

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of literature in this chapter covers the discussions of major lines of theory and views, and findings from studies that are relevant to the inquiry of this study including: (a) Thai educational reform, (b) educational reform and English language teaching, (c) language learning, (d) vocabulary learning, (e) language learning strategies (LLS), (f) vocabulary learning strategies (VLS), (g) vocabulary in second language acquisition (SLA), (h) how to teach the meaning of vocabulary, (i) the use of songs in English language teaching, (j) the role of teachers in teaching with songs, (k) the steps of teaching with songs, and (l) previous studies about using songs to enhance English vocabulary.

2.1 Thai Educational Reform

Current educational reform in Thailand (1996-2007) have been initiated in response to the urgent needs of human resources development in a society which has been rapidly changing through the impact of globalization, advancement of science, and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) (Ministry of Education, 1996). Through the process of globalization, and advancement of ICT, new socio-economic patterns have emerged which have been called knowledge-based, information-based, technology-based, or technology-driven. In addition, the economic crash of the mid 1990s experienced by Southeast Asian countries greatly

affected Thailand's economy, politics, culture and society (Pitiyanuwat & Anantrasirichai. 2002), and caused a decline in Thailand's economic competitiveness.

The Thai economy is undergoing a rapid transformation from an agricultural-based economy to a globalized market-driven economy (Atagi. 2002; Pillay. 2002). To deal with the demands of this new economy effectively, it is essential for Thailand to possess knowledge workers who are well-trained, computer literate and who possess abilities such as problem-solving, analytical thinking, critical thinking, and creative thinking (Fry. 2002b; Pillay. 2002; Stamper. 2002). In addition, Thai graduates need knowledge and competence in English and ICT (Gipson. 1998; Prapphal. 2004).

The former Thai Prime Minister, Thaksin Chinawatra states that Thai people need to have global literacy, which in the age of globalization, he views as encompassing knowledge of English language, the Internet and international cultures:

We want graduates who are prepared to be this nation's good human resources. I would like them to have global literacy, think critically, be eager for lifelong learning and be able to adapt to change (cited in Assavononda & Bunnag, 2001: online).

In its educational reform documents (ONEC. 1999), the Thai government pinpointed the weaknesses of human resources which inhibit the development of the country, and which are regarded as resulting from inefficiencies of education management and administration, lack of quality in education, and inequity of access to education quality (MOE. 1996; Parkay et. all. 1999). The Thai educational system has been highly central used, which has been both ineffective and inefficient, especially in terms of budget and personnel management. Atagi (2002) also reports that the Thai government has not provided enough funds to significantly improve the quality of teachers. As for quality of education, teaching practices, especially at the secondary

level, are predominantly teacher-centered: that is, the teacher speaks, and students listen. One important influence here is the National University Entrance Examination, which continues to focus on reproduction of subject matter and consequently encourages teacher-centered practices. In its reform the Thai government has given priority to teaching science, mathematics and English because these subjects are essential in order to advance in a hi-technology and information-based society. However, the quality of teaching in all three subjects has been found to be inadequate, there has also been a problem in providing equity of access to quality education, particularly for those who live in rural areas on low incomes. Schools in rural areas have less developed infrastructure and fewer well-qualified teachers compared to schools in Bangkok and other urban areas (Atagi. 2002).

The 1999 National Education Act (NEA) was introduced in order to meet the requirements of the 1997 Constitution, and represents the legislation of educational reform (ONEC. 2001b). Provision of education aims at full development of Thai people in all respects, including physical and mental health, intellect, knowledge, morality, integrity and desirable ways of life which will enable them to live in harmony with other people. The provision of education is based on life-long education for all, participation by all sectors in society, and continuous development of knowledge and learning processes (ONEC. 2003).

In order to ensure basic education, the NEA specifies that all Thai citizens have equal rights and opportunities to receive at least 12 years free basic education of which 9 years are compulsory from grades 1 to 9, and 3 years optional from grades 10 to 12. Notably, since May 2004, two further years of pre-primary education have served to extend free basic education to 14 years in total (MOE. 2004).

Formal education in Thailand is divided into two levels: basic education and higher education. As outlined in Table 2.1 below, basic education includes 14 years, from two-year pre-primary level, primary level (grades 1 to 6), lower-secondary level (grades 7 to 9), and upper-secondary level (grades 10 to 12). Higher education is divided into two levels: diploma and degree. Higher education is provided in universities, colleges and other institutions (ONEC, 2003).

Table 2.1

Thai Formal Educational System

Level	Basic Education				Higher Education	
	Pre-Primary	Primary Grades 1-6	Lower- secondary Grades 7-9	Upper- secondary Grades 10-12	Diploma	Degree & Higher Degrees
Age	3-5	6-11	12-14	15-17	18+	
	Compulsory					

The Ministry of Education's reforms of learning were introduced with the aim of improving the quality of education for all Thai people, and of promoting students' capability of learning and developing themselves at their own pace and to their full potential (ONEC, 2001a; Atagi, 2002; ONEC, 2003). In order to meet the goals of learning reform, the policy specified the need to improve the curricula and teaching/learning processes. This is the first time in Thai education that the development of curriculum has been decentralized. That is, the MOE has provided the framework of core curriculum for each educational institution to develop their own curriculum, including goals, teaching/learning activities, materials, assessment and evaluation, in order to suit the needs of the local community.

Teaching/learning processes are required to take into account learners' aptitudes and interests and to be based on principles of life-long learning. The learning environment itself, as well as the activities selected by teachers, should encourage thinking processes such as problem-solving, critical thinking, creative thinking and analytical thinking skills. In addition, teaching/learning processes need to encourage learners to apply their knowledge and experience to new situations. In order to achieve such requirements, a learner-centered approach has been proposed, in order to achieve "a significant shift from a traditional teacher-centered approach" (ONEA. 2000, p. 39). Educational institutions are also required to encourage instructors to conduct research into teaching/learning development.

The 1999 National Education Act also stipulates distribution of technology infrastructure; promotion and support of the production of technologies; development of knowledge, capabilities and skill in using technologies; promotion of research and development; production and modification of technologies, follow-up, examination, and evaluation of use for effectiveness; and establishment of organization responsible for policies, plans of technologies utilization: promotion, coordination of research, development and utilization of technologies for education (ONEC. 2003).

2.2 Educational Reform and English Language Teaching

Educational reform in English language teaching (ELT) in Thailand has taken place within the context of the broader educational reforms outlined above. Because of the special place of English in Thailand, reforms in ELT have been given priority by the Ministry of Education. ELT policy reform 1996 to 2015 contains four key aims:

- 1) To make English the first foreign language and to require its study from grade 1;
- 2) To improve teaching and learning through teaching technologies and innovations, libraries, and networking between formal and non-formal education;
- 3) To emphasize diversity in English language teaching and learning in both style and content; and
- 4) To involve communities to participate in curriculum development [sic]. (Chayanuvat. 1997: p. 4)

The reform of English language teaching policy started with the implementation of the 1996 English curriculum at primary and secondary level and was followed by the 2001 Basic Curriculum. This Basic Curriculum introduced two major changes. The first was the freedom of each school to create their own syllabus, content, activities, time and assessment that suit the needs of local community. The second change lay in its view of English as a mean of communicating with the wider world, which included an emphasis on use of English in acquiring content knowledge and information. Through these major changes in English teaching and learning at the basic education level, it was intended that Thai students would be able to enhance their English competence and life-long learning and thereby keep pace with social change and the high demands of the global economy. The reform incorporated the view that English, as well as digital literacy, is essential for national development (Department of Curriculum and Instruction, MOE. 2001; Wongsothorn, Hiranburana & Chinnawogns. 2003). It also aimed to provide continuity between ELT at school level and at University levels.

In 2002, the Ministry of University Affairs (MUA) also initiated reform of the English curriculum and teaching and learning in Thai universities. The new policy

specifies changes as follows: first, an English Proficiency Test is to be used to stream students as they enter university. Less competent students are required to take a remedial non-credit subject, while those who have average proficiency are required to undertake a first compulsory subject. Students with high proficiency are required to undertake only second or third compulsory subjects. Secondly, students are required to undertake at least 12 credits of English study, double the previous 6 credit points requirement. Thirdly, all students are required to take an exit test, which aims to ensure the quality of English language teaching and learning. The results of this test, however, will not appear on their academic transcripts. Finally, in the spirit of learner-centered pedagogy, universities are encouraged to set up self-access centers which are intended to promote autonomous student learning of English and life-long learning, as well as to utilize technology, especially the Internet, in teaching and learning (Wiriyachitra, 2002; Wiriyachitra & Keyuravong, 2002; Wongsothorn, Hiranburana & Chinnawongs, 2003). It may be seen that my research is particularly relevant to this fourth aim.

2.3 Language Learning

Following on from the observation that some students were more successful than the others no matter what teaching methods or techniques were used in the language classroom attracted a continuous interest for research. In fact, students were found to employ various learning strategies to assist themselves while learning a second or foreign language. It is assumed that the strategies employed by the more successful students may be learnt by those who are less successful and the teachers can assist the language learning process by promoting awareness of them and

encouraging their use. This teachability component means that language learning strategies (LLSs) enhance an individual's ability to learn a language (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). It will be comprehensive to start with considering a number of definitions of learning strategies before moving to the methods that have been used to investigate them.

2.3.1 Definition of Language Learning

Ellis (1996) refers to the concept of strategy that "is a somewhat fuzzy one (p.529). Numerous definitions of strategy exist in literature and it is not easy to make a generalization. According to Ellis (1996), "...a strategy consists of mental or behavioral activity related to some specific stage in the overall process of language acquisition or language use. Cohen (1996) defines learning strategies as: "learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner which may result in actions taken to enhance learning (p. 5). Rubin (1975) also refers to strategies as "...strategies which contribute to the development of the language system that the learner constructs and affect learning directly." When we investigate the definitions it is not easy to make a generalization. Ellis (1996) perceives strategies as both observable and mental activities while Cohen (1996) sees them as deliberate, conscious and intentional processes and Rubin (1985) assumes that strategies have a direct effect on interlanguage development.

Although different researchers highlight different aspects of learning strategies, the common point is that learning strategies exist to solve some learning problems and to promote learning. A broader categorization has been made by Cohen and Macaro (2007) about the purpose of language learning strategies. The main purpose of incorporating language learning strategies into lessons is to enhance

learning. Another aim is to perform specified tasks and solve some specific problems. For instance, if a learner has difficulty in perceiving and analyzing the structure of an utterance, he or she can make use of a series of listening strategies. Learning strategies also make learning easier, faster and more enjoyable, compensate for a deficit in learning such as making use of prior knowledge while reading an advanced text in the target language.

2.3.2 Language Use versus Language Learning

In literature, there are two different terms as “language use strategies” and “language learning strategies”. Cohen (1996) defines language use strategies as the ones primarily focus on employing the language that the learners have in their current interlanguage whereas language learning strategies have an explicit aim of helping learners improve their knowledge in the target language. However, Oxford (2002) points out that in daily language, language learning and language use strategies overlap with each other. The reason for Cohen’s (1996) distinction suggests that language learning strategies (cognitive and metacognitive strategies) occur during the learning phase not the use phase of language. However, as learners’ proficiency in language improves, they move from thinking about the language to knowing how to use it (Anderson. 2005). Due to that reason, “language learning strategies” that are used to improve performance in the target language will be the focus of this study.

2.3.3 Related Concepts to Language Learning

Before moving on to the research on language learning strategies, it would be useful to consider the concepts related to strategy use. One of these concepts is “autonomous language learning”. One of the ultimate goals of strategy training is to help learners ‘have control over their own learning’, which is defined as autonomous

language learning (Tumposky, 1982). These two concepts are closely related but they are not interchangeable as Cohen and Macaro (2007) distinguish these two concepts as “autonomous learning is not the same as strategic learning in that a learner can work independently in a rote non-strategic manner” (p. 40).

Another concept that is related with learning strategies is “self-regulation” or “self-management”. Vygotsky once identifies self-regulation with his theoretical and practical focus on specific sets of learning behaviors and this term is interpreted as cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies. While some researchers see general learning strategies as what students use to become more self-regulated in their own learning, others view self-regulation as a broader term that allows for both the cognitive and the affective side of strategy learning. Two more terms that are related to learning strategies are ‘independent language learning’ and “individual language learning” which refer to learning through independent study, for example in a self-access centre. However, independence should be balanced with an awareness and concern for the support available to ensure successful learning experiences. For individual language learning, what we should keep in mind is that a strategy useful for a learner may not be so appealing to another learner (Cohen & Macaro, 2007).

2.3.4 Classification of Language Learning

Strategies used by second language learners have also been distinguished from each other. In the earlier studies carried by Rubin (1975-1981), Naiman et. al. (1978), they focus on gathering inventories of learning strategies that the learners were observed to be using without an attempt to classify them under specific headings. However, in the subsequent studies it is suggested that it is possible to observe, record and classify LLSs and many researchers attempted to group the specific strategies

under broad classes. A significant study that is conducted to classify the learning strategies in accordance with the information processing model is O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) framework. They identify 26 learning strategies through an interview and further classify these strategies as cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies. Cognitive strategies refer to "the steps or operations used in problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials" (Rubin, 1987). Among the cognitive strategies listed by Chamot (1985) are repetition, note-taking, translation, elaboration, inferencing. Metacognitive strategies make use of language about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring and evaluating. Affective strategies are related with the ways learners interact with their peers and native speakers of the language. Chamot (1985) exemplifies them as cooperation, question for clarification and so on.

One of the most significant studies in the field of language strategies was conducted by Oxford (1990). As Ellis (1996) defines her study as "the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies to date" (p. 539). What Oxford did was to make use of all the earlier studies with the aim of incorporating every single strategy that was previously mentioned in the literature into her classification scheme. After she came up with her first typology in 1985, she later updated and presented a new classification scheme that is called as The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in 1990. It contains items related to sixty-four individual strategies divided into six parts and it aimed to measure a learner's frequency of strategy use. She made a general distinction between direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies

require the mental processing of the language whereas; indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning and evaluating.

Oxford (1990) categorizes direct strategies under three groups as memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Memory strategies help learners store and retrieve new information and she divided them into four sets such as (a) creating mental linkages, (b) applying images and sounds, (c) retrieving well, (d) employing. Cognitive strategies help learners understand and produce new language through various ways, for example, by summarizing and reasoning and she put them under four sets such as (a) practicing, (b) receiving and sending messages, (c) analyzing and reasoning, (d) creating structure for input and output. Compensation strategies help learners use the language despite not having the necessary knowledge such as guessing or using synonyms and are divided into two sets such as (a) guessing intelligently and (b) overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Indirect strategies, defined as indirect support for language learning are divided into metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies deal with preassessment and pre-planning, on-line planning and evaluation and post evaluation of language learning activities. Such strategies allow learners to control their own cognition by planning, organizing and evaluating the learning process (Cohen & Weaver, 1998). Oxford (1990) divides metacognitive strategies into three sets such as a. centering your learning, b. arranging and planning your learning, c. evaluating your learning. Affective strategies help learners regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes and are further divided into three sets such as (a) lowering your anxiety, (b) encouraging yourself and taking your emotional temperature. Social

strategies help learners learn through interaction with others and categorized as (a) asking questions, (b) cooperating with others, (c) empathizing with others.

The fundamental claim of SILL is that it is possible to define and quantify the strategies: It has a great impact in ELT as by mid 1990s, it is used by more than 10.000 learners worldwide to assess their strategy use and the relationship to other variables such as learning styles, gender, proficiency level, culture and task. It has also been used with more than 30 doctoral dissertations and a number of refereed articles. Nyikos and Oxford (1989) provide evidence for SILL's reliability and validity.

Internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's alpha is .96 based on a 1.200 person university sample and .95 based on a 483 person Defence Language Institute (DLI) field text sample. Content validity is .95 using a classificatory agreement between two independent raters who blindly matched each of the SILL items with strategies in the comprehensive taxonomy. Concurrent and construct validity can be assumed based on the demonstration of strong relationships between SILL factors and self-ratings of language proficiency and language motivation (p. 292).

Some researchers even have tried to make a distinction between strategies as language use strategies and language learning strategies. Cohen (2007) approaches this distinction from a more detailed perspective as he makes the distinction by function, purpose, skill areas, proficiency levels, culture, language and age. To clarify the distinction in terms of function; he argues that strategies to increase target language knowledge and understanding are distinguished from strategies aimed at using what has already been learnt. They include retrieval, rehearsal, and communication and cover strategies that learners use to look good when they do not have full control over language material.

However, if one tries to draw a line between these strategies, some problems are bound to surface as no clear agreement has yet been reached in literature related to classification schemes. Cohen (1996) points out to this issue in his article as follows:

The problem is that the distinctions are not so clear-cut. In other words, the same strategy of ongoing text summarization may be interpretable as either cognitive or metacognitive. It might not be possible to neatly draw the line between metacognitive strategies aimed at planning and evaluating the results both while in the process of constructing the marginal entry and after finishing the writing of it, and cognitive strategies involving the reconceptualization of a paragraph at a higher level of abstraction (p. 7).

Messick (1989) indicates that strategies can vary across people and tasks even when the same results are achieved. Phakiti (2003) supports what Cohen (1990), Ellis (1996) and Messick (1989) advocate in his article as "...Strategy items intended to assess particular cognitive and metacognitive strategies might have turned out to assess others, for example, due to the wording of the strategy item and test takers' misinterpretation of the item meaning" (p. 48).

Despite some reservations like the unease of classification of learning strategies, these schemes are quite helpful for researchers and teachers because they provide considerable amount of help in guiding everybody that are interested in learning strategies because they provide a basis for studying which strategies are affective in promoting learning. This point was also indicated by Ellis who noted that despite these issues, these schemes prove to be useful not just to the teacher and the researcher but are also quite beneficial, especially "where learner training is concerned" (1994: 540).

2.4 Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary learning is crucially important for foreign or second language learners' fluent communicative ability. As Wilkins (1972) put it, "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing at all can be conveyed" (p. 111). Harmer (1994) also echoed, "[I]f language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (p. 153). Increasingly, attention to vocabulary has been an integral part of the learning process for foreign language learners. This is particularly true for Thai English language learners, who view vocabulary learning as the most important part of their linguistic competence enhancement (Pookcharoen. 2008). It has become a phenomenon that vocabulary books or software applications can easily become one of the bestsellers in Thailand as almost every student has a copy of a vocabulary book and they usually spend considerable time each day on intentional English vocabulary learning within their four academic years in college and beyond, in the hope that they can speed up the pace of their vocabulary development.

Generally speaking, vocabulary learning can be categorized into two kinds: intentional and incidental. Intentional vocabulary learning refers to "any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory" (Robinson. 2001: 271). It involves "invest[ing] the necessary mental effort and memoriz[ing] the words until [learners] know their meanings" (Koren. 1999: 2). This is in contrast to incidental vocabulary learning, which refers to vocabulary learning as "a byproduct of something else" (Gass & Selinker. 2001: 379) such as reading a passage for comprehension, listening to news for local, national or international events, etc. Even though there have been louder voices acclaiming the effectiveness of incidental vocabulary learning

(Krashen. 1989; Coady. 1997; Nation. 1990; Nagy. 1997; Chen. 2006), discordant voices have also been heard (Estes & DaPolito. 1967; Hulstijn. 1992; Hulstijn, Hollande & Greidanus. 1996; Horst, Cobb, & Meara. 1998; Koren, 1999).

For example, Koren (1999) points out that “incidental vocabulary learning is not particularly efficient, as shown by the literature. Therefore, intentional learning should rather be encouraged” (p. 15). In an experimental study of the effectiveness of incidental and intentional vocabulary learning, Hulstijn (1992) found that the intentional learning group outperformed the incidental group. His findings are also supported by Mondria and Wit-de Boer (1991). Barcroft (2009) conducted a recent experimental study of intentional vocabulary learning in terms of the relationship between strategy use and vocabulary learning performance and concluded that students can learn better when using a mnemonic technique and L2-picture association than L2-L1 translation and repetition. When discussing the effectiveness of Thai learners’ intentional and incidental vocabulary learning, Pookcharoen (2008) posits that intentional learning should be encouraged to help increase the vocabulary of non-English-major students who usually have a relatively smaller vocabulary. He also argues that the effectiveness of intentional learning can be enhanced when it is complemented with incidental learning.

2.5 Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Although being substantially discussed in contemporary language teaching and learning, the issue of language learning strategies seems to have little or no place in the teacher-centered era of the Grammar-Translation Method or the Audiolingual Method. During that time, learners are not regarded as active participants in the

language classroom, but rather a passive individual who needs stimulus and achieves acquisition through reinforcement. Objections to this behaviorist view of language learning arise gradually and culminate when Chomsky (1968) proposes that the learner is indeed an entity with inherent linguistic competence to generate rules (Griffiths & Parr 2001). Studies on language errors by Corder (1976) also suggest that language learners play an active role in developing their underlying linguistic competence and organizing linguistic input. The shift of perspective on language learning leads an impetus by researchers such as Rubin (1975) to investigate what strategies successful language learners employ to actively enhance their learning (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). Since then, a number of descriptive studies (e.g. Naiman et. al. 1978; O'Malley et. al. 1985) have been conducted to identify and classify the strategies involved in second language learning.

2.5.1 Definitions and Features of LLS

Notions of LLS are to some extent defined differently by researchers. For example, Wenden & Rubin (1987: 23) see LLS as the ones “which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly”. O'Malley & Chamot (1990: 1) regard LLS as “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information”. Another interpretation comes from Oxford (2001: 66), who defines LLS as “operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information, specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations”. Oxford (1990: 9) also proposes a list of twelve key features involving LLS, claiming that they:

1. contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. expand the role of teachers.
4. are problem-oriented.
5. are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
7. support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. are not always observable.
9. are often conscious.
10. can be taught.
11. are flexible.
12. are influenced by a variety of factors.

Among the features above, the tenth argument, which notes that strategies are able to be instructed to language learners, makes it particularly worthwhile for language practitioners to study this issue further so that appropriate strategy instructions may be provided to students to enhance their learning.

2.5.2 The Main Studies in LLS Field

Rubin (1975) is one of the earliest researchers directing attention from teaching methods and materials to a more learner-centered aspect, assuming that successful learners tend to operate a range of strategies in their learning process which might be made available to help underachieved learners. Rubin (1975) points out that the good language learner:

1. is a willing and accurate guesser;
2. has a strong drive to communicate;
3. is uninhibited and willing to make mistakes;
4. focuses on form by looking at patterns and using analysis;
5. takes advantage of all practice opportunities;
6. monitors his or her own speech and that of others;
7. pays attention to meaning. (cited Oxford. 2001: 169)

Afterwards, Rubin (1981) presents a more detailed classification about LLS based upon extensive data collection, such as observations, interviews, analysis of self-reports, and daily journals of a group of students. Two primary categories are

identified, one of which directly affects learning and the other indirectly. The first category consists of clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice. The second group includes creating opportunities for practice and production tricks.

Naiman et. al. (1978) report their large-scale “Good Language Learner” (GLL) study based upon an investigation of secondary school students learning French in English-speaking Canada. An inventory of five general strategies and related techniques is proposed, suggesting that good language learners:

1. actively involve themselves in the language learning process by identifying and seeking preferred learning environments and exploring them;
 2. develop an awareness of language as a system;
 3. develop an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction;
 4. accept and cope with the affective demands of L2;
 5. extend and revise L2 system by inferencing and monitoring.
- (Rubin. 1987: 20)

Although this work has been criticized for some reasons, such as the identified strategies being a list refined from general psychology, instead of being reported spontaneously by the respondents, this Canadian study has played a part in giving rise to many research questions which several studies conducted in the 1980s continued to pursue (McDonough. 1995).

One thing to note is that although these earlier studies on LLS pave the way to subsequent development of definitions and classifications in this field, they are not grounded in rigorous theories of second language acquisition or cognition. To address this problem, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) refer to Anderson’s (1983, 1985) information processing theory of cognition and memory as the foundation for relating learning strategies to cognitive processes. In his model, Anderson makes a distinction

between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. The former refers to all of the things we know about, such as the definitions of words, facts, and rules, while the latter involves the things we know how to do, such as language comprehension, and language production. To make one skill move on from rule-bound declarative knowledge to the more automatic proceduralized stage, it is argued that learners will go through three stages in the production system of all complex cognitive skills: the cognitive stage, the associative stage, and the autonomous stage (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

With Anderson's cognitive theory being applied to the case of second language acquisition, learning strategies are subsumed into procedural knowledge which can be acquired through the above three stages. Within the cognitive theory framework, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) compose a list of strategies divided into three categories — metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective — by means of large-scale studies conducted in the mid-1980s, involving mostly EFL students. In general, metacognitive strategies concern “thinking about language or the learning process” and “act less on language itself than knowledge about processing language” (Grenfell & Harris, 1999: 45), some examples of which are preplanning a linguistic task, monitoring while it is being carried out, and checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against a standard after it has been completed. Cognitive strategies involve “mental engagement with language in materials or tasks in order to develop understanding and hence learning” (Grenfell & Harris, 1999: 44). In other words, cognitive strategies “act on language in the acquisition process and may be specifically involved in production of language” (Grenfell & Harris, 1999: 44-45). Examples of cognitive strategies are guessing meanings of some unknown words on

the basis of contextual clues, or using imagery and repetition to facilitate memorization. The last group of strategies, the social-affective strategies, refer to “the strategies involved in social contexts—for example, cooperation or asking for clarification—or control over the emotion and affection necessarily implicated in learning a foreign language” (Grenfell & Harris. 1999: 45). Each of the three main categories encompasses a range of strategies and thus can be described in a more detailed classification scheme. It may be said that the work by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) has contributed to a theory-based element of LLS in second language acquisition and presented substantial evidence of learners’ active role in language learning.

2.6 Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

2.6.1 Key Previous Studies on VLS

In the process of investigating and classifying LLS, some studies indirectly involve the strategies specifically applicable to vocabulary learning. Nevertheless, studies on VLS in the early stage tend to focus on a limited number of strategies, such as guessing from context (Huckin, Haynes, & Coady. 1993) and certain mnemonics like the Keyword Method (Pressley, Levin, & Miller. 1982). More thorough and in-depth studies which look at VLS as a group are in need to contribute to a more comprehensive taxonomy of VLS (Schmitt. 1997).

A large-scale study on Chinese university learners’ VLS was carried out by Gu and Johnson (1996). 850 sophomore non-English majors participated in the survey by filling out a questionnaire composed of three sections: Personal Data, Beliefs about Vocabulary Learning, and Vocabulary Learning Strategies. Researchers correlated

responses to the questionnaire with results on a vocabulary size test and a general English proficiency measure. It was found that there were significant positive correlations between the two metacognitive strategies (Self-Initiation and Selective Attention) and the two test scores, whereas mnemonic devices (e.g. imagery, visual associations, and auditory associations), semantic encoding strategies, and word list learning probably correlated highly with vocabulary size, but not with general English proficiency. In a multiple regression analysis, the two metacognitive strategies also emerged as positive predictors of both general English proficiency and vocabulary size. Nevertheless, the second best predictor of vocabulary size, namely Dictionary Looking-Up strategies, did not rank comparably high as a predictor of general English proficiency. Likewise, variables such as extracurricular time spent on English, intentional activation of new words learned and semantic encoding, seemed to play a role in predicting vocabulary size but not in overall English proficiency. The findings suggest that “students would benefit more if they aimed at learning the language skills rather than just remembering English equivalents of all Chinese words” (Gu & Johnson, 1996: 659). Another point to be noted in the study is that Visual Repetition and Imagery Encoding were both strong negative predictors of vocabulary size and English proficiency, implying that learners probably should not depend too much on visual repetition or fanciful imagery techniques when committing words into memory. Nation (2001) states that Gu and Johnson’s (1996) comprehensive study reveals some messages for teachers and learners, three of which are as follows:

1. Some of the strongest correlations in the study involved learners making decisions about what vocabulary was important for them. Relating learning to personal needs and goals is at the centre of taking responsibility for learning.

2. Memorization is only useful if it is one of a wide range of actively used strategies. It should not be the major means of learning.

3. There is a wide range of strategy options to draw on, and learners draw on these with varied success and skill. Learners could benefit from being made aware of these strategies, how to use them well, and how to choose between them. (Nation, 2001: 227)

Another large-scale survey on VLS was conducted by Schmitt (1997), who investigated 600 Japanese learners from four different age levels — junior high school students, high school students, university students and adult learners. Schmitt also implemented a questionnaire to gather information about what VLS were used and how useful they were rated. A strong affinity for the bilingual dictionary was revealed in the study, with 85% of the sample giving a positive response to the use of a bilingual dictionary to discover word meaning. The second and third most-used strategies were verbal repetition and written repetition, probably owing to the fact that vocabulary is presented via word lists in the materials and in Japanese school contexts students are required to memorize English grammar and vocabulary usually through repetition. However, these two strategies did not correlate high with English proficiency or vocabulary size in Gu and Johnson's (1996) study, suggesting that learners could benefit from training on strategy option and use (Nation, 2001).

Bilingual dictionary use also came first in the helpfulness evaluation results. The other five helpful strategies overlapping with the top ten most-used ones were "written repetition", "verbal repetition", "say a new word aloud", "study a word's spelling", and "take notes in class". On the other hand, four strategies ("study synonyms and antonyms", "continue to study over time", "ask teacher for paraphrase", and "use pictures/gestures to understand meaning") were rated high in terms of helpfulness but

not used relatively frequently by these learners, probably implying that “learners can see value in strategies which they do not currently use” and “may be willing to try new strategies if they are introduced to and instructed in them” (Schmitt. 1997: 221).

2.6.2 The Classification System for VLS

A complete inventory of VLS will be conducive to pertinent studies in this area. However, just as Skehan (1989) argues, the field of learner strategies is still in an early stage of development. His remark is particularly applicable to VLS in that a comprehensive list or taxonomy of strategies in this specific area is not present (Schmitt. 1997). In order to address this gap, Schmitt (1997) attempts to propose as exhaustive a list of VLS as possible and classify them based on one of the current descriptive systems. He primarily referred to Oxford’s(1990) classification scheme and adopted four strategy groups (Social, Memory, Cognitive, and Metacognitive) which seemed best able to illustrate the wide variety of VLS. Social strategies involve learners using interaction with other people to facilitate their learning. Memory strategies consist of those approaches helping relate new materials to existing knowledge system. Skills which require “manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner” (Oxford. 1990: 43) fall into the Cognitive strategies. Lastly, Metacognitive strategies “involve a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best way to study” (Schmitt. 1997: 205).

Since Oxford’s (1990) system deals with LLS in general and thus seems not to be able to cover certain specific strategies used in vocabulary learning, Schmitt created a new category for those strategies learners employ when discovering a new word’s meaning without consulting other people, namely Determination Strategies. In

addition, a helpful distinction suggested by Cook and Mayer (1983) and Nation (1990) was incorporated into Schmitt's classification scheme. That is, in terms of the process involved in vocabulary learning, strategies may be divided into two groups: (a) those for the discovery of a new word's meaning and (b) those for consolidating a word once it has been encountered. Table 2.2 better illustrates the complete classification scheme proposed by Schmitt (1997).

Table 2.2

A Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)	Discovery Strategies	Determination Strategies
	Consolidation Strategies	Social Strategies
Social Strategies		
Memory Strategies		
Cognitive Strategies		
		Metacognitive Strategies

2.6.3 Discovery Strategies

Discovery strategies include several determination strategies and social strategies. A learner may discover a new word's meaning through guessing from context, guessing from an L1 cognate, using reference materials (mainly a dictionary), or asking someone else (e.g. their teacher or classmates). There is a natural sense that almost all of the strategies applied to discovery activities could be used as consolidation strategies in the later stage of vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 1997).

2.6.3.1 Guessing through Context

Nation (2001: 232) maintains that "incidental learning via guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning". Over the past two decades, this strategy has been greatly promoted since it seems to "fit in more

comfortably with the communicative approach than other, more discrete, Discovery Strategies” (Schmitt. 1997: 209). Context tends to be more interpreted as simply textual context. Nevertheless, some other important sources of information should also be taken into account when guessing, such as knowledge of the subject being read, or knowledge of the conceptual structure of the topic. In Liu and Nation’s (1985, cited Nation. 2001) study, it is found that a minimum requirement for the guessing to happen is that 95% of the running words are already familiar to the learner. Clarke and Nation (1980, cited Nation. 2001) present an inductive five-step approach to guess, including:

Step 1. Find the part of speech of the unknown word.

Step 2. Look at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplify this context if necessary.

Step 3. Look at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences.

Step 4. Guess.

Step 5. Check the guess.

There are several ways to check the guess:

1. Check that the part of speech of the guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word.
2. Break the unknown word into parts and see if the meaning of the parts relate to the guess.
3. Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Does it make sense in context?
4. Look in a dictionary. (Nation & Coady. 1988: 104-105)

It must be noted here that the use of the word form comes after the context clues have been used. Some studies (e.g. Laufer & Sim. 1985, cited Nation. 2001)

have suggested that learners made wrong guesses probably due to their heavy reliance on word form. When learners make an incorrect guess based on word-part analysis, they may twist their interpretation of the context to support the incorrect guess. Thus, the most difficult part of the guessing strategy is to make learners delay using word form clues until after using contextual information (Nation, 2001).

2.6.3.2 Dictionary Use

Reference materials, primarily a dictionary, can be used in a receptive or a productive skill in language learning. However, since we likely have insufficient time to consult a dictionary during the process of speaking and listening, more look-up work happens during reading and writing. A common situation is that, for example, when a learner meets an unknown word in the text and fails to infer the meaning through context, they might be advised to consult a dictionary. Looking up a word in a dictionary is “far from performing a purely mechanical operation” (Scholfield, 1982: 185); instead, a proficient dictionary user “is often required to formulate and pursue several hypotheses and make use of prior knowledge of various sorts, especially information derived from context” (Scholfield, 1982: 185). Except for locating the unknown word in the alphabetic list, which seems to be the skill most dealt with in respect of training dictionary use, other important facets involving effective dictionary use receive little attention (Scholfield, 1982). Since many lexical items in a language have more than one meaning, learners should be instructed how to reduce multiple options by elimination. Scanning all of the definitions in the entry before deciding which is the one that fits is a good idea proposed by Underhill (1980). After choosing a seemingly reasonable sense from the definitions in the entry, a user then needs to “understand the definition and integrate it into the context where the unknown was

met” (Scholfield. 1982: 190). The most sophisticated parts involving dictionary use arise when none of the senses in the entry seems to fit the context or more than one fits. In these situations, a user may need to infer a meaning that comes from the senses in the entry or “seek further contextual clues in the source text to disambiguate” (Scholfield. 1982: 193). Each of the above skills may be practiced separately through well-designed activities and only in this way can effective dictionary use be maximized and misunderstanding minimized.

2.6.3.3 Word Part Analysis

A large number of English words have derivational forms by adding prefixes or suffixes to the word base. Some studies (e.g. White, Power, & White. 1989; Bauer & Nation. 1993) have confirmed the frequent, widespread occurrence of derivational affixes, which makes it worthwhile learning word parts from the point of view of cost/benefit analysis. Nation (2001: 4) contends that:

A knowledge of affixes and roots has two values for a learner of English: it can be used to help the learning of unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words or to known prefixes and suffixes, and it can be used as a way of checking whether an unfamiliar word has been successfully guessed from context.

The danger of using word part analysis as clues when guessing an unknown word has been mentioned in the previous discussion. Nevertheless, if used properly, this strategy will help the learning of thousands of English words, including high-frequency and low-frequency words, especially academic vocabulary (Nation. 2001). The word part strategy involves two steps. Firstly, learners need to be able to recognize prefixes and suffixes so that they may break the unknown word into parts. Secondly, they need to relate the meaning of the word parts to the dictionary meaning of the word. To achieve this goal, learners have to know the meanings of the common

word parts and “to be able to re-express the dictionary definition of a word to include the meaning of its prefix and, if possible, its stem and suffix” (Nation. 2001: 278).

2.6.4 Consolidation Strategies

2.6.4.1 Memorization Strategies

In general, memorization strategies refer to those involving making connections between the to-be-learned word and some previously learned knowledge, using some form of imagery or grouping. It is held that “the kind of elaborative mental processing that the Depth of Processing Hypothesis (Craik & Lockhart. 1972; Craik & Tulving. 1975) suggests is necessary for long-term retention” (Schmitt. 1997: 213). Thus, memorization strategies play an important role in helping learners to commit new words into memory and in the whole process of vocabulary learning. Schmitt (1997) includes twenty-seven memorization strategies in his 58-item VLS taxonomy. Examples of memorization strategies contain “study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning”, “associate the word with its coordinates”, “use semantic maps”, “group words together within a storyline”, “study the spelling of a word”, “use Keyword Method”, or “use physical action when learning a word”, etc. Among the numerous mnemonics, the Keyword Method is also one of three strategies Nation (1990) proposes to apply when dealing with low-frequency words. This technique involves a learner finding a L1 word which sounds like the target L2 word and creating an image combining the two concepts. A number of studies (e.g. Pressley, Levin & Miller. 1982) have indicated that the Keyword method is an effective method of improving word retrieval.

2.6.4.2 Cognitive Strategies

In Schmitt's (1997) VLS taxonomy, cognitive strategies primarily refer to written and verbal repetition as well as some mechanical means involving vocabulary learning. Although repetition as a learning strategy is not much praised by those supporting the Depth of Processing Hypothesis, it is popular among learners and may help them achieve high levels of proficiency (Schmitt, 1997). In Schmitt's study, for example, up to 76% of Japanese learners reported they used verbal and written repetition as consolidation strategies, making them the second and third most-used strategies separately. Other cognitive strategies involve using some kind of study aids, such as taking notes in class, taping L2 labels onto their respective physical objects, or making a tape recording of word lists and studying by listening. Vocabulary notebooks are also recommended by numerous scholars (e.g. Gairns & Redman, 1986; Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995; Fowle, 2002) to be implemented by learners to facilitate vocabulary acquisition.

2.6.4.3 Metacognitive Strategies

The study by Gu and Johnson (1996) has found that metacognitive strategies are positive predictors of vocabulary size and general English proficiency, showing the significant role the metacognitive strategies play in language learning. Thus, a need is seen to train students to control and evaluate their own learning through various ways, such as using spaced word practice, continuing to study word over time, or self-testing, all of which are included in Schmitt's taxonomy. In this way, learners will take more responsibility for their studies and overall learning effect may be improved. Another important strategy in this group involves the decision to skip or pass a new word when it is judged to be a low frequency one which may not be met

again for a long time. The fact that even a native speaker only knows a portion of the huge amount of words in a language suggests that an efficient L2 learner is supposed to spend their time and efforts on those words most relevant and useful to them.

2.7 Vocabulary in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

2.7.1 Vocabulary and Its Importance

Words are the building blocks in a language. By learning the lexical items, we start to develop knowledge of the target language. Based on our experience of being a language learner, we seem to have no hesitation in recognizing the importance of vocabulary in L2 learning. Meara (1980) points out that language learners admit that they encounter considerable difficulty with vocabulary even when they upgrade from an initial stage of acquiring a second language to a much more advanced level. Language practitioners also have reached a high degree of consensus regarding the importance of vocabulary. The findings in Macaro's survey (2003) indicate that secondary language teachers view vocabulary as a topic they most need research to shed light on to enhance the teaching and learning in their classrooms. Therefore, it may be claimed that the role of vocabulary in L2 learning is immediately recognized and implications for teaching from substantial research are in great demand.

2.7.2 Knowing a Vocabulary Item

Words do not exist as isolated items in a language. That is, words are interwoven in a complex system in which knowledge of various levels of a lexical item is required in order to achieve adequate understanding in listening or reading or produce ideas successfully in speaking and writing. Richards (1976) contends that knowing a lexical item includes knowledge of word frequency, collocation, register,

case relations, underlying forms, word association, and semantic structure. Nation (2001) applies the terms receptive and productive to vocabulary knowledge description covering all the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word. Form, meaning, and use are the three main parts at the most general level. Based on Nation's example "underdeveloped" (2001: 26-28), below his proposed receptive knowledge of a word. Take the word disadvantaged as an example, knowing a word involves:

1. being able to recognize the word when it is heard (**form** – spoken)
2. being familiar with its written form so that it is recognized when it is met in reading (**form**–written)
3. recognizing that it is made up of the parts dis-, -advantage- and -(e)d and being able to relate these parts to its meaning (**form**–word parts)
4. knowing that disadvantaged signals a particular meaning (**meaning**–form and meaning)
5. knowing what the word means in the particular context in which it has just occurred (**meaning**–concept and referents)
6. knowing the concept behind the word which will allow understanding in a variety of contexts (**meaning**–concept and referents)
7. knowing that there are related words like poor, uneducated and deprived (**meaning**–associations)
8. being able to recognize that disadvantaged has been used correctly in the sentence in which it occurs (**use**–grammatical functions)
9. being able to recognize that words such as families, position are typical collocations (**use**–collocations)

10. knowing that disadvantaged is not a high-frequency word (**use**—constraints on use, e.g. register, frequency)

On the other hand, the productive knowledge of a word involves:

1. being able to say it with correct pronunciation including stress (**form**—spoken)
2. being able to write it with correct spelling (**form**—written)
3. being able to construct it using the right word parts in their appropriate forms (**form**—word parts)
4. being able to produce the word to express the meaning 'disadvantaged' (**meaning**—form and meaning)
5. being able to produce the word in different contexts to express the range of meanings of disadvantaged (**meaning**—concept and referents)
6. being able to produce synonyms and opposites for disadvantaged (**meaning**—associations)
7. being able to use the word correctly in an original sentence (**use**—grammatical functions)
8. being able to produce words that commonly occur with it (**use**—collocations)
9. being able to decide to use or not use the word to suit the degree of formality of the situation (**use**—constraints on use, e.g. register, frequency)

The numerous aspects of knowledge constitute the learning burden of a word, namely "the amount of effort required to learn it" (Nation, 2001: 23). Learners from different first language backgrounds thus experience different levels of difficulty in learning a word, depending on how the patterns and knowledge of the word are familiar to them. Generally speaking, the receptive aspects of knowledge and use are

more easily to be mastered than their productive counterparts, but it is not clear why (Nation, 2001).

2.7.3 Current Trends in L2 Vocabulary Teaching

Oxford and Scarcella (1994) propose a new research-based approach to vocabulary teaching after examining relevant research concerning student motivation and need, the complexity of knowing a word, as well as factors that affect L2 vocabulary acquisition. Compared with traditional approaches, in which vocabulary is often taught unsystematically in class and teachers tend to leave their students to learn vocabulary on their own without much instruction or guidance, teachers following this new research-based approach focus on words students are expected to meet frequently, and present words systematically based on a careful consideration of needs analysis. Vocabulary instruction is personalized according to learners' different learning needs, goals, and styles. Since most vocabulary learning takes place outside of the language classroom, learners are also trained to raise their awareness of the knowledge involved in knowing a lexical item and the process of learning a new word. Substantial emphasis on vocabulary learning strategies helps students become independent language learners inside and outside class. Among the numerous vocabulary learning strategies, guessing from context is held to be the most useful one. However, some studies (e.g. Pressley, Levin & McDaniel, 1987; Kelly, 1990) indicate that learners seldom guess the correct meanings. In this approach, therefore, teachers guide students to use this strategy effectively and give them opportunities to practice the skill in class. A final point to note is that teachers reduce "decontextualized" vocabulary learning activities in class (e.g. word lists, flashcards) whereas implementing more "partially contextualized" (e.g. word association, visual

and aural imagery, semantic mapping) or “fully contextualized” activities (e.g. reading, listening, speaking, and writing in authentic communication activities).

The arguments mentioned above are mostly supported by Sökmen (1997), commenting that the skill of guessing/infering from context is a useful strategy in vocabulary learning and should be covered in a language classroom. Nevertheless, some potential problems arise if learners mainly acquire vocabulary in this way. For example, acquiring vocabulary through guessing in context is probably a rather slow process given the limited amount of time learners can afford in class. In addition, guessing from context does not necessarily help learners commit the guessed words into their long-term memory. For example, a study of intermediate level adult ESL students by Wesche and Paribakht (1994, cited Sökmen. 1997) shows that learners who read and complete accompanying vocabulary exercises perform better in word acquisition than those who only do extensive reading. As a result, scholars come to call for a greater need of an explicit approach to vocabulary instruction, such as word unit analysis, mnemonic devices, etc. Sökmen (1997) thus states that “the pendulum has swung from direct teaching of vocabulary (the grammar translation method) to incidental (the communicative approach) and now, laudably, back to the middle: implicit and explicit learning” (p.239). In addition, considerable emphasis is put on encouraging independent learning strategies among students so that they know how to continue to learn vocabulary on their own. After experiencing what Resnick (1989) calls a ‘cognitive apprenticeship’, students will acquire some skills to promote the depth of word processing and manage individual vocabulary learning through the model of their teachers (Sökmen. 1997). The time and efforts spent on developing learning strategies will reflect its value afterwards.

2.8 How to Teach the Meaning of Vocabulary

We should focus on the meaning of the phrase “to know a word” which is related to the process of vocabulary learning. Gains and Redman (1986: 13) suggest that to obtain vocabulary consists of: 1) sound and spelling, and 2) stress.

The meanings of words can be communicated or taught in many different ways. The following list includes a number of possibilities (Nation, 1990: 51) by demonstration or pictures:

1. using an object.
2. using a cut – out figure.
3. using gestures.
4. performing an action such as a pantomime.
5. using photographs which depict certain actions or elements of activity.
6. using blackboard drawing or diagrams.
7. using picture from books by verbal explanation.
8. analytical definition.
9. putting new words in a defining context.
10. translating the new words into another language.

The above techniques are one way of teaching the meaning of words. Channell (1988: 85) considers the previous two terms between “strategy” and “vocabulary acquisition”, both of them were accorded that one has receptive use of vocabulary before productive use; “Acquisition of individual vocabulary items consists first of comprehension, then, (for some items only) of comprehension plus production.”

In addition, Nattiger (1988: 62) states that the two steps of performance about “strategy for vocabulary acquisition” which relates to comprehension and production of vocabulary which relies on strategies that permit one to understand words and store them, to commit them to memory, that is, while production concerns strategies that activate one’s storage by retrieving these words from memory, and by using them in appropriate situations.

Waemusa (1993) describes about “strategy for learning vocabulary” as a range of any actions, techniques, tactics, operations, plans, steps or behaviors to include understanding and storing vocabulary into the learners’ memories.

Nation (2001) suggests that, in those cases where a learner lacks of vocabulary knowledge, they may not be able to use the language to communicate. Thus, the teachers and students should accept the importance of building on expanding vocabulary in language learning.

In conclusion, increasing vocabulary knowledge is the most important strategy for language learners. Because they could attain and store most of vocabulary knowledge, they could not only understand what the meaning of English language is, but they also could communicate more effectively with native speakers.

2.9 The Use of Songs in English Language Teaching

The ways teachers interact in the classroom with students have motivational influence on their learning behavior. The use of songs in language learning provides a principle for varieties of classroom activities that would maintain a higher level of motivation and interest among students.

2.9.1 Reasons for Using Songs in the Language Classroom

Firstly, music brings enjoyment to the language classroom setting. Many Language teachers like to use music in their language classrooms as music brings enjoyment and fun to people's lives. Music plays an important role in culture and communication (Murphey. 1990) as "cultures have musical traditions because of the enjoyment that people receive from creating rhythms and expressing their feelings, ideas, thoughts, and cultural values through lyrics" (Abbott. 2002: 10). Music offers "linguistic and cultural elements appropriate for teaching English" (Meloni. 2000: 23).

Secondly, songs motivate language learning. Murphey (1990) and Davanellos (1999) state that music and songs are highly motivating and relaxing. The ready made music material with its conversation language and repetition patterns are what language teachers look for to motivate different types of language learners. It provides variety and fun. Murphey (1990) mentions that "songs can be immensely valuable for developing certain capacities, but they can be many times more valuable if we exploit them creatively to bridge the gap between the pleasurable experience of listening/singing and the communicative use of language" (p.5-8).

Thirdly, songs sustain students' interest in learning. Davanellos (1999) points out that "Songs are highly memorable" (p.13). The length of a song is more manageable for the allocation of time for class instruction when compared to some long comprehensive articles. It is easier to sustain students' interest when students' attention is more focused on the general meaning of the text (Chan. 1997). The repetitive pattern of the songs reinforces learning without loss of motivation (Murphey. 1990) and as Bechtold (1983: 180) notes "songs can help reinforce specific teaching items. Normally songs should not introduce language items; they should

reinforce them” (Bechtold. 1983: 180). Pleasurable learning through songs experience enables students to practice pronunciation (Monreal. 1982), rhythm and stress, syntax and vocabulary as “a good teacher will take precautions to ensure that the language which the song reinforces is natural and useful” (Bechtold. 1983: 181).

2.9.2 Importance of Song Activities in Language Teaching

Murphey (1993: 3-10) suggests that the background of human society consists of poetry and music which forms the basic of the culture unit. All of the principles of using in language teaching, is using song to promote the teaching of culture. In relation to language learning, the use of music and song offers two major benefits for learners. Firstly, music is highly memorable, and secondly, it is highly motivating. It has a special influence on children, adolescents, and young adult learners. Popular music and songs form constitute a powerful subculture with its own rituals. Most people have been surprised how quickly students learn songs. Songs surround us, they are stored in our minds and subconsciously become part of us. This gives many opportunities to improve performances in classroom.

2.9.3 The Objectives of Using Music and Songs in English Teaching

English teachers need to have various kinds of strategies and methods available. Teaching English with music and songs is a good strategy which encourages students to attain knowledge and enjoy learning. Many experts have presented the objectives of teaching English by using songs as follows:

Amphaiphan (1999) states that the objectives of teaching English with songs in classroom are: 1) to teach vocabulary or new structure and language features; 2) to review the lesson; 3) to arrange the promoted lesson activities so as to be more interesting; 4) to teach culture and tradition that is related to that language and song;

5) to have students understand and create positive attitude about principles and theory of music and songs; and 6) to promote the expression of language in group work or individually.

Eken (1996: 46) states that the objectives of using songs in the classroom are:

1) to present a topic, a language point, lexis, etc.; 2) to practice a language point, lexis, etc.; 3) to focus on common learner errors in a more direct way; 4) to encourage extensive and intensive listening; 5) to stimulate discussion of attitudes and feelings; 6) to encourage creativity and use of imagination; 7) to provide a relaxed classroom atmosphere; and 8) to bring variety and fun to learning.

Similar suggestions are also discussed in the writings of Lo and Li (1998).

They say that songs provide a break from classroom routine, and that learning English through songs can help develop a non-threatening classroom atmosphere in which the four language skills can be enhanced. The belief that songs provide enjoyment and lead to increased language skills is also noted by several other authors (Monreal. 1982; Bechtold. 1983; Little. 1983; Lems. 1984; Guglielmino. 1986; Griffee. 1992; Domoney & Harris. 1993; Adamowski. 1997). Similar to Kamsa-ard (1998), he states that the objective of using songs in English teaching is to understand the contents of the subject which help students to increasing remember it. Students find it enjoyable; they do not get bored and also help to have the activity in lesson.

As above examples demonstrated, music and songs are extremely valuable resources used to develop students' abilities in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. They can also be used to teach a variety of language items such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation, rhythm, even the proper use of adjectives, and adverbs. Theoretically, there are two processes involved in listening, and both can be

utilized when songs are used in the classroom. As stated by Cullen (1999), the first is bottom-up processing where the listener builds the sounds into words, sentences and meaning. The second is top-down processing where the listener uses their background knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. Practicing both of these processes is essential for developing listening comprehension.

2.9.4 Using Songs for Teaching Vocabulary

Moskowitz (1978: 172-173) suggests learning language by using songs as a text where students can learn actual linguistic forms. Songs are quite often concerned with pleasant memories which encourage learning. His idea is to invite students to bring their own songs, own musical instruments in the classroom and share them with the class.

Dakin (1985: 14) discusses teaching vocabulary through his book 'Songs and Rhymes'. When teaching English, understanding each word is not as important as understanding the whole sentence. The students will understand new words if the situation is clear. They must learn to distinguish between words of similar meaning, such as table and desk, tall and high, in and into. In addition, they can learn to describe objects and events appropriately, for example, horses gallop but dogs or cats don't, postmen bring the letters, firemen put out fires, and so on. Song lyric can develop comprehensive reading. Each song contains not only the main idea or concept of situation but also it conveys many new words. Language teachers can point out the meaning of new vocabulary that appears in the lyrics related to the main idea. Dakin's conclusions are supported by Janthawimol (1990: 21-25 & 1994: 30-37) who indicates that song lyrics in "Clementine" and "Where Have All the Flowers Gone" can be used for teaching, namely: 1) comprehension practice: understanding; 2) vocabulary,

idioms, structures, and phrases; 3) events related to the reference words; and 4) main idea, supporting details, author's idea both stated or inferred and implications in the song lyrics.

Malkoc (1992) also says that music has a universal appeal. Singing songs can help not only the students to be closer together and create harmony but it can create a happy atmosphere in which language learning can flourish. He suggests selecting and preparing the songs for teaching, not only relate to the age and level of the students, but also relate to the classroom purpose: change of pace, grammar practice, use of idioms in context, reviewing or introducing new vocabulary, pronunciation, meaning, comprehension, and cultural study as well. Language teaching is improved when those teachers try to use some different texts. Further support comes from Grenough (1993). He states that students can benefit from the various aspects of songs. Each song contains many features, which are useful to enhance and challenge students' comprehension of the language besides increasing vocabulary and improving reading capability.

Lo and Li (1998) introduce "Lemon Tree" in their classroom. They suggest four steps for using song in language classes: song dictation, song reading, split song, and word portrait. With the use of songs in activities, they could promote the learning of English, thus stimulating students' interest and enhancing their involvement.

There are several language medias that have been made to explore English vocabulary knowledge. For example, songs which are very interesting for students while they learn in their classes. Many students who are having difficulty in English vocabulary should practice following some lyrics of songs with happiness.

Schmitt and Schmitt (1995) find the expanding Strategies, which include using English Language media, such as songs, movies or newscasts, to learn new vocabulary and making a note of a word and its meanings when listening to a teacher. Moreover, many teenage learners are more relaxed when they learn a second language if they have opportunities to use the words they learn from listening to songs themselves.

The researcher presents a number of classroom activities which combine the use of songs and materials development by learners to show how learner involvement can be maximized by engaging learners in meaningful task design and the efficient exploitation of songs.

Students' reaction was that they showed more interest in learning English through songs, particularly those songs were chosen by them. They were very enthusiastic in designing exercises for their peers and felt great pride in sharing their sessions. The results revealed that the activities had helped creating plenty of teaching materials through teacher-student collaboration.

2.9.5 The Principle of Selecting Music and Songs in Teaching

Songs should be carefully selected for the adult ESL classroom. Lems (1996) and Poppleton (2001) suggest that song lyrics should be clear and loud, not submerged in the instrumental music. The vocabulary load for the song should be appropriate to the proficiency level. For example, Led Zeppelin's "Stairway to Heaven" (1971) with its vivid imagery and possibilities for multiple interpretations-might be successful only with an advanced-level class. With other learners, however, its fast pace, obscure references, and lack of repetition could prove troublesome, as could the word inversion in lines such as, "There walks a lady we all know." (Poppleton. 2001)

English songs can provide rich and varied resources in EFL classrooms; however, the song-based lessons do not easily go well. Thus, to select suitable materials seems very important for teachers. English songs considered suitable must meet the following criteria; the melodies should be simple and beautiful so as to be excellent pedagogical devices for motivating students; the style of music should be to students' taste; taking account of the social and cultural norms of society; and the lyrics of the song should be easily understood and the song can serve specific teaching purposes. Maess and Koelsch (2001) show that, songs can serve as the method to teach selected content. Thus, teachers can use song selectively and purposely to create a learning environment; to build listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing skills; to increase vocabulary; and to expand cultural knowledge. This digest looks briefly at research and offers strategies for using music in the adult ESL classroom. Neurologists have found that musical and language processing occur in the same area of the brain, and there appear to be parallels in how musical and linguistic syntax are processed.

In one study, college students demonstrated improved short-term spatial reasoning ability after listening to Mozart. This was dubbed the "Mozart effect" in the popular press (Rauscher & Shaw. 1993).

Adult learners in South Africa, exposed to instrumental music during an intensive English course, showed benefits in language learning (Puhl. 1989). Many educators report success using instrumental music as a warm up and relaxation tool, as a background for other activities, and as the inspiration for writing activities (Eken. 1996). This article presents a number of classroom activities which combine the use of songs and materials development by learners to show how learner involvement can

be maximized by engaging learners in meaningful task design and the efficient exploitation of songs.

Pongsiwapai (1997) states that choosing songs for teaching is very important, teachers should consider these things as follows:

1. Class level, age, and ability of students.
2. Melodiousness, the rhythm should not be too fast or too slow.
3. The language is not too difficult; the words in the song are clear and meaningful.
4. It should be a song that bring about feeling, imaginary and can be sung along too.

Amphaiphan (1999) states that choosing song for teaching has to consider about the content that teacher is going to teach which it is related to topic, skill, conversation and reading or writing parts, where should be placed in the step of doing activities. Vocabularies or situations that students hear should have been previously learned. Teacher should know what kind of activity should be set, what aids should be used and whether they are suitable for the place or not.

2.9.6 Advantages of Using English Songs

2.9.6.1 Popular English Songs are Motivating

Popular songs touch the lives of students, and grow out of their natural experiences and interests. All popular songs are eternally occupied with variations on the same themes of love, friendship, joy, sorrow, dreams, and the rest, which are the common by sharing feelings of humans. Therefore, more time and attention to pop music in an English curriculum would increase students' motivation because classroom activities would use their knowledge, their music, and their language.

English songs offer a change from routine EFL classroom activities by providing fun and creating an active atmosphere. Singing English songs is entertaining and relaxing. Learning English through songs also provides a non-threatening atmosphere for students, who usually are tense when speaking English in a formal classroom setting. In this way, students have strong motivation to be involved in the classroom activities. Meanwhile, English songs supply authentic and real-life materials, which help Chinese students understand native speakers of English. As cited by Domoney (1999), while meaningful context and background are provided for communicative activities by various English songs, students are encouraged to engage in using their knowledge to express their own opinions. And the teacher is able to insert more substance into the class and build relationships with his students as well.

2.9.6.2 English Songs Contain Linguistic Information

According to the communicative language teaching theory, the primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse (Widdowson, 1978). Students can benefit a lot from English songs if they learn to appreciate them because good English songs can teach them the language, the culture as well as art.

Therefore, pop song lyrics can serve as entertaining contexts for English learners to master the usage of some language points and acquire some cultural background. Songs not only can motivate students but also contain rich linguistic information, including pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, rhetoric and language sense.

Teachers can teach the students 'parallelism' with the help of song. As stated above, songs contain rich linguistic knowledge. According to the theory about

learning, learning takes place in many ways and all sorts of learning are going on all the time. Sometimes, it is intentional, as when students acquire information presented in a classroom or when they look something up in an encyclopedia. Sometimes, it is unintentional, as when they listen to music. Therefore, it is advisable that English teachers use pop songs because the lyrics may help students acquire those language components through unintentional learning.

2.9.6.3 English Songs Contain Historical and Cultural Knowledge

In many parts of the world, pop music is a primary leisure resource for young people. Pop music features in young people's lives in a variety of different ways and in a diverse range of contexts: from campus studios, cinemas and TV commercials to what Japanese music theorist Hosokawa (1984) refers to as the 'autonomous and mobile' form of listening facilitated through the invention of the personal stereo such as walkman, tape recorder and so on. Listening to pop music can make students more aware of the culture they are involving.

Popular songs carry rich historical or social knowledge with them. Pop songs ten years ago may sound out-dated to modern students' ears while today's pop songs will be regarded either as classics or rubbish in the future. Exploration of the reasons why some certain kind of music is popular at a certain time and deserted at another time can provide much background knowledge for both teachers and students. Therefore, pop songs can also be used to introduce social changes as well as cultural notes to students.

2.10 The Role of Teachers in Teaching with Songs

For the role of teachers who want to teach successfully with songs. The preparation before teaching is very important. Ampaipan (2002: 13-19) suggests the good activities for teachers as below:

1. Choosing songs appropriately for the levels.
2. Study the detail of songs.
3. Practice correctly about pronunciation.
4. Practice correctly about singing that songs.
5. Practice correctly about action of the songs
6. Study the steps of teaching with songs
7. Plan the lesson plans of teaching.
8. Prepare the materials.
9. Teach along the steps of lesson plans.
10. Adapt the songs to other contents.

In addition, Dechakoop (1999: 98-99) states the role of teacher to teach with songs:

1. Choosing the place which is suitable for activities.
2. Should be good emotions for fun activities to join with students.
3. Warm and fair for every student in class.
4. Care about the different of students differences.
5. Should prepare the lesson plans with obvious objectives.
6. Observe and take care of the shy students.
7. Keep students silent by mime, gesture and action.
8. Motivate students with be nice words and gestures.

9. Finish with songs or games for appreciation.

To sum up from above, teachers should be aware about the requirements to do for songs activities to enhance language teaching.

2.11 The Steps of Teaching with Songs

Murphey (2006: 94) suggests the steps of teaching songs in class:

1. Choose a song that the students have shown interest in.
2. Write out the lyrics and make copies for the whole class.
3. Hand out the song sheets you have prepared.
4. Play the song you have chosen.
5. Encourage the students to sing along with the teacher or the tape. Stop the tape at intervals for the students to learn and repeat the tune.
6. After the students have learnt a song, there are many ways of performing it which are fun and reinforce learning.

The department of national elementary suggested about six steps of teaching song in classes as follows:

1. Choose the songs in accordance with objectives and time.
2. Write the lyric of songs on the blackboard or show the chart of lyrics.
3. Set the groups read the lyrics each line, discuss the meaning together.
4. Play the songs by the recorder cassette / teachers sing 1-2 times.
5. Sing after teacher line by line 2-3 times.
6. Sing together and act out.

In terms of steps of teaching with songs, the limit from the elementary of Chulalongkorn University suggest that as follows:

1. Say the lyrics line by line, and then the teachers describe the meaning.
2. The teachers sing the songs 1 time. Students only listen and pay attention to the melodies, and tunes of the songs.
3. Repeat after teacher line by line.
4. Repeat after teacher stanza by stanza.
5. Sing the songs together and repeat until fluently.

The department of national elementary suggested about six steps of teaching song in classes as follows:

1. Choose the songs in accordance with objectives and time.
2. Write the lyric of songs on the blackboard or show the chart of lyrics.
3. Set the groups read the lyrics each line, discuss the meaning together.
4. Play the songs by the recorder cassette / teachers sing 1-2 times.
5. Sing after teacher line by line 2-3 times.
6. Sing together and act out.

As mentioned above, the teachers should do those steps which are suitable in each class for enhance the students who learn language through songs.

2.12 Previous Studies about Using Songs to Enhance English Vocabulary

In terms of using songs to enhance learning English, there are many scholars and researchers conducted about this field. The previous studies involving with using songs are presented as follows:

Suksamiti (1994) compared the achievement and opinions about English language learning of Prathomsuksa 6 students taught by using supplementary songs and those taught by teacher's book. The samples of her research were 60 students

who were studying in the second semester, 1993 academic year at Wichakorn School under Bangkok Metropolis Authority. They were divided into 2 groups; 30 students as the experimental group and 30 students as the control group. The research instruments consist of (1) 20 lesson plans with supplementary songs; (2) the English language achievement test; and (3) the English learning opinion questionnaire. The results of the research were (1) the achievement on English learning language of students who were taught by using supplementary songs was higher than that of students who were taught by teacher's book at the level of significance .05 and effective size equal to .80; (2) the opinion of students who were taught by using supplementary songs better than that of students who were taught by teacher's book at the level significance .01.

Punchaoren (1995) studied the development and test the efficiency of a supplementary instructional package of songs for teaching English to Mattayomsuksa Four students, to compare the students' listening abilities before and after by using the constructed instructional package of songs, and to survey the students' opinions toward the constructed instructional package. The findings revealed that (1) the students' achievements on the instructional package of songs was 86.12 percent on the formative listening test, while they achieved 81.18 percent on the posttest. The efficiency of the instructional package of songs was at a very good level (higher than the 75 / 75 criterion); (2) the students' achievement in listening after using the ten lessons instructional package of songs was significantly higher than that before using the instructional package of songs at the 0.05 level; and (3) the students' opinions toward the ten lessons instructional package of songs were highly positive.

Janjaroen (1998) investigated the attitudes of the Mattayomsuksa 4 students towards learning English through songs at Kaen Nakhon Witayalai School. She found that what students like doing most when they had some free time was “listening to music and songs” and the songs they like listening to most are “pop songs”. Listening is definitely the most improved skill while the other skills – reading, speaking, and writing – show positive results respectively.

Kakir (2000) examined the current situation of teaching English through songs in primary schools of Muğla / Turkey. The study was based on a questionnaire which was administered to English teachers and 4th and 5th grade students of primary schools in Muğla in order to find answers to such questions as “In teaching English to what extent are songs used?”, “What are the problems involved regarding the content of syllabus” and “What are the suggestions and views put forward by the teachers and students as to teaching English through songs?”. The participants are 16 English teachers and 393 4th and 5th grade students from 11 primary schools in Muğla. Insights gained by the teachers and students are included and evaluated in the study. While assessing the data collected, descriptive method is used.

Phanchan’s (2002) found that English listening and speaking achievements and opinions of 60 Mattayomsuksa four students of Rachineeburana School, Nakorn Pathom, during the second semester of the academic year 2002, learned by using songs as a teaching instrument and a conventional instruction. He randomly divided the subjects into two groups: an experimental group (n = 30) and a controlled group (n = 30). The instruments used for collecting data were (1) two types of lesson plans using as a teaching for the experimental group and conventional lesson plans for the controlled group; (2) the English achievement tests; and (3) a questionnaire used for

students' opinions toward learning by using songs as a teaching instrument. The results of the study found that Mattayom four students' achievement in listening and speaking taught by songs was not significantly higher than of the students who were taught by conventional teaching methods and the students' opinions toward the teaching by using songs were highly positive.

Dee (2003) studied to compare the students' vocabulary knowledge and creative writing ability before and after using song activities. The target group was forty-one certificate of vocational students enrolled in supplementary English course (SE 302) in the second semester of the academic year 2002 at Chiangmai Commercial College. The research instruments consisted of 10 lesson plans using song activities, the vocabulary test and the creative writing test. The finding showed that the students' vocabulary knowledge and creative writing ability were increased after using song activities.

These studies mentioned above claimed that teaching vocabulary by using English songs and through hand puppets as the media are interested. Dealing with the characteristics of young learner students, teachers can use songs to teach vocabulary to students. The researcher believes that songs are especially good for introducing vocabulary because songs provide a meaningful context for the vocabulary. By using puppets, it is expected that the teacher will be able to motivate them to learn and pay attention to the material, so that they will not get bored.

2.10 Summary of the Chapter

From the above reviewed literature, many researchers dealing with song were found, which learners use when they learn vocabulary. Thus, this study tried to show

that, the promotion of songs can help the language learners for understanding the vocabulary learning and supporting their memories learning in classroom. In the next chapter, Chapter Three, the methodological approach and the instruments are discussed.

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