CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, relevant literature will be reviewed, underlying the relevance to the issues investigated in this paper. Firstly, the research background of language learning strategies will be discussed. The second section reviews the established taxonomy of learning strategies while the third section aims to map out a theoretical framework for vocabulary learning strategies concerning the most commonly used language learning strategies among learners in various learning contexts. Also, the history in this review provides vocabulary learning developed with relation to literacy theory and presents characteristics of background knowledge for each type of vocabulary learning strategies. Then the researcher reviews the selected reports that describe the current characteristics of vocabulary learning research. Finally, this chapter ends with summarize the research on language learning strategies used by many researchers.

2.1 Background of Language Learning Strategies

The term "strategy" is of military origin where it refers to carefully designed plans for military operations (Oxford. 1990: 7). When applied to a non-military setting like school learning, the strategy concept has been taken on a new meaning and has been transformed into learning strategies. Gagne (1985; cited in Gu. 2005: 9), first defines learning strategies as the control or executive processes that oversee the whole process of information processing.

At the onset of the research on learning strategies, there was no theory and few empirical investigations into the nature of learning strategies and their influence on second language acquisition (O'Malley & Chamot. 1990: 2). However, there has been a dramatic proliferation of research concerned with the features of learning strategies, taxonomy of learning strategies and the possible learning outcomes resulting from these strategies in the last several decades. Research efforts concentrating on the "good language learner" identified strategies reported by students or observed in language learning situations that appear to contribute to learning. In general, these efforts manifested that students do apply learning strategies while learning a second language and that these strategies can be described and classified (O'Malley & Chamot. 1990: 3). Therefore, different taxonomies of learning strategies will be reviewed in the following section, which offer a sounder theoretical basis for contrastive analysis.

2.2 Defining Language Learning Strategies

There are different definitions for language learning strategies. For example, Takala (1996 cited in Oxford. 1990: 8) determines the word "strategy": "Strategies are taken to be the behaviors that the learners engage in during learning that are intended to influence cognitive and affective processing." In addition, as O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) put it, learning strategies are thoughts or behavior the learners use to comprehend, learn or retain new information. Carroll (1981: 126) describes learning strategy to be "a choice that the learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning". Ellis (1985: 165) points out that native language speakers use the same strategy types as learners of second language.

However, there are differences in the frequency of strategy use between native speakers and non-native speakers.

Even though some scholars agree that language learning strategies can be unconscious, Cohen(1998:4) and Oxford (1990: 12) state that consciousness distinguishes strategies from the processes that are not strategic. Cohen continues that the element of choice is an important factor in language learning strategies and therefore there cannot be strategies which are unconscious. However, Oxford points out that learning strategies are usually seen as intentional and conscious actions made by the learner in order to take control of their own learner. However, in contrast to Cohen's view, Oxford state that some strategies can become automatic and unconscious when used for long period of time.

Learning strategies are not always easy to notice. They can also be taught and, in addition, language learning strategies are flexible and influenced by a variety of factors. Oxford (1990: 7) defines language learning strategies as steps taken by students to enhance their own learning. According to her, language learning strategies are important since they create active and self-directed involvement and help to develop communicative competence.

According to Oxford (1990: 8), language learning strategies also allow the learners to become more self-directed, expand the role of teachers, are problem-oriented and are specific actions taken by the learner. He continues that they also involve many aspects of the learners; they are not just the cognitive aspects. This means that language learning strategies support learning both directly and indirectly. The strategies which involve direct learning and use of subject matter,

which in this case is a new language, are direct strategies whereas strategies which contribute to learning indirectly are called indirect strategies.

The processes involved when using second language knowledge consist of production strategies, reception strategies and communication strategies. Production strategies and reception strategies are used when trying to use existing knowledge of the second language efficiently with minimal effort. On the other hand, communication strategies are used when the first attempt to use language in getting the message though fails. Communication strategies are likely to involve greater effort and therefore they are more conscious than production and reception strategies (Ellis. 1985: 165).

According to Ellis (1985: 103), learning strategies and techniques can be divided into two groups: those involved in studying the second language and those involved in obtaining second language input. In this study the former group is the main interest. Oxford (1990: 1) points out that even though learning strategies have been studied only for the past few decades, they have actually been used for thousands of years. O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 3) also point out that in the early stages of learning strategy research attention was mainly paid to differences between successful and unsuccessful language learners and the characteristics of good language learners. In addition, also factors influencing strategy choice were taken into consideration.

Many recent studies on L2 vocabulary concentrate on individual strategies or a small number of them (Fan. 2003: 225). According to Catalán and María (2003: 56), during the last two decades studies of language learning strategies have aimed at

determining the characteristics of good and poor language learners and the difference between language learning and communication learning strategies.

2.3 Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies

Research on learning strategies in the domain of second language acquisition may be viewed as a part of the general area of research on mental processes and structures that constitutes the field of cognitive science. The term "learning strategy", was defined by Wenden and Rubin (1987) in their valuable work in the late eighties. First of all, the term learning strategies refers to "language learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language" (1987: 6). Secondly, the term also refers to "what learners know about the strategies they use, i.e. their strategic knowledge" (1987: 6). Finally, the term learning strategies indicates "what learners know about aspects of their language learning other than the strategies they use" (1987: 7). These definitions clearly demonstrate the different dimensions of learning strategies. In the discussion of different views on strategies, Naiman, Fröhlichand Stern (1975) acknowledged "a consensus on a definition of the term is lacking". Eight years later, Bialystok (1983: 100) made an almost identical statement, "there is little consensus on the literature concerning either the definition or the identification of language learning strategies". Table 2.1 shows chronologically how the term evolved in our field through the years. It is also important to note that these comments indicate the need of reaching an agreement on the definition of learning strategies in future studies.

Table 2.1

Defining Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Authors	What are LLS?	What are LLS for?
Rubin (1975: 43)	techniques or devices	to acquire knowledge
Bailystok (1983: 76)	methods/conscious enterprises	for exploiting available information to increase the proficiency of L2
Naiman et al. (1978: 2)	general, more or less deliberate approaches to learning	
Cohen (1998: 110)	mental operations	to accomplish learning tasks
Rubin (1987: 19)	set of operations, steps, plans, routines what learners do	to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, & use of information; to regulate learning
Wenden (1987a: 6-7)	- learning behaviors - strategic knowledge - knowledge about learning	to learn and regulate the learning on an L2
O'Malley & Chamot (1990: 1)	special thoughts or behaviors	to help comprehend, learn, or retain new information
Oxford (1990: 8)	specific actions	to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations

Source: Gu (2005: 32-33)

Despite a lack of general consensus on the definition of learning strategies, there is by now a substantial body of research outlining and categorizing the behaviors learners exhibit and describing the thought processes they engender while learning a foreign or second language, for example, O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990) and Schmitt (1997). It is acknowledged that there is a divergence among the various taxonomies of learning strategies yet the underlying educational goal is identical – to help learners become not only more efficient at learning and

using their second language but also more capable of self-directing these endeavors (Wenden & Rubin. 1987: 8).

2.3.1 O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

In the early 90s, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) proposed a new classification of language learning strategies. They divided learning strategies into three major types: namely metacognitive, cognitive and social / affective (p. 43). The first type includes strategies for overviewing the processes of language use and learning, and for taking steps to efficiently plan and regulate those processes. Meanwhile, cognitive strategies are those which involve the manipulation of information in an immediate task for the purpose of acquiring or retaining that information. Finally, learners also acquire the language by means of dealing with interpersonal relationships and controlling one's emotional constraints. In this regard, these strategies are generally subsumed under social or affective strategies. The system clearly shows that each of these major categories is interdependent and equally important to the process of language acquisition.

2.3.2 Oxford's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

One commonly used technical definition is that learning strategies are operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information (Oxford. 1990: 8). Nonetheless, Oxford criticized this definition as it fails to convey the complexity and richness of learning strategies. She expanded the definition by saying that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective,

and more transferable to new situations" (1990: 8). In addition, she also summarized the features of language learning strategies in the following table.

Table 2.2

Features of Language Learning Strategies

Language Learning Strategies
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.

Source: Oxford (1990: 9)

This review of the features of language learning strategies is a useful background to the new strategy classification system, discussed next.

Oxford (1990) developed the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), which is different in several ways from earlier attempts to classify strategies.

This strategy system is more comprehensive, detailed and systematic in linking individual strategies, as well as strategy groups, with each of the four language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing). She classifies strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. The former includes memory, cognitive, and compensation whereas the latter includes metacognitive, affective, and social strategies (p. 14). Figure 1 indicates that there is mutual support between direct strategies and indirect strategies, and that each strategy group is capable of connecting with and assisting every other strategy group.

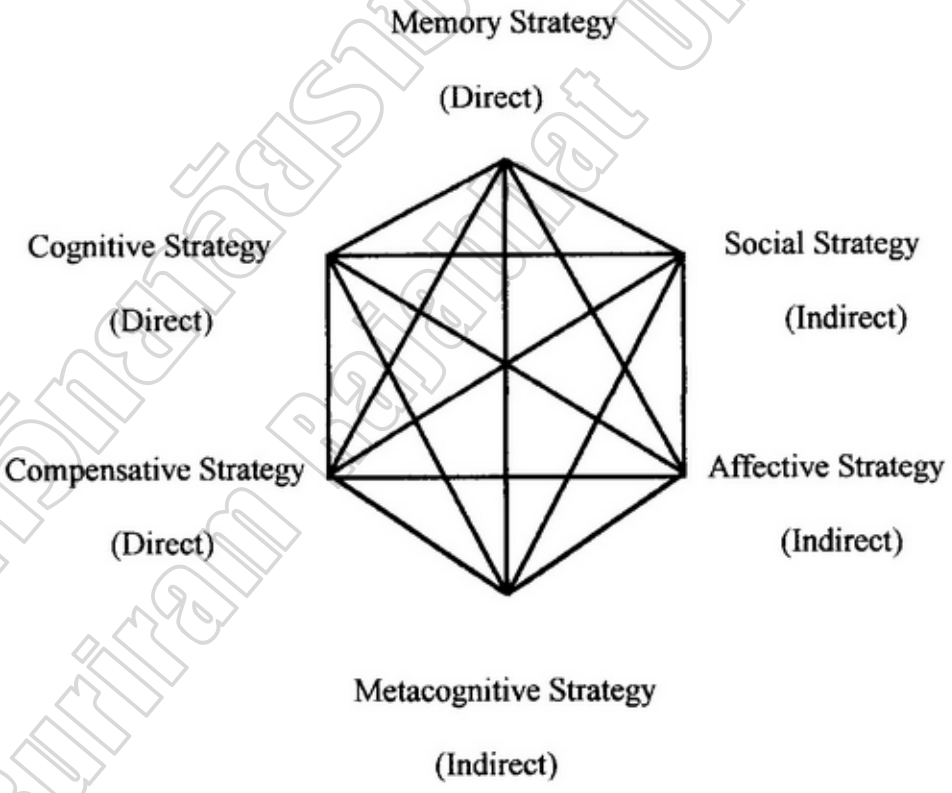

Figure 2.1 Interrelationships between Direct and Indirect Strategies and among the Six Strategy Groups.

Source: Oxford (1990: 15)

The first major class, direct strategies, works with the language itself in a variety of specific tasks and situations. According to Oxford (1990: 14), these strategies are particularly important for learners to acquire the second or foreign language. The direct class is composed of memory strategies for remembering and retrieving new information, cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language, and compensation strategies for using the language despite knowledge gap.

In contrast, the second major strategy class – indirect strategies for general management of learning – is made up of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions, and social strategies for learning with others (p. 15).

It is important to note that Oxford's scheme does not only include six strategy groups but it subdivides them into a total of 19 strategy sets and 62 subsets, 193 strategies in total when combined with the four language skills. Given the comprehensive structure of Oxford's strategy system, a large overlap naturally exists among the strategy groups in the system presented here and the system also fails to categorize the discrete aspect of language such as vocabulary-specific strategies.

2.3.3 Schmitt's (1997) Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Of the more established systems, the one developed by Schmitt (1997: 205) seems best able to provide a classification scheme for a wide range of L2 vocabulary learning strategies. Seeing the inadequacy of categorizing vocabulary-specific strategies in Oxford's system, Schmitt adapts and expands the previous work. Schmitt's taxonomy aims to focus on vocabulary learning and minimizes the potential overlap in classification of strategies.

Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies is organized in two groups: Discovery Strategies and Consolidation Strategies. Discovery Strategies for learners to discover a new word meaning fall into four main types: guessing or lexical inferencing, analysis of word features, use of the dictionary and asking other people (p. 206). He believed that when encountering a word for the first time, learners must use their prior knowledge of the target language, contextual clues, or reference materials to figure out the new meaning, or seek help from someone who knows to gain initial information about a new word. Learners have to get the word form and meaning and then consolidate the word form and meaning in memory before they can use the word. As a result, Discovery Strategies are the crucial building blocks of successful vocabulary learning.

On the contrary, once learners have gained initial information about a new word, it is worthwhile to make some effort to remember it. Consolidation Strategies aim to commit the words learned to memory. They include word association, grouping, semantic-processing strategies, the keyword method and repetition strategies.

This simple distinction results in a more comprehensive system of vocabulary learning strategies in which Discovery Strategies are subdivided into Determination and Social Strategies whereas Consolidation Strategies come from the Social, Memory, Cognitive, or Metacognitive Strategy groups. A detailed description of the five vocabulary learning strategy groups will be reviewed as follows.

A learner may use Determination Strategies such as analyzing part of speech, analyzing affixes and roots, checking the L1 cognate or even guessing from textual context to discover the meaning of a new word. However, Clark and Nation (1980)

warn that analysis of word parts can lead to misinterpretation and thus suggest that this strategy is better used as a confirmation of guesses. Checking for the L1 cognate may seem feasible especially for words that are borrowed from other languages as these loanwords often retain similarities in form and meaning. Though cognates can be a reliable resource for both guessing the meaning of and remembering new words, the success depends greatly on the perceived distance between the two languages by the learners (Ringom. 1986). Other promising ways include finding a word's meaning from reference materials such as a dictionary or using word lists and flash cards which are commonplace among learners. Social Strategies use interaction with other people to improve language learning. Learners may ask someone who knows to help discover a new meaning, teachers and peers are often in this position. For example, teachers may give the L1 translation, a synonym, a definition by paraphrase or use the new word in a sentence, or by any combination of these (Schmitt. 1997: 210). There are pros and cons of giving the L1 translation and thus they must be taken into consideration. One obvious advantage of L1 translation is that it is usually effective. Learners can easily understand the translations and make possible the transfer of all the knowledge a student has of the L1 word (collocations, associations, etc.) onto the L2 equivalent. However, the drawback of this practice is that many translation pairs are not exact equivalents, so that the translation may not be accurately transferred.

Looking at vocabulary learning from another perspective, learners need to acquire and use the appropriate Consolidation Strategies to remember the word after the first encounter. According to Ebbinghaus (1993), the forefather of modern understanding of human memory, knowledge rapidly decreases immediately after

learning, but a plateau is reached about an hour later whereby the speed of forgetting gets lower and slower.

One of the Consolidation Strategies that can enhance retention of a new word is Social Strategies. Nation (1997) and Dansereau (1988) suggest that cooperative group learning can promote active processing of information and cross modeling / imitation and prepare the participants for, team activities outside the classroom (cited in Schmitt. 1997: 211). As suggested by Kramsch (1979 as cited in Schmitt. (1997: 211), another social strategy involves students enlisting teachers to check their work for accuracy, such as flash cards and word lists, which facilitates independent learning outside class time.

Schmitt (1997) explains that most memory strategies involve relating the word to be retained with prior knowledge. For example, studying new words with pictures of their meaning, associating the word with its coordination, synonymy, or antonymy, using a scale for gradable adjectives or even grouping words together within a storyline. Of the various and many mnemonics, the Keyword Method is perhaps the most researched mnemonic strategy of all. This method combines the phonological forms and meanings of L1 and L2 words in order to facilitate recall. For instance, a learner finds a L1 word which sounds like the target L2 word, i.e. the English word cat for the Japanese word katana (sword). Then an image combining the two concepts is created, such as a cat waving a sword. The Keyword Method has proved to be highly effective in enhancing the recall of words (Atkinson & Raugh. 1975; Pressley, Leven & Delaney. 1982). However, this method is argued to be difficult for many L2 learners.

Cognitive strategies resemble memory strategies, but are not focused so specifically on manipulative mental processing; they include repetition and using mechanical means to study vocabulary. Written and verbal repetitions over time are common strategies among language learners. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) once make a comment on written and verbal repetition. O'Malley and Chamot claim that they are so entrenched that students often resist giving them up to try other ones. Another kind of cognitive strategy is using study aids. Taking notes in class and making use of any special vocabulary sections in their textbooks can help them study target words. As a result, vocabulary notebooks have been promoted by a number of writers (Allen. 1983; McCarthy et. al. 1988). This practice is effective because it allows learners to create their own personal structure for newly learned words, and also affords the chance for additional exposure during review.

The framework of the present study is adapted from Schmitt (1997) in which the research instruments are drawn on the two distinct groups of vocabulary learning strategies: the Discovery Strategies and Consolidation Strategies.

2.4 History of Vocabulary Research

The history of research on vocabulary instruction is complex. Until 1950, vocabulary research focused on four areas: (1) vocabulary size at various ages, (2) the relationship between vocabulary and intelligence, (3) identifying the most useful words to know, and (4) identifying a core of words that make text more understandable (Irvin. 1990). However, the study of vocabulary was one of the weaker areas in early research for English language learners while the study about grammatical and phonological structure had been dominant throughout the 1940s,

1950s, and 1960s. Charles Fries' Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign language (1945; cited in Decarrico. 2001) was the most influential study for this tradition based on behaviorist psychology. It valued audio-lingual method as a good way to learn second languages by paying systematic attention to intensive drills of basic sentence patterns and their pronunciation (Decarrico. 2001). The basic assumption was that once students learned the structural frames, lexical items could be learned later to fill the grammatical slot in the frames. Direct method or audio-lingual method in this period emphasized oral skills, accurate production, and limited vocabulary knowledge as a way to build good language use habits. From this perspective, good language habits would eventually lead to an increased vocabulary.

Revolutionary changes in linguistic theory were brought by Chomsky (1957). In his work, language teaching was viewed as a rationalist's framework rather than the behaviorists' notion of habit formation. The central assumption was that language is represented as a speaker's mental grammar, in other words, a set of abstract rules for generating grammatical sentences. Since, language learning was considered as rule acquisition, not habit formation, vocabulary was somewhat important; however, rule learning still has a place in language learning (Decarrico. 2001).

In 1970's, Hymes's concept of communicative competence emphasized the sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors governing effective use of language (Hymes. 1972). He was especially concerned about using language for meaningful communication, including the appropriate use of language in particular social contexts. Since the communicative language teaching promoted fluency over accuracy, lexical competence was a central part of communicative competence. In other words, teaching vocabulary started to become a central part of teaching

language in contrast to early language research. However, during the 1970s contemporary linguistics and cognitive psychology supported the psycholinguistic approach, which focused on guessing the meaning of unknown words through the use of contextual clues (Coady. 1993). Psycholinguistic studies provided insights concerning mental processes involved in vocabulary learning, such as memory, storage, and retrieval.

In the 1980s there seems to have developed a reaction against the psycholinguistic model. The research trend in this period emphasized the role of lexis in large units of language beyond the single word-form. The meaning has to be reinterpreted constantly throughout a text because of the interaction of a number of text features such as lexical cohesion, subordinators, pragmatic consideration, coherence relations, and genre structures (Coady. 1993). This interactive approach argues that the proficient readers utilize both bottom-up and top-down processing, and that successful comprehension is the result of an interaction between both types of processing. Within this approach, schema theory emphasizes the role of preexisting knowledge which the learner relates to the input from the text interactively. Thus, interactional activities in this framework emphasize teaching students to take advantage of all of their prior knowledge. As a result, vocabulary acquisition is viewed in terms of the students' background knowledge of concepts as well as of word forms.

In addition, in the 70's and 80s' the communicative approach and interactional approach focused on implicit, incidental learning. Incidental vocabulary learning is defined as learning that occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as on understanding a text or using language for communicative purpose. In a review of

144 studies, Krashen (1989) argues that incidental acquisition of vocabulary occurs through the operation of his Input Hypothesis, which proposes that learners acquire a second language when they are exposed to comprehensible input.

A number of studies which support this hypothesis have shown that guessing from context can lead to vocabulary acquisition. Raptis (1997) shows that many current second language reading textbooks promote the assumption that vocabulary is best learned incidentally by guessing from context. Based on this learning theory, teachers encouraged students to recognize clues to word meanings in context and to use monolingual dictionaries rather than bilingual dictionaries, and textbooks emphasized inferring word meaning from context.

In the review of incidental vocabulary learning, Huckin and Coady (1999) state some advantages of incidental vocabulary learning over direct introduction: (1) it is contextualized, giving the learner a paired-associate exercises, (2) it is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities - vocabulary acquisition and reading - to occur at the same time, and (3) it is more individualized and learner-based because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading materials. However, Huckin and Coady in the same article point out some limitations of incidental learning: (1) guessing is imprecise because many reading tasks call for precise interpretation, (2) accurate guessing require accurate word recognition and careful monitoring because there are many deceptive lexical items that can easily mislead the learner, (3) guessing takes time and thus slows down the reading process, (4) guessing is effective only when the context is well understood and almost all of the surrounding words in the text are known, (5) guessing requires good reading strategies, (6) guessing often does not translate into acquisition, and (7)

guessing is not effective in the acquisition of multiword lexical items. In spite of the above, they concluded that the incidental learning is still seen as an important part of vocabulary building, especially among advanced learners, but it requires a great deal of prior training in basic vocabulary, word recognition, metacognition, and subject matter. In fact, most scholars agree that, except for the first few thousand most common words, vocabulary learning predominantly occurs through extensive reading incidentally, with the learner guessing at the meaning of unknown words.

However, Hulstijn (1992) reports that the number of new words learned incidentally is relatively small compared to the number of words learned intentionally. Incidental vocabulary learning tends to be incremental and slow even with the use of a dictionary and the inferring strategy. The study by Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996) point out why second language learners could not have enough learning incidentally. The authors suggest the following reasons: (1) learner failed to notice the new words, (2) they noticed the new word, but ignored them, (3) they do not focus their attention on the unknown word, (4) they infer the meaning from context incorrectly, and (5) the low frequency of most unknown prevents effective learning. It was emphasized by Hulstijn (1992) that both incidental and intentional learning should exist together in vocabulary instruction for second language learners.

In fact, Chall's work (1987) suggests that decisions to use incidental versus conscious approaches can only be made by considering students' ages and proficiency levels. Coady (1993) also concludes after exploring the basic argument for a mixed approach to vocabulary acquisition in ESL that the basic or core vocabulary should be taught, but less frequent vocabulary will be learned " naturally" via context, but even in that case, techniques for that purpose should be taught. Carter and McCarthy

(1988) concludes that a mixture of approaches should be adopted since there are advantages and disadvantages between context-based inferential strategies and some other explicit vocabulary learning approaches such as key-word techniques, or translation in pairs, or using a monolingual or bilingual dictionary.

In summary, in spite of the evident role of reading in much advanced vocabulary acquisition, there are some problems from the perspective of effective learning. In incidental acquisition through reading, the acquisition process is slow, often misguided, and seemingly haphazard, with differential outcomes for different learners, word types, and context. According to Sternberg (1987), even if most vocabulary is learned from context, one should not conclude that this is the fastest or most efficient way of learning specific vocabulary.

2.5 Characteristics of Current Vocabulary Research

Folse (2004) points out eight categories for recent trends in vocabulary research: (1) How many words and which words do learners need to know? (2) How do second language learners' vocabularies develop? (3) Why are some words more difficult to learn than other? (4) Is second language vocabulary learned more easily through natural context or through direct instruction? (5) Which vocabulary learning strategies do students employ? (6) Which types of practice activities promote vocabulary learning? (7) What effect do certain types of marginal glosses and internet annotations have on incidental vocabulary learning? (8) How does using a dictionary impact vocabulary acquisition? All the questions deal with vocabulary instruction from various perspectives, which reveal the characteristics of current vocabulary instruction research.

Much research has been conducted on which kind of instruction works best. However, there is little difference in research trends depending on where research is conducted. The researcher reviews and divides material into two groups: research conducted in English speaking countries (ESL learning conditions) and research conducted in non-English speaking countries (EFL learning conditions). The characteristics of the ESL group are discussed separately from those in EFL conditions.

2.5.1 Characteristics of ESL Vocabulary Research

For vocabulary instruction research for English language learners under ESL conditions, the studies focus on whether a structured vocabulary approach or some kinds of vocabulary programs are effective. Sanaoui (1995) reports that learners in Canada who have a structured learning approach are more successful in retaining vocabulary taught in their classes. A structured approach is found to be more effective than an unstructured approach for both beginning and advanced learners. However, Lessard-Clouston (1996) concludes that a more structured approach would not necessarily result in more vocabulary learning. Rather, the individual nature of vocabulary learning including a learner's learning style, motivation, previous education, may play an important role. Of course, there is a study that reveals the same result in first language vocabulary acquisition about incidental learning. Paribakht and Wesche (1999) found that that most vocabulary learning occurs naturally when learners attempt to understand new words when they hear or read them in context. But they added later that, reading-based approaches might reasonably be combined with explicit instruction for an initial core of several thousand frequently

used words to bring learners to a threshold level for text comprehension (Wesche & Paribakht. 2000).

Gaudio (2003) reports that vocabulary is acquired through the intensive vocabulary building program which included the use of small group vocabulary instruction, computerized vocabulary programs, vocabulary software, vocabulary based games, and mini vocabulary dictionaries. In addition, there are some studies regarding the effectiveness of video clips in teaching unknown vocabulary (Al-Seghayer. 2001), the effectiveness of the collaborative database using online-resources for learners who have moved beyond the elementary level (Cobb & Horst. 2001), and the reevaluation of the dictionary use in the L2 reading class (Fraser. 1999).

The other factor affecting second language vocabulary instruction, not considered in first language acquisition, is the translation effect. Prince (1996) points out that the effectiveness of translation learning depends on the learners' proficiency. The use of primary language support is a strategy widely recommended for second language vocabulary instruction; however, the research opposing the use of native language strategies was prevalent as well. Despite controversies surrounding the use of primary language, that strategy can come in many forms, from direct instruction in the native language to translation of worksheets. Fraser's study (1999) shows that consulting a dictionary to confirm inference is a valuable metacognitive strategy for lexical acquisition. Kroll and Curley (1988) states that ESL students use translation exclusively in the beginning stage compared to students in advanced stages.

Sautermeister (1989) reports vocabulary learning behavior among university, non-specialist learners of English who were consistently presented with new words in

context, but who were not satisfied until they found a first language equivalent to assist their learning. This behavior is similar to that described for beginners above. In summary, it appears that learning vocabulary in context is widely perceived by the teaching profession as desirable; however, it is true that the translation condition is sometimes better in the beginning stage.

The process of inferring (Bot, Paribakht, &Wesche. 1999) and the process of negotiation (Smith. 2004) as well as gestures or non-verbal behaviors (Lazaraton, 2004) also affect the effectiveness of instruction in the studies conducted under ESL conditions. Comparing studies with native English learners, Zareva, Schwanenflegel, and Nikolova, (2005) reported that vocabulary size, word frequency effects, number of associations, and with-group consistency are more effective whereas learners' metacognitive awareness is not proficiency dependent. Also Kojic-Sabo and Lightbrown (1999) investigate the differences between ESL and EFL vocabulary learning. Students in the two settings exhibit some differences with regard to what strategies they used and to what extent. However, vocabulary learning is not necessarily related to those conditions and is rather related to other factors. Extensive strategy use is linked to success in language learning, whereas lack of effort on the learners' part relates to poor achievement. Time and learned independence were two measures most closely related to success in vocabulary leaning and higher overall English proficiency.

Much research has been conducted about second language vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary processing compared to first language instruction. Second language learners' mental processing in the target language is different from first language learners (Wolter. 2001). In other words, phonology does not play an

important role for second language learners compared to the role of phonology in first language vocabulary learning; rather, semantic factors seem to play more roles in learning second language vocabulary. Quin (2002) researched vocabulary knowledge depth, and argued that the dimension of vocabulary depth is as important as vocabulary size in predicting performance on academic reading for ESL students. Knowledge of word meaning showed a higher likelihood of being remembered more than of it being forgotten (Schmitt. 1998).

In summary, for vocabulary instruction research for English language learners in ESL conditions, research first focuses on whether a structured vocabulary approach or a vocabulary building program is effective; second, whether specific supports, such as online-resources, dictionaries, translations, or technologies, are more effective than incidental learning; third, how second language vocabulary knowledge and lexical processing are different from those of first language.

2.5.2 Characteristics of EFL Vocabulary Research

The research conducted under EFL conditions showed little difference from research under ESL conditions. EFL students' purpose for learning English is similar to that of ESL students, but their different environments have affected the focus of vocabulary research.

Qian (1996) shows results that learning vocabulary by word lists is more effective than learning vocabulary in context. He did not claim that lexical guessing in context is not effective, but he was concerned about the learner's background, needs, preference, and learning style as important factors for acquiring new words, especially for Asian students. However, Gu and Johnson (1996) conduct a study about Chinese students in China and found contradictions to popular beliefs about

Asian learners. The participants did not use memorization; rather, they used more meaning-oriented strategies. Additionally, Fan's study (2003) about Chinese students in Hong Kong shows similar results that guessing unknown words is most often used to learn vocabulary, particularly for the high level vocabulary learners. Laufer and Hill (2000) conduct a study about dictionary use. Their results showed that different people have different lookup preferences and the use of multiple dictionary information seems to reinforce retention. Also, using first language translation is effective in second language vocabulary learning similar to dictionary use and first - second language paired word lists.

Hulstjn and Laufer (2001) study the retention of vocabulary, which is related to the amount of task-induced involvement load: retention is highest in the composition tasks, lower in reading plus tasks, and lowest in reading only tasks. Hill and Laufer (2003) also conclude that two form-oriented tasks yield better results than a meaning oriented task. An important factor determining task effectiveness for vocabulary learning is the amount of word-related activity that the task induces. More words are acquired through tasks than through reading (Laufer. 2003). FonF (Focus on Form: drawing students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons), and FonFs (Focus on Forms: teaching discrete linguistic structures in separate lessons), whether related to a communicative task or not, play a crucial role in building the learner's lexical competence (Laufer. 2005).

Hill (2000) explored the usefulness of online tasks and concluded that contrary to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, the conventional comprehension task does not necessarily promote vocabulary learning. Tasks that require greater involvement with words result in better long term recall. The web is excelling as an interactive medium

to present information in a more clearly comprehensible format. In addition, word-focused tasks (Laufer. 2003), form-focused instruction (Ellis. 2004), and form-oriented tasks (Hill & Laufer. 2003), work more effectively than natural acquisition through reading or meaning-focused instruction.

Since phonological skills and awareness are very important in early literacy, some studies on EFL children were conducted to measure how phonological ability affects second language vocabulary learning. Hu (2003) investigates the role of phonological memory and awareness for early childhood English learners in Taiwan. Phonological awareness is the ability to apprehend and manipulate smaller and smaller units of sound and facilitate the connection between letters and the sounds they represent in words. Phonological memory is the ability to hold sound-based information in immediate memory. Hu concludes that phonological memory is related to foreign language word learning, whereas phonological awareness is not. In contrast to this result, the study by Masoura and Gathercole (2005) show that the children's speed of learning new English is independent of phonological memory skills. Their results show that the use of existing lexical representations is important as a means of supporting the acquisition of new vocabulary forms as well as increasing familiarity with the sound structure of a language.

In summary, the first trend of the EFL studies is examining whether Asian learners' characteristics are different from the other populations regarding the same instruction since many studies were conducted with Chinese students as English learners. The second major topic of the studies in this group is what kind of instruction supports vocabulary learning with the premise that vocabulary can be better acquired in task related instruction rather than in incidental learning. Last,

study results with child learners of EFL show that a meaning-related task is more related to vocabulary learning than phonological skill.

2.6 Perceptions on Distinction between Discovery Strategies and Consolidation Strategies

The distinction between the initial discovery of a word's meaning and remembering that word has been first suggested by Cook and Mayer (1983) and Nation (1990). Schmitt's (1997) study on vocabulary strategy survey suggested two categories of L2 vocabulary learning strategies: discovery and consolidation strategies. Discovery strategies are the strategies for gaining initial information about a new word. Once learners have been introduced to a new word, the strategies they use for remembering the word are consolidation strategies.

For the discovery strategies, they include determination and social strategies, while the consolidation strategies consist of social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies, with 58 strategies in total. The social strategies are duplicated in the two categories because they can be used for both purposes.

Schmitt (1997: 207-208) gives a detailed description of the five vocabulary learning strategy groups: determination, social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive. Schmitt lists his "A taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies".

Determination strategies are used to analyze part of speech; analyze affixes and roots; check for L1 cognate; analyze any available pictures or gestures; guess from textual context; master large number of words by using word lists and flash cards.

Social strategies are defined as asking teacher for an L1 translation; asking teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word; asking teacher for a sentence including the new word; asking classmates for meaning; discovering new meaning through group work activity; studying and practicing meaning in a group; teacher's checking students' flash cards or word lists for its meaning, or interacting with native speakers.

Schmitt (1997) defines memory strategies as studying word with pictorial representation of its meaning; imaging word's meaning; connecting word to a personal experience; associating the word with its coordinates; connecting the word to its synonyms and antonyms; using semantic maps; using 'scales' for gradable adjectives; using peg method; using loci method; grouping words together to study them; grouping words together spatially on a page; using new word in sentences; grouping words together within a storyline; studying the spelling of a word; studying the sound of a word; saying new word aloud when studying; imaging word form; underlining initial letters of the word; configuration; using keyword method; remembering affixes and roots; remembering part of speech; paraphrasing the word's meaning; using cognates in study; learning the words of an idiom together; using physical action when learning a word; using semantic feature grids.

Cognitive strategies refer to verbal repetition; written repetition; word lists; flash cards; taking notes in class; using the vocabulary section in students' textbook; listening to tape of word lists; putting English labels on physical objects; keeping a vocabulary notebook.

Metacognitive strategies consist of using English-language media such as songs, movies and newspapers; testing oneself with word tests; using spaced word practice; skipping or passing a new word; continuing to study a word over time.

2.7 Previous Study on Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Empirical studies on vocabulary learning strategies shed light on the actual use and perception of strategies for vocabulary learning in different contexts. In the following section, two large-scale projects conducted by Gu and Johnson (1996) and by Schmitt (1997) concerning Asian students will be reviewed. Furthermore, Fan's (2003) study focusing on local tertiary students will be reviewed to understand the different dimensions of vocabulary learning strategies. Finally, a case study conducted by Law (2003) among form four students in a CMI secondary school will be reviewed to shed light on the current vocabulary teaching and learning in the Hong Kong secondary school context.

Gu and Johnson (1996) aimed to establish the vocabulary learning strategies used by Chinese university learners of English and the relationship between their strategies and outcomes in learning English. They asked 850 sophomore non-English majors at Beijing Normal University in China to complete a vocabulary learning questionnaire in order to elicit students' beliefs about vocabulary learning and their self-reported vocabulary learning strategies. The researchers correlated replies to the questionnaire with results on a vocabulary size test and on the College English Test (CETBAND2). Overall, the participants emphasized the belief that vocabulary should be memorized. They believed that vocabulary should be carefully studied and put to use. Therefore, contextual guessing, skillful use of dictionaries, note-taking, paying

attention to word formation, contextual encoding, and activation of newly learned words positively correlated with the two test scores. However, the researchers found that visual repetition of new words was the strongest negative predictor of both vocabulary size and general proficiency (Gu & Johnson. 1996: 643-644).

Schmitt (1997) conducted a large-scale investigation on the relationships between strategy use and perceived usefulness of these strategies. He surveyed a sample of 600 Japanese students to access which vocabulary learning strategies the learners actually used and how helpful they believed them to be. The results showed that six strategies were most commonly used: using a bilingual dictionary, using a written repetition, using a verbal repetition, saying a new word aloud, studying a word's spelling, and taking notes in class. Of those reported strategies, they considered dictionary and repetition strategies were more useful than others. In contrast, they used fewer imagery and semantic grouping strategies than other strategies and regarded them as the least useful. Schmitt's (1997) study has three implications for vocabulary learning and teaching. Firstly, it is evident that more advanced learners tended to use more complex and meaning-focus strategies than less advanced learners. Secondly, patterns of strategy use can change over time as a learner either matures or becomes more proficient in the target language. Finally, these results imply that learners may be willing to try new strategies if they are introduced to and instructed in them. Therefore, cognitive maturity and language proficiency should be taken into consideration when introducing strategies to the learners and a wide range of strategies should be recommended over time.

Early in 1999, Fan made an attempt to find out the factors that contribute to success in learning a second language. She investigated the beliefs and strategies of

Hong Kong tertiary students in learning English. Findings of the study revealed a consistent relationship between language learning beliefs and strategies in relation to success in learning L2.

In Yang's (1999) quantitative study, an adapted questionnaire was used to investigate the relationship between college EFL students' beliefs about language learning and their use of learning strategies in Taiwan. This study found that these participants tended to use formal oral-practice strategies, focusing on practicing the sounds of English, and trying to talk like native English speakers. On the other hand, the students were less likely to use cognitive-memory strategies. More specifically, they rarely memorized English words by grouping, or by using new words in sentences. She concluded that students' beliefs about the value and nature of learning spoken English were directly linked to the use of formal oral-practice strategies.

Recently, Fan (2003) launched the largest scale project ever conducted in Hong Kong concerning the learning of English vocabulary by Cantonese speakers. With the aim of examining the frequency of use of vocabulary learning strategies, learners' perceived usefulness of the strategies, and the actual usefulness of the strategies, Fan included 1,067 university entrants in her study who had recently been offered places by the seven local institutions of higher education. Data were collected through a vocabulary test and a vocabulary learning strategies. The results of the study showed two distinctive characteristics of Hong Kong tertiary learners. First, unlike the Japanese learners in Schmitt's (1997) study, these students neither regarded repetition strategies as useful nor used these strategies more frequently than others. Furthermore, there was strong evidence that Hong Kong tertiary learners did not opt for strategies for imagery and grouping in learning vocabulary. The unwillingness to

use association strategies for the Hong Kong learners may be due to the language distance between their mother tongue and target language.

Inspired by Fan's (2003) study, Law (2003) extended the investigation of vocabulary learning in the secondary school context. She carried out an action research to investigate 80 Form Four students' perceptions and their actual use of strategies. The participants of her study studied in a Band Two secondary school in Hong Kong, where Chinese was the medium of instruction for all subjects except English and Putonghua. The study was implemented in three phases – semi-structured interviews, a survey and think-aloud vocabulary tasks. The results indicated that the most of the intermediate learners focused on learning the word form and neglected the context. Law (2003) explained that this might be due to the practice of using L1 and L2 word lists in teaching and learning L2 vocabulary in junior forms. Furthermore, he reported that guessing from context or inferencing and using a dictionary were the most common strategies for the students to discover a new word meaning at the first encounter. Finally, Law found that the students seldom spent time and took initiative to learn vocabulary outside class time. The results suggested that teachers should make learners aware of their own responsibility in vocabulary learning and expose them to different approaches and strategies in enhancing vocabulary acquisition.

Barcroft (2004) overviewed the major areas of research related to second language vocabulary acquisition, and summarized ten research areas. These include incidental vocabulary learning, lexical requirements for comprehension, input enhancement and text-based factors, vocabulary learning strategies, combined indirect and direct vocabulary instruction, methods of direct instruction, word-based

determinants of learn ability, bilingual mental lexicon, receptive versus productive vocabulary knowledge, and lexical input processing. He also discussed five principles for effective second language vocabulary instruction with emphasis on lexical input processing. The instruction for second language learners should: (1) present new words frequently and repeatedly in the input; (2) use meaning-bearing comprehensible input when presenting new words; (3) limit forced output during the early stages of learning new words; (4) limit forced semantic elaboration during the initial stages of learning new words; and (5) progress from less demanding to more demanding vocabulary-related activities.

Liao (2004) investigated the vocabulary learning strategies used by 625 Taiwanese EFL freshmen. The Schmitt (1997) vocabulary strategy questionnaire was adopted for this survey. The results showed that metacognitive and social strategies were the two least used strategy categories. She argued that the possible reason for the low frequency use might be because English vocabulary learning was viewed as an individual learning process in general; therefore, students tended not to seek other's help when encountering unfamiliar words. Moreover, based on Gu and Johnson (1996) who indicated that metacognitive strategies can be a positive predictor of general proficiency, Liao concluded that the low frequency used in metacognitive strategies may be that these participants' general English proficiency was limited. By examining isolated strategies use, the researcher found that Taiwanese students preferred to use bilingual electronic dictionaries, write the word several times and study the sounds of the word. These findings were the same as Wu's (2005) study, which examined the use and helpful ranking of vocabulary learning strategies

employed by Taiwanese EFL learners, ranging from junior school students to university students.

In 2006, Koh Thong Chiang conducted the research to investigate the types of vocabulary learning strategies employed by students in English reading in a natural setting, the types of relationship between the students' use of vocabulary learning strategies and the specific variables of text difficulty, the types of relationship between the students' use of vocabulary learning strategies and students' language proficiency levels and to investigate the accuracy of constructed meaning of problem words. The samples were 17 first year students studying in Chiang Mai University, academic year 2005 with a mixture of 7 English majors from the Faculty of Humanities, and 10 from other faculties (4 from the Education faculty, 2 each from Dentistry and Engineering, 1 each from Science and Agricultures), who volunteered to participate in this study. The research instruments were vocabulary level test by Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001), 2 sessions of verbal reporting (Think-aloud), observation, interview, and concluded with a general questionnaire based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy framework and also Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), improvised and added to the questionnaire for use in this study. Verbal-report data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Descriptive statistics were employed to explore the differences across passages of differing difficulties and subject groups, the qualitative analysis were used to illustrate and exemplify the quantitative findings. The findings revealed that (1) the majority of the participants preferred the use of Cognitive, Memory, Metacognitive and Social strategies in descending order, (2) there were great differences between the students' use of vocabulary learning strategies on texts of differing levels of difficulty. The

types of strategies used were also noted to be different when participants managed texts of differing difficulty, and (3) the types of vocabulary learning strategies between higher and lower proficiency students indicated that higher proficiency students used more strategies than lower proficiency students while handling the texts. The findings did not show hint of any differences in strategy types used by students of differing proficiency levels.

2.8 Previous Study on Successful Language Learners

Research on vocabulary learning strategies is a relatively new field. Researchers' interests in this area started to grow about two decades ago. In general, as Schmitt (1997) points out, research has tended to concentrate on individual strategies (such as the keyword method, repetition, and guessing from context), or to deal with vocabulary strategy training. Only very few studies looked at the group "as a whole" (Schmitt. 1997). In this section, the researcher will concentrate especially on these studies.

While the research on learning strategies is in full swing, only recently have papers appeared on learning strategies in second language acquisition emerging from a concern for identifying the characteristics of effective learners. The suggestion that the "good language learner" was first introduced at about the same time in work by Rubin (1975) and by Stern (1975). The proponents of this notion suggested that special learner tactics or strategies might assist second language acquisition (Rubin. 1975; Stern. 1975). In other words, the "good language learner" is effective because of special ways of processing information. More importantly, there was also the suggestion that these strategies are not the personal possession of the highly capable

individuals, but could be learned by strategy training. In one of the earliest studies, Stern (1975) pointed out "the good language learner constantly probes the language and forms hypotheses about it in order to discover rules and relationships and to organize the discrete elements into an ordered whole or system" (p. 313). Similar findings from Ahmed (1989) confirm that "good" learners exhibit certain behaviors in learning a second language. Ahmed (1989) used a cluster analysis technique to isolate five kinds of learners typified by the kinds of strategies they used. The good learner subjects used a variety of strategies, were aware of their learning, knew the importance of learning words in context, and were conscious of semantic relationships between new and previously-learned L2 words. On the contrary, poor learner subjects used few strategies and showed little awareness of how to learn new words or associate new words with prior knowledge. According to the list constructed by Naiman et al. (1978), good language learners are those who actively involve themselves in the language learning process by identifying and seeking preferred learning environments and exploring them, develop an awareness of language as a system, develop an awareness of language as a means of communication and interaction, accept and cope with the affective demands of L2, and extend and revise L2 system by inferencing and monitoring. More recent work by Fan (2003) indicates that the good learner subjects used various kinds of strategies significantly more often than their counterparts, a finding that is in agreement with the findings of many previous studies on L2 vocabulary (Ahmed. 1989; Gu & Johnson. 1996; Lawson & Hogben. 1996; Sanaoui. 1995). In particular, they predominantly used more sources such as guessing, dictionary, and known words strategies than the less proficient students.

Finally, Gu (2005) presented case studies of 11 successful and 5 unsuccessful Chinese EFL learners in his latest work. He reported that the successful learners demonstrated common characteristics within the group, for example, they used a wider range of strategies more flexibly than the unsuccessful ones (p. 153). He also agreed with Rubin (1975) and Stern's (1975) which claim that successful learners are more active learners. Table 2.3 delineates an overall pattern and contrasts the successful group with the unsuccessful group at the metacognitive, cognitive, and affective levels.

Table 2.3

Differences between Successful and Unsuccessful Learners

		Top Group	Bottom Group
	Self-Initiation	very active, always plan, monitor and evaluate learning	very passive, little or no planning, monitoring and evaluation of learning
Metacognitive	Selective attention	know what's important (to task at hand and learning in general)	random, non-selective
	Beliefs about language	see language as an integrated system; and vocabulary as integral and dynamic part of language	see language as separate systems of grammar rules and vocabulary; and vocabulary as words of fixed meanings
	Strategies (what)	use a wide range of strategies	use a narrow range of mainly rote strategies
Cognitive	Strategies (how)	flexible and principled use of strategies and strategy combinations	inflexible choice of strategies (stick to a narrow range); inflexible or even non-rational use of strategies
	Activation / Use of English	try to use English as much as possible	never use English
Affective	Affective reaction	- in comfortable control of learning; - enjoy learning; enjoy English	- despair (if seeing English as important) - avoid English altogether

Source: Gu (2005: 154)

Horn (2009) described the successes and failures of bilingual education from the perspectives of former students. A thorough review was conducted of literature impacting bilingual education. In this qualitative case study, participants were interviewed face-to-face and one-on-one in English. The interviews were transcribed into electronic files and then analyzed using the constant comparative method. A cross-case analysis and within-case analysis yielded emerging themes. Among them

was the belief that the participants had experienced equal participation with their English-speaking peers. Additionally, these former ELLs had not experienced an inferiority complex. These interviewees viewed bilingual education as fun, and they recognized the importance of learning English at a young age. This resulted in the revelation of important legislation and court cases that had revolutionized public education and the manner in which English Language Learners were taught in the United States. The testimonies of former ELLs supported the idea that students who participated in bilingual education classes not only learned English, but they oftentimes excelled academically and socially. Many became popular students by the time they graduated from high school.

Martinez (2009) examined the attributes of students who earned the requisite units for entrance to the California university system and who at one point in time were designated as EL. The question this study seeks to answer is: Are there common characteristics and attributes among English Learners or Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (RFEP) students that can be attributed to their success in school and qualification for California's 4-year universities? Do factors such as age of entrance and date of enrollment play a significant role in accessing a college (university) preparatory program? This study utilized a qualitative research methodology. Specifically, inquiry was conducted through a phenomenological and heuristic approach. Participants for this study were selected from a large Southern California high school district's six comprehensive high schools. The study utilized criterion sampling to determine the participants. Of the 134 students who met the criteria, 16 students volunteered to give a personal account of their personal background and educational experience. The major findings of the study are, namely, (1) home and

family factors heavily influence the goals set by students, (2) schooling in grades K-8 plays a critical role as students set goals for themselves based on perceived success, (3) social capital was evident in the lives of these students. They engaged in meaningful dialogue with parents and friends, and institutional agents, such as teachers and counselors, and (4) twenty-four students graduated as valedictorians of their graduating classes, demonstrating that students who come from a home where Spanish is the primary language, and who at one point in time were identified as English Learners, can also attain the number one position in their graduating class.

Middleton (2009) explored the qualitative case study to investigate teaching strategies that promote social acceptance and enhance academic success for English Language Learners in middle school. The conceptual framework for this study was based on Vygotsky's social cognitive theory. The primary research question for this study focused on how English Language Learners perceive and experience academic success and social acceptance in middle school. Open-ended interviews and classroom observations were used to collect data from a purposeful sample of 9 English Language Learners. Hand coded data using open and interpretative coding were analyzed for patterns, relationships and themes. Categorical aggregation was used to establish patterns of categories, and emerging categories were further analyzed using comparison tables. Direct interpretation was used to develop naturalistic generalizations to answer the research questions. Results from this study indicated that English Language Learners perceived that peer tutoring, interactive classroom activities, using graphic organizers, and working cooperatively were teaching strategies that promoted social acceptance while enhancing academic success. Findings from this study can contribute to social change by identifying

effective teaching strategies that provide needed support for English Language Learners. Data will be available for the development of instructional programs to help meet the unique needs of English Language Learners, allowing them to become productive and successful.

Uddin (2009) explored the relationship between counseling techniques and second language vocabulary acquisition for adult second language learners. This study implemented two counseling techniques, Role play and Story telling in teaching second language vocabulary to adult second language learners. The results of this study showed that both techniques Role playing and Story telling were reported to be favorable and successful by all participants who attended this study. The participants not only successfully enhanced their vocabulary but also managed to utilize those words into their Role play and Story telling activities. Role play enhanced their fluency of communicative skills which necessitates vocabulary enhancement. Without such an increment of vocabulary, their progress would have been slower. Story telling assisted participants to take time to reflect on their stories and to take full use of the vocabulary acquired earlier. This technique particularly assisted them in making learners become independent learners, owning their language skills and, as a result, making them empowered.

2.9 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter reviews the empirical research on language learning strategies, in particular, the strategies for learning vocabulary in L2 and the characteristics of good language learners. These findings not only provide valuable information to Thai teachers in enhancing the understanding of vocabulary teaching and learning, but also shed light on the design of the underlying principle of the present study. First, the

researcher reviews the background of language learning strategies. Next, it also demonstrates the defining language learning strategies. In addition, it explains the taxonomy of language learning strategies. Then, the history of vocabulary research and characteristics of current vocabulary research are described. Lastly, the previous studies on previous study on vocabulary learning strategies and previous study on successful language learners are presented. In the next chapter, the methodological approach and the instruments are discussed.