that all children understand something in the same way. To add up to the explanations, children may need different experiences to advance to different levels of understanding

Third, if students must apply their current understandings in new situations to help them to build new knowledge, then teachers must engage students in active learning activities, which will bring students' current understandings to the forefront. Teachers can ensure that learning experiences are integrated to the problems which are important to students, not those that are primarily important to teachers and the educational system.

Fourth, if new knowledge is actively built, then time is needed to build it. Sufficient time provides opportunities for students to do reflection about new experiences, how those experiences line up against current understandings, and how a different understanding might provide students with improved ideas.

Accordingly, individuals create or construct their own new understandings or knowledge through the interaction of what they already believe in and the ideas, events, and activities with which they come into contact. The teacher is a guide, facilitator, and co-explorer who encourages learners to question, challenge and formulate their own ideas, opinions and conclusions.

The theory of constructivism is a good model to contemplate the links between personal vocabulary skills and reading comprehension ability. Constructivist theory is grounded in the ideas that all learners are active participants in construction of personal understanding and the more the learning takes place in the context of real world tasks the more meaningful the understanding will be (Woolfolk, 2010).

Vocabulary Instruction in English Language

This aspect of the literature coordinates ideas and findings which have direct relationship between vocabulary and reading activities in the English language instruction at the basic schools. The sub-topics which have been discussed and linked to the broad theme include: Definition of Vocabulary Knowledge, Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Instruction, Reasons for Vocabulary Instruction in Reading Activities Amount of Words Students Should Learn in Vocabulary Learning, Principles Useful in Vocabulary Instruction, Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction.

Definition of Vocabulary Knowledge

Nagy and Scott (2000) and Stahl (1999) suggested that vocabulary knowledge is equally multidimensional and complex in nature; knowing a word well requires a combination of different types of knowledge: its definition, its relationship to other words, its connotations in different contexts (i.e., polysemy), and its transformation into other morphological forms. Knowledge of a word—particularly an abstract, conceptually sophisticated word—is thought to develop incrementally over time, with students' gaining additional information about a word with each meaningful, contextualized encounter with it.

Kamil and Hiebert (2005) defined vocabulary as the knowledge of words and words meaning. More specifically, we use vocabulary to refer to the kind of words that students must know and to use the new words.

Vocabulary has been defined as "the storehouse of word meanings that we draw on to comprehend what is said to us, express our thoughts, or interpret what we read" (Moats, 2005, p. 7). In addition, Montgomery (2007) stated that the depth and breadth of individuals' vocabulary is highly correlated with their overall language development and is a factor in their ability to use language in varied contexts and for multiple purposes.

Zimmerman (2007) explained the meaning of vocabulary as the set of words that are the basic building blocks used in the generation and understanding of sentence. For a learner to become competent in the formation and easy understanding of sentences, then that person needs the basic skills in understanding the meaning of new words and how the new words are used in sentences. This skills of understanding the meaning of new words and its usage in sentence formation can be properly achieved through vocabulary instruction in English language. There can be no complete understanding without the existence of words, serving as the basic building blocks.

Vocabulary is considered essential for language acquisition and development and is recognized as a necessary factor for success in school and achievement in society. There is a substantial body of evidence demonstrating a link between vocabulary and students' ability to read and comprehend passages as opined by the National Reading Panel (2000), Klare (1984), Beck, McCaslin, & McKeown (1980), Draper & Moellar (1971).

Graves (2000) defined vocabulary as the entire stock of words belonging to a branch of knowledge or known by an individual. He further states that the lexicon of a language is its vocabulary, which includes words and expressions. That is, the learners' ability to have the stock of entire words

is not guaranteed in any literacy activities. Clearly, vocabulary knowledge is essential for successful language learning and influences the learner's oral performance, as well as all the language competencies (Milton, 2008).

Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Instruction

Janxen (2007) opined that reading is "critical" to the academic achievement of second language learners (p.707). This implies that, well-structured reading activities have a direct link to the vocabulary development of the students. Students with good reading skills are able to have more words than students with poor reading skills. Davis (1968) opined that, vocabulary learning is an inherently important part of language acquisition. The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is well established in the reading literature. This implies that, vocabulary knowledge helps in the reading and communicative skills of the learners. Teachers of languages, especially English language teachers need to develop the vocabulary activities, which help students to develop their competencies in vocabulary knowledge.

Davis (1944, 1968) and Thorndyke (1973) opined that vocabulary is an important part of a comprehensive reading programme because they believe that students who understand words in a selection will comprehend what they read. They explain further that, there is strong link between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension; that is, most students who do well on vocabulary tests also do well on reading comprehension tests. This suggests that, vocabulary knowledge must be linked to the comprehensive reading programme, so as to help children to understand the meaning of the text they

read. Vocabulary instruction must not always be limited to reading of comprehension, but must linked to the other literacy activities like listening, speaking and writing which help to broaden and deepen students word knowledge.

According to Pang, Muaka Bernhardt and Kamil (2003), to have a successful reading process, readers need to make use of their background knowledge, grammatical knowledge, vocabulary, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand a written text. Extending the discussion further, Hu Hsueh-Chao & Nation (2000 P. 403), declared that, "The relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is complex and dynamic. One way of looking at it is to divide it up into two major directions of effect-the effect of vocabulary knowledge on reading comprehension and the effect of reading comprehension on vocabulary knowledge or growth".

The National Reading Panel (2000) hypothesized that vocabulary instruction is one of the five core components of reading instruction that are useful to teaching students how to read. These core components include phonemic awareness, phonics and word study, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. Vocabulary is also a heartbeat to English language. Students often recognize its importance to their language learning since they feel that it is necessary to understand and communicate with others in English language. They learn them to build their knowledge of words and phrases, and help them in enhancing their English language knowledge and use.

According to Hirsch (2003), one of the oldest findings in educational research confirms the strong correlation between vocabulary knowledge and

reading comprehension. Word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will understand the texts they read inside and outside the school environment. Comprehension is beyond recognizing words and remembering their meanings.

If a student does not know the meanings of a sufficient proportion of the words in the text, comprehension becomes impossible. Reading comprehension is a complex skill that demands higher level processing such as drawing on prior knowledge, making inferences and resolving structural and semantic ambiguities. Reading activities include the integration of many specific linguistic and cognitive skills (e.g., word reading, syntactic awareness) with background and cultural knowledge as opined by Kintsch(1994), McNamara, Kintsch, Songer, and Kintsch (1996) Alexander and Jetton(2000). Each of these components (making inference, semantics, cognitive skills and background knowledge) of effective comprehension necessarily brings in vocabulary knowledge; once words are decoded accurately, the reader must grasp the words' meanings to understand clauses, propositions and paragraphs.

A study on reading comprehension confirmed that background knowledge and vocabulary were some of the strongest predictors of comprehension activities and indirectly influenced whether a student would apply problem-solving strategies when meaning breaks down as suggested by Cromley and Azevedo (2007). There is reason to believe that vocabulary knowledge is a particularly important factor in understanding the reading problems experienced by second-language learners. In spite of this, the connections existing between vocabulary knowledge and comprehension are

exceptionally complex, confounded, as it is, by the complexity of relationships among vocabulary knowledge, conceptual and cultural knowledge, and instructional opportunities.

Accordingly, the primary goal of reading instruction is to develop students' skills and knowledge so that they can comprehend and critically analyse increasingly complex texts independently. Research findings have long established and confirmed strong connection between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. On the contrary, poor readers often lack adequate vocabulary to get meaning from what they read. Thus, reading is difficult and tedious for them, and their skill is inhibited because their vocabulary is limited.

Sweet and Snow (2004) discussed that vocabulary instruction is considered one of the key mechanisms and important effects of metacognitive processes within the reading comprehension process which help students to acquire know more words and have more abstract language at their disposal. As a result students with developed understanding of language and strategies are able to manipulate language which they learn words more successfully. Students are able to apply their cognitive skills and processes in finding out the meanings of new words in comprehension.

Metacognitive processes in students are usually done through their background knowledge on the new words. Sternberg (1987) advanced the debate further that, skilled readers acquire much of their vocabulary through encounters with unfamiliar words while reading; children with impoverished vocabularies cannot necessarily rely on learning words through wide reading.

Stanovich (1986) affirmed that struggling readers read less than their typically achieving peers, they encounter fewer words, especially low-frequency words, than do skilled readers. These learners also suffer from less developed metacognitive strategies for word learning; they are less equipped to use surrounding words and grammatical clues to glean the meaning of unfamiliar words from context, and often cannot rely on surrounding known words because the ratio of known to unknown words is too high as indicated by Carver (1994), Stoller & Grabe (1995).

Reasons for Vocabulary Instruction in Reading

Every vocabulary instruction points out that (1) students learn the meanings of most words indirectly, through every day experiences, and (2) some vocabulary must be taught directly (Joan, 2008). Students acquire the meaning of new words through their experiences like hearing the new words on radio, television or seeing the new word from a story book or magazine. Through this means, students are able to learn new words in their daily life experiences.

One of the reasons English language teachers are concerned about teaching vocabulary is to promote the comprehension which students will be assigned to read. If students do not know the meaning of many of the words that they will meet in a text, their comprehension of that selection is likely to be diminished. When the purpose of vocabulary instruction is to facilitate the comprehension of a selection, it is obvious that this instruction must take place as an introduction before the reading of the selection.

Accordingly, new words that are critical to an understanding of the major topic or theme should be introduced and discussed prior to reading,

since the examination of these pre-condition terms and concepts will establish a strong foundation for subsequent learning.

Another reason for vocabulary instruction is to increase the number of words that students know and can use in a variety of educational, social, and eventually work-related areas. To expand the number of words students learn, it is often effective to teach these words in morphological or semantic clusters. Semantic clusters may be explained as the words that are related in meaning or relate to the same field of study. Teaching words in semantic clusters is particularly helpful since vocabulary expansion involves not just the acquisition of the meaning of individual words but also learning the relationships among words and how these words relate to each other

According to Sedita (2005) vocabulary knowledge is central to learning activities because it includes all the words students must know, in order to access their background knowledge, express their ideas and communicate effectively, and learn about new concepts. Such students' word knowledge is linked strongly to academic success because students who have large vocabularies can understand new ideas and concepts more quickly than students with limited vocabularies.

In support of the importance, students with good reading skills and abilities will read more and acquire more new words, and even become better readers. Learners' needs and the usefulness of the vocabulary items generally determine which items are learned. Thus, students with larger vocabularies gain much of their superior vocabulary knowledge through extensive reading.

In reading activities, students also acquire all kinds of other knowledge that would give them an advantage: a variety of topical knowledge, knowledge of text structures and genres, and fluency in word recognition, to name a few.

In the face of obvious importance to academic success, vocabulary development and its instruction has received little instructional attention in recent years. Recent research studies, however, indicate that vocabulary instruction may be problematic because many teachers are not "confident about best practice in vocabulary instruction and at times do not know where to begin to form an instructional emphasis on word learning" as declared by Berne and Blachowicz (2008, p. 315). Finding ways to expand students' vocabulary growth throughout the school years must become a major educational priority in the subject areas like English language.

Moving forward, current and future research studies must emphasise on effective instructional practices so as to help in development of vocabulary learning among Second Language Learners, since vocabulary learning connects to comprehending and analysing texts in their students schooling activities, and conceptually help students read complex words in textbooks independently. As long as such research activity is going to inform instructional advancement at scale, it must be conducted in natural and well-founded procedures. Harmon, Wood, Hedrick, and Gress (2008) strengthened the arguments further that vocabulary learning is a continual process of encountering new words in meaningful and comprehensible contexts.

Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin (1990) suggested that it is necessary for children to develop knowledge of the meanings of the words from a young age, since vocabulary development has an impact on their reading comprehension and academic success as they get older. When children do not understand the meanings of important words in a text, they are unlikely to understand the text.

Even though researchers agree that learning vocabulary is important in the language learning process and that vocabulary growth is closely linked to school progress as declared by Walker, Greenwood, Hart, and Carta (1994), there has been an on-going debate since the beginning of the 20th century, as to exactly how children learn new words, what are the normal rates of vocabulary growth, and what is the average vocabulary size of students in the primary grades.

Amount of New Words Students Should Learn in Vocabulary Learning

Recent estimates of vocabulary growth and size have become more consistent, with suggested vocabulary gains in early grades estimated at 3,000 words per year according to Graves (1986) and vocabulary size of five to six year-old students as being between 2,500 and 5,000 words as suggested by Beck and McKeown (1991). Research findings however show that students differ significantly in both of these areas as early as the primary grades as opined by Baker, Simmons and Kameenui (1995). For example, second grade students in the lowest quartile can gain, on average, 1.5 root words as indicated by Anglin, (1993) a day for a total of 4,000 root word meanings, whereas second-grade students in the highest quartile can gain, on average, 3 root words a day, for a total of 8,000 root word meanings.

These vocabulary gaps tend to increase significantly throughout school with the first onset being at about grade 4 or 5, when students are required to shift their attention from word recognition (the medium) to word meaning (the

message). This shift takes place when students can recognize most common words and can decode others, but have difficulties with reading textbooks with more abstract specialized and unfamiliar words according to Chall (1987).

Principles Useful in Vocabulary Instruction

Reutzel and Cooter (2008) suggested three principles, which help in guiding vocabulary instruction. These principles which help in the teaching of vocabulary focus on the teacher offering definitions and context during vocabulary instruction. They opine that, learners learn new words in two different ways. Learners learn the basic definitions of the new words, which help them to determine the logical relationship of a word compared to other words, as in a dictionary definition. Synonyms, antonyms, classification schemes, word roots, affixes are some of the comparisons learners use to find the meaning of new words.

Context information is the second way learners use to find the meaning of new words in a sentence. Reutzel and Cooter (2008) define context information as knowing the basic core definition of a word and how it varies, or is changed in different texts. For instance, a particular word can have multiple meanings in a sentence. It is therefore important for the English language teachers to help learners to understand the meaning of new words, by using the contextual relations of the word. Without the context information, it is impossible for learners to understand the meaning of a word with multiple meanings.

It is therefore necessary for teachers to assist learners to understand the definitional and contextual relations of words. When English language teachers include definitional and context information in vocabulary instruction, it helps to improve learners' speaking and writing skills. However, most English language teachers find it difficult to use the first principle to teach learners in vocabulary instruction. When this continues for a long period of time, learners will acquire fewer amounts of new words and meanings. Hence, learners cannot express their ideas and write well, due to limited words.

Principle two is about deep processing, which focuses on the word relating to the information that learners' already know and spending time on the task of learning new words. This principle further focuses on three levels of processing vocabulary instruction. These levels include; association processing, comprehension processing and generation processing. Association processing is about students learning simple associations through language permutations as synonyms and word associations. Comprehension processing moves the students beyond simple associations by having them do something with the association. That is, students will fit the word into sentence, classifying the word with words, or finding antonyms.

Generation processing under principle two discusses comprehended association and generating of a new or novel product. That is, it involves the restatement of the definition in the students' own words, creating a novel sentence using the word correctly in a clear context, or comparing the definition to the students' own personal experiences. Combining these levels of vocabulary instruction helps students to form words association in sentences, understand the meaning of the new words in the sentence and also use the experiences of the students, to generate the meaning of the word.

Principle three focuses on how teachers expose students to multiple new reading vocabularies. This principle demands sufficient time and varied context activities, in order to improve students' understanding in learning the meaning of the new words. The more time to vocabulary instruction, the greater the chances for learning to take place. When teachers apply this principle, students develop depth and breadth of word knowledge that goes beyond simple memorization. It helps students to develop strategies for acquiring new vocabulary independently.

Beck and McKeown (1991), Haggard (1982, 1986) and Ruddell (1994) identified principles useful for vocabulary which includes the importance of active learning. This principle serves as a key to successful instruction, by getting students to actively involve in the vocabulary learning processes. Active involvement of students in vocabulary instruction does not only ensure mental engagement in the learning processes, it also builds the high interest in vocabulary study. Active participation ensures that students reason with the words and also integrate the new information into their background knowledge.

Additionally, reasoning with the words involves three processes, which help to ensure active students' participation in vocabulary study. These processes include; new word to be developed and understood in the meaning context in which it is found. The word needs to be related to semantically similar words and word groups through comparison, contrast to refine, connect and integrate meanings. The meaning of new words can be enhanced and connected to other semantically related words by creating new and varied contexts and interpretations. This implies that, providing meaning clues and

connections between words help students to develop understanding for the new words.

Another principle for the vocabulary instruction is the personal motivation and vocabulary development. Teachers' awareness of students' motivation can be valuable in stimulating vocabulary learning and development. Motivating students to learn and develop their vocabulary can be done in safe environments like the classroom. The classroom should be rich with print materials, in order to stimulate students' motivation towards vocabulary. Central to the learners' motivation is the social nature of vocabulary. That is, learning the meaning of new words must relate to the social interaction within the classroom and outside the classroom. Doing this does not only stimulate students' motivation, but help to promote effective vocabulary instruction.

Furthermore, identifying new vocabulary for teaching and selecting new words to teach is necessary for reading, writing and speaking instructions. Teachers must select new words carefully by using this principle for vocabulary learning, so as to ensure learners' understanding and involvement in vocabulary instruction. Selection of new words and meanings must be central to the reading, writing and speaking instructions. The teachers' selection of new words must be in the context of the reading, and speaking activities. When teachers apply these criteria before, during and after reading activities, it helps to evaluate students' understanding towards the meaning of the new words in a text.

The use of basal reader in vocabulary instruction as another principle involves the activities of teaching new words before reading. Directed reading

activity is one of the strategies, which teachers use to teach meaning of new words. This strategy is useful when teachers guide students to identify these new words and based on the judgement of the guide writer, who will apply his/ her own standards in choosing words for the lists. For these reasons, the teacher will make the final decisions on which new words should be taught and also decides words to be introduced during reading.

Students' reading abilities improve during the developmental and learning stages of vocabulary instructions. This happens when the teacher guides students to find the meaning of new words, in relation to context of the reading. Another strategy to this vocabulary instruction is the selection and the use of stories which are familiar to the students. Stories which are familiar to the students, aid students' understanding of the new words, guides students on the usage of the new words in sentences and also promote effective vocabulary instruction.

Blachowicz and Fisher (2000) identified four principles of vocabulary instruction. They suggest that the students should personalize word learning. This principle is connected to active development of vocabulary that demands actual use of new words in different contexts to conduct personal matters. The students themselves decide what word to learn and how to learn. The second principle needs occupying of the students in the learning of vocabulary.

It means on-going commitment for the vocabulary learning throughout the day in different forms. It is achieved when language is not only exposed but explained to students. The third principle is based on the view that word building needs multiple exposure of different intensity. A single exposure and activity is not enough to develop rich understanding of vocabulary. It takes place in many steps over a period of time. Each exposure adds information on how the word is used in different contexts.

They further suggested that, there is need of 12 exposures (activities) for getting mastery and proper utilization of new lexical items. The students must be provided opportunities and activities to think on the learnt lexical item and to link the new words (vocabulary knowledge) with the previous knowledge. The massive exposure of vocabulary may confuse the students in the use of words in spoken and written form.

The last principle emphasizes that the students should be active in learning the word. They should not be passive recipients in word knowledge. They should be encouraged to make connections between their learnt and previous knowledge. It allows students to experiment with words in different ways.

Teachers' Belief Systems about Vocabulary Instruction

Harste and Burke (1977) explained teachers' theoretical beliefs as the philosophical principles, or belief systems, which guide teachers' expectations about students' behaviour, and the decisions they make during reading lessons. Additionally, teachers make decisions about classroom instruction in light of theoretical beliefs they hold about teaching and learning. Teachers' beliefs influence their goals, procedures, materials, classroom interaction patterns, their roles, their students, and the schools they work in.

In addition, Borko and Putnam's (1996) educational research findings appreciate that teachers' beliefs and knowledge influence their classroom practices. They explained teachers' beliefs as the set of beliefs and knowledge that teachers have formed as a result of their classroom experiences. Language

teachers' beliefs and understandings of teaching as well as learning play an important role in their classroom practices and in their professional growth. The teacher's beliefs about learning will lead them to different strategies and consequently it will have some effect on the learners' amount of learning.

Understanding the experiences of teachers with varied orientations toward vocabulary instruction can provide teacher educators with information to guide the development of students' vocabulary. Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001) confirmed that teachers possess assumptions about language and language learning, and that these provide the basis for a particular approach to language instruction.

Duffy (1982), Lampert (1985), Duffy and Ball (1986) supported the notion that teachers do possess theoretical beliefs in the direction of reading and such beliefs tend to shape the nature of their instructional practices. Although these research studies support the conception that teachers teach in accordance with their theoretical beliefs. Duffy (1982), Lampert (1985), Duffy and Ball (1986) further argued that teachers' theoretical beliefs may shape the nature of classroom interactions as well as have a critical impact on students' early perceptions of literate practices. Nevertheless, despite substantial support for the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices, other research studies argue that at times the complexities of classroom life can constrain teachers' abilities to attend to their beliefs and provide instruction which is consistent with their theoretical beliefs, although this growing body of research continues to question whether teachers are able to provide instruction which is consistent with their theoretical beliefs.

According to Ellis (1994) attitudes towards vocabulary instruction vary, however, developing an extensive, ever-expanding vocabulary is generally considered to be a fundamental part of second language learning. One of the key distinctions in vocabulary teaching is whether a direct or an indirect approach should be adopted. The fact that most vocabulary acquisition occurs through incidental exposure may leave teachers wondering as to their role in a student-centred context

Ghaffarzadeh (2012) identified three major ideas on the teachers' belief systems towards vocabulary instruction in English language. These teachers' belief systems include; Memory-based, Meaning-based and Function-based lexicon teaching beliefs. Memory-based refers to concentrating on memorizing words, analysing the parts of speech, focusing on affixes, listening and repeating, writing and practicing, imagining the written forms of the words and connecting the words with their synonyms and antonyms. Using any other strategies to remember the words without considerable attention to meaning is one of the effective means teaching vocabulary in English language.

Citing as an example, a teacher wants to teach the word "careless", Memory-based teaching implies that the teacher may use a list of the words which are in the same family with the selected word, synonyms or antonyms or even words derivations or affixes (such as carelessly, careful, -full, less, ...) and then ask the learners to repeat and memorize them.

Function-based belief refers to the negotiation of meaning through the application of words in sentences and texts, or through activities that help the learner understand the targeted words better and to make relationships between the words and the learners' own experiences. The teachers in this group may ask the learners to play some roles of some stories about driving, writing, washing, or may tell a story about his/her own experiences that was because of doing something carelessly. Or he/she may simply push a student, apologize and say I am a careless person. Such sequences of activities will lead learners to learn the vocabulary through acting. In other words, it is an approach that uses the learners' energy for learning instead of just imagining the words.

Meaning-based teaching refers to making negotiation between meaning and the words by the help of objects, mental images, etc. It also means to make connection between the words of the same family in learners' minds and to use other related techniques to gain its goal.

Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction

The National Reading Panel's review (2000) identified five basic approaches to vocabulary instruction which should be used together(1) explicit instruction (particularly of difficult words and words that are not part of pupils' everyday experience) (2) indirect instruction (i.e. exposure to a wide range of reading materials) (3) multimedia methods (going beyond the text to include other media such as visual stimulus, the use of the computer or sign language) (4) capacity methods (focusing on making reading an automatic activity) and (5)association methods (encouraging learners to draw connections between what they do know and unfamiliar words).

Nagy (1988) suggested that traditional vocabulary teaching can be categorized as following two general approaches: definitional and contextual.

Using the definitional method, teachers have students look up words in a

dictionary, write down and/or memorize definitions, use the words in sentences, find synonyms, and then complete worksheets or take quizzes. There are some undeniable advantages to this approach. From dictionary definitions, students can gain a specific meaning of a word they come across in their reading.

Thirdly, students can gain a better understanding of interrelated words in word families. And, in addition, by combing through dictionaries and all the information they provide, students can gain a better appreciation of language. The definition is brief and simple and designed for maximum usefulness. Its intent is to give students a good idea of what the word means without extensive detail or secondary connotations. Dictionary meaning of a word includes the word's part of speech, its pronunciation, an illustrative sentence providing a context that clarifies and exemplifies its meaning, and a list of synonyms and antonyms.

On the contrary, definitional approach can be both useful and necessary; learning definitions alone can lead to a relatively superficial level of word knowledge [and] does not reliably improve reading comprehension. Nagy (1988) posits that "although definitions can play a key role in vocabulary instruction, by themselves they tell little about how a word is actually used. He points out that given only a definition of a word, students may have difficulty using it meaningfully in a sentence. The definitional approach is effective only when a limited knowledge of new vocabulary is desired".

In support of the weakness on the definitional approach to vocabulary instruction, Allen (1999) identified three reasons why strategies that focus on

word definitions are not effective: (1) a word can have multiple definitions and meanings depending on the geographic location in which a person lives, (2) a word can have a definition that may not be correct in a particular context, and (3) definitions of words often lack adequate information for students to use them correctly. On the other hand, there is no assurance that this approach to vocabulary instruction can help comprehension of the students and also increase the active vocabulary knowledge of learners. Sometimes, learning definitions does not necessarily help in the integration of the knowledge. There is a need of background information for the integration of the knowledge.

According to Herman and Dole (1988), dictionaries are a poor tool of learning the meanings of the new words. They do not develop the skill to personalize the word and use it in different context and the learner only knows the meanings without knowing their use. However, this is not to conclude that using the definitional approach to teaching vocabulary should be avoided. Rather, learning definitions of words can be very effective in teaching vocabulary when the students already have an understanding of the underlying concept of the term as opined by the Texas Education Agency (2002).

Therefore, students need to make meaningful connections of new words to what they already possess through the application of their background knowledge of the new words. Results from research works confirm the fact that learning vocabulary is more complex than simply memorizing definitions of words; rather, it involves seeing, hearing, and using words in meaningful contexts. Hence, English language teachers need to

develop tried-test strategies that focus on word recognition and word use in meaningful contexts, which will impact positively on vocabulary growth.

In the contextual approach, teachers ask students to infer the meaning of a word by scrutinizing semantic and syntactic cues in a sentence or group of words containing that word, or by examining typographic clues from charts, graphs, pictures and the like. To make the contextual approach more effective is to integrate it within a rich context of supportive and indicative information. Students who are good in reading often use context clues to determine the meanings of unfamiliar words, if they are existing in the text. Such students can locate other words and phrases in a passage, which give clues about what an unknown word means.

Then again, struggling readers who do not do this, should be given direct instruction in how to effectively look for clues or definitions. The clues may be any of the following types of information inserted in the text: definition, restatement, example, comparison or contrast, description, synonym or antonym. This approach also can be useful, but it should be noted that context clues alone may provide only a partial meaning of a word and occasionally may even be misleading (Nagy, 1988; Beck, McKeown & McCaslin, 1983).

Christen and Murphy (1991), McKeown et al. (1985) and Nagy (1988), identified three other approaches to vocabulary instruction. These approaches provide students with fuller, richer word knowledge and increase their reading comprehension. These distinct approaches to vocabulary include; integration, repetition and meaningful use.

By integration, researchers mean that in order for learning to occur, new information must be integrated with and be built upon what the student already knows. In other words, instruction should guide students to use words and ideas they already know to help them associate meaning with words they do not know.

One teaching technique that supports this strategy of drawing on students' prior knowledge is to have them complete a semantic map, a visual tool that helps to make relationships among words more clear.

Repetition is a second key quality of instruction. Research shows that repeated encounters with new words are essential if vocabulary instruction is to have a measurable impact on reading comprehension. Meaningful use stem from the idea that students will learn more when they are actively involved in the assignment and when the task is similar to one they would ordinarily encounter in the course of speaking, writing, and reading. Additionally—and what is perhaps more important—the research indicates that when students are called upon to process information more deeply, and to make inferences based on that information they will be more likely to retain the information.

Texas Reading Initiative (2002) postulated word consciousness as another approach to vocabulary instruction. This approach to vocabulary instruction involves awareness of word structure, including an understanding of word parts and word order. Students have noticed how the meanings of written language differs from everyday conversation by drawing their attention to the unique structures of written language such as compound and complex sentence structures, phrasing within sentences, how punctuation is used to signal phrasing, and paragraph structure. This approach to vocabulary

instruction empowers students to enjoy learning new words and engaging in word play activities through of processes of distinguishing the meanings of written language from everyday conservation.

One way to advance word consciousness is to point out examples of clear descriptions, interesting metaphors, similes and other forms of figurative language, and plays on words. Teachers should take advantage of opportunities to develop students' interest in words, the subtle meanings of words, how to have fun with words, and how words and concepts are connected across different contexts.

Strategies / Activities to Build Vocabulary Instruction

Every teacher in every classroom needs to address students' English language development needs. This commitment to vocabulary instruction is pivotal to a school-wide effort confronting the achievement gap in language and literacy. Therefore, effective teachers of language and literacy programmes provide activities and practices that stimulate rich uses of language, designing their instructional programmes within a social context that promotes literacy learning.

English language teachers understand those students who are learning to read and write and those who are reading to learn. That is, learning in content areas will benefit from a sound instructional vocabulary programme. This is especially true for classrooms where learners have small vocabularies and are English language learners. Knowledge of words is acquired incidentally, where vocabulary is developed through immersion in language activities. Words are also learned through direct instruction, where students learn words through a structured approach. Thus, vocabulary programmes

should be designed to support students' word learning through a combination of approaches to teaching, direct instruction, and incidental word learning.

Graves (2006) offered a framework for successful vocabulary programmes that supports effective teaching and students' development of word knowledge. The foundation of this instructional programme includes a four-part approach to developing robust vocabularies: (1) provide rich and varied language experiences, (2) teach individual words, (3) teach word-learning strategies, and (4) foster word consciousness.

Providing rich and varied language experiences involve incidental word learning, where teachers offer and encourage students to participate in a variety of rich language experiences that occur throughout the day and across the curriculum. Teaching individual words. Although many words may be learned incidentally and vocabularies do become stronger when they are supported with a language-rich environment, children benefit from systematic and direct instruction of words. The research is clear with respect to effective teaching of words (Graves, 2006). Vocabulary instruction should (1) provide students with information that contains the context as well as the meaning of the word, (2) engage students and allows sufficient time for word learning, (3) ensure students have multiple exposures to the words with review and practice, and (4) create a dialogue around the words.

Graves and Watts-Taffe (2008), suggested that teachers (1) create a word-rich environment, (2) recognize and promote adept diction, (3) promote word play, (4) foster word consciousness through writing, (5) involve students in original investigations, and (6) teach students about words.

Reutzel and Cooter (2008) identified semantic mapping as one of the strategies to build students' vocabulary knowledge. This strategy involves the use of diagrams or graphic depictions of concepts that help children see how words relate to each other. It helps students to understand the relationships between the concepts, and other key ideas in the reading text. Semantic Mapping strategy is referred to by different names, such as word mapping, concept mapping, and word clusters. The strategy may be adjusted to the nature of vocabulary instruction, the learning outcomes, and students' grade levels. Citing it as an example, learning some words, it may be more applicable to have students explore the synonyms, antonyms, and origin of the words; whereas for other words, it may be more helpful to find examples and non-examples of the word.

This is an excellent activity of building students' vocabulary knowledge; semantic mapping helps students' to see known words in new contexts. Furthermore, it can be used to activate students' background knowledge related to the topic, and also to introduce new concepts before and during reading activities.

Research findings by Grave (2008), Beck, McKeown and Kucan, (2002) revealed that semantic mapping helps to develop students' vocabularies. Teachers need to promote in-depth word knowledge; it is one of the most powerful approaches to the teaching of vocabulary since it engages students in thinking about word relationships. The strategy reinforces students' active exploration of word relationships, thereby leading to a deeper understanding of word meanings by developing their conceptual knowledge related to words.

Students acquire the meaning of words through semantic mapping because it helps to analyse the nature of the word concepts, categorise words, and see relationships among words that are similar as well as those that may be different. Such activities that are part of the semantic mapping strategy are cognitive strategies that lead to a deeper understanding of words and the concepts that they represent. The strategy is most effective when used before, during, and after reading activities.

This strategy works effectively when teachers involve the students in well- planned activities. Examples of planned activities which help in vocabulary instruction are; (i) Selection of the vocabulary items must have a link to the text or the story to be studied. (ii)Teacher must write the vocabulary at the centre of the chalkboard, to enable the students' to recognise the vocabulary. (iii)Teacher must help the students' to think of other words that have something to do with the new vocabulary. (iv)Teacher must guide the students' to group the related words into categories and agree on labels for these categories.

Johnson and Pearson (1984) identified semantic feature analysis as another strategy for vocabulary instruction; this strategy helps to develop students' vocabulary knowledge by establishing shared meaning relationships between words. They suggest that words which share semantic features define a central concept .This strategy is useful in vocabulary instruction in before reading and actual reading activities. Students are able to use their background knowledge to search for the meaning of the new words in a text. Semantic feature analysis is a way in which teachers can help students to take a set of

words related to a topic or category and compare or contrast the words in terms of their features, characteristics or attributes.

Extending the discussion further, Pittelman, el al. (1991) asserted that semantic feature analysis can be done on a grid on which the set of related words are listed down the left side of the grid and the features or characteristics that are shared by some of the words are listed across the top of the grid. (The words can be chosen by the teacher, students, or both together.) Individually, in groups, or in the whole class, students analyse and figure out which words have which features, indicating the absence or presence of a feature for a particular word with a plus or minus sign.

Using this activity grants students opportunities to discuss in class sets of words in connection to a topic or concept, next to their characteristics. It provides exposure to some unknown words and characteristics that can be added and discussed among peers and teachers, though teachers may want to make sure that students are familiar with all the words and attributes before their analysis and discussion of the words in relation to the attributes.

Reutzel and Hollingsworth (1991) posited that wide reading is another strategy which can help to build students vocabulary knowledge. This strategy works when teachers encourage students to read self-selected books daily. It helps to improve their reading comprehension. Reading is a mental skill that pictures the physical development of students in vocabulary instruction. Wide reading is a natural and powerful way to build the vocabulary knowledge of students.

When students are introduced to varied reading activities, it helps to expose them to new words in a text, and how such new words are used in a

text. Wide reading is one of the single most powerful factors in vocabulary growth. Even a moderate amount of daily reading with appropriate text could lead to most of the vocabulary growth that every student needs. In spite of this, many of the students who demand the most vocabulary growth are not capable of sustained independent reading of reasonably challenging text.

In support of the strategy, Stahl, Richek, and Vandevier (1991) opined that it is particularly necessary for students and struggling readers to be read to by teachers, parents, or others. For students who have difficulty in reading, read-alouds assume greater importance for vocabulary development. In the same way, students learn new words best in classrooms, when teachers read to them and emphasise important and interesting words in a text. In these classrooms, students regularly read individually and in groups and they discuss their understandings during and after reading activities.

Accordingly, the amount of students' reading is strongly related to their vocabulary knowledge. Students learn new words by doing the battle with the text, either through their own reading or by being read to. Increasing the opportunities for such encounters improves students' vocabulary knowledge, which in turn improves their ability to read more complex text. Students should be encouraged to read different types of text at different levels, including text that is simple and enjoyable, and some that is challenging.

Nation and Wang (1999) declared that preliminary research findings on one series of simplified readers confirm that learners of English language should read one book per week and read between five and nine books per reading level in order to gain enough exposures to the vocabulary at that level; this process should then be continued at the next higher level. Notwithstanding, the chances for highly motivated, skilled learners, reading at this pace may be too demanding for less motivated, lower proficiency learners, who, in the authors' experience, find it difficult to complete a forty-page book in two weeks. Also, as a means of vocabulary growth, this reading pace may work more effectively for lower level rather than for higher level graded readers. Using Nation and Wang's (1999) data, Laufer (2003) estimated that learners would need to read about nine high level graded readers (200,000 running words of text) to learn 108 words.

Robbins and Ehri (1994) and Nicholson and Whyte (1992) indicated that reading aloud supports students in acquiring the meanings of new words. Reading aloud to students is another way they learn unfamiliar words. Teachers should communicate with students about the story before, during, and after reading it aloud. This interaction should include an explanation of the meaning and usage of new vocabulary, and it should help students connect them to what they already learnt or have experienced. Students who have larger oral vocabularies benefit more from hearing stories read aloud. This implies that students with less developed oral vocabularies will need more support in learning new words.

However, the question for the teachers in vocabulary instruction is how they encourage students to read widely and independently on daily basis? The answer to the question lies in assisting the students to recognize their motivation and finding books which they can read. The issue of motivation can be resolved in many ways. Firstly, students' motivation to reading needs to be nurtured as put forward by Komiyama (2009).

Motivated students are more engaged as active members of the classroom community and more prepared to deal with challenging texts. Students also read in and out of class because they want to, not because they are told to do so. Luckily, open instruction which aims at reading-skills development can greatly help English language learners become more skilled, strategic, motivated, and confident readers. Teachers must work towards making reading passages interesting and by trying to connect reading activities to students' lives, experiences, communities, immediate goals, future plans, or to texts read earlier.

Another way of motivating students to read is to give them some degree of choice. Teachers must provide students with opportunities to select some of their own readings, for either in-class or out-of-class reading. Students must be given the choice to choose from among several passages in a recognised textbook or select a text of interest in the library. When students have some degree of choice, even minimal, it serves as an excellent motivator.

Independent reading is another means of encouraging students to do reading activities. Independent reading is simply explained as the reading students decide to do on their own. It involves the activities of reading widely from a variety of sources, and choosing what one reads by the students. Experts have given different names to the independent reading, which includes: recreational reading by Manzo and Manzo (1995), voluntary reading by Short (1995), reading outside of school by Anderson, Wilson and Fielding (1988) and leisure reading by Greaney (1980).

It points towards the student's personal choice of the material to be read as well as the time and place to read it. Students do independent reading for the purposes of searching for information or for enjoyment.

The amount of free reading done outside of school has consistently been found to relate to growth in vocabulary, reading comprehension, verbal fluency, and general information. The statement is in support of research studies conducted by the experts in the students' learning as suggested by Guthrie and Greaney (1991), Taylor, Frye, and Maruyama (1990). According to Stanovich and Cunningham (1993), students who read independently become better readers, score higher on achievement tests in all subject areas, and have greater content knowledge than those who do not.

Accordingly, Nagy, Anderson, and Herman (1987) indicated that independent reading builds background knowledge of students. It contributes to knowledge of text content and familiarity with standard text structures. Independent reading contributes to vocabulary growth. Readers with a rich vocabulary understand content and increase in value of the language used in well-written texts. A synthesis of existing reports confirms that students in grades 3–12 learn about 3,000 new words a year. This implies that even a small aggregate of independent reading helps to increase students' reading comprehension, vocabulary growth, spelling facility, understanding of grammar, and knowledge of the world.

Background Knowledge

Tovani (2000) defined background knowledge as the information a reader has in a head. It is a storehouse of knowledge that provides the reader with an assortment of information. Background knowledge is a repository of

memories, experiences and facts. Calling existing knowledge and experiences is crucial if readers are to assimilate new information. When information is read in isolation and not connected to the existing knowledge, it is forgotten and deemed unimportant. This means that, students who have knowledge on the new words to be learnt in the classroom, are able to understand the meaning of the new words in a text easily.

Students may have come across the new words through reading and speaking activities, or have heard it on radios and television. But the problem is how teachers help students to acquire the meaning and the usage of such new words in their learning activities. It is therefore, necessary for teachers to consider the background knowledge of students, before they are introduced to the meaning and usage of new words in a text. Background knowledge in vocabulary instruction serves as a link between what students already have acquired and what they will acquire in the new instructional activities.

Additionally, Stahl, Jacobson, Davis and Davis (1989) stated: "According to schema theory, the reader's background knowledge serves as scaffolding to aid in encoding information from text" (p. 29). The concept of scaffolding has underpinnings in Vygotsky's (1978) theoretical work on Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is explained as the distance between students' actual developmental level and potential level with direct instruction or peer collaboration. This theory explains that as students' experiences with words grow, it becomes easier to learn new words.

Stanovich's (1986) theory of the *Matthew Effect* also applies to students with limited vocabularies. According to *Matthew Effect*, students who read more will get enough words than their counterparts who read less and

spend less time in reading activities. He put forward that students who do not read frequently will have less words, leading to a shortfall of vocabulary building opportunities. Matthew Effect is premised on a parable in Matthew 25:29 which states "For unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have abundance: but from him that hath not shall be taken even that which he hath". Simply put "the rich get richer and poor get poorer". In relation to vocabulary instruction in English language, students who read frequently will have enough new words while students who read less will have less words. As a result, students' oral and written vocabularies suffer. Essentially, students who have limited word experiences, will have limited vocabularies. This suggests that students who have vocabularies will use their background knowledge to infer meanings to new words in a context, while students with limited vocabularies find it difficult to infer meanings for new words. This theory of Mathew Effect is demonstrated well in vocabulary and reading lessons, where students with more vocabularies are able to express themselves in oral and writing activities.

Furthermore, Fang and Schleppegrell (2010) posited that helping students build background knowledge and teaching the skills to know how, when and why it helps their learning, increases the chances of success. This is especially important as students engage in subject areas that tend to be more specialized, with texts that are often more complex, with processes more specifically defined, and with vocabulary that may be more challenging and further outside the norm of everyday conversation.

This implies that teachers need to know and help to build students' background knowledge well, particularly in vocabulary instruction. Teachers

activating students' background knowledge in vocabulary instruction help students to make stronger connections and find deeper understanding in learning and this boosts students' learning processes.

Ontario Ministry of Education report (2010) opined that, when students have prior knowledge, a point of connection or even a positive feeling about the new material, the potentials of students to learn is enhanced. Teachers play a key role in helping students build and use background knowledge. When students are actively using their background knowledge, they are more likely to experience success in academic achievement, as indicated by Marzano (2004).

It is therefore necessary for teachers to assess the background knowledge of students before and during vocabulary instruction, not just in summative activities at the end of the vocabulary instruction. When teachers activate the learners' background knowledge in vocabulary instruction, it facilitates new learning.

Anderson and Pearson (1984) suggested that readers' existing knowledge is critical for them to comprehend what they read. It is likely for a student to know all the words in a passage and still not make any logic of it, if the reader has no prior knowledge of the topic. To make practical use of vocabulary, the students also need a maximum level of knowledge about the topic. This enables the readers to make sense of the word combinations and choose among multiple possible word meanings.

Klauda and Guthrie (2008) affirmed that vocabulary and background knowledge affect reading comprehension. Fluency, an important contributor to overall reading comprehension, is weightily impacted by word knowledge and the level of background knowledge a learner possesses about the topic.

Often times teachers fail to perform these activities of activating of students background knowledge, which affect effective vocabulary instruction. Students are not adequately prepared to connect their background knowledge on vocabularies to the new words in reading a text learnt. Effective vocabulary learning requires understanding the usage of new words in a comprehension passage; sentences and the entire texts demand the ability of the learners to relate the vocabulary learning to his/her own knowledge. Nevertheless, there are activities which can be used to activate students' background knowledge through vocabulary instruction in English language.

Rowe and Rayford (1987) suggested that teachers can facilitate students' activation of background knowledge through asking and answering questions before or while they read new material. They examine students' responses to a series of 3 pre-reading purpose setting questions. Students were shown 3 purpose questions from the Metropolitan Achievement Test and asked to make predictions about the passage and end-of-passage questions that might go with each question. Students were also asked to put themselves in the test-taker's position and describe what they would try to find out while reading the passage.

Analysis of the students' responses suggested that students were able to activate background knowledge under these conditions, an indication that purpose questions may be helpful cues for activating background knowledge. Furthermore, studies have investigated whether activating background knowledge through question answering improves reading comprehension. It

has been hypothesized that providing answers to questions promote deep processing and high level knowledge construction, which in turn promote learning as declared by King (1994) and Pressley et.al (1992).

In addition, King (1994) found that a guided reciprocal peer questioning and answering approach, where students were trained to study new material by asking and answering each other's self-generated questions, made significantly better lesson comprehension than untrained questioning. Captivatingly, King's data showed that questioning focused on linking prior knowledge with lesson material led to a more maintained high performance than did questioning fixed on making connections within the lesson material. Hence, instruction in peer questioning and explaining through connecting text to prior knowledge may be a particularly effective question answering strategy for improving comprehension.

Ogle (1986) advanced the K.W.L strategy for helping students' to access important background information before reading non-fiction. The K.W.L strategy as an acronym means accessing What I Know, determining What I Want To Find Out, recalling What I Did Learn. It combines several elements of approaches. For the first two steps of K.W.L, students and the teacher engage in oral discussion. They start by reflecting on their knowledge about a topic, brainstorming a group list of ideas about the topic, and identifying groups of information.

Thereafter, the teacher helps highlight gaps and inconsistencies in students' knowledge, and students create individual lists of things that they want to learn about the topic or questions that they want to answer about the topic. Students read new material and share what they have learnt. Informal

evaluations indicate that the K.W.L strategy increases the retention of reading material and improves students' ability to make connections among different categories of information as well as their enthusiasm for reading non-fiction.

Challenges in Designing Effective Vocabulary Acquisition

Fallahchai (2011) suggested that vocabulary learning is one of the major challenges for many learners as it is an essential part of foreign language learning. Words are important linguistic parts to convey meanings and even to eliminate misunderstandings in communication. Currently, a new attitude to vocabulary learning is that it is not memorizing words in the contexts of serial lists.

One of the reasons why it seems difficult to make sure that students develop adequate reading vocabularies is the volume of number of words involved. Average students may add 2,000-3,000 words to their reading vocabularies as suggested by Anglin (1993), Beck and McKeown (1991) Nagy and Herman (1987), White, Graves and Slater (1990). This is a large number, from six to eight new words each day. Some students in the same fifth-grade classroom may know thousands, perhaps more words than may others among their classmates.

Even though there are still deliberations over how large students' vocabularies actually are, and what words are useful for them to learn and use in their conservation, there is no question on how good readers learn words and that without help the vocabulary gap between more successful and less successful readers in your classroom will continue to widen. One useful consequence that vocabulary instruction can only justify for a limited amount of students' vocabulary growth, and that a successful approach to increasing

students' vocabularies will require increasing their independent word learning as well.

There is some element of truth to this hypothesis, but it is also demonstrably inadequate. The clearest proof of inadequacy is the fact that many studies attempting to increase reading comprehension by teaching word meanings have failed to do so, as declared by Pearson and Gallagher (1983). In many findings on vocabulary instruction by Bransford and Johnson (1972) and Dooling and Lachman (1971), texts were constructed which contain only familiar words, but are still incomprehensible without additional information. Such texts illustrate the role of something beyond vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. At least some of the correlation between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension is due to the relationship each of these has with a third construct, background knowledge.

Vocabulary knowledge about word meanings is both a subdivision of, and highly correlated with, general knowledge; a person who knows more words knows more about the world in general. Knowledge of the subject matter of a text plays an important role in the comprehension of that text, above and beyond the effects of knowing the specific words. This account of the relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension has been labelled the "knowledge hypothesis" by Anderson and Freebody (1981). The knowledge hypothesis is based on a schema-theoretic view of reading comprehension, which suggests that knowledge does not consist simply of an unstructured set of individual facts, but rather of organized, interrelated structures or schemata. Knowing where a piece of information "fits in" is an indispensable part of understanding it.

Determining what a word contributes to the overall meaning of a text often depends on the information which is not specifically included in the definition of the word--information "beyond" or "between" the meanings of individual words. A good dictionary shows how inadequate the information in a definition can be for the task of comprehending text.

Another challenge of vocabulary instruction is the obvious neglect in much research of the differences between various types of words, differences that may have important consequences for instruction. Given that any instruction on specific word meanings can only cover a very small sample of the words that a student must learn, the question of which words are to be instructed--and which kind of words becomes crucial.

Jenkins and Dixon (1983) suggested that among the few researchers to mention possible differences among word-learning situations, noted for example, the difference between learning a new label for a familiar concept, and a new label for a new concept. Judging from the frequent use of one-word definitions, much recent research has focused on the former case. This is certainly the easier condition, so one must wonder to what extent such studies are generalizable to a wider range of word types. The optimal instructional methods for the paired-associate type learning adequate for words such as *altercation or obese* may not necessarily be the most effective approach to vocabulary instruction in the content areas, where new words are more likely to represent complex new concepts embedded in a network of factual information.

Another distinction seemingly ignored in some research findings is the distinction between partly known and totally unfamiliar words; Dale,

O'Rourke and Bamman (1971) made the suggestion that vocabulary instruction should focus on those words which students have already begun to encounter, and for which they already have some partial knowledge. However, many vocabulary studies, in an attempt to control for prior knowledge, use words which few subjects are likely to know. The problem is that the most effective method for teaching totally unknown words may not be the most effective method for bringing partially known words to a deeper level of knowledge. Some words are also basically difficult to learn than others.

Gentner (1978) for example, presents a range of evidence showing that verbs are harder to learn than nouns for children in the initial stages of language acquisition. Some words covered in vocabulary programmes may be words which almost all children would eventually learn on their own anyway. On the other hand, there may be certain words which are especially unlikely to be learned by children on their own. Everyone is probably aware of certain words which they encounter fairly frequently, but for which they still have only limited knowledge of their meanings. Word-by-word instruction might be especially useful for words in this category. To repeat the point, the fact that only a relatively small number of words can be instructed makes the choice of words more important than seems to have been recognized. How one teaches depends on which words are to be taught.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter described the methods and procedures that have been followed in conducting the study. It was organized under the following subthemes: research design, population for the study, target population for the study, sample and sampling techniques, and instruments used to collect data, pilot-testing of the instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis.

Research Design

In the opinion of Terre, Durrheim and Painter (2002), research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between planning and the execution or the implementation of the research. Therefore, research designs are the plans which guide the arrangement of conditions and analysis of data.

The study adopted the descriptive survey design. This is because descriptive research design gives report on the way and manner situations exist. According to Polit and Hungler (1995) descriptive research studies have as the main objective of accurately portraying the characteristics of persons, situations or groups. This means that descriptive research is used to describe variables rather than to test a predicted relationship between variables.

Again, Amedahe (2002) maintained that in descriptive research, accurate description of activities, objects, processes and persons is the objective. That is, it deals with interpreting the relationship among variables and describing their relationship. It seeks to find answers to questions through

the analysis of relationships between or among variables. In addition, Gay (1992) declared that, descriptive research involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study.

The descriptive survey has some merits which make it useful and accurate to the study. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), in-depth and follow- up questions can be asked and items that are unclear can be explained using descriptive research design. In addition, Amedahe (2002) maintained that the descriptive design enables the researcher to get into the mind of the respondents and know how they feel about the phenomena of interest.

The descriptive survey however is not without difficulties as Kelly, Clark, Brown and Sitiza (2003) pointed out some demerits associated with its use. These include the danger that, the significance of the data can be ignored if the researcher focuses much on the range of coverage to the exclusion of an adequate account of the implications of those data for relevant issues, problems, or theories. Fraenkel and Wallen (1993) also argued that, the private affairs of respondents may be pried into and there is therefore the likelihood of generating unreliable responses and difficulty in assessing the clarity and precision of questions that elicit the desired responses. Another limitation to the descriptive researcher is, it may produce untrustworthy results, because it delves into private matters that respondents may not be completely truthful about. In addition to the limitations, the events understudy already exist or have occurred, and the researcher merely selects the relevant variables for analysis.

Notwithstanding the limitations, the descriptive research design was considered as the most appropriate for carrying out the study on the assessment of the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction in English language at the Junior High Schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality.

Population

The participants for the study included all the public Junior High Schools (J.H.S.) English language teachers in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem (K.E.E.A) Municipality. In the view of Ary, Jacobs and Rezavieh (2002), population is used to refer to the entire group of individuals to whom the findings of a study is applied; that is, whatever groups the investigator wishes to make inferences about. The target population for this study was the public junior high school English language teachers in the municipality.

The total number of public basic schools in the municipality in terms of those with nursery, primary and junior high schools on the same school compound, and headed by one head- teacher was ninety- eighty (98). The total number of circuits in the Municipality is six (6), which include the Agona, Ayensudo, Elmina, Kissi, Komenda and Ntranoa Circuits. Each circuit in the Municipality has private and public schools under it.

The total number of public junior high schools in the Municipality is sixty-five (65) and the total number of teachers who teach at the public junior high schools in the Municipality, was five hundred and seventy-eight (578). The total number of teachers who teach English language at public junior high schools was ninety-four (94). The number of schools and English language teachers in the circuits is presented in the Table 1 and 2 overleaf

Table 1- Circuit and Number of Public Junior High Schools in K.E.E.A

Name Of Circuits	Number of Schools	
Abrem Agona	11	
Ayensudo	9	
Elmina	12	
Kissi	11	
Komenda	14	
Ntranoa	8	
Total	65	

Source: Field Data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Table 2- Circuit and Number of English Language Teachers in K.E.E.A

Name Of Circuits	Number of Schools	
Abrem Agona	14	
Ayensudo	17	
Elmina	22	
Kissi	16	
Komenda	15	
Ntranoa	10	
Total	94	

Source: Field Data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Besides, in the past five years, the passing rates of students in their Basic Education Certificate Examination (B.E.C.E) have been impressive. This was due to measures put in place by the Municipal Education Directorate, to ensure that students perform well in their final examinations. These measures included districts mock examination, checking absenteeism on the

part of final year students, periodic visits to schools by the officers from the district education office to counsel students on their attitudes towards learning, and also monitoring teachers' teaching activities. See Table 3

Table 3- Trend of Basic Education Certificate Examination Pass Rate in Komenda-Edina-Eguafo Abrem Municipality

Year	Male	Female	Total (%)
2010	48.6	36.6	43.4
2011	51.2	44.5	49.0
2012	50.7	45.3	48.2
2013	60.0	52.3	56.9
2014	82.2	78.4	80.3

Source: Field Data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Sample and Sampling Procedures

The participants for the study were selected using the multi-stage sampling technique. Multi-sampling technique involves the process of selecting in systematic stages respondents who were suitable for the study. The researcher purposively selected the entire Komenda- Edina -Eguafo-Abrem Municipality from the twenty (20) District Assemblies in the Central Region of Ghana. The reason for the selection of Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality was that, the problem was identified within the municipality. The problem identified within the municipality was teaching vocabulary in English Language in the public junior high schools, the research problem premised on assessing effective vocabulary instruction in English language.

The proportional approach was employed to obtain the thirty-three public junior high schools for the study. This was based on the number of public junior high schools each circuit possesses. That is, the total number of public junior high schools in the circuit was divided by the total number of schools in the municipality and multiplied by thirty-three, which gave the number of the schools selected for the study.

Simple random sampling technique (lottery method) was used to select the schools for the study. The researcher wrote the names of the schools in each of the six circuits, and put them in separate containers for each of the circuits. The researcher mixed and took one slip from the container without looking into it. The researcher picked and recorded the name of the school on the slip. The slip picked was folded and put back into the container, before another slip was picked. The selection processes were repeated until the required number was reached. The researcher ignored the names of the schools which had already been selected twice or thrice.

For instance in the Komenda circuit, the total number of public junior high schools was fourteen, and this was divided by the total number of public junior high schools in the municipality to obtain sixty-five and then multiplied by thirty-three. The result obtained was 7.10; this means 7 schools were sampled from the Komenda circuit. This method was used to determine the number of public junior high schools selected from each circuit. The number of schools is presented in the Table 4 overleaf.

Table 4- Number of Schools Selected for the Study in the KEEA

Circuits	Number of Schools	Number of Schools
		Selected
Abrem Agona	11	6
Ayensudo	9	4
Elmina	12	6
Kissi	11	6
Komenda	14	7
Ntranoa	8	4
Total	65	33

Source: Field Data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

According to Alreck and Settle (1985), it is necessary to sample more than 10 per cent of the population to obtain adequate confidence and representativeness. Therefore, 33 schools were selected because they represented more than 10 per cent of the total population of schools sampled for the study. This is because it produces the maximum sample size for the population of the study.

Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh and Sorensen (2006) buttressed these points by saying that the main consideration when deciding on the sample size is the degree of accuracy one wants in the estimation of the population. This signifies how much error the researcher is willing to tolerate in generalisation from the sample statistic to the population parameter. Again, Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh and Sorensen opined that the most important characteristic of a sample is its representativeness, not its size

Purposive sampling technique was used to select English language teachers who are teaching in the public junior high schools in the Komenda-Edina -Eguafo- Abrem- Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. In all, 66 English Language teachers were selected from 33 schools within the six (6) circuits in the municipality for the study. English language teachers were purposively sampled because they possess the content knowledge in the research problem under investigation. This measure was supported by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2008), who explained that in purposive sampling, researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought.

In this way, they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs. The total number of English language teachers sampled for the study has been shown in the Table 5 below.

Table 5- Number of English Language Teachers selected from each Circuit

Name of Circuit	Number of teachers selected
Abrem Agona	12
Ayensudo	8
Elmina	12
Kissi	12
Komenda	14
Ntranoa	8
Total	66

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) propositions to keep a 95% degree of confidence, a total of 94 English Language teachers should yield a sample size of 80. This is buttressed by Sekaran (1992) who opined that the propositions provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) greatly simplifies the sample size decision and ensures a good decision model. In order to obtain a representative sample, 33 public junior high schools, out of the 65, representing 50% of the total number of public Junior High Schools in the municipality were selected for the study.

Records from the Municipal Educational Directorate were used as secondary data. All secondary data used in the research were obtained from the Municipal Education Directorate with an introductory letter from the University of Cape Coast (Basic Education Department). The data from the Municipal Education Directorate consisted of the names of public schools, total number of schools, the total number of public basic school teachers, number of circuits, total number of English language teachers teaching at the public Junior High Schools, and BECE performance in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality.

Instruments for Data Collection

Questionnaire and observation were used as instruments for the collection of data. The administration of the questionnaire was done for the English language teachers to assess vocabulary instruction in English language at the junior high school in the municipality. In addition, observational checklist was designed to observe public junior high school English language teachers' instruction in vocabulary in comprehension lesson.

The questionnaire comprised both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The questionnaires was chosen because of the following reasons: a) its potentials in reaching out to a large number of respondents within a short time, b) its ability to give the respondents adequate time to respond to the items, c) being able to offer a sense of security (confidentiality) to the respondent and d) its objectivity since there is bias resulting from the personal characteristics (as in an interview) Owens (2002).

The questionnaire consisted of thirty-six (36) items, which were grouped into sections (Sections A, B, C, D, and E). These helped to elicit information from teachers to answer the research questions, which were formulated for the study. Section A was made up of five (5) items which gathered demographic information on the respondents. It was made up of three (3) closed-ended questions and three open-ended questions.

The closed-ended questions gathered information on gender, age, highest educational level, while two (2) open-ended questions also gathered information on the length of service and professional rank of the respondents. The open-ended questionnaire enabled respondents to provide the details of their teaching experiences in the Municipality. These factors were included in the study because they are known to influence the angle from which one perceives, according to Elverfeldt (2005) and Meece, Glienke & Burg (2006).

Section B consisted of ten (10) items. It focused on obtaining information on the methods/strategies/techniques English language teachers use in teaching vocabulary. The questionnaire items were also measured with a four-point Likert scale anchoring: Always, Sometimes, Rarely and Never. The four- point Likert scale was used because, according to Saunders, Lewis

and Thornhill (2007), it compels the respondent to express his or her feelings towards an implicitly positive statement and prevents him or her from ticking the middle category when considering an implicitly negative statement. At the end of each item, the respondent was required to tick any one of the options provided. The total response on each rating was used to gauge the extent of agreement on a particular item.

Section C consisted of eleven (11) items which concentrated on soliciting information on the belief systems that English language teachers hold on vocabulary instruction in English language. The questionnaire items were also measured with a four-point Likert scale anchoring: Strongly Agree, Agree, Strongly Disagree and Disagree.

Section D also had ten (10) items, which centred on the strategies that English language teachers use to build students' vocabulary knowledge. The questionnaire items were measured with a four-point Likert scale anchoring: Always, Sometimes, Rarely, Never. Section E had two (2) items, which gathered information on the challenges that English language teachers face in vocabulary instruction, and the items were open-ended questions.

Observation

According to Dörnyei (2007: 178), observation as a research instrument provides direct information rather than self-report accounts, and thus it is one of the three fundamental sources for empirical research (with questioning and testing correspondingly). The non-participant observation technique was used to ascertain the authenticity and veracity of the self-reported data given by the English language teachers from the questionnaires administered. By this method, the researcher was physically present only as a

spectator who does not become directly involved in the activities of the people who are being studied.

Non-participant type observation was used to observe the strategies used by the respondents in building students' vocabulary knowledge during the instructional period (Reading lessons). In all, there were ten (10) observational checklist items and responses for these items were measured with a four-point Likert scale anchoring on Very Effective, Effective, Not Effective, and Not Used At All. Consequently, the observation checklist developed for the study focused on the strategies and methodologies English language teachers employed in building students' vocabulary knowledge during reading comprehension lessons.

In support of this, when questionnaire items and observation checklist were properly constructed, the data collected was processed efficiently and relatively openly, especially with the help of modern computers and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 16)

Pilot-Testing

It is generally held that researchers never begin a study unless they are confident that the chosen methods are suitable, valid, reliable, and effective and free from problems or errors or at least that they have taken precautions to avoid any problems and distortions in the preparatory stage of the research, according to Sarantakos (2005). Pilot-testing helps to discover possible weaknesses, ambiguities and problems in all aspects of the study, so that they can be corrected before the actual data collection takes place. Pilot test was done in fifteen (15) schools in Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District in the Central region.

Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District was selected due to the fact that the teachers have similar characteristics or attributes as those in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality in terms of their professional skills, knowledge in the subject and educational characteristics. The responses were coded and subjected to complete item analysis to determine, among other things the internal consistencies and validity of the instrument. In all, twenty five (25) teachers were used for the pilot-testing of the research instrument.

According to Parfitt (2005), a pre-test should be conducted with approximately 20 participants to determine the questionnaire's usefulness and suitability. Again, this number was used because it was sufficient to include major variations in the population that may affect responses.

Cronbach alpha was used to test the reliability of the questionnaire and reliability co-efficient of 0.80 was obtained. This meant that the instrument was reliable since Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) posited that for research purpose, a useful rule of thumb is that reliability should be at .70 and preferably higher.

Data Collection Procedure

Streubert and Carpenter (2003) asserted that a researcher has a moral obligation to strictly consider the rights of the participants, who are expected to provide this information. Ethical considerations are important aspects in this study. Due to the sensitive nature of the study, possible risks were continuously examined to increase sensitivity to the respondents and not to expose them.

Prior to the administration of the research instruments, the researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Department of Basic Education

(Appendix A). This was supported by a letter of authorization from the Municipal Educational Directorate, (Appendix B) to use the selected schools for research purposes. The researcher finally visited the selected schools and made all the necessary arrangements with the English language teachers. The purposes were to create awareness for the English language teachers, setting time and date for the administration of the instruments, and to explain the purpose of the study.

The researcher personally administered the questionnaires and also observed English language lessons, in reference to the strategies and methodologies used by the English language teachers in building students' vocabulary knowledge, after visiting the selected schools and meeting the respondents for the study.

Each teacher from the selected schools was given adequate time (30) minutes to complete the questionnaire. This was to enable English language teachers selected for the study to have ample time to understand the questionnaire items. The researcher used the observation checklist (Appendix D) to assess the strategies and methodologies used by teachers in building students' vocabulary knowledge in English language during comprehension lessons. The researcher sat in the classroom to observe English language lessons. One hour was spent in observing how students' vocabulary knowledge is built during reading comprehension lessons. This was due to the fact that reading lesson on the school time-table was allotted with double periods. The data was collected between 18th January and 18th February, 2016. Each reading lesson was observed once. Twenty English Language teachers were selected for the observational activities.

Data Analysis

In order to address the research questions formulated, the data obtained from the English language teachers were edited to remove any irrelevant responses and coded. The data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 16) software.

The focus for the data analysis is to generally show the interpretations and discussions of the findings on the analysis of the overall statistics. The discussions were analysed in relation to the research raised in the study. Frequency tables, percentages and mean were also used to discuss the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the outcome of the study on vocabulary instruction in English language at the Junior High Schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality. The findings are presented according to the specific research questions raised. This chapter presents the results of the study using descriptive statistical.

Frequency tables, percentages and mean were used to present the data and analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire administered to the English language teachers, taking into account the four research questions underlying the study.

English Language Teachers' Demographic Information

The preliminary data involves the background information of the respondents. It entails the gender, age, current rank in the service, educational background and the teaching experiences of the respondents. Tables 6-10 give a summary of the bio data of the respondents.

Table 6- Gender Distribution of the English Language Teachers

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	23	46.0
Female	27	54.0
Total	50	100

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

In all 50 English language teachers were sampled for the study, successfully completed their research questionnaires. Twenty-three of the respondents were males, which represents 46% and 27 respondents were female, representing 54% of the sample.

Table 7- Age Distribution of the English Language Teachers

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)	
20- 25	10	20.0	
26 - 30	24	48.0	
35 - 40	10	20.0	
41 – Above	6	12.0	
Total	50	100	

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Age is an important variable especially in the teaching profession within the Municipality. Analysing the ages of respondents gives us an idea about the strength of the work force of the profession. Twenty of the respondents were between the ages of 20-25, and 35-40 representing 20% respectively. From the Table 7, it can be seen that majority (48%) of the respondents were between the ages of 26-30, with 6 (representing 12%) falling within the age boundary of 41- Above.

Table 8- Current Rank Distribution of the English Language Teachers

Ranks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Superintendent I	22	44%
Senior Superintendent II	5	10%
Principal Superintendent	20	40%
Assistant Director II	3	6%
Total	50	100

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

From Table 8, 22 representing 44% of the respondents were within the current rank of Superintendent I, five representing 10% were in the rank of Senior Superintendent II whilst twenty representing 40% were in the rank of Principal Superintendent. Only three 6% of the respondents were in the rank of Assistant Director II. This implies that most of the respondents were qualified and experience enough to handle the subject under study due to the skills and knowledge they possess.

Table 9- Distribution of Educational Background of English Language

Teachers

Educational Background	Frequency	Percentages (%)
SSCE / WASSCE	1	2
Diploma	14	28
Degree	34	68
Masters	1	2
Total	50	100

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Formal educational attainment constitutes the main determinant of job placement in the formal sector in Ghana. It is one's educational qualification that determines one's placement, salary scale and to some extent the frequency of promotion. Therefore, people who are highly qualified in terms of formal education have a greater potential to be employed in well-paying jobs (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991).

Similarly, in the Ghana Education Service, one's educational achievement determines the rank and placement in the teaching profession which subsequently determines one's salary. Thirty -five of the respondents were either holders of Bachelor's degree or Master's degree in Education,

which constitute 70%. Fourteen of the respondents, representing 28%, were holders of Diploma in Basic Education whiles one representing 2% was a holder of Senior Secondary Certificate Examination

Table 10-Distribution of Teaching Experience of English Language Teachers

Number of years in teaching	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1-5	26	52
6-10	12	24
11-15	7	14
16- above	5	10
Total	50	100

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Table 10 shows that the highest number of years spent in the profession was in the range of 1-5, making a total number of 26, which represents 52%. Twelve respondents had been in the teaching profession from 6-10 years, which represents 24%. Also, 7 representing 14% of the respondents stated that, they had been in teaching profession for 11-15 years. Five of the respondents indicated that, they had been in the teaching service for 16-above years, which constitutes 10%.

Research Question 1:

Which belief systems do English language teachers hold in vocabulary instruction in the Komenda- Edina- Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?

From Table 11, 16 English language teachers constituting 32% and with a mean of 2 strongly agree that, repetition is a useful way to teach new words in vocabulary instruction. Twenty-six of them representing 52% also agreed that repetition is a useful way to teach new words. However, 8

(representing 16%) disagreed that, repetition is a useful way to teach new words in vocabulary instruction.

Tables 11- Belief Systems which Influence Vocabulary Instruction

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree E (%)		Mean
	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	Disagree	
	1 (/0)	1 (/0)		F(%)	
Repetition is a useful	16(32)	26(52)	8(16)	F (%) 0(0)	2.0
way to teach new					
words.					
Students acquire new	13(26%)	31(62%)	4(8.0%)	2(4.0%)	1.94
words through the					
use of the dictionary.					
Students memorize	15(30%)	28(56%)	5(10%)	2(4.0%)	1.94
new words through					
wordlists.					
Students acquire	13(26%)	24(48%)	11(22%)	2(4.0%)	2.22
vocabulary through					
imitation.		• 4 (40 = 4)	2 / 2 2 / 3	0 (0.51)	
Students acquire the	23(46%)	24(48%)	3(6%)	0(0%)	1.66
meaning of new					
words through					
keywords methods.	15(200)	25(540)	5 (100()	2(6,004)	1.06
Students learn	15(30%)	27(54%)	5(10%)	3(6.0%)	1.96
vocabulary through					
dialogue activities.	C(100/)	10/200/	16(200()	0(100/)	2.70
Students acquire the	6(12%)	19(38%)	16(32%)	9(18%)	2.70
meanings of the new					
words by thinking					
about the new word.	26(520/)	24(490/)	0(00/)	0(00/)	1 /10
Students acquire the	26(52%)	24(48%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	1.48
meaning of new words through					
reading activities.					
Students acquire	16(32%)	31(62%)	2(4.0%)	1(2.0%)	1.78
vocabulary through	10(3270)	31(0270)	2(4.070)	1(2.070)	1.70
interactions.					
New vocabulary is	35(70%)	14(28%)	1(2%)	0(0%)	1.34
treated before	33(10/0)	17(20/0)	1(2/0)	0(0/0)	1.57
reading.					
New vocabulary is	18(36%)	21(42%)	5(10%)	6(12%)	1.96
treated before, during	10(5070)	-1(1270)	3(10/0)	5(12/0)	1.,, 0
and after reading.					

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Majority of the English language teachers 31(62%) with a mean of (1.94) agreed that students acquire new words through the use of the

dictionary in vocabulary instruction. Thirteen (26%) of them strongly agreed to the statement that students acquire the new words through the use of the dictionary in vocabulary instruction.

However, 4 of the teachers (8%) disagreed with the statement that students acquire new words through the use of the dictionary in vocabulary instruction, whilst 2 of them with the percentage of 4% strongly disagreed to with the statement, that students acquire the meaning of the new words through the use of dictionary in vocabulary instruction in English language. According to Stahl and Nagy (2006), teaching students how to use dictionaries is "a complex cognitive strategy that takes years to develop" (p. 183). Dictionary use during or after reading words in context is more beneficial than the more traditional practice of supplying definitions or asking students to look words up before reading (Graves, 2006; Stahl and Nagy, 2006)

Furthermore, 28 (56%) English language teachers with a mean of 1.94 agreed to the statement that, students memorize new words through wordlists. Fifteen (30%) of the respondents also strongly agreed to the statement, which indicated students memorize new words through wordlists. Five (10%) of the English language teachers also disagreed to the statement that, students memorize new words through wordlists. However, 2 English language teachers representing 4% strongly disagreed to the statement of students memorizing new words through wordlists. According to Atay and Ozabulgan (2007), providing the students with memory strategies to help facilitate vocabulary development, the teacher must encourage students to use these strategies in their own vocabulary learning.

In all, 24 of the English language teachers representing 48% with a mean of 2.22 agreed to the statement that, students acquire vocabulary items through imitation. Thirteen of them constituting 26% also agreed strongly to the statement that students acquire the vocabulary through imitation. On the contrary, 11 of the English language teachers representing 22% also disagreed to the statement that students acquiring vocabulary items through imitation. Two of the English language teachers representing 4% strongly disagreed to the statement on students acquiring vocabulary items through imitation.

Twenty-three of the English language teachers constituting 46% with a mean of 1.66 strongly agreed to the statement that, students acquire the meaning of new words through the keywords methods. Majority of the English language teachers constituting 48% agreed to the statement that, students acquire the meaning of new words through the keywords methods. Three of the English language teachers constituting 6% disagreed to the statement that, students acquire the meaning of new words through keywords methods.

On the other hand, 27 English language teachers standing in for 54% with a mean of 1.96 agreed that, students learn vocabulary through dialogue activities. Fifteen English language teachers (representing 30%) strongly agreed that students learn vocabulary through dialogue activities. On the contrary, 5 English language teachers representing 10% disagreed to the statement that students learn vocabulary through dialogue activities.

Three of the teachers standing for 6% strongly disagreed to the statement that students learn vocabulary through dialogue activities. Creating dialogue about words can be considered in the context of purposeful talk which Nichols (2008) defines as "focused, collaborative talk; a social process

that requires children to actively engage with ideas, think out loud together, and work to a co-construction of those ideas" (p. 10).

Furthermore, 19 (38%) with a mean of 2.70 agreed to the statement that students acquire the meanings of new words by thinking about the new word. Sixteen of the teachers representing 32% disagreed to statement that students acquire the meanings of new words by thinking about the new word. However, 9 English language teachers constituting 18% strongly disagreed to statement that students acquire the meanings of the new words by thinking about the new word. Conversely 6 of the teachers representing 12% strongly agreed to the statement that students acquire the meanings of the new words by thinking about the new word.

About twenty–six (52%) with a mean of 1.48 strongly agreed to the statement that students acquire the meaning of new words through reading activities. On the contrary 24 English language teachers standing for 48% agreed to the statement that; students acquire the meaning of new words through reading activities.

Finally, 31 English language teachers constituting 62% with a mean of 1.78 agreed to the statement that, students acquire vocabulary through interactions. Sixteen of the respondents standing for 32% strongly agreed to the statement students acquire the vocabulary words through interactions. However, 2 English language teachers representing 4% disagreed to the statement that students acquire vocabulary through interaction. One respondent constituting 2% strongly disagreed to the statement that, students acquire vocabulary through interaction.

Thirty- five (70%) English language teachers with a mean of 1.34 strongly agreed to the statement that new vocabulary is treated before reading. Fourteen of the English language teachers representing of 28% agreed to the statement that new vocabulary is treated before reading. However, 1 English language teacher representing 2% disagreed to the statement that new vocabulary is treated before reading. Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2002), Carlo, August, and Snow (2005) maintained that it takes careful planning to provide powerful instruction within the confines of scheduling. Teachers design their vocabulary lessons strategically, creating multiple activities for each set of words, teaching words before students read texts or during teacher read-aloud sessions. This implies that, English language teachers must treat new vocabulary in English language lessons, doing that help students to understand how such new words are used in the text.

In all, 21 of the English language teachers constituting 24% and with a mean 1.96 agreed to the statement that, new vocabulary is treated before, during and after reading. Eighteen of the respondents representing 36% strongly agreed to the statement that new vocabulary is treated before, during and after reading. Again, 6 of the English language teachers standing for 12% strongly disagreed to the statement that new vocabulary is treated before, during and after reading. Yet again 5 of the English language teachers representing 10% disagreed to the statement that new vocabulary is treated before, during and after reading.

Research Question 2:

What instructional approaches do English language teachers adopt /use in teaching vocabulary in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?

Research question 2 sought to find out the instructional approaches adopted by teachers in teaching vocabulary. Data from the questionnaire items and observational checklist were used to find answer(s) to this question.

Table 12- Instructional Approaches used in Teaching Vocabulary

Statement	Always F (%)	Sometimes F (%)	Rarely F (%)	Never F (%)
Extensive reading.	26(52)	19(38)	4(8)	1(2)
The use of dictionary.	9(18)	36(72)	5(10)	0(0)
Using wordplay to give	13(26)	25(50)	10(20)	2(4)
meanings to new words in				
sentence.				
Using the keywords to form	39(78)	10(20)	1(2)	0(0)
sentences.				
Creating dialogue in	13(26)	25(50)	12(24)	0(0)
vocabulary instruction.				
The keyword approach in	22(44)	19(38)	9(18)	0(0)
vocabulary instruction.				
Using context clues in	23(46)	21(42)	4(8)	2(8)
Table 12 continued				
Using students' personal	14(28)	26(52)	6(12)	4(8)
experiences in vocabulary				
instruction.				
Give meaning of the word and	42(84)	6(12)	1(2)	1(2)
make students construct				
sentences with keywords.				
Using repetition method.	21(42)	19(38)	7(14)	3(6)

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

From the Table 12, 26 of the English language teachers constituting 52% declared that, they always used extensive reading activities in vocabulary learning in English language. Nineteen representing 38% also used extensive reading activities sometimes in vocabulary learning. However, 4 with a percentage value of 8 rarely used extensive reading activities in vocabulary learning, whereas 1 of them declared that, extensive reading activities are never used in vocabulary learning.

As Schmitt (2000) held, one of the most important reasons for supporting extensive reading is that many teachers believe that intensive reading alone will not produce good, fluent readers. Evidently, a number of experimental and quasi-experimental studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of extensive reading and have provided support for the use of extensive reading in English language.

Additionally Krashen (2004) concluded that learners acquire language through extensive reading. According to him, learners who read voluntarily make better progress in reading comprehension and vocabulary development. He strongly believes that learners who read for pleasure are better readers, better writers and have more grammatical competence. Due to the above assertion the results of the current study are supportive of Krashen's views (2004) on the positive consequences, vocabulary learning has on extensive reading.

On the use of dictionary in vocabulary learning, 9 of the English language teachers with the percentage of 18 always used this approach in reading lessons. Thirty-six of the English language teachers representing 72% declared the use of the dictionary always in vocabulary learning. On the

contrary, 5 of the English language teachers constituting 10% rarely used the dictionary in vocabulary learning. The current *English Language Syllabus* for Junior High Schools in Ghana, is silent on the instructional methods of vocabulary learning. The main aim of the *English Language Syllabus* in vocabulary instruction in English Language at the Junior High Schools is to build pupils vocabulary power. However, according to Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2002), dictionary definitions typically have been a primary vehicle for teaching words' meanings. However, even proficient adult readers often have difficultly deciphering a word's meanings from conventional dictionary definitions. By design, dictionary definitions are extremely concise and precise. The result can be so cryptic that difficult to grasp a word's meanings or apply those meanings in context.

Furthermore, 13 of the English language teachers representing 26% declared the use of wordplay to give meanings to new words in sentences always in vocabulary instruction. Twenty-five of the teachers constituting 50% indicated that, they sometimes used wordplay to give meanings to new words in sentences in vocabulary instruction. Ten of the teachers representing 20% stated that, they rarely used wordplay to give meanings to new words in sentences in vocabulary instruction. Conversely, 2 of the respondents representing 4% declared, they never used wordplay to give meanings to new words in sentences in vocabulary instruction.

According to Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) students need to be surrounded by words and motivated to learn them. When teachers read supplementary reading materials to students, it exposes students to varieties of new words they would not encounter on their own. Word play is also one

element of the word-rich classroom so critical to the development of word awareness and word consciousness in students: the same consciousness that leads to greater incidental word learning

On the use of keywords to form sentences in vocabulary instruction, it is worth mentioning that, 39 of the teachers which represents 78% declared the use of this approach always in vocabulary instruction. Ten of the respondents giving (representing 20%) declared that, they sometimes used keywords to form sentences in vocabulary instruction. One of the teachers representing 2% rarely used keywords to form sentences in vocabulary instruction.

It is also worth mentioning that, 13 of the English language teachers indicating 26% declared that, they always created dialogue in vocabulary instruction. Twenty-five of the English language teachers representing 50% sometimes create dialogue in vocabulary instruction. However, 12 of the English language teachers which represents 24% also declared that, they rarely created dialogue in vocabulary instruction. Buttressing the point, Diamond and Gutlohn (2006), Beck, McKeown & Kucan (2002), and Beck and McKeown (2001) stated that after reading, an in-depth discussion of all the words allows the teacher and students to revisit word use within the context of the passage to promote a greater understanding of words and their meanings. To add up, when discussion and interaction are done during vocabulary instruction, it makes acquisition of new words natural and participatory.

In addition, 22 of the English language teachers which stands for 44% stated that, they always used the keyword approach in vocabulary instruction, 19 (representing 38%) sometimes used the keyword approach in vocabulary instruction. On the other hand, 9 of the English language teachers

(representing 18%) rarely used the keyword approach in vocabulary instruction. Accordingly, Shapiro and Waters (2005) indicated that the keyword method of vocabulary learning is a mnemonic method to help students learn foreign vocabulary. The keyword method is effective because it provides a meaningful visual image upon which to base memory for a new word's meaning. Additionally, Chen (2006) made an assertion that keyword method is an interesting tool for acquiring English vocabulary and most of the students believed that such skill can help them acquire English words in a faster and easier way, and thus increase the level of retention.

On using context clues in vocabulary instruction, 23 of the English language teachers which represents 46% declared that, they always used this approach in vocabulary instruction. Twenty-one of the teachers standing for 42% declared that, they sometimes used context clues in vocabulary instruction. However, 4 and 2 of the teachers which represents 8% and 4% respectively declared that they either rarely used or never used the context clues in vocabulary instructions. It was evident from the presentation stage (Appendix D) under observational activity that twenty of the respondents with a mean of 1.7 used context clues as one of the approaches being used to teach vocabulary items in reading lessons.

Graves (2008, 2007) stated that one of the most important strategies that will foster students' independence in word learning is becoming skilled at using context clues to unlock the meaning of unknown words. Students are directed to look for clues within the word and the sentence's surrounding sentences. He further stated that students use clues from meaningful word parts such as the base word, suffixes, or prefixes or from known words that

surround the unknown word within the text. Teaching students to use context clues while they are reading will help them to infer meanings while they are reading, but the context alone does not lead to a deep understanding of the word.

Extending the discussion further, 14 of the English language teachers which represents 28% indicated that, they always used students' personal experiences in vocabulary instruction. Twenty-six of them standing for 52% sometimes used students' personal experiences in vocabulary instruction. On the other hand, 6 of the teachers representing 12% rarely used students' personal experiences in vocabulary instruction. However, 4 of them constituting 8% never used students' personal knowledge in vocabulary instruction.

On the other hand, 42 of the teachers which represents 84% always gave the meaning of the word and made students construct sentences with the keywords in vocabulary instruction. Six of them which represents 12% sometimes used this approach in vocabulary instruction. Two of the teachers standing for 4% either rarely or never gave meaning of the word and made students construct sentences with the keywords in vocabulary instruction.

To conclude, 21 of the English language teachers standing in 42% stated that, they always used repetition method in vocabulary instruction. Nineteen of them with the percentage value of 38% indicated that, they sometimes used repetition method in vocabulary instruction. However, 7 and 3 of the teachers also declared that they used either repetition method rarely or they never used repetition method in vocabulary instruction.

Research question 3

Which strategies do English language teachers use in building learners' vocabulary knowledge in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?

Questionnaire items were used to collect respondents' responses on the research question. Observation activities aim at describing relevant research questions were used to confirm or refute the responses provided by the respondents on the questionnaire items. Table 13 presents the results.

Information from Table 13 depicts that 46 English language teachers, representing 92% with a mean of 1.10 indicated they always write new words (vocabularies) on the chalkboard as an extra activities of building students' vocabulary knowledge. Three (representing 6.0%) of the English language teachers also indicated writing new words on the chalkboard from time to time (sometimes) as a strategy of building students vocabulary knowledge. Conversely, one of the English language teachers representing 2% rarely used this strategy in building students vocabularies.

According to the observational activities (Appendix D) which took place during the pre-reading lessons, twenty of the teachers with a mean of 1.3 used writing of keywords (vocabulary items) on the chalkboard a strategy in helping students to build their competencies in vocabulary learning.

Once again, 40 of them constituting 80% with a mean of 1.20 used new words to form sentences always, as a strategy of building students' knowledge in vocabulary. On the other 10 of the English language teachers, forming 20% also demonstrated to the use of this strategy sometimes in their vocabulary instruction.

Table 13- Activities to Build Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge

Statement	Always F (%)	Sometimes F (%)	Rarely F (%)	Never F (%)	Mean
Write the new words (vocabularies) on the chalkboard.	46(92)	3(6)	1(2)	0(0)	1.10
Use the new words (vocabularies) to form sentences.	40(80)	10(20)	0(0)	0(0)	1.20
Repeat the new words alouds to students.	38(76)	9(18)	1(2)	2(4)	1.34
Use mental images to find the meanings of new words.	6(12)	33(66)	7(14)	4(8)	2.18
Use explanations to find the meanings of new words.	28(56)	22(44)	0(0)	0(0)	1.44
Use students' background knowledge on the new words, to find the meanings.	23(46)	23(46)	3(6)	1(2)	1.64
Guide students to find the meaning of new words through reading.	29(58)	19(38)	2(4)	0(0)	1.46
Use synonyms or antonym to find the meanings of the new words.	14(28)	27(54)	8(16)	1(2)	1.92
Teach new words through reading activities. (Storytelling, novels etc.)	27(54)	18(36)	4(8)	1(2)	1.58
Use dictionary to find the definitional meaning of the new words.	14(28)	30(60)	6(12)	0(0)	1.84

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

Again, 6 of the English language teachers constituting 12% with a mean of 2.18 indicated the use of mental images to find the meanings of the new words always in building students vocabulary knowledge. This means

that, English language teachers always used this strategy in vocabulary lessons, in order to build students' knowledge in vocabulary. About 33 of the teachers representing 66% considered the use of mental images to find meanings of the new words in vocabulary instruction sometimes. On the other side, 7 of the English language teachers indicating 14% rarely used this strategy to build students vocabulary knowledge. Yet again 4 of the English language teachers, which represents 8% stated that never used this strategy in their vocabulary instruction. That is, English language teachers do not use these extra activities to build students vocabulary knowledge.

Additionally, thirty-eight (76%) English language teachers with a mean of 1.34 preferred repeating the new words (vocabularies) aloud to students in vocabulary instruction. This strategy employed by the English language teachers help to build students vocabulary knowledge. Again, nine (18%) of the English language teachers stated they sometimes used this strategy in building students vocabulary. Once more 1(2%) and 2(4%) of the English language teachers either rarely used or did not use this strategy at all in building students vocabulary knowledge in English language.

What is more, 28(56%) with a mean of 1.44 of the English language teachers always used explanations as a strategy to find meanings of new words in building students' vocabulary knowledge. Twenty-two (44%) of them sometimes used this strategy in building students' vocabulary knowledge. According to the results from the observational activity (Appendix D), twenty of the teachers with a mean of 1.6 used explanations/ discussions as one of the strategies to in build students' vocabulary knowledge under pre-presentation stage in comprehension lesson. This observational activity confirmed to the

questionnaire item answered by English language teachers on the activity, which teachers use to build students vocabulary knowledge.

In all, 23 of the English language teachers standing for 46% with a mean of 1.64 prefer using students' background knowledge on the new words to find the meanings always in vocabulary instruction. They used this strategy to build students vocabulary knowledge in English language lessons. Again 23 of teachers representing 46% sometimes used this strategy to build students vocabulary knowledge in English language lessons. Three of the teachers constituting 6% rarely used this strategy in building students' vocabulary knowledge, whereas 1 of the teachers (representing 2%) does not use this strategy in vocabulary instruction.

It was observed from the pre-presentation stage (Appendix D) in the reading lessons that twenty of the teachers with a mean of 1.8 confirmed to the questionnaire item on pupils' background knowledge that they rely on this activity to introduce meanings of new words to students

Qian (2002) confirmed that vocabulary knowledge is essential in reading comprehension because it has a similar function to background knowledge in reading comprehension. Vocabulary knowledge helps students in decoding, which is an important part of reading.

Again, 29 of the English language teachers representing 58% with a mean of 1.46 indicated guiding students always to find the meanings of the new words through reading helps in vocabulary learning. Majority of teachers used this strategy to build the students' knowledge in vocabulary lessons in English reading lessons. Nineteen English language teachers constituting 38% sometimes used this strategy to build students vocabulary knowledge, whilst 2

of the English language teachers constituting 4% rarely used this extra activity in vocabulary instruction.

Under the present stage of the reading lessons of the observational activity (Appendix D), it became evident that twenty of the respondents with a mean of 2.2 guided students to find the meanings of new words through reading activities. The reading activities took the forms of individual/grouping reading, this activity helped to ensure that students effectively took part in the reading activity in order to find the meanings of the vocabulary in the text.

According to Laufer (2003) '' reading alone is unlikely to be the best source of vocabulary acquisition. Word focused activities, whether they are combined with reading or not, play a crucial role in building the learner's lexical knowledge. Teachers have to look more critically at learning through reading and be more accepting of direct learning". (pp. 583-584).

On the contrary, Stahl and Nagy (2006, pp. 127, 128), stated that, the power of reading quantity and its impact on vocabulary knowledge has been described as the "largest single source of vocabulary growth" and "essential for increasing students' vocabulary size".

Additionally, 14(28%) of the English language teachers with mean of 1.92 always used synonyms or antonyms to find the meanings of the words in vocabulary instruction. English language teachers indicated that, this strategy helps to build students' vocabulary knowledge in English language. Again 27 (54%) of them sometimes used this strategy to build students' knowledge in vocabulary instruction. However, 8(16%) teachers rarely used this strategy in vocabulary instruction, in order to build students' vocabulary knowledge. Yet

again 1 (2%) never used this strategy in building students' knowledge in vocabulary instruction. According to Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2004), Grogner, et al., (2000) English language learners, in particular, benefit from instruction showing relationships between words, especially synonyms, antonyms, and word family associations. They further urge English language teachers to give examples of a new word in different parts of speech.

To conclude, 27 of the English language teachers representing 54% with a mean of (1.58) always teach new words through reading activities (storytelling, novels etc.) in order to build students' vocabulary knowledge in vocabulary instruction. Eighteen of the teachers which represents 36% also teach new words through reading (storytelling, novels etc.) sometimes in vocabulary instruction. Four of them with 8% rarely teach new words through reading activities (storytelling, novels etc.) as a strategy to build students' vocabulary knowledge. One of the English language teachers with 2% never used new words through reading (storytelling, novels etc.) as a strategy in building students' vocabulary knowledge in reading lessons.

Once more 14 of the English language teachers with 28% and a mean of 1.84 always used dictionary to find the definitional meaning of the new words in sentences, this builds students' vocabulary knowledge in reading lessons in English language. Thirty of the teachers constituting 60% sometimes used the dictionary to find the definitional meaning of the new words in sentences, and this helps to build the vocabulary knowledge of the students in reading lessons. Six of the teachers (representing 12%) rarely used the dictionary to find the definitional meaning of new words in sentences.

Additionally, majority of the teachers also used the dictionary in introducing meanings of new words to students. This became possible when the strategies used by the English language teachers to find the possible meanings of the vocabulary items proved otherwise, hence the need for teachers to use the dictionary to find the definitional of the vocabulary item. It was also noticed from pre- reading stage of the reading lessons under the observational activity(Appendix D) twenty of the teachers with a mean of 2.6 used the dictionary as one of the strategies to build students' vocabulary knowledge to find the definitional meanings of the vocabulary items.

Research 4

What challenges do English language teachers encounter in designing vocabulary instruction in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality?

This aspect of the research question on the questionnaire items was an open-ended questionnaire, it was structured into two divisions in order to solicit the views of the teachers on the challenges they encounter in vocabulary instructions. The first aspect of the research question on the questionnaire item focused on the challenges the teachers themselves face in teaching meaning of new words under reading lessons.

The second aspect of the research question on the questionnaire item focused on the challenges which teachers have identified from the students in vocabulary instruction. That is, the challenges teachers have observed from the students whenever meanings of new words are taught in reading lessons.

Table 14- Challenges English Language Teachers Face

Statement	Frequency	Percentage
Inadequate reading materials	13	26.0
Inadequate time	8	16.0
Problem of Word pronunciation on the part pupils	17	34.0
Problem of Understanding the Meaning of the	12	24.0
Keywords (Definitional or Contextual meaning)		
Total	50	100

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

From the information gathered on Table 14, it shows that 17 of the English language teachers stated that, most of the students find it difficult to pronounce words correctly before reading activities in vocabulary lessons. This represents 34%, and this affects vocabulary instruction in English language.

Buttressing the point, Fraser (2000) stated that many learners of English language have major difficulties with English pronunciation even after years of learning the language. She further explains that students' ability to speak English language includes a number of sub-skills of which pronunciation is by far the most important and other sub-skills of speaking including vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics. She argues that "with good pronunciation, a speaker is intelligible despite other errors; with poor pronunciation, understanding a speaker will be very difficult, despite accuracy in other areas" (Fraser, 2000a, p. 7).

Thirteen of the English language teachers, which represents 26% also stated that inadequate reading materials affect pre-reading activities in vocabulary instruction. This is attributed to the challenge of students not

having enough reading materials to support pre-reading activities in vocabulary instruction.

In addition 12 of them which represents 24% indicated the problem of understanding the meaning of the keywords in pre-reading activities in vocabulary instruction. This usually arises when students cannot use the new words to form sentences, hence, creating a challenge for the teacher in introducing new words in pre-reading activities in vocabulary instruction. According to Kinsella (2005), selecting words that are essential for comprehension activities involve the selection and instruction of the words that are most essential for overall text comprehension. This implies that the most critical vocabulary should be examined in depth, allowing learners the opportunity to explore, refine, and revise their knowledge of principal concepts and ideas, thus enhancing their ability to understand a given text more profoundly.

As there are far too many important words to teach explicitly, educators must be strategic when considering which words they will teach for mastery, which they will teach for exposure, and which they will not teach explicitly. The selection of the vocabulary by the teacher must satisfy well – defined conditions, so as to make instruction interesting, interactive, meaningful, and memorable experiences to students.

On the contrary, eight of the English language teachers representing 16% stated that inadequate time contributes to the challenges they face when introducing new words in pre-reading activities. Accordingly, Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1986) suggested that the amount of time students spend reading, especially free choice reading is the best predictor of vocabulary

growth and development. Senechal (1997) supported the idea that time spent on repeated readings of a story produces significant gains in vocabulary growth and development. Second language learners of the English language, often times have problems with how new words are learnt and used. For second language learners of English language to succeed in the usage and function of the language, especially in the concept of vocabulary, English language teachers need to devote adequate time for students in vocabulary lessons.

Table 15- Challenges Students Face

Statement	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Problem of using new words to form sentences.	33	66.0
Problem of spelling new words correctly.	8	16.0
Problem of recalling new words learnt.	9	18.0
m . 1	~ 0	100
Total	50	100

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

From the Table 15, it depicts 33 of the English language teachers constituting 66% stated they have observed in their English language lessons that students have a problem of using new words to form sentences in vocabulary instruction after reading activities. This poses greater challenge to students in post reading activities after the teacher had taken them vocabulary instruction. On the contrary, 9 of the English language teachers forming 18% also stated that, students find it difficult of recalling new words learnt in vocabulary instruction. This means students are unable to recall new words acquired in vocabulary, hence compounding students' problems in post reading activities in English language.

However, 8 of the English language teachers representing 16% also identified the problem of spelling new words correctly on the part of students. This further explains that, after the English language teachers had introduced the students into vocabulary instruction, students are unable to spell new words acquired in from the lessons correctly Hence, posing a challenge to students in vocabulary instruction in English language.

Table 16-Pre-Presentation Activities to Build Students Vocabulary Knowledge under Reading Comprehension Lesson

Statement	Frequency	Mean
Teacher writes the new words (vocabularies) on the chalkboard.	20	1.3
Teacher teaches vocabulary items using appropriate		
methods/materials.	20	1.8
a. Teacher uses pupil's background knowledge to teach the new		
word.		
b. Teacher uses demonstrations to teach the new word.	20	2.8
c. Teacher uses simple explanations/ discussion to teach the new	20	1.6
word.		
Teacher drills pupils on the new words to ensure correct	20	1.4
pronunciation of the new words.		
Teacher uses dictionary to find the definitional meaning of the	20	2.6
vocabulary items.		
Teacher gives pupils opportunities to use the new words in	20	2.7
context. (e.g. To form sentences).		

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

From the table 16, it was observed that twenty of the respondents with a mean of 1.3 write the new words on the chalkboard as part of the prepresentation activities to build students. Twenty of the respondents with the mean of 1.8 used pupil's background knowledge as one of the methods in

teaching meanings of new words under pre-presentation activities in Reading Comprehension in English language lessons.

Twenty of the teachers representing a mean of 2.8 used demonstrations as a method of teaching the meanings of new words whiles discussion/explanations which gave a mean of 1.6 were some of the teaching methods, respondents respectively used to teach the meanings of new words under prepresentation activities in Reading Comprehension lessons.

Furthermore, twenty of the respondents with a mean of 1.4 adopted the method of words pronunciations to drill pupils on the meanings of new words in Reading Comprehension lessons in English language. A mean of 2.6 representing twenty English language teachers used the dictionary to find the definitional meanings of new words, whiles a mean of 2.7 representing twenty English language teachers guided pupils to use the new words in context in forming new sentences

Table 17- Presentation Activities to Build Students Vocabulary Knowledge under Reading Comprehension Lesson

Statement	Frequency	Mean
Teacher guides pupil to locate/ identify the new words	20	2.7
in the passage.		
Teacher guides pupils to find the meaning of the new	20	2.2
words through reading activities.		
Teacher guides pupils to use context clues during reading lesson to find the meaning of the vocabulary item.	20	1.7

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

During the presentation activities of the Reading Comprehension Lesson, it was observed that, twenty of the respondents with a mean of 2.7 guide pupil to locate the new words in the passage. Twenty of the respondents with a mean of 2.2 guided pupils to find the meaning of the new words through reading activities, whiles twenty of the respondents with a mean of 1.7 used the method of guiding pupils to use context clues to find the meanings of new words during Reading Comprehension Lesson.

Table 18- Post-Presentation Activities to Build Students Vocabulary

Knowledge under Reading Comprehension Lesson

Statement	Frequency	Mean
Teacher guides pupils to find words	20	2.5
nearest in meaning to the new words		
used/learnt in the reading activities		
lesson.		

Source: Field data, Appiah-Baidoo (2014)

It was observed from the post-presentation activities under Reading Comprehension Lesson, respondents used these activities as a means of assessing pupil's knowledge on the topic learnt. Twenty of the respondents with a mean of 2.5 guided pupil to find the words nearest in meaning to the new words used/learnt in the reading activities lessons.

Chapter Summary

This chapter was primarily based on the overall analysis and discussion of the data collected for the study. English language teachers' responses from the research question 1 demonstrate that, certain belief systems influence vocabulary instruction in English language. The findings from the research question 1 holds to the traditional approaches to vocabulary instruction. These traditional approaches include: keyword approach, extensive reading

activities, metacognitive approach (thinking about the meaning of the words) and the use of the dictionary.

Research question 2 of the study focused on the instructional approaches respondents used in vocabulary. The responses from the English language teachers indicated that certain instructional approaches were used more than others. Citing as an example extensive reading activities, the use of dictionary, keywords method, context clues and forming sentences with the new words were the instructional approaches used frequently by English language teachers in vocabulary instruction. Examples of instructional approaches which were used less frequently in vocabulary instruction as part of reading activities include Wordplay approach, students' personal experiences.

Research question 3 directs attention to the strategies used by the English language teachers in building students vocabulary knowledge in English language. Reponses from the English language teachers confirm that strategies like writing of the new words on the chalkboard, using new words to form sentences, repeating of new words and among others were the major activities being used by English language teachers to building students' vocabulary knowledge. Use of mental images, teach new words reading activities, use of students background knowledge were not used frequently in vocabulary lessons.

Research question 4 relates to the challenges teachers face when introducing new words to students before and during reading activities. It was confirmed by the responses from the English language teachers that, most students have problems with the pronunciation of the new words. Again

students have difficulties in forming sentences with vocabulary items, problem of understanding the meanings of the new words (contextual and definitional) were some of the challenges provided by the respondents.

Observational activities were used to complement the instrument, and also ascertain the veracity of the responses provided by the English language teachers on the questionnaire items.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The focus of the study was to assess effective vocabulary instruction in English language at the public junior high schools. The respondents were the teachers teaching English language as a subject at the public junior high schools. It was conducted in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality (K.E.E.A) in the Central Region of Ghana. The researcher adopted the descriptive survey design. Public junior high school English language teachers were the target population for the study in the Komenda- Edina -Eguafo - Abrem Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana.

Questionnaire and observation checklist were the main instruments used to collect data. The sixty-six respondents made up of public junior high school English language teachers formed the sample size for the study. Multi – staged sampling procedures were used to select the public junior high schools and the public junior high school English language teachers in the municipality. The simple random sampling technique (lottery method) was also used to select thirty-three (33) public junior high schools. Whiles, the purposive sampling technique was used to sixty-six (66) public junior school English language teachers. Tables and percentage values were used in the discussion to interpret the findings for the study. The discussions and interpretations of the findings from the study were reported under the following sub-themes: Belief Systems on Vocabulary Learning, Instructional

Approaches, Strategies to Build Students' Vocabulary Knowledge, and Challenges in Designing Vocabulary Instruction.

Summary of key Findings

From the study, the following key findings were made;

- For each item measuring the different belief systems in vocabulary instructions, most English Language teachers of Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality agreed to using them in the classroom.
 With a mean score of 1.34, teaching new vocabulary before reading is most widely used system teachers believe in.
- 2. Most English Language teachers of Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality agreed to using different instructional approaches in teaching vocabulary. The most widely agreed instructional approach that teachers use in teaching vocabulary is giving meaning of the word and make students construct sentences with the keywords. Forty-two teachers representing 84% agreed to using this instructional approach.
- 3. The most common instructional strategy that teachers use in teaching vocabulary in the classroom is writing the new words (vocabularies) on the chalkboard. Whereas 46 teachers representing 92% agreed to using this strategy with only one teacher thinking otherwise. This item also recorded the lowest mean score of 1.10. The teachers also agreed that they use all the other suggested strategies.
- 4. Seventeen teachers representing 34% stated that, the problem of word pronunciation was one of the challenges they encountered when introducing new words to students before reading activities. Thirty-three of the teachers (representing 66%) stated that, most of their

students find it difficult in using new words to construct sentences.

Other challenges teachers face includes inadequate materials, inability of pupils to understand new vocabulary and as well recall previously learnt words.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn;

- Most teachers have more than one belief system that influences their instruction of new vocabulary.
- 2. English teachers adopt different and varied instructional approaches in teaching vocabulary in the classroom.
- Different strategies are used by teachers in vocabulary instruction.
 This has the potential of attending to the unique needs of the pupils.
- 4. Though the challenges that teachers face in vocabulary instruction is multi-dimensional, they are mostly related to the weaknesses of the pupils.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations are made for the policy and practice.

1. Since English teachers have varied belief systems regarding vocabulary instruction, curriculum developers as well as institutions responsible for teacher education and training should incorporate content that will expose teachers to the various belief systems so that

- they can adopt appropriate strategies to reduce the impact of the weaknesses of the each belief system.
- The Ghana Education Service should organise refresher courses for teachers on various approaches to vocabulary instruction so as to apt their pedagogical competence.
- 3. Heads of schools should strengthen their supervisory roles to ensure that teachers adopt the best strategies in vocabulary instruction. This will ensure effective teaching and learning.
- 4. The government through the Ministry of Education as well as corporate society should help in providing enough reading materials and other relevant logistics to aid effective vocabulary instruction.

Suggestions for Future Studies

Since the study concentrated on public junior high schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality in the Central region, and not all the schools in the country, the study cannot be generalized. I therefore suggest that further study will be necessary in other regions of the country and nationwide to identify whether the issues identified by the researcher persist elsewhere in order to build a holistic trend to vocabulary instruction in reading activities in English language. Other issues which were not part of the study such as home and government roles in building students' vocabulary knowledge in reading lessons should also be looked into.

REFERENCES

- Adams, K., & Keene, M. (2000). *Research and writing across the disciplines* (2nded.). California: Mayfield Publishing Company.
- Afful, J. B. A. (2007). Academic literacy and communication skills in the Ghanaian University: A Proposal. *Nebula* 4(3), 141-159.
- Alexander, P.A., & Jetton, T.L. (2000). Learning from text: A multidimensional and developmental perspective. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading* research (pp. 285–310). New York: Longman
- Allen, J. (1999). Words, words: Teaching vocabulary in grades 4–12.

 Portland: Stenhouse.
- Alreck, P., & Settle, R. (1985). *The survey research handbook*. Chesapeake: Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education.
- Amedahe, F. K. (2002). Fundamentals of Educational Research.

 Mimeograph, UCC. Cape Coast.
- Anderson, R. C., & Freebody, P. (1981). Vocabulary knowledge. In J. Guthrie (Ed.), *Comprehension and teaching: Research reviews* (pp. 77-117). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P. T., & Fielding, L. G. (1986). *Growth in reading* and how children spend their time outside of school. Technical Report No. 389. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, Centre for the Study of Reading.
- Anderson, R. C., Wilson, P., & Fielding, L. (1988). Growth in reading and how children spend their time outside of school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23(5), 285–303.

- Anderson, R.C. & Pearson, P.D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading. In P.D. Pearson, R.Barr, M. L. Kamil, & P. Mosenthal (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research*. New York: Longman.
- Andoh-Kumi, K. (2000). *One Policy, Many Needs*. A paper presented at the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES) at San Antonio, Texas from March 4 to 16, 2000.
- Anglin, J. M. (1993). Vocabulary development: A morphological analysis.

 Chicago: Society for Research in Child Development.
- Armbruster, B.B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2003) *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read* (2nded.). Jessup: National Institute for Literacy.
- Ary D., Jacobs, C. L., & Razavieh, A., (2002). *Introduction to research in Education*. New York: Wadsworth Thompson Learning.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, C. L., Razavieh, A., & Sorensen, C. (2006). *Introduction to research in education* (7thed.). Belmont: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Atay, D & Ozbulgan, C. (2007). Memory strategy instruction, contextual learning and ESP vocabulary recall. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26(3), 39-51.
- Baker, S. K., Simmons, D. C., & Kameenui, E. J. (1995). *Vocabulary acquisition: Synthesis of the research* (Report No. 13). Eugene: National Centre to improve tools for Educators.
- Balochowicz, C. & Fisher, P. (2000). *Teaching Vocabulary*. Manhwah, NJ: Erlbaum

- Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1991). Conditions of vocabulary acquisition.

 In R.Barr, M.L Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P.D.Pearson (Ed.). The handbook of reading research. New York: Longman.
- Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2001). Text talk: Capturing the benefits of read-aloud experiences for young children. *The Reading Teacher*, 55(1), 10–20.
- Beck, I. L., McCaslin, E. S., & McKeown, M. G. (1980). The rationale and design of a program to teach vocabulary to fourth-grade students

 Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, Learning Research and Development Centre.
- Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & McCaslin, E. S. (1983)."Vocabulary

 Development: All Contexts are Not Created Equal." *Elementary*School Journal, 83(3), 177–181.
- Beck, I., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, I. (2002). *Bringing words to life: Robust vocabulary instruction*. New York: Guilford.
- Berne, J. I., & Blachowicz, C. L. Z. (2008). What reading teachers say about vocabulary instruction: Voices from the classroom? *The Reading Teacher*, 62(4), 314–323.
- Blachowicz, C. & Fisher, P. (2000). Vocabulary instruction. In M. L. Kamil,P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading*research (pp. 503–523). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Borko, H., & Putnam, R. (1996). Learning to teach. In D. Berliner & Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology*. New York: Macmillan.
- Brabham, E. G., & Villaume, S. K. (2002). Vocabulary instruction: Concerns and visions. *The Reading Teacher*, 56 (4), 264.

- Bransford, J., & Johnson, M. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall.

 *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour, 11(5) 717-726
- Carlo, M. S., August, D., & Snow, C. E. (2005). Bringing words to life in classrooms with English language learners. In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning: Bringing research to practice*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Carron, G., & Carr-Hill, R. A. (1991). *Non-formal education: Information and planning issues*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning UNESCO.
- Carver, R.P. (1994). Percentage of unknown vocabulary words in text as a function of the relative difficulty of the text: Implications for instruction. *Journal of Reading Behaviour*, 26(4), 413–437
- Chall, J. S. (1987). Two vocabularies for reading: Recognition and meaning.

 In M. G. McKeown & M. E. Curtis (Eds.). *The nature of vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 7-17). Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Chall, J., V. Jacobs, & L. Baldwin. (1990). *The reading crisis: Why poor children fall behind*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Chall, J.S., & Jacobs, V.A. (1983). Writing and reading in the elementary grades: Developmental trends among low-SES children. *Language*Arts, 60 (5),243-251
- Chen, Y. M. (2006). The effect of keyword method on English vocabulary long-term retention of elementary school students in Taiwan.

 Unpublished (Master Thesis) Department of Applied English, Southern Taiwan University; Taiwan

- Christen, W. L., & Murphy, T. J. (1991). "Increasing Comprehension by Activating Prior Knowledge." ERIC Digest, Bloomington, IN: ERIC (Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication. ED 328 885)
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2008). *Research methods in education* (6thed.). London: Routledge.
- Cromley, J. G., & Azevedo, R. (2007). Testing and refining the direct and inferential mediation model of reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(2), 311-325.
- Dale, E., O'Rourke, J., & Bamman, H. (1971). *Techniques in teaching vocabulary*. Palo Alto: Field Educational Publications.
- Davis, F. (1944). Fundamental factors of comprehension in reading.

 Pychometrika, 9(1), 185-197.
- Davis, F. B. (1968). Research in comprehension and reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 3(4), 499-545.
- Diamond, L., & Gutlohn, L. (2006). *Vocabulary handbook*. Berkley: Consortium of Reading Excellence.
- Dolphyne, F. (1995). A note on the English Language in Ghana. In Bamgbose, B. and Thomas, I (Eds.) *New Englishes: A West African Perspective* Pp27-33. Ibadan: Mosuro.
- Dooling, D., & Lachman, R. (1971). Effects of comprehension on retention of prose. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 88(2), 216-223.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Draper, A. G., & Moeller, G. H. (1971). We think with words (therefore, to improve thinking, teach vocabulary). *Phi Delta Kappan*, 52(1), 482-484.
- Duffy, G. (1982). Fighting off the alligators: What research in real classrooms has to say about reading instruction. *Journal of Reading Behaviour*, 14(4),357-373.
- Duffy, G., & Ball, D. (1986).Instructional decision making and reading teacher effectiveness. In J. Hoffman (Ed.), *Effective teaching of reading: Research and practice* (pp.163-180).Newark: International Reading Association.
- Echevarria, J., Vogt, M. E., & Short, D. J. (2004). *Making content comprehensible for English language learners: The SIOP model* (2nded.). Boston: Pearson.
- Ellis, R. (1994). Factors in the incidental acquisition of second language learning from oral input: A review essay. *Applied Language Learning*, 5(1), 1-32.
- Elverfeldt, A.V. (2005). *Performance Appraisal: How to improve its*effectiveness. A Master of Service in Management Thesis, University

 of Twente, Enschede
- Espin, C. A., & Foegen, A. (1996). Validity of general outcome measures for predicting secondary students' performance on content-area tasks. *Exceptional Children*, 62(2), 497-514.
- Fallahchai, R. (2011). The Effects of Use of Learning Strategies Training on Students Foreign Language Vocabulary Learning. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education*, 4 (3&4), 181-189.

- Fang, Z. & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2010). Disciplinary literacies across content areas: Supporting secondary reading through functional language analysis. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, International Reading Association*, 53(7), 587-597.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (1993). *How to Design and Evaluate**Research in Education (2nded.). New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Fraenkel, J.R., & Wallen, N.E. (2000). *How To Design and Evaluate Research* in Education (4thed.). Boston: MA, McGraw-Hill
- Fraser, H. (2000). Coordinating improvements in pronunciation teaching for adult learners of English as a second language. Canberra: DETYA
- Freiberg, H. J. (Ed.). (1999). Beyond behaviourism: Changing the classroom management paradigm. Needham Height, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gay, R. L (1992). Educational research: competencies for analysis and application (4thed.). New York: Merrill/Macmillan.
- Gentner, D. (1978). On relational meaning: The acquisition of verb meaning.

 Child Development, 49(4), 988-998.
- Ghaffarzadeh H. (2012). The effect of teachers' lexicon teaching beliefs on EFL learners' vocabulary Intake. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 1(2),156-160.
- Graves, M. (2008). Instruction on individual words: One size does not fit all.

 In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about vocabulary instruction (pp. 56–79). Newark: International Reading Association.

- Graves, M. F. (1986). Vocabulary learning and instruction. In E. Z. Rothkopf (Ed.), *Review of research in education*, vol. 13 (pp. 49-89). Washington DC: American Educational Association.
- Graves, M. F. (2000). A vocabulary program to complement and bolster a middle grade comprehension program. In B. M. Taylor, M. F. Graves, & P V. Broek (Eds.), *Reading for meaning: Fostering comprehension in the middle grades* (pp. 116-135). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Graves, M. F. (2006). *The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction*. New York: Teacher's College
- Graves, M. F., & Watts-Taffe, S. (2008). For the love of words: Fostering word consciousness in young readers. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(3), 185–193.
- Graves, M.F. (2007). Vocabulary instruction in the middle grades. *Voices*From The Middle, 15(1), 13–19.
- Greaney, V. (1980). Factors related to amount and type of leisure reading.

 Reading Research Quarterly, 15(3), 337–57.
- Grogner, A., Jameson, J., Franco, L., & Derrcki-Mescua, M. (2000).

 Enhancing English language learning in elementary classrooms.

 McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.
- Guthrie, J. T., and V. Greaney. (1991). Literacy acts. New York: Longman.
- Haggard, M.R. (1982). The vocabulary self –collection strategy: An active approach to word learning. *Journal of Reading*, 26(3),203-207

- Haggard, M.R. (1986). The vocabulary self –collection strategy: Using student interest and word knowledge to enhance vocabulary growth . *Journal of Reading*, 29(7), 634-642
- Harmon, J. M., Wood, K. D., Hedrick, W. B., & Gress, M. (2008). "Pick a word—not just any word": Using vocabulary self-selection with expository texts. *Middle School Journal*, 40(1), 43–52
- Harste, J. C., & Burke, C. L. (1977). A new hypothesis for reading teacher research: Both the teaching and learning of reading is theoretically based. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Reading: Theory, research and practice* (pp. 32–40). Clemson: National Reading Conference.
- Herman, R.A., & Dole, J. (1988). Theory and practice in vocabulary learning and in instruction. The University of Chicago. *The Elementary School Journal*, 89(1), 43-45.
- Kamil, E. H., Hiebert & M., L. (2005). *Teaching and learning vocabulary:*Bringing research to practice. Mahwah: Erlbaum.
- Hirsch, E.D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge of words and the world: Scientific insights into the fourth-grade slump and the nation's stagnant comprehension scores. *American Educator*, 27(1), 10-42
- Hoover, W. A. (1996). The practice implications of constructivism. *SED*Letter 9(3), 7-26.
- Hu H. M. & Nation, I.S.P. (2000). Unknown Vocabulary Density and Reading Comprehension. Reading in a foreign language, 13 (1), 403–430.
- Janxen, J. (2007). Preparing teachers of second language readers. *TESOL Quarterly* 41(4), 707-729.

- Jenkins, J. R., & Dixon, R. (1983). Vocabulary learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8(3), 237-260.
- Joan S. (2008). What Every Educator and Parent Should Know About Reading Instruction. *The Journal*, 11 (4), 1-12
- Johnson, D., & Pearson, P.D. (1984). *Teaching reading vocabulary*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston
- Jonassen, D. H., Davidson, M., Collins, M., Campbell, J., & Haag, B. B. (1995). Constructivism and computer-mediated communication in distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 9(2), 7-26.
- Kelly, K., Clark, B., Brown, V., & Sitzia, J. (2003). Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*, 15(3), 261-266
- King, A. (1994). Guiding knowledge construction in the classroom: Effects of teaching children how to question and how to explain. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(2), 338-368.
- Kinsella, K. (2005). *Teaching academic vocabulary*. Santa Rosa: Sonoma County Office of Education.
- Kintsch, W. (1994). Text comprehension, memory and learning. *American Psychologist*, 49(4), 294–303.
- Klare, G. R. (1984). Readability. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading* research (pp. 681-744). New York: Longman.
- Klauda, S.L., & Guthrie, J.T. (2008). Relationships of three components of reading fluency to reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(2), 310-321.

- Komiyama, R. (2009). CAR: A means for motivating students to read. English Teaching Forum 47 (3), 3237.
- Krashen, S. (2004). Free voluntary reading: New research, applications, and controversies. Unpublished paper presented at the Regional English Language Centre conference, Singapore.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities: Educational and psychological measurement. New York: Sage Publications Inc.
- Lampert, M. (1985). How do teachers manage to teach? Perspectives on problems in practice. *Harvard Educational Review*, 55(2),178-194.
- Laufer, B. (2003). Vocabulary acquisition in a second language: Do learners really acquire most vocabulary by reading? Some empirical evidence. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(4), 567-587.
- Leherr, K. (2009). National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Baseline

 Assessment. Accra: EDC Inc.
- Li, D. (2005). Constructivism teaching theory. Beijing: Education & Science
- Lou, H. Y. & Liao, F. (2005). The relationship between college English teachers' teacher beliefs and practices]. *Foreign Language Teaching* and Research, 4(3), 271-275.
- Manzo, A. V., and Manzo, U. C. (1995). *Teaching children to be literate*.

 Texas: Harcourt Brace College Pub.
- Martino, N. L., & Hoffman, P. R. (2002). An investigation of reading and language abilities of college freshmen. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 25(3), 310-318.

- Marzano, R.J. (2004). Building Background Knowledge for Academic Achievement. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Mathews, M. (1998). Constructivism in science education. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., Omanson, R., & Pople, M. T. (1985). Some Effects of the Nature and Frequency of Vocabulary Instruction on the Knowledge and Use of Words. *Reading and Research Quarterly*, 20(5), 522–535.
- McNamara, D.S., Kintsch, E., Songer, N.B., & Kintsch, W. (1996). Are good texts always better? Interactions of text coherence, background knowledge, and levels of understanding in learning from text.

 *Cognition and Instruction, 14(1), 1–43.
- Meece, J.L., Glienke, B.B., & Burg, S. (2006). Gerder ord motivation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44,351-373.
- Mfum-Mensah, O. (2005). The impact of colonial and postcolonial Ghanaian language policies on vernacular use in two northern Ghanaian communities. *Comparative Education*, 41(1), 71-85.
- Milton, J. (2008). Vocabulary Uptake from Informal Learning Tasks.

 Language learning Journal, 36, (2), 227-237.
- Ministry of Education (2007). *Teaching syllabus for English (JHS 1-3)*. Accra: CRDD
- Moats, L.C. (2005). Language essentials for teachers of reading and spelling:

 Module 4. Boston: Sopris West Educational Services.
- Montgomery, J. K. (2007). The bridge of vocabulary: Evidence-based strategies for academic success. San Antonio, TX: Pearson.

- Nagy, W. E. (1988). *Teaching Vocabulary to Improve Reading Comprehension*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Nagy, W. E., & Herman, P. A. (1987). Breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge: Implication for acquisition and instruction. In M. G. McKeown &M. E. Curtis (Eds.), *The nature of vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 19-35). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum
- Nagy, W. E., Anderson, R. C., & Herman, P. A. (1987). Learning word meanings from context during normal reading. *American Educational Research Journal* 24(2), 237–270.
- Nagy, W.E., & Scott, J.A. (2000). Vocabulary processes. In R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (3), 269–284. Mahwah: Erlbaum.
- Nassaji, H. (2004). The relationship between depth of vocabulary knowledge and L2 learners' lexical inferencing strategy use and success. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 61(1), 107-134.
- Nation, P. & Wang, M. K. (1999). Graded readers and vocabulary. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 12(2), 355-379.
- National Institute for Literacy. (2001). Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read. Jessup: National Institute for Literacy.
- National Reading Panel (2000). Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Bethesda: National Institutes of Health.

- National Reading Panel (2000). Teaching Children to Read: and evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Washington D.C.: NIH publications.
- Nichols, M. (2008). Talking about text: Guiding students to increase comprehension through purposeful talk. Huntington Beach: Shell Education
- Nicholson, T., & Whyte, B. (1992). Matthew effects in learning new words while listening to stories. In C. Kinzer & D.Leu (Eds.), Literacy research, theory, and practice: *Views from many perspectives: Forty-first yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (pp. 499–503). Chicago: National Reading Conference.
- Nyaradzo, M. & Jennifer, T. (2012). Constructivism in Practice: The Case for English Language Learners. *International Journal of Education.* 4(3), 108-118.
- Ogle, D.M. (1986). K-W-L: A teaching model that develops active reading of expository text. *Reading Teacher*, 39(6), 564-570.
- Ontario Ministry of Education. (2010). Differentiated Instruction:

 Facilitator's Guide. Toronto: Author.
- Ouellette, G. (2006). What's meaning got to do with it: The role of vocabulary in word reading and reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98(3), 554-566.
- Owens, L. K. (2002). Introduction to Survey Research Design. *SRL Fall 2002*Seminar Series. Retrieved May 31, 2013 from http://www.srl.uic.edu

- Pang, S. E., Muaka, A., Bernhardt, B., & Kamil, M. L. (2003). *Teaching reading*. Bellegarcie: SADAG.
- Parfitt,J (2005). Questionnaire design and Sampling. In Flowerdew, R. & Martin, D.P. (Eds.), *Methods in human geography* (pp 78-109). London: Pearson Education Limited
- Pearson, P., & Gallagher, M. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8(3),317-344.
- Phillips, D. C. (1995). The good, the bad, and the ugly: The many faces of constructivism. *Educational Researcher*, 24(7), 5-12.
- Piaget, J. (1967). Biology and knowledge. Paris: Gallimard.
- Pilot, D. F., & Hungler, B. P. (1995). *Nursing research principles and methods*. (5thed.). Philadelphia: J.B Linppincot Company.
- Pittelman, S.D., Heimlich, J. E., Berglund, R. L., & French, M. P. (1991).

 **Semantic Feature Analysis.* Newark: International Reading Association.
- Pressley, M., Wood, E., Woloshyn, V.E., Martin, V., King, A. & Menke, D. (1992). Encouraging mindful use of prior knowledge: Attempting to construct explanatory answers facilitates learning. Educational Psychologist, 27(1), 91-109.
- Qian, D. D. (2002). Investigating the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and academic reading performance: An assessment perspective. *Language Learning*, 52(3), 513–536.
- Reigeluth, C. M. (Ed.). (1999). Instructional-design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructional theory (Vol. II). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Reutzel, D. R., & Cooter, R. B. (2008). *Teaching children to read: The teacher makes the difference* (5thed.). Upper Saddle River: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Reutzel, D. R., and P. M. Hollingsworth. (1991). Investigating topic-related attitude: Effect on reading and remembering text. *Journal of Educational Research* 84(5), 334–344.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robbins, C., & Ehri, L. (1994). Reading storybooks to kindergartners helps them learn new vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86(1), 54–64.
- Rowe, D.W. & Rayford, L. (1987). Activating background knowledge in reading comprehension assessment. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22(2), 160-176.
- Ruddell, M.R. (1994).Vocabulary knowledge and comprehension: A comprehension –process view of complex literacy relationships. In R.B.Ruddell, & Singer (Eds), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (4thed) (pp.414-447).Newark, DE: International reading Association
- Saratankos, S. (2005). *Social Science Research* (3rded.). New York: NY Palgrave Macmillan.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2007) Research Methods for Business Students (4th edn). Harlow: FT Prentice Hall.

- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Sedita, J. (2005). Effective Vocabulary Instruction. *Insights on Learning Disabilities*, 2(1), 33-45.
- Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach* (2nded). New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Senechal, M. (1997). The differential effect of storybook reading on preschoolers' acquisition of expressive and receptive vocabulary, *Journal of Child Language*, 24(1), 123–138.
- Shapiro, A. M. & Waters, D. L (2005). An investigation of the cognitive processes underlying the keyword method of foreign vocabulary learning. *Language Learning*, 9(2), 129-146.
- Short, K. G., ed. (1995). Research and professional resources in children's literature: Piecing a patchwork quilt. Newark, Del: International Reading Association.
- Smith, J. W. A., & Elley, W. B. (1995). *Learning to read in New Zealand*.

 New York: Richard C. Owen
- Stahl, S. A., & Nagy, W. E. (2006). *Teaching word meanings*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Stahl, S. A., Jacobson, M. G., Davis, C. E., & Davis, R. L. (1989). Prior knowledge and difficult vocabulary in the comprehension of unfamiliar text. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(1), 27-43.
- Stahl, S.A. (1999). *Vocabulary development*. Newton Upper Falls, MA: Brookline Books.

- Stahl, S.A., Richek, M.G., &Vandevier, R. (1991) .Learning word meanings through Listening: A Sixth grade replication .In J. Zutell & S. McCormick (Eds.), *Learning factors/teacher factors: Issues in.*Fortieth year book of the National Reading Conference (pp.185-192). Chicago: National Reading Conference.
- Stanovich, K. E. & A. E. Cunningham. (1993). Where does knowledge come from? Specific associations between print exposure and information acquisition. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 85(2), 211–29.
- Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(4), 360-407.
- Stanovich, K.E. (1986). *Matthew effects in reading*: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(4), 360–407. doi:10.1598/RRQ.21.4.1
- Sternberg, R.J. (1987). Most vocabulary is learned from context. In M.G. McKeown & M.E. Curtis (Eds.), *The nature of vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 89–105). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Stoller, F., & Grabe, W. (1995). Implications for L2 vocabulary acquisition and instruction from L1 vocabulary research. In T. Huckin, M. Haynes, & J. Coady (Eds.), *Second language reading and vocabulary learning* (pp. 24–45). Norwood: Ablex.
- Streubert-Speziale, H.J. and Carpenter, D.R. 2003. *Qualitative research in nursing: Advancing the humanistic imperative* (3rd ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.

- Sweet, A.P., & Snow, C.E. (2004). *Rethinking reading comprehension*. New York: Guilford.
- Taylor, B., P. Frye, & G. Maruyama. (1990). Time spent reading and reading growth. *American Educational Research Journal* 27(2), 351–362..
- Terre Blanche, M.; Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2002). Research in practice:

 Moonstats CD & User guide, applied methods for the social sciences.

 Cape Town: UCT Press.
- Texas Education Agency. (2002). Promoting vocabulary development:

 Components of effective vocabulary instruction, revised internet edition. Austin, TX: Texas Education Agency.
- Texas Reading Initiative (2002). Promoting vocabulary development:

 Components of effective vocabulary instruction (Revised edition).

 Austin, TX: Texas Education Agency.
- Thorndike, R. (1973). Reading comprehension education in fifteen countries.

 New York: Wiley.
- Tovani, C. (2000). I Read It, But I Don't Get It: Comprehension Strategies for Adolescent Readers. Portland ME: Stenhouse Publishers.
- von Glasersfeld, E. (1995). Radical constructivism: A way of knowing and learning. London: Falmer Press.
- von Glasersfeld, E. (1995). Radical constructivism: *A way of knowing and learning*. Washington, DC: Falmer.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Tool and symbol in child development. In M. Cole, V.
 John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman (Eds.). *Mind in Society:*The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge:
 Harvard University Press.

- Walker, D., Greenwood, C., Hart, B., & Carta, J. (1994). Prediction of school outcomes based on early language production and socioeconomic factors. Child Development 65(2), 606-621.
- White, T. G., Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (1990). Growth of reading vocabulary in diverse elementary schools: decoding and word meaning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(2), 281-290
- Woolfolk, A. (2010) *Educational Psychology* (11thed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey; Pearson Education, Inc.
- Zimmerman, C.B. (2007). *Vocabulary learning methods*. Cambridge Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Introductory Letter

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Telephone No: 233-042-33379

Cables: PED, University, Cape Coast E-mail: dbeucc@yahoo.com



University of Cape Coast UCC Post Office Cape Coast

Our Ref.: DBE/14/V.7/176

21st July, 2015

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

This is to inform you that Joseph Appiah-Baidoo with Regd. No. ED/BEP/13/0005 is an M.Phil student at the Department of Basic Education, University of Cape Coast.

He is undertaking a study on "The English Language Teachers in the Public Junior High Schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo Abirem Municipality in the Central Region of Ghana". In connection with this, he needs to collect data.

. The study is academic in purpose and data collected will be treated as confidential. We should therefore be grateful if you could give him the necessary assistance.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. (Mrs) Felicia Kafui Etsey

(Head)

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Cover Letter

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

In case of reply the Number and date of this letter should be quoted Tel No.: 03321-40025 /40048/40017 Tele/Fax: 03321-40016

Tele/Fax: 03321-40016
E-mail-keea.educution@gcs.gov.gh/
keea_edu@yahoo.com

Our Ref. GES/KEEA/UCC/V.II/08



Municipal Education Office Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-AbremMun. P. O. Box 13 Elmina

25th September, 2015

Your Ref:

THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Your office letter referenced number DBE/14/V.7/176 and dated 21st July, 2015 on the above subject refers.

Permission is granted to Mr. Joseph Appiah-Baidoo, an M.Phil student at the Department of Basic Education to undertake his research for his thesis as an academic exercise.

Mr. Joseph Appiah-Baidoo is to contact the Public Relations Officer of this office to discuss among other issues the number of JHS to be used and the period for the exectise.

Counting on our co-operation in this regard to make this academic exercise a success.

Thank you.

ABADOO ADENTWI EDZII (MR) MUNICIPAL DIRECTOR OF EDUC. K.E.E.A. – ELMINA

cc: Mr. Joseph Appiah-Baidoo

Department of Basic Education
University of Cape Coast

Cape Coast

The Public Relations Officer Ghana Education Service Elmina

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATIO STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION

DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Questionnaire for English Language Teachers of Ghana Education Service in the Komenda-Edina –Eguafo-Abrem Municipality.

Dear Sir/Madam.

Good day, I am a student of the above department reading Master of Philosophy in Basic Education (English language as major). As part of my programme I am writing a thesis on the topic: "Assessing effective vocabulary instruction in English Language at the Junior High Schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality". You have been selected to respond to a questionnaire. After the collection of the data from you and others who were selected, all the data will be combined for analysis and no one can identify responses from any individual.

I would like to assure you of anonymity of your responses. Under no condition would any information you provide be given to any other person. I assure you of absolute confidentiality

Section A: Demographic information.

Tick $[\sqrt{\ }]$ where applicable

1. Gender:	Male	LJ
	Female	[]
2. Age:	20-25years	[]
	26-30years	[]
	35-40 years	[]
	41-above	[]
3. Current rank in the	service	
4. Highest educations	al background	
5. Number of years in	the teaching p	profession: 1-5years []
6 - 10years []		
11-15years []		
16-above []		

SECTION B: Belief Systems on Vocabulary Learning

Which beliefs systems do influence you in vocabulary instructions?

Please tick ($\sqrt{}$) the statement.

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
11	Repetition is the useful way				
	to teach new words.				
12	Students' acquire new words				
	through the use of the				
	dictionary.				
13	Students' memorize new				
	words through word lists.				
14	Students' acquire				
	vocabulary words through				
	imitation				
15	Students' acquire the				
	meaning of new words				
	through keywords methods.				

16	Students' learn vocabulary		
	words through dialogue		
	activities.		
17	Students' acquire the		
	meanings of new words by		
	thinking about the new		
	word.		
18	Students' acquire the		
	meaning of new words		
	through reading activities.		
19	Students' acquire		
	vocabulary words through		
	interactions.		
20	New vocabulary is treated		
	before reading.		
21	New vocabulary is treated		
	before, during and after		
	reading.		

Section C: Methods/Strategies/Techniques Teachers Use in Teaching Vocabulary.

What instructional approaches do you adopt/use in teaching vocabulary?

Please tick ($\sqrt{}$) the statement.

No	Statement	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1	Extensive reading activities				
	in vocabulary learning.				
2	The use of dictionary.				
3	Using word play to give				
	meanings to new words in				
	sentence.				
4	Using the key words to form				
	sentences.				
5	Creating dialogue in				
	vocabulary instruction.				
6	The keyword approach in				
	vocabulary instruction.				
7	Using context clues in				
	vocabulary instruction.				
8	Using students' personal				

	experiences in vocabulary		
	instruction.		
9	Gives meaning of the word		
	and make students' construct		
	sentences with the keywords.		
10	Using repetition method.		

Section D: Strategies Teachers Use To Build Students' Vocabulary

Knowledge.

Which extra activities /strategies do you use to build your learners' vocabulary knowledge?

Please tick ($\sqrt{}$) the statement

No	Statement	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
22	Write the new words on the chalkboard.				
23	Use the new words to form sentences.				
24	Repeat the new words aloud to students'.				
25	Use mental images to find the meanings of the new words.				
26	Use explanations to find the meanings of new words.				
27	Use students' background knowledge on the new words, to find the meanings.				
28	Guide students' to find the meanings of new words through reading.				
29	Use synonyms or antonym to find the meanings of the new words.				
30	Teach new words through reading activities. (storytelling, novels etc).				
31	Use dictionary to find the definitional meaning of the new words.				

32. A. What challenge(s)do you face as an English language teacher when teaching or introducing new words (vocabulary) to your students' before reading activities? B. What challenge(s) do your students' face after introducing new words (vocabulary) in reading activities?

Section E: Challenges Teachers' Face in Vocabulary Instruction.

APPENDIX D

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATIO STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATION

DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Observational Checklist Items for English Language Teachers of Ghana

Education Service in the Komenda-Edina – Eguafo-Abrem Municipality.

Dear Sir/Madam,

Good day, I am a student of the above department reading Master of Philosophy in Basic Education (English language as major). As part of my programme I am writing a thesis on the topic: 'Assessing effective vocabulary instruction in English Language at the Junior High Schools in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality' 'Your lesson is selected for an observational activity. After the collection of the data from you and others who were selected, all the data will be combined for analysis and no one can identify responses from any individual.

I would like to assure you of anonymity of your responses. Under no condition would any information you provide be given to any other person. I assure you of absolute confidentiality.

Section A: Demographic information.

Tick $[\sqrt{\ }]$ where applicable

1. Gender: Male []	
Female []	
2. Age:20-25years []	
26-30years []	
35-40 years []	
41-above []	
3. Current rank in the service	
4. Highest educational background	
5. Number of years in the teaching profession:	1-5years []
	6 - 10years []
	11-15years []
	16-above []
6. Class/ Form :	
7. Date/ Duration of the Lesson :	
8. Duration of the Lesson:	
9. Topic/ Title of the Text:	
10. Teacher-Learning Materials used by the te	acher:

INTRODUCTION / PRE-PRESENTATION

No.	Statement	Very Effective	Effective	Not Effective	Not Used At All
1.	Teacher writes the new words (vocabularies) on the chalkboard.				7117111
2.	Teacher teaches vocabulary items using appropriate methods/materials.				
	a. Teacher uses pupil's background knowledge to teach the new word.				
	b. Teacher uses demonstrations to teach the new word. c. Teacher uses simple explanations/ discussion to teach the new word.				
3.	Teacher drills pupils on the new words to ensure correct pronunciation of the new words.				
4.	Teacher gives pupils opportunities to use the new words in context. (e.g. To form sentences)				
5.	Teacher uses dictionary to find the definitional meaning of the vocabulary items.				

NB: Duration of time used by the teacher:

PRESENTATION STAGE

No.	Statement	Very Effective	Effective	Not Effective	Not Used At All
6	Teacher guides pupil to locate/ identify the new				
	words in the passage.				
7	Teacher guides pupils to find the meaning of the new words through reading activities.				
8	Teacher guides pupils to use context clues during reading lesson to find the meaning of the vocabulary item.				

NB: Duration of time used by the teacher:

POST-PRESENTATION STAGE ON READING ACTIVITIES

	Statement	Very effective	Effective	Not effective	Not
					used at
					all
10.	Teacher guides				
	pupils to find words				
	nearest in meaning to				
	the new words				
	used/learnt in the				
	reading activities				
	lesson.				

NB: Duration of time used by the teacher:

Thank You