Міністерство освіти і науки України

Закарпатський угорський інститут ім. Ференца Ракоці II

Кафедра філології

Реєстраційний № _____

Кваліфікаційна робота

Підвищення лексичної компетенії з англійської мови в учнів середнього ступеня

Сіладі Йоганна Юріївна

Студентки 4-го курсу

Освітня програма: «Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська))»

Спеціальність: 014 Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська))

Рівень вищої освіти: бакалавр

Тема затверджена на засіданні кафедри
Протокол № 107 / 14.08.2024р.

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Робота захищена на оцінку_____, ____ _ _____ 2025 _ року

Протокол №   ___/ _____2025

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Береговe

2025

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine

Transcarpathian Hungarian Collage of Higher Education Ferenc Rákóczi II

Department of Philology

Qualifying paper

ENHANCING LEXICAL COMPETENCE OF EFL LEARNERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

Level of higher education: Bachelor's degree

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2025

ЗМІСТ

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Introduction

Vocabulary plays a central role in language proficiency and it is an important component of successful language learning. Without vocabulary, learners cannot effectively express themselves or understand others. Due to the number of words in any modern language, vocabulary acquisition presents an ongoing challenge for both native speakers and second language learners.

Foreign language teaching and language learning evolved considerably over time. During the 20th century, multiple teaching methods and approaches emerged. Vocabulary is crucial in developing communicative skills, and it is essential to explore how different teaching methodologies viewed vocabulary instruction and what their advantages and limitations are.

This thesis gives a brief overview of the way different methods approached language teaching, their main principles and how language teaching methods and approaches changed over time.

In recent years, there has been a growing recognition of the importance of lexical competence in developing communicative skills. Research has shown that vocabulary knowledge strongly correlates with reading comprehension, writing fluency, and oral communication. This has been supported by several studies focusing on the link between vocabulary knowledge and language proficiency, including those by Nation and Waring (1997), Thornbury (2002), Cameron (2001), Bárdos (2000), Abdo (2014), De Deyne, Kennett, Anaki, Faust (2016), Dakhi and Fitria (2019), and Awaludin (2013).

Despite the growing interest in vocabulary acquisition, many studies have tended to focus on theoretical frameworks or higher education contexts, while less attention has been paid to the practical techniques used in secondary school EFL classrooms, especially in relation to concrete teaching materials. Furthermore, textbooks – that play a significant role in vocabulary input – are often under-analysed in terms of how effectively they support lexical competence.

In the first part, the thesis presents the foundations of vocabulary, the history of vocabulary teaching, the language teaching approaches of the 20th century, the functioning of the mental lexicon, the distinction between active and passive vocabulary, the relationship between vocabulary size and language proficiency levels, and the quantitative and qualitative aspects of vocabulary teaching.

In the second part, the thesis discusses the way vocabulary is learned, techniques for presenting word meaning, techniques for presenting word form, and the methodical process of introducing lexical items.

The third part of the thesis is solely dedicated to the analysis of the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book, based on the checklist provided in the Appendix.

The **object** of the research is vocabulary learning within the framework of English language teaching, with a specific focus on the vocabulary teaching practices in a selected coursebook used in secondary schools.

The **subject** of the thesis is the analysis of vocabulary teaching techniques and vocabulary input as presented in the pre-intermediate level of the coursebook „Solutions", as it is widely used in secondary education.

The **aim** of the paper is to examine the extent to which the vocabulary-related content and activities in the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book contribute to the development of students' lexical competence.

The **tasks** of the thesis are as follows:

- to give a historical overview of the major methods and approaches to vocabulary teaching;
- to summarise current views on vocabulary teaching;
- to investigate the techniques used in the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book for introducing and practising vocabulary.

Both theoretical and empirical methods are employed in this study. The theoretical part includes the critical analysis and synthesis of academic literature concerning vocabulary acquisition, teaching approaches, and presentation techniques.

The empirical part of the research is based on a qualitative content analysis of the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book. The textbook is examined with a focus on vocabulary presentation and practice, considering the effectiveness of different techniques in developing learners' lexical competence. The research employs a descriptive and evaluative approach, identifying the presence and nature of vocabulary teaching methods within the material.

This research follows a qualitative paradigm. The method used is textbook analysis, which is particularly suitable for exploring how vocabulary teaching principles are realised in practical classroom materials.

The novelty of the thesis lies in its focused examination of vocabulary instruction within a specific, widely-used secondary school coursebook, which has not been extensively analysed from the perspective of lexical competence development. The study contributes to the field by identifying concrete strengths and weaknesses in textbook-based vocabulary teaching and by offering pedagogical implications that can inform teachers' classroom practices.

The theoretical value of this thesis is the comprehensive literature review of vocabulary teaching methods and techniques.

The practical value of this thesis is the analysis of the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book with the help of a checklist. The checklist is included in the Appendix.

The course-paper is made up of an introduction, 3 parts, conclusions, resume, references, and appendices. Part 1 provides a theoretical and historical background to vocabulary teaching. It reviews the development of vocabulary instruction, outlines the major language teaching approaches of the 20th century, and discusses key concepts such as the mental lexicon, active and passive vocabulary, vocabulary size, and the qualitative aspects of lexical competence. Part 2 focuses on current perspectives of teaching and learning vocabulary. It examines how vocabulary is acquired, explores various techniques for presenting word meaning and form, and outlines the methodological process of introducing lexical items in the EFL classroom. Part 3 presents a textbook analysis of the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book from the perspective of vocabulary teaching. It evaluates the vocabulary-related content and activities of the coursebook based on a checklist developed for this purpose, with the aim of identifying their contribution to the development of learners' lexical competence.

Part I

Historical Background and Main Issues of Teaching Vocabulary

The vocabulary of modern cultural languages is in the order of millions, which even native speakers cannot fully master. Although it is impossible to fully master such a vocabulary, it is not necessary since individuals never use all the words. The English language contains around 54,000 word families (Nation and Waring, 1997). Child native speakers of English know about 4000-5000 word families by the age of five and add to it about 1000 each year (Cameron, 2001). A university student is considered to know the the meaning of around 40,000 lexical items (De Deyne, Kennett, Anaki, Faust, 2016). As to second language learners of English attending an English speaking school, the growth of vocabulary is considered to be the same as in case of the native speakers (i.e. 1000 words), but the gap of 4-5000 between them and their native speaker peers remain (De Deyne, Kennett, Anaki, Faust, 2016).

During language teaching, we need to transform the virtually infinite vocabulary into a finite one (at least temporarily) (Bárdos, 2000). Cameron (2001), referring to Nation and Waring's study, points out that „a realistic tartget for children learning a foreign language might be around 500 words a year, given good learning conditions (Cameron, 2001).

1.1. Historical overview of teaching vocabulary and lessons learned

The classics of language teaching did not aim to regulate vocabulary instruction but rather to capture the entirety, regardless of whether it involved language descriptions, multilingual dictionaries, or language textbooks. For example, Calepinus's dictionary and Priscian's grammar did not select words, while Erasmus's Colloquia relied on the abundance of expressions. The first example of gradual language teaching can be found in Comenius's VIA textbook series, which wanted to teach nearly eight thousand words, causing language learning frustration among Hungarian students. (Bárdos, 2000.) As to the early stage of language learning, he mentions in his books, published between 1631 and 1658, among the teaching techniques an instruction „to use limited vocabulary initially" (Lőrincz, 2024, p. 11).

Comenius's view held sway for some time, but the situation in teaching vocabulary did not change much in the 19th century either. Gouin, who emphasized the natural memory-enhancing power of action-based teaching, yet failed to achieve the desired outcomes, as the system he developed also aimed to teach nearly eight thousand words using a single language

learning technique. Marcel also had high expectations for language learners, as he required them to read 25–30 volumes (Bárdos, 2000).

The classical grammar-translation method had students read ancient authors (Richards, Rogers, 1986). The grammar-translation method did not concern itself with how common or useful a word was. On the other hand, the direct method created thematic vocabularies with the appearance of international communication, but the depth was not determined by word frequency here either, but rather by the teacher's personality and the students' memory capacity (Lőrincz, 2024).

Important principles of vocabulary management emerged in West's reading method, particularly through West and Thorndike's word frequency lists, which were used in the New Method Readers series. The reading method targeted only one skill, reading, and aimed to shape speaking skills by developing inner speech. In this, it was similar to the grammar-translation method, which involved reading classical texts. However, the reading method did not burden beginners with original texts but used simplified and abbreviated works, thus developing the most important techniques for managing vocabulary. To explain this further, Bárdos (2000) describes how simplification extended to vocabulary and grammar as well as content – limiting the number of characters and plotlines – based on the principle of word frequency, as it had been shown that the frequency curve drops sharply after the first three thousand words. To simplify vocabulary, scientific principles have already been applied, such as the principle of word frequency, which states that word frequency drops significantly after the first 3,000 words (Bárdos, 2000, Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Simplified readers created on the basis of word frequency used a specific number of the most common words, such as a vocabulary of 800, 1,000 or 1,500 words. By using synonyms, only the most common meanings of the most frequent words were employed. In addition, the principle of lexical distribution was developed, stating that the number of new words appearing on a page should be minimal; usually, 3-5 words per page were considered ideal. The principle is tailored to a specific learning level, as a higher number of new words may be more difficult for some learners (Bárdos, 2000).

The best ideas of modern vocabulary teaching typically date back to the 20th century, with the exception of the work of Prendergast, who tried to explore the workings of grammar through his sentence patterns. Prendergast consciously emphasized that, at the beginning of teaching, only the most common words should be used (Ketabi, 2011).

To complie the main points, early approaches to language teaching did not focus on selecting or managing vocabulary, often overwhelming learners with thousands of words. While Comenius was the first to suggest limiting vocabulary at the early state of language learning, this principle was largely ignored by later methods like those of Gouin and Marcel, who also expected learners to acquire large vocabularies. The grammar-translation and direct methods did not consider word usefulness or frequency. A turning point came with West's reading method and the introduction of word frequency lists, which led to simplified readers using only the most common words and minimal new vocabulary per page. These developments laid the foundation for modern, level-appropriate vocabulary teaching.

1.2. 20th-century approaches to language and vocabulary teaching

During the 20th century, the main foreign language teaching approaches included the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Reading Method, Audiolingualism, the Situational Approach, the Cognitive Approach, the Affective-Humanistic Approach, the Comprehension-Based Approach, and the Communicative Approach (Lőrincz, 2024).

The grammar translation method is a method of teaching foreign languages derived from the classical method of teaching Greek and Latin. In classes, students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target language and the native language. The main goals of the method are to enable students to read and translate literature written in the target language and to further students' general intellectual development. The Grammar-Translation method is one of the oldest. It has been used for years and is still used is some parts of the world until today (Jabbar, 2024).

The principles of the grammar translation method are the following:

„The purpose of this method is to read literature of foreign language hence literary language is superior;

The second goal is to translate target language into native language;

Importance is given to reading and writing on the other hand speaking and listening are neglected;

The role of teacher is an authoritarian role;

The students are passive in the classroom;

Grammar is taught deductively;

Learners memorize native language equivalents for target language vocabulary words;

The interaction in the classroom is from teacher to students;

Vocabulary and grammar is focused" (Jabbar, 2024, p. 4).

To sum up the issue of vocabulary teaching, it is in the centre of attention, nevertheless it is confined to memorizing the meaning of the words of the target language. The method provided a balance between teaching vocabulary and grammar.

The Direct Method of language teaching was developed as a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method. All teaching is conducted in the target language. The focus is on listening and speaking, and only useful, everyday language is taught. A significant weakness of this method is its assumption that a second language can be learned in the same way as a first language, despite the very different conditions under which second language acquisition takes place (Lőrincz, 2024).

The principles of the direct method are the following:

„No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e., teacher does not need to know the students' native language);

Lessons begin with dialogues and anecdotes in modern conversational style;

Actions and pictures are used to make meanings clear;

Grammar is learned inductively;

Literary texts are read for pleasure and are not analyzed grammatically;

The target culture is also taught inductively;

The teacher must be a native speaker or have nativelike proficiency in the language"
(Lőrincz, 2024, pp. 13-14).

In contrast to the grammar translation method, the emphasis in teaching vocabulary is not on rote memorization but on practical usage. Teachers often use visual aids, realia and gestures to demonstrate the meaning of words, as the focus is on the use of everyday vocabulary. They try to immerse the learners in the target language from the start.

The Reading Method emerged as a reaction to the impracticality of the Direct Method (Lőrincz, 2024).

The principles of the reading method are the following:

„Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught;

Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded;

Translation is once more a respectable classroom procedure;

Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized;

The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language" (Lőrincz, 2024, p. 15).

The audiolingual method emerged in the United States in the 1940s, after World War II. the US military has established the Army Specialized Training Program in order to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages in a short time. The method was widely used in middle school English teaching. The audiolingual method was based on behaviorism (Hu, 2024).

The principles of the audiolingual method are the following:

"Lessons begin with dialogues;

Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language is habit formation;

Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively;

Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking-reading, writing postponed;

Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning;

Vocabulary is severely limited in initial stages;

A great effort is made to prevent learner errors;

Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context;

The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that s/he is teaching since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled" (Lőrincz, 2024, pp. 15-16). The method emphasizes the necessity of repetition of the words and the use of repetition drill.

The situational approach was dominant in Britain during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s. It is based on a structural view of language. The method considers speech, structure, and a focus on a set of basic vocabulary as the foundation of language teaching. One of the most prominent traits of second language teaching within this approach is the emphasis on vocabulary and reading (Lőrincz 2024).

The principles of the situational approach are the following:

"The spoken language is primary;

All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established);

Only the target language should be used in the classroom;

Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented;

Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex;

New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., at the post office, at the bank, at the dinner table)" (Lőrincz, 2024, p. 18). High-frequency vocabulary is taught, and learning takes place through modelling and drilling. This method facilitates confidence-building and is useful at the beginner level.

The cognitive approach views language learning as a conscious and strategic process where learners actively use mental strategies to enhance understanding, learning, and memory (Lőrincz, 2024).

This contrasts with the behaviourist perspective, which sees language acquisition as automatic and unconscious. A key framework within the cognitive approach is Skill Acquisition Theory. The theory presupposes three stages of second language learning: declarative(learners consciously know and explain language rules), procedural(learners start applying these rules in practice), automatization(knowledge becomes fast, accurate, and efficient through repeated use) (Suzuki, 2021).

The principles of the cognitive approach are the following:

„Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation;

Instruction is often individualized; learners are responsible for their own learning;

Grammar must be taught but it can be taught deductively (rules first, practice later) and/or inductively (rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit information for the learners to process on their own);

Pronunciation is de-emphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic;

Reading and writing are once again as important as listening and speaking;

Vocabulary instruction is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels;

Errors are viewed as inevitable, something that should be used constructively in the learning process;

The teacher is expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language" (Lőrincz, 2024, pp. 18-19).

The affective-humanistic approach to teaching English focuses on fostering a closer relationship between the teacher and the students within the teaching and learning process. The

affective domain encompasses emotions, values, attitudes, enthusiasm, motivation, and appreciation. The affective domain is categorized into five namely receiving phenomena, responding to phenomena, valuing, organization, and internalizing values (Widyastuti, 2020).

The principles of the affective-humanist approach are the following:

„Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his/her feelings;

Communication that is meaningful to the learner is emphasized;

Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups;

Class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods;

Peer support and interaction is needed for learning;

Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience;

The teacher is viewed as a counselor or facilitator;

The teacher should be proficient in the target language and the student's native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later it is gradually phased out" (Lőrincz, 2024, p. 19).

The comprehension-based approach is an outgrowth of research in first language acquisition, which led some language methodologists to assume that second or foreign language learning is very similar to first language acquisition. The approach emerged in the 1970s (Lőrincz, 2024).

It is based on the assumption that receptive skills provide a foundation for the development of productive skills. The approach placed emphasis on intensive exposure to the target language and the resultant understanding. while also advocating that production be delayed until learners would feel ready for it (Lőrincz, 2024).

The principles of the comprehension-based approach are the following:

„Listening comprehension is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time given the right conditions;

Learners should begin by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce any language themselves;

Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; this results in better pronunciation than when the learner is forced to speak immediately;

Learners progress by being exposed to meaningful input that is just one step beyond their level of competence;

Rule learning may help learners monitor (or become aware of) what they do, but it will not aid their acquisition or spontaneous use of the target language;

Error correction is seen as unnecessary and perhaps even counterproductive; the important thing is that the learners can understand and can make themselves understood" (Lőrincz, 2024, p. 21).

The origins of the communicative approach date back to the late 1960s and early 1970s. It emerged as a response to the perceived limitations of the audio-lingual and grammar-translation methods (Azimova, 2019).

The linguists and educators who contributed to the rise of this worldwide used approach are Hymes, Chomsky, Wilkins, Van Ek and Alexander, and the Council of Europe (Azimova, 2019).

The communicative approach emphasises that language learning should be more student-centred than teacher-centred. The approach is based on the idea that in order to learn a second language successfully, you have to communicate real meaning (Azimova, 2019).

The principles of the communicative approach are the following:

„It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language;

It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures;

Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) lack;

Students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts;

Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real life situations and demands;

Skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and perhaps also writing (this assumes the learners are educated and literate);

The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors;

The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately" (Lőrincz, 2024, p. 21).

Nunan considers that the development of the communicative approach „ … has done much to enhance the status of vocabulary" (Nunan, 1991, p.142).

To summarise, each method presents a different perspective on vocabulary teaching. The Grammar-Translation Method treats vocabulary as a set of words to be memorised with their equivalents in the native language, often disconnected from context. In contrast, the Direct Method promotes the acquisition of everyday vocabulary through the target language only, using visuals and actions to clarify meaning. The Reading Method introduces vocabulary based on frequency and usefulness, gradually expanding the learners' lexical range to support reading comprehension. The Audiolingual Method initially limits vocabulary severely, focusing on memorisation and structural patterns, with little emphasis on context. The Situational Approach gives priority to useful, high-frequency words taught within meaningful situational contexts, such as real-life scenarios. The Cognitive Approach highlights the importance of vocabulary especially at intermediate and advanced stages, encouraging learners to apply mental strategies for vocabulary acquisition. The Affective-Humanistic Approach incorporates vocabulary learning as part of meaningful communication and learner-centred interaction, using translation initially to support comfort. The Comprehension-Based Approach exposes learners to vocabulary naturally through listening to comprehensible input that is slightly above their current level, delaying active vocabulary use. Lastly, the Communicative Approach integrates vocabulary learning into authentic, meaningful communication, often through group tasks, role plays, and real-life materials, aiming for fluency and appropriateness rather than isolated word learning (Lőrincz, 2024; Jabbar, 2024). So, it can be concluded that in spite of the different perspectives on teaching vocabulary, the consensus seems to be that the development of a rich vocabulary is an important element in the second and foreign language acquisition and learning.

1.3.The mental lexicon: input, atorage and recall

The term mental lexicon which was introduced by R.C Oldfield and has become an increasingly important aspect of research in linguistics. The mental lexicon is a person's internalized knowledge of the properties of words (Al-Dala'ien, Mudhsh, & Al-Takhayinh, 2015). The concept of the mental lexicon was traditionally seen as the repository of all lexical knowledge that an individual language user poseses. It is considered to contain information about the a word's pronunciation, meaning and syntactic attributes. In addition, it deals with the way a language user stores, activates, processes and retrieves the words whenever it is necessary to use them in speech or in writing. The mental lexicon, or mental dictionary, is constantly developing when we learn new words. Its functions – input, storage, and retrieval – undoubtedly operate or facilitate the active, constructive, and selective memory that also receives and retains words. It is easier to attach such an appealing label to this phenomenon than to explain why and how individual words end up here, by what system they are stored, and how they can be re-identified to emerge fully equipped in a given speech situation (Schiller, 2021).

According to the current, broader interpretation of learning, significant roles are attributed to both conscious and unconscious (latent or peripheral) learning, with the entire range of mental processes actively participating in this broad interpretation. However, in terms of vocabulary learning, whether in the classroom or independently, but in any case through conscious learning of a foreign language, attention and memory continue to play a key role. Repetition is the pathway that leads from short-term to long-term memory (Balaban, 2017).

A person is exposed to a practically infinite number of stimuli during the day, which are sorted through various „sluicing" systems. The original two-store model has since been expanded to include three stores: the sensory store, short-term memory, and long-term memory (Bárdos, 2000).

In the context of „sluicing", we can imagine the sensory store as if we were standing on the bank of a river, where we see a vast amount of information before us, but only briefly, as it flows past just as quickly as it arrives. The enormous amount of information that appears before us in this way fades away and disappears because we do not focus on it. Attention serves as the central executive function that highlights specific pieces of information, thereby transferring certain elements (in our case, a word) to the next store: short-term memory, which some refer to as working memory. One of the most important features of this storage is its transience, as forgetting is inevitable, often occurring after just a few tens of seconds (up to thirty at most).

Moreover, the number of „units" that can be retained is limited, typically revolving around the mystical number seven (+/- two). This working memory operates under constrained conditions, as the nature of the memory trace is determined by the depth and specifics of processing, which plays a crucial role in recall. Repetition plays a key role in ensuring that the given word (concept, relation, sequence of events, etc.) is transferred to the next storage, the storage of the long-term memory. This can, of course, also result in the structures already present there being rearranged, leading to positive or negative interference. It is obvious that the information to be remembered is not just stored in its pure form but is also transferred here along with its context (Bárdos, 2000).

Information entering long-term memory requires consolidation for stable incorporation, which can be achieved through repeated cycles of practice. The learner can do several things to move the material into permanent long-term memory such as repetition, practice retrieval, graduated interval recall. Though simple repetition leads to retention, deeper level processing such as manipulating the word, relating it to other items or explaining word choices results in better learning. Bárdos (2000) highlights that, interference can be positive or negative, and it may disrupt the consolidation of either new or existing information (retroactive and proactive inhibition.

According to the dual coding theory, verbal and nonverbal events are stored in separate systems: logogens (verbal, logical structures) and imagens (nonverbal, analog information). The two systems have a referential relationship with each other; for example, a word can trigger a visual memory (Mark and Paivio, 1991). Similarly, the Semantic Network Theory, proposed by Charles S. Pierce, suggests that knowledge is represented through nodes and edges, forming a network that reflects semantic relations between concepts. These networks help explain how concepts are stored and accessed in the brain. Each node represents a concept, and each edge represents the relationship between them. The theory assumes that when one concept is activated, related concepts are also triggered, based on three key cognitive processes: frequency effects, priming effects, and the neighbourhood effect (Al-Dala'ien, Mudhsh, & Al-Takhayinh, 2015).

The mental lexicon can be thought of as a dictionary-like structure. It organizes words according to various different properties. The mental lexicon does not provide explicit definition for words, but represents meanings in terms of patterns of word use and the connections between words and sensory experiences (De Deyne, Kennett, Anaki, Faust, 2016). The nature of the stored representations is important, because it may in part determine the nature

of the access mechanisms (Emmorey and Fromkin, 2010). Understanding the structure of the mental lexicon helps us explain a variety of phenomena such as learning new words in a second language (De Deyne, Kennett, Anaki, Faust, 2016).

According to Rosch's prototype theory, phenomena are classified based on the prototypes of categories; that is, ideal models associated with categories assist in their identification (Rosch, 1978). In addition to retaining encoded information, the process of recall also plays a significant role.

The memory system has a dual nature, as it encompasses two types of functioning: semantic and episodic memory. Semantic memory stores relationships between concepts in a cognitive map-like structure, while episodic memory subjectively records information based on spatial-temporal contexts. Episodic memory, for instance, is evident in recalling the location of concepts (e.g., the upper left corner of a page) or their sequence. However, this is not genuine knowledge but merely the interplay of memory traces. In exams, explicit declarative knowledge is required, where concepts are linked to appropriate terminology and their interrelations are emphasized (Stella et al., 2024). The dual-processing model distinguishes between two memory systems: the explicit (declarative) and the implicit (non-declarative) systems. The explicit system is conscious, rule-based, and analytical, relying on working memory and conscious visual attention, both of which are limited in capacity. This makes it less effective in real-time, complex situations. In contrast, the implicit system operates unconsciously and holistically, using pattern recognition based on lived, multimodal experiences. It stores sensory and emotional components of experiences as unique, integrated patterns, enabling fast and automatic responses. While the explicit system supports verbalization and teaching, the implicit system plays a key role in intuitive judgment and learning from experience (Björklund & Stolpe, 2021). According to Krashen and others (), language can be acquired in a subconscious way. If language can be acquired successfully in a subconscious way, then there is very little need for explicit teaching of grammar and vocabulary. Language learning is implicit and does not demand conscious attention. Harmer (2015) finds it important to draw attention to the problem with implicit language learning, because it does a great job in generating native-speaking first language proficiency in infants; however, it does not seem to work efficiently when we want to master a second language at a later stage in our lives (Harmer, 2015).

In contrast, implicit procedural knowledge supports the automation of skills, enabling seamless progress. This includes schemas, scenarios, routines, and frameworks, which can be

retrieved from long-term memory and are essential for skill practice. They hold particular importance in areas such as the development of speaking skills (Stella et al., 2024).

The mental lexicon is constantly developing as we learn new words. Its functions – input, storage, and recall – facilitate the active, constructive, and selective memory. In terms of vocabulary learning, attention and memory continue to play a key role. People are pertmanently exposed to an almost infinite number of stimuli. The original two-store model has since been expanded to include three stores: the sensory store, short-term memory, and long-term memory. We can imagine the sensory store as standing on a riverbank, where information flows past briefly. Unless attention is paid to specific stimuli, they disappear quickly. Attention serves as a filter, selecting certain inputs and transferring them to short-term memory, also known as working memory.

Short-term memory retains information for approximately 30 seconds and typically holds around seven items. To transfer information to long-term memory, repetition and deep processing are essential. This helps retain words, ideas, or events over time. However, newly stored information can interfere with existing memories, either positively or negatively. Information is stored not in isolation but together with its contextual associations.

Long-term memory requires consolidation, achieved through repetition, retrieval practice, and spaced recall. While simple repetition supports retention, deeper learning occurs when new words are connected to existing knowledge and experiences. According to Dual Coding Theory, verbal (logogens) and nonverbal (imagens) information are stored in separate but interacting systems; for instance, a word may evoke a visual image. Semantic Network Theory describes knowledge as interconnected nodes (concepts) and edges (relations), activated by frequency, priming, and proximity.

The mental lexicon functions like an internal dictionary, organizing words by usage patterns and connections to sensory experiences rather than strict definitions. This organization supports vocabulary acquisition and retrieval, especially in second language learning. Prototype Theory states that new phenomena are categorized by comparing them to ideal examples, or prototypes. In addition to storage, recall is crucial in vocabulary use.

Human memory operates in two primary ways: semantic memory, which stores general knowledge and relationships, and episodic memory, which encodes personal experiences in spatial and temporal contexts.

There are also two memory systems: explicit memory, which is conscious, rule-based, and analytical, and implicit memory, which is unconscious, intuitive, and based on experience. The explicit system is limited in capacity, making it less effective in real-time situations, whereas the implicit system enables automatic and efficient responses. While the explicit system supports verbalization and instruction, the implicit system plays a key role in intuitive judgment and skill development, especially in areas like speaking skills.

1.4. Active and passive vocabulary

Vocabulary is commonly recognized as the main communication tool. The languageusers employ the vocabulary to express their feelings, ideas and opinions. According to linguistic perspective, the vocabulary is more useful than grammatical rules (Dakhi & Fitria, 2019). As Widdowson (1993) states: "The more one considers the matter, the more reasonable it seems to suppose that lexis is where we need to start from, the syntax needs to be put to the service of words and not the other way round" (Widdowson in Lewis 1993:115).

Learning vocabulary is a more complex process than it seems at first. Knowing a word means much more than simply understanding its meaning. Learners must distinguish between productive/active vocabulary (words they can actively use) and receptive/passive vocabulary (words they only recognize). Active vocabulary consists of words that we frequently use in communicative situations, while passive vocabulary comprises words that we understand but do not use regularly (Lopez, 1995, Dakhi & Fitria, 2019). Abdo (2014) states that active vocabulary is utilized in everyday speech. It is learned for performance in any communication act. Therefore, active words should be taught through focusing on pronunciation, correct form, appropriate collocation and meaning. On the other hand, passive vocabulary is not essential for production in speaking or writing. It is meant for recognition and understanding. The learners are not asked to utilize it in everyday speech but recognize when occurring in context (Abdo, 2014).

The growth of passive vocabulary occurs gradually during language learning, often as a result of extensive reading. In foreign language learning, it is common for passive vocabulary to grow before active vocabulary, and it is often less developed compared to a native speaker's passive vocabulary. However, active vocabulary expands as learners gain more exposure to the language and accumulate greater linguistic experience (Dakhi & Fitria, 2019).

Regarding the depth of passive vocabulary, foreign language speakers are unlikely to compete with native speakers. Nevertheless, motivated individuals who immerse themselves

in a foreign language environment for an extended period can acquire a deeper level of mastery. Expanding one's vocabulary is closely linked to language learning success, as a growing passive vocabulary is indispensable for effective communication (Bárdos, 2000).

To sum up, vocabulary plays a central role in communication, often outweighing grammar in practical importance. Language learning should start with lexis, and syntax should be put at the service of words. Learning vocabulary is a multifaceted process. It involves not only knowing the meaning of words but also distinguishing between active (productive) and passive (receptive) vocabulary. Active vocabulary includes words that learners use regularly in speaking or writing, whereas passive vocabulary consists of words that are recognized but rarely used. Active vocabulary acquisition requires attention to pronunciation, form, collocations, and meaning, while passive vocabulary is primarily developed through reading and listening. In foreign language learning, passive vocabulary tends to develop before active vocabulary. Although it often remains more limited than that of native speakers, immersion and consistent exposure can significantly enhance both vocabulary types. Expanding vocabulary is essential for successful language comprehension and communication.

1.5. Vocabulary size and language levels

The language levels are often divided according to the usual triad (basic, intermediate, advanced), but the distances between these levels are not the same. The basic level, or „survival level", involves knowledge of approximately 500-800 active and 1000 passive words. This allows for asking simple questions („How much does it cost?", „Where is…?") and understanding basic signs. This level of language proficiency reduces the feeling of being lost (Bárdos, 2000).

The intermediate level is characterized by knowledge of 2500-3000 and 3000-3500 passive words. At this level, the role of professional vocabulary increases, and the speaker communicates more confidently. However, there is a risk that the development of linguistic sophistication may be delayed, and inaccurate language use may cause comprehension difficulties for native speakers (Bárdos, 2000, Agernäs, 2015).

The advanced level means knowledge of 3000-4000 active and 4000-5000 passive words, which allows for the communication of other people's expressions as well. This corresponds to the language use of an average, not highly educated native speaker and can serve as a starting point in the field of translation and interpretation (Bárdos, 2000).

The native level is the final stage, where language knowledge stems from immersion and everyday life within the given culture. Even the highest level of language learning cannot reach this depth, as the native speakers say whatever they want, while the learner can only say what they know (Bárdos, 2000). „Typically native speakers know 15,000 to 20,000 word families - or lemmas - in their first language" (Sagar-Fenton & McNeill, 2018).

To summarise, language proficiency of a non-native speaker is typically divided into three main levels: basic, intermediate, and advanced. However, the progression between these stages is uneven. The basic or survival level includes around 500–800 active and 1,000 passive words, enabling simple communication and understanding basic signs. At the intermediate level, learners know approximately 2,500–3,000 active and 3,000–3,500 passive words. This stage involves more specialised vocabulary and greater confidence. The advanced level involves 3,000–4,000 active and 4,000–5,000 passive words, enabling users to reproduce others' ideas and approach the fluency of an average native speaker. The native level is reached through cultural immersion and everyday experience. Even highly proficient learners cannot fully match native speakers, who can express anything they wish, unlike learners, who are limited to what they know. Native speakers typically know 15,000–20,000 word families.

1.6. Quantitative and Qualitative Issues in Vocabulary Teaching

There are two main approaches to vocabulary teaching: teaching individual words and teaching multiple words together. These approaches can be classified into different levels:

- teaching a single word in isolation – easy to understand the basic meaning, but it lacks context;
- teaching 1+1 independent words – synonyms, homonyms; helpful for systematization but more difficult to apply;
- teaching 1+1 organically related words – collocations, dependencies; supports natural language use;
- teaching 1+n words – multi-word phrases, idioms; essential fluency, but more difficult to learn (Bárdos, 2000).

Language pedagogy mainly distinguishes between two systems:

- a system of knowledge related to teaching single words;
- a system of knowledge related to teaching (phraseological) expressions (Bárdos, 2000).

Quantitative issues in vocabulary teaching can be reduced to two fundamental questions: „*How much in total?*" and „*How much at once?*" These questions are particularly significant because determining the right quality is essential for language teachers when teaching vocabulary (Bárdos, 2000).

The question of how many words should be taught at a time is not a simple arithmetical question. It is not possible to mechanically calculate that, for example, in a 1000-hour course designed to prepare learners for the intermediate level, 8 to 10 words should be taught per hour – one third of which should be active, the rest passive – because the teaching process is much more complex than that. Many factors influence how many words can be effectively learned at a time. These include the unevenness of the teaching materials, variations in abilities within the group, fluctuating learning affinity, and changes in motivation. The enthusiasm and apathy of the students, as well as the periodic variations in diligence, also have a great impact on the acquisition of vocabulary. (Bárdos, 2000, Fedicheva, 2011).

The definition of absolute numbers always depends on the purpose and context of the teaching. In the case of an intensive, goal-oriented adult course, the expectations are different than in a longer introductory course in primary school. In practice classes, fewer new words are typically taught, so an average lesson of 6-12 new words can be realistic. This, of course, depends on the abilities of the students, the curriculum, and the teacher's experience and sense of proportion (Bárdos, 2000).

It is important, however, that the question of „how many words at a time" cannot be separated from the question of „how much of each word to teach," which requires a different approach. Therefore, the numbers mentioned above are more indicative than strict guidelines to be followed (Bárdos, 2000).

Before a word can be considered fully taught, learners should be familiar with various aspects of it, including its meaning(s), spoken and written forms, morphological components (e.g., any prefix, suffix, or root form), grammatical behavior (e.g., word class and typical grammatical patterns), common collocations, register, associations (e.g., synonyms or antonyms), connotations, and frequency (Kumar, 2014).

The goal of modern language teaching was to break free from the legacy of the grammar-translation method, particularly the reliance on bilingual dictionaries and the misconception that every word has a direct equivalent in another language (Bárdos, 2000). With the development of lexicography and the advent of learner dictionaries, these misconceptions

gradually began to disappear (Bárdos, 2000). Modern dictionaries use several indicators in a single entry, such as synonyms, antonyms, collocations, idioms, proverbs, and word class. Dictionaries aim for completeness and are constantly evolving, as is linguistics (Bárdos, 2000).

Over the centuries, dictionaries have focused on spelling and the most obvious meaning of a word, and descriptions of languages have provided a foundation for later developments. Scientific discoveries, such as language relationships and phonetics, have increased our knowledge of words. Language descriptions are constantly changing, and as linguistics advances, our knowledge of words also expands. Computational linguistics and corpus linguistics have provided increasingly accurate information about word usage, collocations, style, and register. The meaning and nuances of words are now also supported by statistical analysis. Bárdos, (2000) highlights that dictionaries often include idiomatic expressions and sayings, which may appear in separate entries. Although dictionaries are constantly evolving, the living language still cannot be fully contained in any of them.

The task of a language teacher is to continuously expand their knowledge of words to teach students effectively. The quantity and quality of knowledge is constantly increasing, but the language teacher's responsibility is to transfer this knowledge to the student at the right time and in the right situation (Bárdos, 2000).

According to the principle of age-specificity, language teachers must be aware of students's life experience, factual knowledge, and abstract reasoning skills related to linguistic concepts. It may occur that, in a group of ten- to twelve-year-old children, the teacher encounters students with outstanding mental abilities who can absorb vocabulary well, yet their ability to abstract linguistic concepts from their native language may remain limited. It is the teacher's responsibility to consider these factors and tailor their teaching accordingly (Bárdos, 2000, Harmer, 2015).

The principle of language learning levels states that vocabulary expands gradually, resembling the growth of a sphere. The more knowledge we acquire, the more opportunities we have to absorb new information. If our vocabulary is sufficiently developed, integrating new information becomes much easier (Bárdos, 2000, Harmer, 2015). According to the principle of prior knowledge, the teacher must assess students' existing knowledge. Prior knowledge plays a key role in vocabulary instruction because different types of groups require varying depths of teaching. Adult learners, in particular, have a high demand for independent vocabulary acquisition, and teachers should adjust their strategiesaccordingly (Bárdos, 2000).

When teaching a word, presenting its basic meaning, pronunciation, and spelling is essential. Additional information – such as parts of speech or pragmatic usage – may be introduced depending on student's maturity and language proficiency. The amount of information increases in proportion to language proficiency levels, and the qualitative nature of knowledge determines the practical value of the word (Bárdos, 2000, Scrivener, 2011).

To summarise, there are two main approaches to vocabulary teaching: teaching individual words and teaching multiple words together. These approaches can be classified into teaching a single word in isolation, teaching 1+1 independent words, teaching 1+1 organically related words, and teaching 1+n words. Language pedagogy mainly distinguishes between a system of knowledge related to teaching single words and a system of knowledge related to teaching expressions.

The two fundamental questions in vocabulary teaching are „How much in total?" and „How much at once?" Many factors influence how many words can be effectively learned at a time, such as the unevenness of the teaching materials, variations in abilities within the group, fluctuating learning affinity, and changes in motivation. Teaching 6–12 new words during a lesson can be realistic. A word can only be considered fully taught when learners are familiar with various aspects of it, including its meaning(s), spoken and written forms, morphological components, grammatical behavior, common collocations, register, associations, connotations, and frequency.

The goal of modern language teaching is to break free from the reliance on bilingual dictionaries and the misconception that every word has a direct equivalent in another language. With the development of lexicography and the advent of learner dictionaries, these misconceptions gradually began to disappear. Modern dictionaries use several indicators in a single entry, such as synonyms, antonyms, collocations, idioms, proverbs, and word class. Although dictionaries are constantly evolving, the living language still cannot be fully contained in any of them. Language teachers should continuously expand their knowledge of words to teach students effectively. Language teachers must be aware of students' life experience, factual knowledge, and abstract reasoning skills related to linguistic concepts. The principle of language learning levels states that vocabulary expands gradually. The more knowledge we acquire, the more opportunities we have to absorb new information. The teacher must assess students' existing knowledge. Prior knowledge plays a key role in vocabulary instruction. The amount of information increases in proportion to language proficiency levels.

Part II

Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

2.1. Vocabulary acquisition and learning

When children learn their first language, the first words they learn are typically those used for labelling, so that is the concept. Acquiring a vocabulary requires not only labelling but categorising skills. The child needs to realise that common words like apple or dog can be replaced by superordinate terms like fruit and animal. Animal can accommodate other lower order words such as cat, horse, and elephant. This involves a process of network building. Network building serves to link all the labels and packages, and lays the groundwork for a process that continues for as long as we are exposed to new words (Thornbury, 2002).

A clear distinction should be made between language learning and language acquisition. Second language or foreign language acquisition can be define as the way in which people learn a language other than mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom (Rafiqa, 2017, p. 21). Safitri (2020) points out that Language Acquisition is the process whereby children achieve a fluent control of their native language. The capacity to acquire and comprehend language is inherited genetically, but the specific language a child speaks is transmitted to them through cultur and environment. Children all over the world naturally pick up their mother tongue without formal instruction (Safitri, 2020). Hussain (2017) concludes: „There is a chief dissimilarity marked by linguists between Language Acquisition and Language Learning. To them, these are divergent entities though seem to be identical. Acquisition of language is natural, subconscious, immersive, mandatory and innate faculty while language learning is entirely conscious, structured, optional and a process that necessitates intentional exertions to crop up" (Hussain, 2017, p. 3).

They have the conceptual system that these words encode, and the complex network of associations that link these words one with another. The process of learning a second language involves both learning a new conceptual system and constructing a new vocabulary network. Faced with learning a new word, the second language learner is likely to shortcut the process of constructing a network of associations and simply map the word directly onto the mother tongue equivalent. (Thornbury, 2002).

Many cross-language errors are due to false friends, which are words that may appear to be equivalent, but their meanings do not correspond. Languages that share words with

similar forms have more real friends than false friends. As well as false friends and real friends, there are strangers. Strangers are words that have no equivalent in the first language at all. The majority of words they encounter in the new language remain just acquaintances. They know them by name, they even understand them, but they will never be quite as familiar to them as their mother tongue (Thornbury, 2002).

Some English as a foreign language learners have little experience of the language outside the classroom. These learners lack the amount and type of exposure to English (Awaludin, 2013). A motivated and self-directed learner might be able to learn vocabulary by using vocabulary books, readers, dictionaries and corpora (Thornbury, 2002). Movies provides an opportunity for the students to learn the language using authentic materials and enhances their communication and conversation skills. By watching native speakers in the movies their self-confidence in using the language is improved. Watching movies also helps them improve their written skills through reading subtitles (Roslim, Azizul, Nimehchisalem & Abdullah, 2021).

Due to the limited exposure to English, learners will be very dependent on explicit or direct vocabulary instruction. The teacher's role is crucial in direct vocabulary instruction because they introduce new vocabulary to the learners. The techniques that teachers employ depend on the content, time availability, and its value for the learners (Awaludin, 2013).

To sum up, first language vocabulary acquisition begins in childhood with basic labeling, such as naming objects. However, successful learning also requires categorizing words into broader terms. This leads to network building, which connects related terms and supports long-term vocabulary growth. In contrast, second language acquisition involves learning a new conceptual system as well as constructing a new vocabulary network. While first language acquisition is natural and subconscious, second language learning is conscious and effortful. Learners often rely on their first language to understand new words, which can lead to mistakes, especially due to „false friends" – words that look similar across languages but differ in meaning. Some words, called „strangers," have no equivalent in the learner's native language. Some English as a foreign language learners have limited exposure to the language outside the classroom and that makes vocabulary acquisition challenging. In such cases, learners often rely on explicit instruction from teachers, who play a vital role in introducing new words. Motivated students may use tools like vocabulary books, readers, or corpora for independent learning. Additionally, watching movies with subtitles offers authentic language input, supporting both communication skills and written language development. Effective vocabulary teaching

depends on the methods chosen by teachers based on the content, time constraints, and learners' needs.

2.2. Techniques in presenting word meaning:

Presenting word meaning is one of the most important and crucial parts of vocabulary teaching. There are different techniques we can use to present word meaning, such as translation, real objects or phenomena, using pictures, meaning definition, presentation through context, and learners' active involvement.

Translation has the advantage of being the most direct route to a word's meaning. It is suitable for dealing with incidental vocabulary that may crop up in a lesson. Over-reliance on translation may mean that learners fail to develop an independent second language lexicon. The word can be less memorable because the learners do not have to work very hard to access the meaning (Thornbury, 2002).

Using real objects or phenomena is an effective way of teaching vocabulary. This technique includes the use of realia, visual aids, and demonstration. Our memory for objects and pictures is very reliable, so the use of real objects can help learners remember vocabulary more effectively. This technique is especially appropriate for beginners or young learners, and when presenting concrete vocabulary (Awaludin, 2013).

Using pictures in the vocabulary presentation process supports vocabulary acquisition. By using pictures, learners can make connections between their prior knowledge and the new vocabulary. The integration of picture-assisted learning has become the learners' preference, as it helps them understand better. Colourful graphics and interesting pictures help make the words more memorable. Pictures can also increase learners' motivation (Jazuli, Din, & Yunus, 2019).

Definition of the meaning is a frequently used technique. It includes full definition of the new vocabulary item, its analytical definition, giving examples, and synonyms or antonyms (Awaludin, 2013, p. 12). Although it may take a little longer than using translation, the advantages are that the learners get more listening practice, and by being made to work a little harder to get to the meaning of a word, they may be more cognitively engaged (Thornbury, 2002).

A widely accepted way of vocabulary presentation is introducing the new vicabulary items in context. A technique that may aid in translating unfamiliar words without

the use of a dictionary is the „context clues" technique. The technique is used when there is an unfamiliar word in a sentence. It helps learners guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context. This technique is used to figure out what a new word means based on how it fits with the surrounding words and other clues from the context. Learning through context provides an effective way to teach unfamiliar words in English. (Amalia & Dj, 2023). With the help of active involment of the learners into discoverint the meaning, the teacher encourages the students to find out word's meaning by elicitation (Awaludin, 2013). This technique is more motivating and memorable by simply giving pupils a list of words to learn (Alqahtani, 2015, p. 29). Thornbury (2002) reminds that only the better learners may be included in this process. This technique includes personalization as well, which is using the word by learners in a context or sentence that is related to their life.

Years of research and theory have provided clear guidance about direct instruction in vocabulary terms. Marzano (2004), suggests six steps in vocabulary teaching. The first step is explaining the meaning of the word. The teacher should provide a student-friendly description, explanation, or example of the new term. It can happen through storytelling, showing pictures or videos, describing their own mental pictures. The second step is restating. The teacher can ask students to restate the description, explanation, or example in their own words. It is critical for students to construct their own descriptions, explanations, or examples. Showing can be the third step when the teacher asks learners to construct a picture, symbol, or graphic representation of the term. This step forces the students to think of the term in a totally different way. Pictures, symbols, and graphic representations require students to process information in nonlinguistic ways. The next step suggested is discussing. Engaging learners in discussion activities help them add to their knowledge of the terms in their vocabulary notebooks. During this step students compare and contrast terms, classify them, identify antonyms and synonyms, and create analogies and metaphors using the terms. Refining and reflection on the new vocabulary by asking students to return to their notebooks to discuss and refine entries can be the fifth step. Interacting with other people about what we are learning deepens the understanding of everyone involved. During this step students might compare their descriptions of the term, describe their pictures to each other or explain to each other any new information they have learned. Finally, applying new vocabularies in learning games allows children to play with terms. Games might be one of the most underused instructional tools in education. Setting aside time each week to play games in order to energize learners and guide them in the review and use of important terms is important.

To summarise, effective vocabulary teaching requires various techniques to help learners grasp and retain word meanings. Translation is the most straightforward method, particularly useful for incidental vocabulary. However, excessive reliance on it can hinder the development of an independent second language lexicon and result in weaker retention. Using real objects or visual aids enhances memory, especially for beginners and when introducing concrete terms. Using pictures in vocabulary presentation enhances learners' understanding, memory, and motivation by linking new words to prior knowledge through engaging visuals. Another method is providing a meaning definition, including synonyms, antonyms, or examples; although slower than translation, it fosters deeper cognitive engagement. Presenting words through context clues enables students to infer meanings from surrounding language, making it a powerful strategy for unfamiliar vocabulary. Lastly, encouraging active learner involvement, such as elicitation or personalizing new words in context, makes vocabulary learning more meaningful and memorable, though it tends to be more effective for stronger learners.

2.3. Techniques in Presenting Word Form:

Presenting the word form is crucial due to the irregularities in English pronunciation, which require attention to the written form. Presentation of the graphic form is employed when the written form of vocabulary item is introduced. Words can be written on the board, can be underlined or highlighted in the text, and flashcards can be created (Awaludin, 2013, p. 13). The phonetic transcription is used to help learners pronounce the words correctly. When phonetic symbols are used in the foreign language classroom, it is useful to distinguish two stages in students' familiarisation with those symbols. The first stage is the „introductory" stage, when the students are first introduced to a given phonetic symbol. The second stage is the „post-introductory" stage, when students are consolidating their knowledge of phonetic symbols. (Mompean, 2005).

The pronunciation of English words is not always reflected in their spelling, so spelling needs to be taken into consideration. The primary means of spelling is actually memorising words. It is more effective for teachers to present word meanings and forms by combining multiple techniques. Time availability, the content or teaching materials, and their value for learners all play a significant role in choosing which techniques to use in the classroom (Awaludin, 2013).

The practice phase is important even if the word is already known, although the teacher can flexibly determine the time required for this (Fedicheva, 2011). During the production stage, the teacher will concentrate on how to use the newly learned word productively. For this purpose the teacher has to provide the class with exercises that help learners develop the ability to use the target word correctly in sentences. Learners are requested to use it in situations or contexts. The teacher may ask them questions, the answers to which require the use of the target word as well (Abdo, 2014).

Teaching words separately is already a methodological choice, which can be linked to the grammatical-translation method. This method assumes that each word has an exact equivalent in the other language. However, in the history of language teaching, teaching words independently has long been used, for example, during prelections, where phraseological expressions were explained and taught at the same time (Bárdos, 2000).

Teaching expressions as a whole was already present in involving memorizing grammatical collocations in Greek-Latin language teaching. The lexical approach of the 1990s continues this tradition, as the automatic use of expressions helps the continuity of speech (Bárdos, 2000).

The following play an important role in teaching:

- Typical collocations and complements.
- Grammatical structures.
- Conversational turns of phrase (Bárdos, 2000).

Knowing clichés, idiomatic expressions, and collocations is essential in language teaching, as they ensure linguistic fluency. The aim of modern vocabulary teaching is for students to acquire practical, communicative language skills, which are based on collocational and pragmatic competences. This is essential for effective language use and the development of communicative competence (Bárdos, 2000).

To sum up, effective vocabulary teaching involves various techniques to help learners grasp both the written form and pronunciation of new words. One of the basic methods is the presentation of graphic form, which includes writing words on the board, underlining them in texts, or using flashcards. For pronunciation support, phonetic transcription can be introduced in stages: initially familiarising students with phonetic symbols, followed by a consolidation phase. Spelling is crucial due to the irregularities in English pronunciation, which

require attention to the written form. Even if a word is already familiar, the practice phase remains important and should be adjusted by the teacher as needed. In the production stage, learners practise using the new word in meaningful contexts and sentences. Teachers support this by giving exercises or asking questions that require the correct use of the target word. Combining these techniques enhances learning, and the teacher's choice should depend on available time, material, and student needs. The process of teaching vocabulary involves systematic steps rooted in both traditional and modern methodologies. Teaching words separately assumes that each word has an exact equivalent in the target language. However, the practice of teaching lexical items independently has been common in language instruction for a long time. Teaching expressions as fixed units has classical roots and is supported by the lexical approach, which emphasizes the importance of collocations, idioms, and conversational phrases for fluency. Modern vocabulary instruction prioritizes communicative competence, relying on learners' collocational and pragmatic awareness to use language effectively in real-life situations.

Part III

Textbook Analysis

Using a textbook provides the teacher and learners with great facility. One of the most fundamental issues in the textbook selection process is the selection criteria. Teachers should conduct an external evaluation of the textbooks in order to choose the most appropriate textbooks for their learners. In order to get feedback from its in-action use in the classroom, a more in-depth evaluation is required. To decide whether a textbook is appropriate for that specific group of learners or not, it should be evaluated from multiple aspects. These criteria should range from the layout and the design of the textbook to the skills, activities, language type, subject, and content. The evaluation can be external and internal.

External evaluation focuses on the introduction, the blurb, and the table of contents of a book. External features of a book are the ones that somebody can take into account in order to understand the goals of the coursebook without reading it. Some of these external features are the cost, the availability and access to its material, its blurb, content pages, layout, and illustrations. The internal evaluation is a thorough and in-depth process that assesses a particular unit of a textbook in detail, so as to indicate if the assumptions made in the external evaluation are verified or not (Papadaki & Karagianni, 2023).

In the following section, the vocabulary content of the third edition of the coursebook Solutions Pre-Intermediate level is analysed based on a set of criteria drawn from the works of Cunningsworth (1995) and Mat Hussin, Nimehchisalem, and Rezvani Kalajahi (2015). These criteria focus on various aspects of vocabulary presentation and instruction, including the organisation and purposefulness of vocabulary input, the balance between active and passive vocabulary, the selection principles of lexical items, the amount and load of vocabulary introduced, and the presence of systematic gradation. Furthermore, attention is paid to whether new words are introduced in meaningful contexts and whether learners are supported in managing the vocabulary demands of the textbook.

3.1. General description and analysis of the coursebook

The Third Edition Solutions Pre-Intermediate coursebook package, authored by Tim Falla and Paul A. Davies and published by Oxford University Press, offers a comprehensive and well-structured set of materials designed for secondary school learners of English. The package

includes a student's book, a workbook, audio materials in the form of CDs attached to the coursebook and workbook. For teachers a special Teacher's book is available with a CD pack suggesting a variety of procedures to help learners. In addition, audio material is available online at the Oxford University Press website. The website provides learners with a grammar reference section, online platform for practicing grammar and vocabulary as well as for practicing the language skills, i,e reading, writing, listening, and tasks for developing speaking. The wordlist can be accesed for free in printable and digital forms.

The student's book consists of an introduction unit and nine main units. Each unit comprises eight sections marked with letters from A to H. The thematical vocabulary is introduced in section A. In addition to this section, vocabulary building is taught insection E called Word Skills. The other parts of the unit are devoted to developing the four language skills and two sections deal with new grammar items. Every second unit is followed and after the 9th Unit, learners encounter an Exam Skills Trainer, offering students integrated exam practice.

Additionally, the book includes a Vocabulary Builder section at the end of the coursebook, that provides additional lexical items and exercises at the end of the book for each unit. The Culture Pages, altogether nine culture-themed pages (one for each unit), contain integrated skills practice in reading, listening, and speaking based on cultural topics. The Grammar Builder part includes extended grammar practice tasks to each unit, while the second page, labelled as Grammar Reference, summarizes the key grammar points of the unit using visual aids such as tables, bold and colour-coded highlights. The Extra Speaking Tasks section contain additional speaking activities related to Units 4, 5, 7, and 8 providing learners opportunity to practice the vocabulary of the units.

3.2.Vocabulary analysis

The vocabulary of the coursebook and of the workbook accompanying it has been analised with the help of a checklist compiled from checklists sugested by Cunningsworth (1995) and Hussin (2015). The checklist consists of eight viewpoints in the form of questions connected with the way the vocabulary is presented in the Student's book and the practice procedure provided in the coursebook, the workbook and other extra material, including companion websites.

Is vocabulary presented in a structured, purposeful way?

In the Solutions Pre-Intermediate (Third Edition) Student's Book, vocabulary is presented in a structured and purposeful way. Each unit starts with a „Unit map" that outlines the main vocabulary and grammar points to be covered. This helps students and teachers anticipate the goals of the unit and provides a clear thematic structure.

The vocabulary section (A) introduces new lexical items and is always placed at the beginning of each unit. These sections are highly visual and supported by various illustrations.

In the Student's Book, vocabulary items are integrated into the exercises rather than presented in isolated lists. New words are highlighted throughout the units, typically appearing during vocabulary-focused sections. The vocabulary is grouped thematically and functionally. For example, in Unit 1, entitled How do you feel?, the main lexical field focuses on adjectives related to emotions (e.g. anxious, ashamed, excited, nervous) and modifying adverbs (a bit, rather, extremely), all of which serve the purpose of describing emotional states more precisely. The complete wordlist for each unit can be found in the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Workbook and is also available online.

The Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book is rich in colourful illustrations, especially in the Vocabulary sections. In the Workbook black and white illustrations can be found, and the Workbook contains a significant amount of illustrations. The Workbook exercises are suitable for the Practice and Production stages of a lesson, and they can be used as homework assignments as well.

Is there any distinction between active and passive vocabulary?

The textbook makes a distinction between active and passive vocabulary, although this distinction is implicit rather than explicitly marked. Active vocabulary is clearly emphasized through tasks that require productive use of words in both spoken and written form. For example, in the Vocabulary sections, students must use the newly introduced words in sentence completion or matching exercises.

Speaking tasks involve describing pictures, making dialogues, or sharing opinions using target vocabulary. Writing tasks and grammar-focused exercises also provide structured opportunities for active use of the new vocabulary of the unit.

As for passive vocabulary, it is encountered in reading and listening tasks. Although these words are not always highlighted or taught beforehand, learners are expected to understand their meaning from the context, which promotes passive knowledge development. Thus, while not overtly separated, both types of vocabulary are present and reinforced through different modalities and task types.

Is there any principle basis for selection of vocabulary?

There is a clear principled basis for vocabulary selection in the coursebook. The vocabulary items are organized thematically; for example, Unit one focuses on feelings and emotions and includes adjectives to describe the most common feelings, both positive and negative, as well as modifying adverbs that fit the topic (e.g., anxious, ashamed, a bit, extremely). Each unit is built around a central theme – such as Unit 2 Landscapes, Unit 3 Films and TV programmes, Unit 4 Weather, etc. – and the vocabulary chosen supports communication about these topics. This thematic selection allows students to learn and apply words in meaningful and relevant contexts.

In addition, the Student's Book and the Workbook include an Exam Skills Trainer section designed to help learners prepare for the Ukrainian school-leaving exam (ZNO/NMT), indicating that vocabulary has also been selected with exam preparation in mind. This further supports the idea that vocabulary selection is purposeful and based on both communicative needs and exam requirements.

How much vocabulary is taught?

In the Student's Book, each unit introduces a considerable amount of new vocabulary, especially in the first lesson of each unit, which focuses specifically on vocabulary development. For example, in Unit one, approximately 64 new words and expressions are introduced and highlighted throughout the different sections of the unit. Typically, around 16–26 words or expressions are taught in the vocabulary section, which is designed to be covered in a single lesson, and can be practised throughout the unit. Thus, the number of words for one lesson is between eight and thirteen vocabulary items, which is considered to be methodologically correct.

However, the distribution of new vocabulary is not even across all lessons. Some parts of the unit, such as reading or certain grammar sections, introduce few or no new words

at all, whereas others are quite dense with vocabulary. This may lead to a somewhat unbalanced workload in terms of vocabulary learning.

When considering the unit as a whole (with eight to ten lessons per unit), the overall number of words taught per unit seems reasonable. The number of new words in one unit ranges between 60 and 95. Overall, the amount of vocabulary taught per unit is consistent and appropriate.

Is there a list of new vocabulary?

The Student's Book does not include an official, consolidated vocabulary list either at the beginning or at the end of the book. Instead, new vocabulary is embedded within the lessons and highlighted in different colours, depending on the section (e.g. purple in Vocabulary sections, red in Listening sections, etc.). However, there are some external and supplementary sources for vocabulary lists. The Workbook provides a comprehensive wordlist at the end, clearly divided by units with the words enlisted in alphabetical order. The wordlist contains the transcription of the words as well as grammatical information about the part of speech the word belongs to. A digital version of the wordlist is also available online and can be downloaded for free.

There are also online resources, such as the Langeek website, where vocabulary is grouped, and each word is accompanied by: definitions, phonetic transcription, pronunciation audio, illustrations, and example sentences. In case it is possible, synonyms and antonyms are added and translated into 26 languages is provided on the site.

So, while the main textbook does not offer a direct, unit-by-unit vocabulary list, students and teachers can still access these lists through supplementary materials and digital platforms.

Reasonability of the load of new words introduced in every lesson.

The amount of new vocabulary introduced in each lesson in the Solutions Student's Book is not evenly distributed. The overall number of new words per unit seems reasonable.

Typically, the Vocabulary section includes a large number of new words – as many as 16 – 26 – while other sections like Grammar or Reading may introduce few or no new lexical items. The amount of words introduced in the vocabulary section may be greater than recommended, but the newly introduced words can be practised throughout the unit.

Ideally, eight to twelve or fifteen new words per lesson would be more manageable and effective for long-term learning. The amount of new words may be a bit overwhelming for lower-level learners or those who need more time to internalize vocabulary.

Thus, while the total amount of vocabulary per unit meets the requirements, the new words introduced in the vocabulary section might be overwhelming. For this reason, it would be beneficial to add an additional lesson for practice.

Systematic gradation from simple to complex.

The coursebook demonstrates a clear and systematic gradation from simple to more complex vocabulary and topics across the units. Each unit builds logically on the previous one. For instance:

Unit one begins with feelings and emotions, a familiar topic for learners, and introduces related adjectives and modifying adverbs. Unit two moves on to landscapes and outdoor activities, where more specific vocabulary is introduced, such as landscape features, prepositions of place, and sports equipment. Unit three continues with familiar cultural content – films and TV programmes – but includes more abstract descriptive vocabulary. Unit four focuses on weather and natural disasters, introducing vocabulary related to climate change, describing temperature, and extreme weather events. Unit five shifts to the world of jobs and personal qualities, offering vocabulary for describing professions, work-related tasks, and character traits. Unit six centers on tourist attractions and holiday planning, with vocabulary for describing landmarks, suggesting itineraries, and using functional expressions in travel contexts. Unit seven introduces the theme of money and spending, including vocabulary related to currencies, shops and services, verbs connected to money, and types of businesses. Unit eight delves into crime and law enforcement, presenting vocabulary on types of crimes, criminals, compound nouns, and police-related collocations. Unit nine focuses on technology and gadgets, covering topics like materials, gadget parts, and descriptive adjectives for modern devices.

This thematic progression ensures that students are not overwhelmed. Within each unit, vocabulary and language tasks tend to progress from recognition (e.g. matching or listening) to productive use (e.g. speaking or writing), which also supports systematic development. Therefore, both thematic sequencing and linguistic difficulty show a clear pattern of moving from simpler to more complex language use, supporting learners' gradual development.

Lexical items introduced in meaningful situations.

Linguistic items – including vocabulary and grammatical structures – are introduced in meaningful contexts throughout the coursebook. Each unit begins with a new topic, and the vocabulary is thematically organized around it. New words are embedded in dialogues, listening texts, descriptions, and speaking tasks that reflect realistic, everyday situations. For example, adjectives describing emotions (e.g., anxious, ashamed, bored) appear in short dialogues and situational pictures where students are encouraged to describe feelings.

Listening and reading activities also use the target vocabulary in real-life contexts, such as conversations, interviews, or short articles, that helps students infer meaning from context and see how the vocabulary is used functionally. This method supports learning by offering both exposure and practice in relevant communicative situations.

CONCLUSION

The present study set out to examine the extent to which the vocabulary-related content and activities in the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book contribute to the development of students' lexical competence. By investigating both the theoretical background and the practical implementation of vocabulary teaching in this coursebook, the research has provided insights into how vocabulary is presented, practised, and integrated into language tasks.

In conclusion, the thesis has provided a comprehensive overview of vocabulary teaching. It explored the historical background, the main vocabulary teaching methods and approaches of the 20th century, the functioning of the mental lexicon and its components, and the distinction between active and passive vocabulary. Furthermore, it examined the relationship between vocabulary size and language proficiency levels, the qualitative and quantitative aspects of vocabulary instruction, as well as various techniques for vocabulary acquisition and presentation – including strategies for conveying word meaning and form. Finally, the methodological process of introducing lexical items and a detailed analysis of the Third Edition Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book were presented.

This study has shown that the book is rich in colourful illustrations; the vocabulary is grouped thematically; the textbook makes an implicit distinction between active and passive vocabulary; the number of new words in one unit ranges between 60 and 95; the new words are integrated into the exercises, and the wordlist can be found in the Workbook, with a digital version also available online. Typically, the Vocabulary lessons include 16–26 new words, which is slightly more than recommended, but the words can be practised throughout the unit. There is a clear and systematic gradation from simple to more complex vocabulary and topics across the units; vocabulary and language tasks tend to progress from recognition to productive use; and the linguistic items are introduced in meaningful contexts throughout the coursebook.

The results of this investigation show that the coursebook is generally well-suited for its target audience of secondary school EFL learners. Its thematic organisation, gradual progression of lexical items, and contextualised presentation all support vocabulary development. Therefore, it can be concluded that the Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book significantly contributes to the improvement of learners' lexical competence.

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РЕЗЮМЕ

Дане дослідження було спрямоване на з'ясування того, якою мірою зміст і завдання, пов'язані зі словниковим запасом у підручнику Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book, сприяють розвитку лексичної компетентності учнів. Шляхом аналізу як теоретичних засад, так і практичного впровадження навчання лексики в цьому курсі, дослідження дало уявлення про те, як подається, опрацьовується та інтегрується лексика в мовленнєві завдання.

У висновку можна сказати, що дана дипломна робота надала всебічний огляд викладання лексики. Було розглянуто історичне підґрунтя, основні методи та підходи до навчання словникового запасу з іноземної мові у XX столітті, функціонування ментального лексикону та його складових, а також розмежування між активною та пасивною лексикою. Окрім того, досліджувалось співвідношення між обсягом словникового запасу та рівнем володіння мовою, якісні та кількісні аспекти навчання лексики, а також різні техніки засвоєння і подання нової лексики – зокрема, способи пояснення значення та форми слів. У підсумку було описано методичний процес введення лексичних одиниць і проведено детальний аналіз підручника Solutions Pre-Intermediate Student's Book.

Дослідження показало, що підручник має багате кольорове ілюстрування; лексика згрупована тематично; підручник неявно розрізняє активну й пасивну лексику; кількість нових слів в одному розділі коливається між 60 і 95; нові слова інтегровані вони інтегровані у текст, а мета вправ полягає у відпрацюванні матеріалу. Словник перелік слів до підручника можна знайти в робочому зошиті, також доступна його цифрова версія онлайн. Зазвичай уроки лексики містять 16–26 нових слів, що трохи більше за рекомендовану кількість, однак слова опрацьовуються протягом усього розділу. Є чітке й систематичне ускладнення лексики та тем у межах кожного юніту; завдання на лексику та мову поступово переходять від впізнавання до активного використання; лексичні одиниці вводяться в змістовних контекстах протягом усього підручника.

Результати цього дослідження свідчать про те, що підручник загалом добре підходить для учнів середньої школи, які вивчають англійську як іноземну. Його тематична організація, поступове ускладнення лексики та подання у контексті підтримують розвиток словникового запасу. Отже, можна зробити висновок, що НМК Solutions Pre-Intermediate суттєво сприяє покращенню лексичної компетентності учнів.

Appendix

Is vocabulary presented in a structured, purposeful way? (Cunningsworth, 1995)

Is there any distinction between active and passive vocabulary? (Cunningsworth, 1995)

Is there any principle basis for selection of vocabulary? (Cunningsworth, 1995)

How much vocabulary is taught? (Cunningsworth, 1995)

Is there a list of new vocabulary? (Cunningsworth, 1995)

Reasonability of the load of new words introduced in every lesson (Mat Hussin, Nimehchisalem, & Rezvani Kalajahi, 2015).

Systematic gradation from simple to complex (Mat Hussin, Nimehchisalem, & Rezvani Kalajahi, 2015).

Linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations (Mat Hussin, Nimehchisalem, & Rezvani Kalajahi, 2015).

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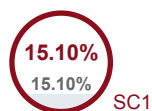
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