



**A SURVEY OF BELIEFS AND PRACTICES IN
TEACHING VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES
OF THAI EFL HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS
IN MAHA SARA KHAM, THAILAND**

BY

RATIPORN PANDUANGKAEW

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY
ACADEMIC YEAR 2015
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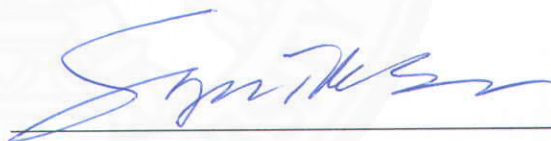
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IN MAHA SARA KHAM, THAILAND

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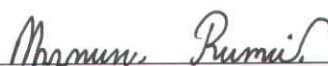
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ABSTRACT

This research investigated preferable vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) among Thai EFL high school teachers in terms of their beliefs and instructional practices; the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices; teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools. The participants included 90 in-service teachers teaching at a high school level in Maha Sarakham province. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were applied to conduct research i.e. questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Regarding teachers' beliefs in the usefulness of VLS, the findings revealed that the teachers strongly preferred 34 strategies as illustrated in their highest preference level. Regarding their teaching practices, 31 strategies were reported as highest preferences. Despite preferable strategies, however, most of the strategies were considered useful and frequently instructed to the students. An overall positive correlation between teachers' beliefs and practices was displayed (with one pair of strategies showing a negative correlation due to some contextual factors). In addition, the majority of teachers agreed that introducing strategies to the students is essential and a variety of support from schools is also needed especially in terms of financial support and teacher development.

Keywords: Vocabulary learning strategies, Teachers' beliefs, Teachers' practices

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the background of the research along with the statement of the problem which basically lead to the understanding of the researcher's conceptual framework of the current research. Other crucial elements namely, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study and definitions of terms are also provided.

1.1 Background and Rationale of the study

It is undeniable that vocabulary is considered very important in all four English language skills (i.e. listening, reading, speaking, and writing) since it is one of the key elements in second language acquisition (SLA) essential for all stages of English education (Gardner, 2013). According to Schmitt (2010), all stakeholders dealing with English language learning (i.e. students, teachers, researchers, etc.) have come to the same conclusion that vocabulary knowledge has a substantial contribution to SLA with plenty of evidence showing its strong relationships with all the language skills. He also observed that what learners always have with them appears to be dictionaries rather than grammar books. One of the most valuable quotes of all times referred to many educators is of Wilkins (1972, p.111) expressing the importance of vocabulary in communication, "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (as cited in Schmitt, 2010; Thornbury, 2002). From his quote, it can be inferred that vocabulary is essentially crucial in communicative competence of a second or foreign language learner.

Concerning vocabulary acquisition, vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) have long been supported by many scholars to facilitate learning and help enhance learners' vocabulary knowledge (e.g. Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). Learning strategies are helpful tools because they support students' learning and are beneficial for learners' development of communicative

competence (Oxford, 1990), conforming to O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) statement that "learning strategies are special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information" (p.1). For the use of VLS, Schmitt (2000) noted that proficient learners employ a wide range of strategies, organize their own learning and they are aware of the connection between new and formerly learnt vocabulary items; moreover, they find strategies useful for their learning, indicating that strategy training should be incorporated in the classrooms. Nation (2001) also pointed out that VLS can be implemented in every stage of vocabulary learning since students are allowed to take charge of their own learning process and thus, training in VLS is necessary to develop learners' vocabulary acquisition by equipping them with sufficient understandings towards the goal of a particular strategy.

On behalf of the researcher herself, throughout her second language (L2) learning from primary level to tertiary level in Thailand, the introduction of VLS had rarely been made and explicitly mentioned concerning how to employ them to help enhance the learning process. Without doubt, Thai EFL students are mainly familiar with traditional teaching so-called Grammar-Translation Method, in which they are required to memorize the provided word lists of the target language along with their native equivalents given (Cook, 1996; Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Rote learning can be defined as "learning something in order to be able to repeat it from memory, rather than in order to understand it" (Definition of rote from the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus, Cambridge University Press). Mongkol (2008) claimed that there is still big trouble with Thai EFL teachers paying little attention to strategies in vocabulary instruction, so he highly recommended that teachers supply EFL learners with VLS so as to help them learn more effectively. Talking about Thai EFL context, Boonkongaen and Intaraprasert (2014) further emphasized the insufficiency of VLS employment that some Thai EFL university learners tend to memorize new vocabulary words after being indirectly taught and others resort to a bilingual dictionary with the notice that new vocabulary items learnt are quickly forgotten owing to the fact that these students do not employ other

available VLS to help them acquire the target words, thus requiring repetition for the acquisition of newly learnt words. Apparently, rote repetition can be helpful in some ways but overusing it or relying only on just one strategy might not predict success in L2 learning.

This is not only a Thai EFL problem of reliance on rote learning but it can also be found in many other Asian countries; Yang and Dai (2011), for example, stated in their study that Chinese EFL learners primarily make use of rote memorization in order to learn new vocabulary on account of the Chinese cultural and educational background in teaching and learning practices. The researchers recognized that Chinese students heavily rely only on rote repetition in learning lexical items; however, they both agreed that VLS should be introduced to the students instead of having them cling to one approach of vocabulary learning. They further mentioned that there is still uncertainty towards the use of VLS among secondary school and university students, so there is no wonder why extreme dependence on rote memorization of word lists is commonly found in China. Another example is in Japanese EFL settings; Fewell (2010) explored the strategies in learning a foreign language of Japanese EFL learners. Interestingly, the research indicated that all the participants were presented with rote learning in classrooms, but prolonged reliance on rote learning was reported using much more frequently in less proficient English learners than in the more proficient group since the latter found it unproductive and inadequate for their language learning.

It could be inferred from the underlying reasons for Thai EFL learners' insufficient utility in VLS attributed to a large number of language teachers that have limited exposure to teaching second language acquisition theories and methodologies, so most of them are not aware of the essentials of VLS. Time consumption, one of the constraints in VLS instruction, can also be taken into account due to the fact that there is a huge number of strategies needed to be introduced and thus requiring much time as teachers have to cope with other language points to be taught as well. Furthermore, Thai teachers are more likely to be comfortable and accustomed to their traditional teaching method which is not simple for reformation of vocabulary teaching, leaving

the old practices remaining unchanged. Shen (2003) has also argued in her paper that a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies needs to be covered in vocabulary instruction, so that learners can have more opportunities to select a broader choice of strategies for the sake of individual preferences; besides, the teachers should not consider what is the best for a particular strategy from their own beliefs to be taught, rather the students need to be informed how to utilize various types of strategies. However, no single strategy is claimed to be the best (Murray & Christison, 2011) since an individual strategy can either pose a positive or negative impact depending on how the learners deal with it. As a result, qualified EFL teachers are necessarily called for to make changes in the second language learning and teaching in Thai education system to help expand Thai EFL learners' VLS so that they can become successful in SLA.

Despite the fact that vocabulary teaching and learning has extensively been an area of interest since many decades within the field of SLA, ineffective vocabulary instruction is still prevalent nowadays leading to significant flaws in English language teaching in many countries including Thailand. As in Gardner's (2013) views, good language teachers need to have a fundamental understanding themselves in learning English and they will then be able to decide which approach will best suit their students. Consequently, the researcher is interested in looking into the issue of beliefs and practices of Thai EFL high school teachers on VLS in her hometown which is Maha Sarakham Province.

1.2 Statement of the problem

A struggle with English Language use of Thai EFL learners has always been noticed in all education levels. According to the EF English Proficiency Index 2015 of Education First Language Institute which is known to be the world's most comprehensive ranking of countries by adult English skills, a recent survey found Thai learners' English proficiency scores continued to rank near the bottom among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations

(ASEAN) members and worldwide. The survey implied that Thai EFL learners' poor English skills must be affected by how they have been taught. Moreover, as can be seen from the mean scores of the Ordinary National Educational Test (O-Net) of five consecutive academic years (2010-2014), Thai EFL senior high school students obtained very low mean scores in an English subject, which were 19.22, 21.8, 22.13, 25.35 and 23.44 respectively out of a full score of 100. These significantly below-50-percent means indicate that Thai EFL learners have been unsuccessful in English language learning. One of the most crucial factors concerning low English proficiency of Thai learners could be due to their lack of vocabulary knowledge and improper vocabulary instruction. For this reason, there is an urgent need that VLS instruction should be paid more attention in Thai education system to help enhance learners' English proficiency.

In the educational setting of English as a foreign language at high school level in Thailand, vocabulary learning strategies seem to be neglected in the language classrooms. Generally speaking, VLS are not explicitly instructed by the majority of Thai EFL teachers, so students have no opportunities to improve vocabulary on their own learning and thus are not likely to be independent learners. This issue might be due to teachers' lack of awareness and knowledge in VLS, thus yielding inefficient classroom practices.

Regarding studies about vocabulary learning strategies in Thai EFL contexts, a great deal of research has been conducted on learners' employment of VLS, but there has been no study about VLS carried out on the part of Thai EFL teachers. Most of the researchers both in Thailand and other countries, in recent years, have put much emphasis on what types of VLS the students use in many levels of education namely, primary level, secondary level, high school level and tertiary level (e.g. Boonkongsaen & Intaraprasert, 2014; Fan, 2003; Mayuree, 2007; Mongkol, 2008; Pornpan, 2012), thus leaving a big gap on the need to discover Thai EFL teachers' beliefs and their implementation of VLS in the classroom. Moreover, very little research worldwide has explored this particular issue (e.g. Amirousefi, 2015; Azari, Moeini & Shafiee, 2014;

Lai, 2005). Since VLS are essential in assisting students to increase their vocabulary knowledge independently; therefore, the present study aims to investigate the beliefs and actual practices of Thai EFL high school teachers in teaching VLS in order to not only raise teachers' awareness in VLS but also shed some light on the problem of their practices.

1.3 Objectives of the study

- 1) To investigate the types of preferable vocabulary learning strategies among Thai EFL high school teachers in terms of their beliefs in the usefulness of vocabulary learning strategies.
- 2) To investigate the types of preferable vocabulary learning strategies among Thai EFL high school teachers in terms of their instructional practices.
- 3) To investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on vocabulary learning strategies.
- 4) To explore teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools.

1.4 Research questions

- 1) Which vocabulary learning strategies are preferable among Thai EFL high school teachers in terms of their beliefs in the usefulness of vocabulary learning strategies?
- 2) Which vocabulary learning strategies are preferable among Thai EFL high school teachers in terms of their instructional practices?
- 3) What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on vocabulary learning strategies?
- 4) What are teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools?

1.5 Significance of the study

Since VLS instruction is crucial in enhancing students' knowledge, it is worthwhile conducting research on this topic to find out teachers' beliefs, and practices as teachers play a significant role in facilitating learners' second language acquisition. As Oxford (1990) clearly suggested, teachers should identify learners' learning strategies and foster students to become more independent. However, Gebhard (1996) made an assumption about teaching English as a foreign or second language that it is difficult for teachers to become competent since devotion and efforts are required to develop their teaching beliefs and practices. Also, Senior (2006) emphasized that being a language teacher is way beyond mastering teaching skills; meanwhile, teachers need to comprehend how to relate to learners and how to maximise the lessons according to the learners' needs. Thus, such a significant issue i.e. VLS instruction can no longer be ignored otherwise there could possibly be a failure in L2 teaching.

Based on the statement of the problem, the researcher makes an attempt to investigate teachers' beliefs, and practices in VLS in order to inspire the development of proper English vocabulary instruction. The results of the study should benefit both teachers and learners in terms of contributing pedagogical implications to second language learning and teaching context. Teachers will be more aware of VLS and be able to adjust their practices appropriately so as to offer most benefits to the learners of English language. The progress of teaching VLS can also be made with the aid of teacher training programs in VLS to better their understanding towards the effectiveness of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies in high schools. The findings of this current study should significantly yield a positive impact towards the importance of VLS in learning and teaching L2, and thus pave the way for the bright future of English language education in Thailand. Additionally, this research could also be a guideline for future studies in the field of VLS teaching and learning in Thai context.

1.6 Scope of the study

- 1) This study focuses on Thai EFL high school teachers' beliefs and practices in only one province in Thailand. The population selected for the study might be the limitation due to the inadequacy to represent the overall Thai EFL high school teachers in Thailand. Thus, the findings are applicable to certain groups of teachers in Thailand i.e. Maha Sarakham Province and may not be generalised to those teaching in other areas.
- 2) Despite the strengths of this study with the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, the researcher explores Thai EFL high school teachers' beliefs and practices in Maha Sarakham employing questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with no observation in a natural setting carried out due to time constraints, thus resulting in limited research tools used in the investigation to gain more insightful data.

1.7 Definitions of terms

L1 – refers to First language or learners and teachers' mother tongue language, which is Thai language in this study.

L2 – refers to Second language which is English language as a target language for Thai EFL learners and teachers.

VLS – refers to Vocabulary learning strategies employed by Thai EFL learners and teachers for vocabulary acquisition in an English language.

SLA – refers to Second language acquisition which means the acquisition of an English language in the present study.

Beliefs - refers to Thai EFL teachers' beliefs in the usefulness of English vocabulary learning strategies.

Practices - refers to Thai EFL teachers' actual teaching practices of English vocabulary learning strategies in the classroom context.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter mainly narrates the review of literature in relation to the current study. Theories and concepts are presented to provide definitions and understandings towards each issue related to the topic of the research. Moreover, some of the previous studies are also discussed to show how other researchers in this field have conducted their research.

2.1 Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Language learning strategies (LLS) have been of great importance in second language learning and teaching. Therefore, it is worth mentioning LLS before moving on to VLS since these two terms are inseparably relevant to each other in terms of their benefits in L2 learning. LLS can contribute to SLA since they promote learner autonomy in which learners manage their self-directed learning process leading to the possession of active role in L2 learning without heavy dependence on teachers' provision of input, as can be observed in learners who succeed in L2 learning with their responsibility in specific sets of cognitive and metacognitive management; also, the behavior of being passive learners should however be adjusted (Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Nation (2001) and Schmitt (2000) further stated that learners should be responsible for their own learning. By doing this, they have to be selective about what vocabulary items are to be learnt and how to learn it; they also need to broaden their vocabulary size continuously (Graves, 1987 as cited in Nation, 2001). A conclusion of autonomous learning can be drawn from Knowles's framework that it is indispensable that learners should be armed with the techniques essential for their later continuous learning after leaving their pedagogical classroom settings (as cited in Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

2.1.1 Definitions of LLS

Definitions of Language learning strategies have been proposed by many scholars.

The term “learner strategies” was clarified by Wenden (1987) as language learning behaviours of learners who truly manipulate their own learning. In her explanation, strategies can mean learners’ knowledge of the strategies they employ or consider they have utilized or are supposed to utilize.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) defined learning strategies as “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information” (p.1) which has been emphasized on the learners’ utilization of LLS to enhance the target language acquisition not only in English as an L2 but also other foreign languages.

According to Oxford (1990), LLS refer to “steps taken by students to enhance their own learning...essential for developing communicative competence” (p.1). She described communicative competence as the ability of a learner to communicate in which she considered it as a major goal. Twelve crucial features of LLS presented by Oxford are as follows:

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 learners.
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.

(p.9)

Cohen (1998) gave a definition to LLS as processes chosen by learners for L2 learning enhancement through “storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language” (p.4). He explained that LLS consist of conscious actions employed by learners for their improvement of L2 learning. He did not view LLS as naturally effective or ineffective in themselves, but the use of strategies found in different learners and tasks is the one that counts in order to inform the effectiveness of a strategy. Many components come into play when selecting a useful strategy (e.g. nature of a task, individual differences, and language proficiency) and no particular strategy can fit all types of learners nor tasks (Weaver & Cohen, 1998). Briefly, for example, learners who are more proficient and more aware of strategies tend to employ strategies more successfully (Oxford, 1990).

Nunan (1999, p.171) defined LLS as “the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language”. He further stated that at least one strategy can be found in an individual task and that the learning strategies are crucial in contributing to L2 learning success.

Conforming to Schmitt’s (1997) definition, learning strategy refers to “the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used” (p.203).

Ellis (1997, p.77) viewed LLS as “the particular approaches or techniques that learners employ to try to learn an L2”.

Cohen (2007) made an attempt in his study to find out a general consensus among strategy experts about LLS, with a careful design of the questionnaire. The results revealed both the aspects of agreement and disagreement towards the LLS theory; however, the harmony among respondents’ ideas is mostly presented. Likewise, Oxford (1990) asserted that there has been no complete agreement on many aspects about LLS. Nevertheless, in Cohen’s work, most of the experts admitted that any particular strategy has to deal with metacognitive element in which the learners take charge of a given task with consciousness and intention, make plans, monitor their planning process and make evaluation to see whether the overall process is efficient while some scholars argued that by the time a process is automatized, it cannot be called a strategy anymore since it becomes unconscious. However, a majority of them are in agreement with the point that strategies are goal-oriented, and they further agreed that a combination of strategies is considered helpful to help

reinforce learners in performing a task. For the purpose of LLS in Cohen's survey, it was pointed out that the experts generally view LLS as a useful tool in assisting learning and that suitable selection of strategies should be taken into account depending on the nature of a specific task. In addition, LLS can be employed to find solutions to certain problems and facilitate learning with ease and enjoyment.

2.1.2 Classification of LLS

Taxonomies of LLS selected from two of the most cited sources are illustrated in this section (i.e. taxonomy of O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990).

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), LLS are classified into three groups, namely, Metacognitive strategies, Cognitive strategies and Social/affective strategies. They characterized metacognitive strategies as containing executive function in selective attention, planning, monitoring and evaluation. Cognitive strategies are those that "operate directly on incoming information, manipulating in ways that enhance learning" (p.44) which can be incorporated in representative strategies: rehearsal, organization, inferencing, summarizing, deducing, imagery, transfer and elaboration. The last category explained in their classification is social/affective strategies which concern interaction with other people; the strategies considered helpful are cooperation, questioning for clarification and self-talk. For clearer elaboration of these strategies, a summary of each strategy is provided in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Preliminary classification of learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.46)

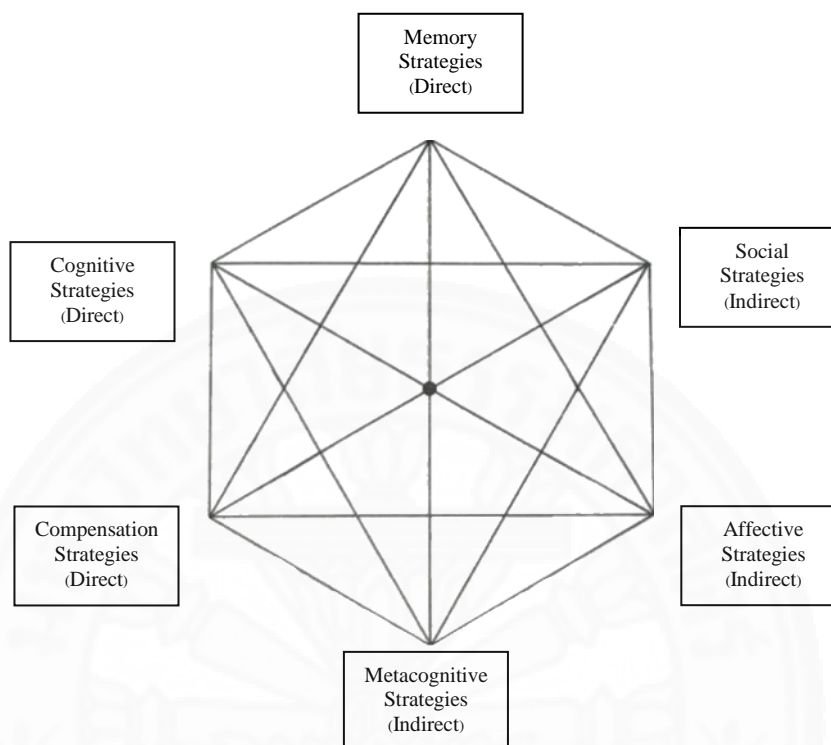
Generic strategy classification	Representative strategies	Definitions
Metacognitive strategies	Selective attention	Focusing on special aspects of learning tasks, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases.
	Planning	Planning for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.
	Monitoring	Reviewing attention to a task, comprehension of information that should be remembered, or production while it is occurring.
	Evaluation	Checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.
Cognitive strategies	Rehearsal	Repeating the names of items or objects to be remembered.
	Organization	Grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes.
	Inferencing	Using information in text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.
	Summarizing	Intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained.
	Deducing	Applying rules to the understanding of language.
	Imagery	Using visual images (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information.
	Transfer	Using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task.

Table 2.1 (continued)

Generic strategy classification	Representative strategies	Definitions
Cognitive strategies	Elaboration	Linking ideas contained in new information, or integrating new ideas with known information.
Social/affective strategies	Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.
	Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
	Self-talk	Using mental redirection of thinking to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

Even though most of the LLS of Oxford's are similar to the ones of O'Malley and Chamot's (1990), there are considerably more categories mentioned in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy which seem to be more comprehensive than classifications in many of earlier frameworks. Oxford divided LLS into two main distinct groups namely, "direct strategies" and "indirect strategies". The first group includes the strategies that directly deal with the target language while the latter is indirectly associated with language learning management. Nonetheless, both categories are equally necessary and they mutually support one another in various ways as shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Interrelationships between direct and indirect strategies among the six strategy groups (Oxford, 1990, p.15)



Direct Strategies

1) Memory Strategies

As stated in Oxford (1990), this type of strategies so-called mnemonics assists learners to store and recall recent knowledge and is useful to some learners especially those who find memorizing a huge number of vocabulary items very difficult. The strategies involved in memory strategies are known to be “creating mental linkages”, using “visual images” and “reviewing”. Mental links can be created by grouping; for example, similar words can be grouped together to make it simpler to memorize. Imagery or visual images can be generated in mind or either in drawings; this way helps create and link meaningful pictures with the new concepts. Another type of images is semantic mapping in which there usually is a key concept at the center and this is connected to relevant words or ideas by drawing lines or arrows. “Keywords” is related to using images in that this technique enables learners to link the sound and

visual image in order to make it easier for remembering. This mnemonic method is quite popular in the second language field to help enhance learners' vocabulary acquisition and retention. Reviewing is another strategy among direct strategies that allows learners to review new information repeatedly and continuously so that the information becomes automatic.

2) Cognitive Strategies

These strategies help enhance students' understandings and generate output with various techniques and they are the most attractive ones among learners. Sub-strategies of this group include "repeating" such as rehearsing for many times, "practicing" the target language naturally, "getting the idea quickly" by skimming for the main idea or scanning to look for specific details, "analyzing expressions" in order to comprehend the expression, and "translating" either from the target language to mother tongue language or from the native one to the target one. "Taking notes", "summarizing" and "highlighting" are also essential for learners to be able to understand and produce the target language (Oxford, 1990).

3) Compensation Strategies

This category of strategies gives learners a chance to utilize the target language even if they do not have sufficient possession of the language (i.e. grammatical knowledge and vocabulary knowledge), so learners can employ these compensation strategies to fulfil their communicative ability. Guessing strategies or inferencing strategies can serve this purpose by allowing learners to exploit abundant clues to figure out the meaning when the words and expressions are not known. Compensation is helpful to both receptive skills (i.e. listening and reading) and productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing). For example, learners are not capable of using subjunctive form and they resort to another form to make sure that what they want to convey is understandable. They can, moreover, compensate their limitations in speaking by using physical gestures and create new words or use synonyms to convey their thoughts (Oxford, 1990).

Indirect Strategies

4) Metacognitive Strategies

“Metacognitive means beyond, beside, or with the cognitive” (Oxford, 1990, p.136). Thus, these strategies are operation that is beyond just cognitive. With these strategies, learners are able to take control of their cognition to function their learning process. Students who are not accustomed to gaining new knowledge will easily get confused, so they may probably lose their attention and this can be comforted by using metacognitive strategies such as making a comprehensive overviewing of a new key concept and relating it to the previously known knowledge. Another beneficial strategies are “paying attention” to a language task, “arranging” and “planning” the learning process by making all attempts to develop language learning and trying to be organized. Furthermore, the goals should be set and the purpose of a task should be clearly identified. “Planning for a language task” and “seeking opportunities” to practice the target language are also needed. Additionally, good learners should try their best to monitor and evaluate their own learning process; such as monitoring or noticing the errors made in the output and evaluating the progress whether it has been improved or not (Oxford, 1990).

5) Affective Strategies

The term “Affective” can be defined as emotions, attitudes, motivations and as well as values; this can yield both beneficial and harmful effects to language learning. Affective strategies can help manage emotions and motivations by self-encouragement. Learners can encourage themselves by making positive statements to gain their confidence in learning a language. Learners should reduce their anxiety by relaxing and taking a deep breath because a great amount of anxiety can do harm to their learning process (Oxford, 1990).

6) Social Strategies

This group involves social interaction which exists among people. Asking questions by asking other people for clarification and correction can help improve learners’ language learning. Learners should also cooperate and work with others such as their friends to increase their language ability (Oxford, 1990).

2.2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

In this section, importance of vocabulary learning is firstly described followed by classification of vocabulary learning strategies which mainly focuses on Schmitt (1997)'s taxonomy in which two main categories of strategies are comprehensively illustrated i.e. Discover Strategies and Consolidation Strategies.

2.2.1 Importance of Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary has been given much more attention nowadays in the research field of language learning due to its essential role in L2 acquisition (Hunt & Beglar, 2002; Macaro, 2003). Thornbury (2002) highlighted “all languages have words” as well as Zimmerman (1997) stressed that vocabulary has been of great importance in language learning. Most language teachers are in agreement that vocabulary is a crucial element of a language course because communication cannot be understandable without the expression of words despite the learners' mastery of grammar (McCarthy, 1990). Furthermore, having sufficient lexical items can induce discussion of several interesting points through the production of utterances, thus helping us to comprehend and communicate the language with others (Macaro, 2003; Wallace, 1991). In Gardner's (2013) view, however, both grammar and vocabulary are important in conveying meaningful communication, as vocabulary is strongly associated with grammar (Nunan, 1999). Thus, vocabulary inevitably needs to be given attention otherwise lack of vocabulary knowledge may cause failure in both receptive and productive language skills (Nation, 1990).

Vocabulary knowledge influences all aspects of communication including listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, a large size of vocabulary is needed for the use of English language, so the more the students try to learn new words, the more they gain vocabulary knowledge (Schmitt, 2010). Nist and Simpson (1993) claimed that learners who have limited vocabulary words often struggle in language learning, not only are they not able to understand thoroughly what they read but they also find some reading texts difficult. Moreover, they may have difficulty in communicating with others. Nagy (1988) also pointed out that developing vocabulary knowledge is a

fundamental part of the learning process and that inadequacy of vocabulary knowledge is a serious obstacle for many learners. Thus, a variety of approaches to learning new words should be implemented in the classroom setting, so learners can later use a strategy they prefer on their own. Nist and Simpson (1993) asserted that readers who have inadequate vocabulary are slow readers as they might have to read repeatedly and consults words in a dictionary. They acknowledged that rereading and using dictionary do not yield negative impact, but overreliance on either can affect the reading rate. Nevertheless, vocabulary enrichment not only benefits reading comprehension but also brings about effectiveness in listening, writing and speaking. The aspects that should be taken into account when selecting words for instruction are frequency of actual use, learners' language needs and availability of words (Oxford, 2011).

According to Carter (2001), knowing a word means possessing receptive and productive knowledge. Nation (1990, 2001) and Schmitt (2000) distinguished between receptive and productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary occurs when language input is received through listening or reading and learners try to understand the words by recalling the meanings while productive concerns the language output that learners produce by speaking or writing involving the ability to pronounce, write, spell and utilize the words. Thus, knowing a vocabulary word, according to Nation (2001), is associated with form, meaning and use as shown in Table 2.2. Inadequate vocabulary can lead to a struggle in both receptive and productive skills. From this table, the difference of receptive and productive can be easily noticed and understood.

Table 2.2 What is involved in knowing a word (Nation, 2001, p.27)

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognisable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?

Table 2.2 (continued)

Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency...)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
P		Where, when, and how often can we use this word?	

Note: In column 3, R= receptive knowledge, P = productive knowledge

2.2.2 Classification of VLS

Many researchers have paid much attention on the area of vocabulary learning strategies since the 1990s, indicating that learners actually employ strategies in vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2010). “Vocabulary learning strategies are a part of language learning strategies which in turn are a part of general learning strategies” (Nation, 2001, p.217). From this statement, without doubt, it can be assumed that VLS play a very significant role in SLA.

In the field of VLS, Schmitt (1997) indicated an inadequacy of VLS comprehensive classification, so with regard to filling this gap, he made an attempt to develop a more complete taxonomy of VLS which was primarily drawn from his review of previous studies concerning strategies and the reports of the strategy use by Japanese students and teachers. As a result, the taxonomy includes 58 strategies in total. After the process of VLS compilation, Schmitt made an effort to categorize the

strategies into distinct groups in accordance with some earlier framework. He applied the categories from Oxford (1990) to benefit the organization of the strategies in which he had to systematically cluster. The four learning strategy groups acquired from Oxford include Social Strategies (SOC), Memory Strategies (MEM), Cognitive Strategies (COG), and Metacognitive Strategies (MET). To serve various aspects of his VLS, he coined a new term called Determination Strategies (DET) since this new category could not be found in Oxford's classification. He also gained helpful ideas from Cook and Mayer (1983) and Nation (1990) about vocabulary activities, thus yielding two main themes to his VLS taxonomy: Discovery Strategies and Consolidation Strategies. The first theme can be described as at the time one encounters a new word, one has to, for instance, employ language knowledge, reference materials or consult somebody to find out the meaning. The latter concerns the attempt that a learner makes to memorize the target word after encountering it from the initial discovery of it. The subcategories of these two main themes are presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 An overview of taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies according to Schmitt (1997)

Discover Strategies	Determination Strategies (DET)
	Social Strategies (SOC)
Consolidation Strategies	Social Strategies (SOC)
	Memory Strategies (MEM)
	Cognitive Strategies (COG)
	Metacognitive Strategies (MET)

2.2.2.1 Discover Strategies

1) Determination Strategies (DET)

Determination Strategies (DET), according to Schmitt (1997, 2000), are strategies that learners use without asking others for help in figuring out the meaning of a word by employing following strategies:

Word Class

Word class or part of speech has a role to play in vocabulary learning in that it classifies the type of grammatical features of each word (Schmitt, 2000). Parts of speech contain eight components: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and determiners (Thornbury, 2002).

Analysis of Word Parts

Mostly, an English content word form can be altered by adjoining affixes to it either by prefixes or suffixes; words consisting of affixes are sometimes known to be complex words (Nation, 2001). Thornbury (2002) clarified that the process of affixation can be formed by adding suffixes to the end of the base word (i.e. root) or prefixes at the beginning of the root. Meanings of the most frequent affixes should explicitly be taught so that learners are aware when they exist in words (Nation, 1990, 2001). This strategy allows learners to practice inferring the meanings from the affixes e.g. the prefix *mis-* usually refers to badness or wrongness (Wallace, 1991). However, in order for learners to be capable of handling affixes, the skills of breaking words into parts is needed so that the learners can recognize which ones are roots or which ones are affixes, thus showing the connection between word parts (Gardner, 2013; Nation, 1990; Ur, 1996). Cunningham (1998) advised that most beneficial prefixes and suffixes should explicitly be introduced (as cited in Gardner, 2013). Blachowicz and Fisher (2006) added that affixes can be built on what learners have already known so that they can move on to the new ones with ease.

Cognates

Cognates are words in certain languages which are from the same origin and are very useful if the target word is similarly equivalent to a learner's L1 vocabulary knowledge (Cohen, 1990; Schmitt, 1997). Thus, a language that has numerous L1 words relevant to English will benefit the learners in the way that these words are identical; however, cognates can be "false friends" when a particular language has a similar word form to the English counterpart but with different meanings (Cohen, 1990; Wallace, 1991). Luckily, most cognates have similar forms and meanings so-called "true cognates" (Cohen, 1990; Thornbury, 2002).

Guessing through context

Typically, guessing from context means trying to infer the meaning of a target word from other words surrounded in the text (Schmitt, 1997). Even though learning a meaning of a word from context does not explicitly describe the meaning but this strategy encourages students to figure out the meaning by looking at the context (Nation, 1990). Thornbury (2002) noted that this strategy is considered to be very helpful and it is the one that most learners have already made use of but possibly without awareness. According to Nation (2001), guessing the meaning from context is considered to be incidental learning since it requires receptive skills (i.e. reading and listening) without deliberation of studying specific words. Schmitt (2010) explained that incidental learning occurs regardless of the intention of learning; for example, vocabulary can be learnt while reading for pleasure without purposive aim of studying new words. Liu and Nation (1985) mentioned that learners need to know at least 95% of the words in the context in order to be able to guess the meaning of the unfamiliar words (as cited in Nation, 2001). Likewise, Schmitt (2000) pinpointed that words must be familiar to learners at a high percentage otherwise it would not be easy to guess the meaning of the new word. It is also required that learners possess enough schemata or background knowledge concerning the context in question and the clues in context should be rich as well (McCarthy, 1990; Schmitt, 1997). According to Blachowicz and Fisher (2006), it is necessary for learners to know why and when to employ the context and know how to find clues and use them. Since guessing from context is not an easy task, teachers can help enhance students' guessing skills by

selecting material appropriate for their level to practice and provide them with training (Nation, 2001).

Dictionary use

Nation (2001) noted that dictionaries can be utilized for a variety of aims e.g. sources of information, spelling correction and pronunciation (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006; Macaro, 2003). To facilitate comprehension, a dictionary can be used to look up unfamiliar words encountered while listening, reading or translating, to check the meanings when uncertainty arises and to make clear if the guessed words from context are correct (Cohen, 1990; Gardner, 2013; Nation, 2001; Summers, 1988). Similarly, for productive skills, learners can use a dictionary to look up words to produce language, to check spelling and constraints of the words to be used. The skills essential for using dictionaries, according to Nation (2001), involve understanding the symbols used for various parts of speech and selecting the most suitable sub-entry among different meanings included in the main entry in order for a particular meaning to fit appropriately in the context. Summers (1988) asserted that examples illustrated in dictionaries are positively valuable as being good guidelines which contribute to both students' comprehension and production. Two main types of dictionaries are monolingual and bilingual dictionaries (McCarthy, 1990). The first one is written in one language while the latter contain two languages. It seems that learners prefer bilingual dictionaries to monolingual dictionaries since they are simpler to comprehend (Thornbury, 2002). Carter (2012) also echoed that learners tend to use bilingual dictionaries in the early stages of vocabulary learning and monolingual dictionary is used once they become more proficient. Generally, monolingual dictionaries have considerably more information of words; however, it is recommended that both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries can be used together to yield the most benefits (Nation, 2001). Additionally, Schmitt (1997) further advised that bilingual dictionaries be added with abundantly beneficial information since trouble can be found when learners mistakenly use the word to mean their expected meaning (Cohen, 1990). In order to use dictionaries effectively, it is significant that learners should be trained because not everyone is familiar with using dictionaries (Hunt & Beglar, 2002; Thornbury, 2002; Wallace, 1991).

2) Social Strategies (SOC)

This is the second category of discover strategies by asking other people who know the target word that the learners do not know; for example, asking teachers or friends for L1 translation, for a synonym, for a definition of the word by paraphrasing, and how to use the new word in a sentence (Schmitt, 1997, 2000).

Translation

Since it is impossible for learners to always guess the meanings, translation can be another option for them to resort to (Wallace, 1991). According to Thornbury (2002), translation has long been the most extensively employed aid to convert the meaning of one language into another in which its unique benefit is being direct in giving meanings of words, but too much dependence on it is not suggested. Translation can yield benefits in terms of its quickness and simplicity for learners to comprehend the meaning with ease; however, there can sometimes be a problem with the precise equivalence of an L2 word and its definition (Nation, 1990, 2001; Schmitt, 1997).

2.2.2.2 Consolidation Strategies

1) Social Strategies (SOC)

These social strategies involve learners participating in a group work, asking teachers to check their word lists or word cards for certainty and communicating with native speakers to enhance their vocabulary acquisition (Schmitt, 1997).

Group work activity

Nation (2001) emphasized the effectiveness of cooperative learning activities that they can help learners to acquire several meanings that a particular word has. Group activities can facilitate learners' use of language to sort things out and to get involved in meaningful interaction with others; for example, learners can support one another to try to get the meanings of unknown vocabulary words so that they comprehend the items, thus expanding their vocabulary knowledge and giving

opportunities for repetitive use of newly learnt words while working on the activities with peers (Ellis 1994; Murray & Christison, 2011; Nation & Newton, 1997).

2) Memory Strategies (MEM)

Memory strategies or frequently known as mnemonics deal with the connection of the new word to be memorized with preexisting knowledge with the aids of imagery or grouping for better retrieval of the word; moreover, physical actions can also be used to help recall words (Schmitt, 1997). Schmitt (2000) noted that memory strategies usually consist of mental processing which enhance long-term vocabulary retention. Thompson (as cited in Schmitt, 2009) described that

“...mnemonics work by utilizing some well-known principles of psychology: a retrieval plan is developed during encoding, and mental imagery, both visual and verbal, is used. They help individuals learn faster and recall better because they aid the integration of new material into existing cognitive units and because they provide retrieval cues” (p.211).

Schmitt (2000) highlighted the fact that most teachers all know that forgetting is natural in language learning in which receptive words are more likely to be easily forgotten compared to the productive counterparts. Therefore, mnemonics can be used as “tricks” to aid retrieval of words (Cohen, 1990; Rubin & Thompson, 1994; Thornbury, 2002). However, mnemonics are not supposed to be seen as replacement of other techniques such as contextual learning but they can be of great use for intentional vocabulary learning especially for the words that are difficult to achieve (Hulstijn, 1997).

Imagery

Pictures benefit learning in that learners can easily memorize things visually which are essential in helping learners retrieve the meaning (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997). However, according to Schmitt (2010) and Carter (2012), words with more concreteness (e.g. *table* in Hulstijn, 1997) allow learners to more easily imagine than the abstract counterparts (e.g. *peace* in Hulstijn, 1997).

Word association

Synonymy involves numerous words that provide the same meaning; when one wants to produce language but cannot recall the word, they then turn to relevant words instead (Schmitt, 2010). In contrast, antonyms refer to words that possess opposite meanings such as rich and poor, old and new, male and female (Hedge, 2000; Thornbury, 2002; Ur, 1996). However, Wallace (1991) mentioned that some educators wonder if true synonyms and antonyms exist. Similarly, Carter (2012) cautioned against the use of synonyms since words cannot always substitute one another in all situations. Semantic mapping can help learners draw connections between learnt words and new lexical items so that learners see the relationship between these words (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006; Nation & Newton, 1997).

Grouping

Grouping can be one of many good devices for learners to group similar items together for easier memorization (McCarthy, 1990) and grouping words can also enhance learners' retrieval of words; for instance, animals are categorized into the same group (Schmitt, 1997). Hyponymy shows the relationship of inclusion in which words are constituted within the same hierarchy or a general concept (Carter, 2012; McCarthy, 1990; Ur, 1996), meaning that a particular word consists of other words within its hierarchy (Hedge, 2000); for instance, the words "car" and "van" are hyponyms of the word "vehicle" (McCarthy, 1990).

Keyword method

Keyword is a memory technique which involves associating the target vocabulary item (L2) to a word which is pronounced or spelt similarly in the mother tongue language (L1), but does not need to relate in terms of meaning (Atkinson, 1975; Gairns & Redman, 1986). This method is claimed to be one of the most effective ways for word recall and retention (e.g. Hulstijn, 1997; Nation, 1990). This mnemonic technique divides vocabulary learning into two stages; for the first stage, learners are required to associate the spoken foreign word with the keyword due to acoustic similarity and generate a mental image (imagery) of the keyword in the second stage to link the connection between the target word to L1 translation

(Atkinson, 1975; Nation, 2001). When using this memory aid method, a catchy sentence or phrase that is associated with the target word in some way should be provided (Nist & Simpson, 1993). However, Atkinson and Raugh (1975) mentioned that the keyword should sound as much as possible like some part of the foreign word and it must be easy to form a memorable image linking the keyword and the target word translation.

It has been questionable whether the researcher should provide the keyword or the subjects should generate their own would be more effective. Although Nist and Simpson (1993) claimed that it is necessary to personalize keywords as it is easier to retrieve, Atkinson (1975) suggested that supplying the keywords to the learners is the best as indicated in the results from his studies. Nevertheless, according to Atkinson's (1975) experiment, having the learners create their own imagery link yielded better performance rather than providing them with the given image. Although the keyword technique is a highly effective technique, it has some limitations in that it is of little use for abstract words nor does it have any tricks to help spelling or pronunciation. In spite of its interference with correct pronunciation, it facilitates learners' vocabulary acquisition (Atkinson, 1975). This memory aid may not be appropriate for all learners, but it is possible that particularly some of those who have difficulty with memorizing foreign words will receive benefits from this method (Atkinson & Raugh, 1975).

This method yields beneficial backwash on both immediate and long-term vocabulary retention (Nation, 2001). In recent years, a considerable number of studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of the keyword method on second language vocabulary learning. Interestingly, the majority of them have shown that the keyword method is an effective strategy in acquiring L2 vocabulary which benefits both short and long term retention (e.g. Siriganjanavong, 2013). An example of this method is the word "licence" meaning "an official document that shows that permission has been given to do something": the word pronounced "lai-sen" in Thai means "signature". Thus, "lai-sen" is the keyword that is created to mean "permission".

Figure 2.2 Keyword for the word ‘licence’



Collocation

According to Nation (2001), “collocation” can be defined as “a group of words that belong together, either because they commonly occur together like “take a chance” (p.317), but he claimed this definition is still not enough and needs clearer explanation. McCarthy (1990) and Lewis (1997) explained that collocation is the relationship between words in which certain words are strongly related to each other while some are not, possibly depending upon the type of texts ; for example, the word “blond” has an extreme connection to the word “hair” and is rarely seen with other words except “hair” (McCarthy, 1990). Collocation is also an element that can point out if a combination of words in a particular context sound correct or not (Ur, 1996). Many educators are in agreement with the types of collocations which are divided into two main groups: grammatical/syntactic collocations and semantic/lexical collocations (Bahns, 1993 as cited in Schmitt, 2000; Benson, 1985; Biskup, 1992; Carter, 2012). The first group is in condition that dominant words are joined with grammatical words (e.g. abide by, acquainted with) while for the latter type, two equal words are adhered to each other; for example, noun and verb “ball bounces”, verb and noun “spend money”, and adjective and noun “cheerful expression” (Benson, 1985 as cited in Schmitt, 2000). With the pervasive collocation in vocabulary learning, Schmitt (2000) addressed that “these lexical phrases reflect the way the mind tends to “chunk” language in order to make it easier to process” (p.78). However, he stressed it is still difficult to acquire collocational knowledge and its complication identifies between those who are native and non-native speakers. In

addition, Schmitt (2000) believes collocation should more likely be taught to advanced learners who to a certain extent have already learnt the target words, as collocation is best learnt when building on the former experience of the words (Nation, 1990). To strengthen vocabulary retention, learners can learn a single word of the whole chunk and then utilize the chunk which in turn to help memorize the meanings of each individual word (Schmitt, 1997). Word frequency and collocation can be learnt with the contribution of corpus which provides authentic English language use in the database (Gardner, 2013; Morgan & Rinvoluceri, 2004; Nunan, 1999; Schmitt, 2000) ranging from academic texts, articles, newspapers to casual conversation which allows teachers and learners to have an easy access to the information (Thornbury, 2002). Schmitt (2000) and McCarthy (1990) pointed out that collocation for idioms and fixed phrases (i.e. fossilized word chunks) is less problematic for teaching since these collocations are stable unlike those of unpredictable collocations which there is no principle for learners to cling to. Nevertheless, phrasal verbs can be confusing due to their idiomatic meanings and grammatical forms (Thornbury, 2002). An example of an idiom is “let the cat out of the bag”, meaning reveal a secret; it can be seen that there is nothing to do with the cat (Wallace, 1991). Collocation knowledge is claimed to be part of the native speakers’ capacity and it is not surprising that even advanced learners of English language still make mistakes in the use of collocations (McCarthy, 1990). The best solution for gaining frequent collocations is to get exposed to the English language in many possible ways as much as one could (Wallace, 1991).

3) Cognitive Strategies (COG)

Schmitt (1997) mentioned that strategies in this category resemble the ones of the memory group; however, manipulative mental processing is not the emphasis here. He claimed that even though word lists and word cards can facilitate the initial meeting of a word, but they can as well be used to later continue reviewing. Moreover, with these strategies, learners can also listen to words from their own tape recording. In this taxonomy, it is also possible to learn the target words from the labels attached to the physical objects. According to Hedge (2000), cognitive strategies can be “thought processes used directly in learning which enable learners to

deal with the information presented in tasks and materials by working on it in different ways” (p.77) which involve repetition, note taking, and inferencing. Macaro (2003) emphasized that in cognitive strategies there appears to be careful scrutiny to the target word beginning with noticing its form and meaning followed by processing the word item in working memory prior to the commitment of the target vocabulary to long-term memory.

Written and Verbal Repetition

Learners in many countries seem to be accustomed to this type of strategies. Nation (2001) stated that repetition is important for learning vocabulary since a particular word needs to be repeated to be able to remember the knowledge.

Word lists

As word-frequency lists can be a great pedagogical tool in vocabulary learning, Schmitt (2000) emphasized that teachers must be assured that the word lists to be learnt actually represent the target language.

Flash cards

Besides the keyword method, word cards utilization plays quite a significant role among a large number of learners owing to its effectiveness for recall of memory and its ease for those who are not good at imaging (Thornbury, 2002). Nation (2001) referred to word cards as the relation of a target word and its meaning usually in L1 translation. A word card basically has a target word on one side and the meaning on the other side of the card (Cohen, 1990; Nation, 2001; Wallace, 1991). Language learners, according to Nation (2001), are supposed to recall the meaning of each word and if the learners cannot remember, they can flip the card over to see the meaning. Furthermore he pointed out that learning vocabulary from word cards can help learners directly concentrate on a specific aspect of word knowledge. Even though a number of learners use this strategy, it seems not to yield efficient results as it is supposed to; therefore, in order for learners to study word items effectively from word cards, Nation (2001) suggested they need to select useful items to learn (i.e. high-frequency words and the words they need to know). Moreover, the cards should be in

suitable size or small enough that learners can bring with them anywhere. In addition, Thornbury (2002) recommended that the cards be shuffled from time to time to ward off “serial effects”; in other words, shuffling words help learners avoid remembering words in terms of the order. Gardner (2013) noted that nowadays there is an easy access available to online flashcard programs with free of charge in which learners can test their vocabulary knowledge and create their own cards.

Taking notes

McCarthy (1990) views note taking as an essential method for many learners because writing notes can enhance their memorization such as spelling of the words. This strategy allows learners to take their own notes of the new target words in their own style and learners can always come back to review the notes taken from the class (Morgan & Rinvoluceri, 2004; Schmitt, 1997). Moreover, learners can write down words or phrases that attract them so that they can make use of these vocabulary items later (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006). Since there is not adequate time in class for reviewing words, learners have to learn words again on their own outside of the classroom from the notes they took and it is required that students have some training on how to make use of vocabulary notebooks such as giving them advice to have a separate notebook especially for vocabulary and checking their notebooks periodically, thus yielding encouragement to learners to continue keeping their vocabulary records (Thornbury, 2002). This strategy allows teachers to see development of learners by looking at how they take notes (McCarthy, 1990).

Glossary in a textbook

Teachers should provide students with glossing, a concise definition of words, in the texts to aid their reading (Schmitt, 2010) since glossing is much less time-consuming compared to using dictionary and it gives exact meanings of words that learners are not able to guess precisely, thus yielding better comprehension and vocabulary acquisition (Nation, 2001). Nation (1990) pointed out that glossary offers advantages for coping with low-frequency words i.e. words that are less used (Macaro, 2003) such as being a good means for learners’ confirmation of guessing the words and that learners can continue reading without much interruption.

4) Metacognitive Strategies (MET)

Hedge (2000) stated that metacognitive strategies consist of planning, thinking about learning, monitoring and evaluating oneself; for example, a learner prepares to read the following chapter of a book before studying, goes over the teacher's remarks on the written task, or reviews the information taken during the lesson. According to Schmitt's VLS taxonomy, learners can use these metacognitive strategies to manage and assess their own learning process. Learners can also test themselves with vocabulary tests to see their own progress and they should know when to skip or pass a word, especially a low frequency one in which they consider that a particular word will not be met for a long time. Since there are many language resources to be learnt from (i.e. books, magazines, newspapers and movies), learners should get exposed to L2 as much as possible and continue to learn new words in order to become successful in the target language (Schmitt, 1997).

Table 2.4 A taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 1997, p.207)

Strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning		
1	DET	Analyse part of speech
2	DET	Analyse affixes and roots
3	DET	Check for L1 cognate
4	DET	Analyse any available pictures or gestures
5	DET	Guess from textual context
6	DET	Bilingual dictionary
7	DET	Monolingual dictionary
8	DET	Word lists
9	DET	Flash cards
10	SOC	Ask teacher for an L1 translation
11	SOC	Ask teacher for a paraphrase or synonym of new word
12	SOC	Ask teacher for a sentence including the new word
13	SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
14	SOC	Discover new meaning through group work activity
Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered		
15	SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
16	SOC	Teacher checks students' flash cards or wordlists for accuracy
17	SOC	Interact with native speakers
18	MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning
19	MEM	Image word's meaning
20	MEM	Connect the word to a personal experience
21	MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates
22	MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms
23	MEM	Use semantic maps
24	MEM	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives
25	MEM	Peg method
26	MEM	Loci method
27	MEM	Group words together to study them

Table 2.4 (continued)

Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered		
28	MEM	Group words together spatially on a page
29	MEM	Use a new word in sentences
30	MEM	Group words together within a storyline
31	MEM	Study the spelling of a word
32	MEM	Study the sound of a word
33	MEM	Say new word aloud when studying
34	MEM	Image word form
35	MEM	Underline initial letter of the word
36	MEM	Configuration
37	MEM	Use Keyword Method
38	MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)
39	MEM	Part of speech (remembering)
40	MEM	Paraphrase the word's meaning
41	MEM	Use cognates in study
42	MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together
43	MEM	Use physical action when learning a word
44	MEM	Use semantic feature grids
45	COG	Verbal repetition
46	COG	Written repetition
47	COG	Word lists
48	COG	Flash cards
49	COG	Take notes in class
50	COG	Use the vocabulary section in your textbook
51	COG	Listen to tape of word lists
52	COG	Put English labels on physical objects
53	COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook
54	MET	Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.)
55	MET	Testing oneself with word tests
56	MET	Use spaced word practice

Table 2.4 (continued)

Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered		
57	MET	Skip or pass a new word
58	MET	Continue to study word over time

A large-scale study was carried out by Schmitt (1997) to find out what VLS Japanese students actually use and how helpful they perceive each strategy to be. He found out that, for discovery strategies, the learners employed bilingual dictionary as the most frequent strategy followed by using context clues to guess meaning and asking their friends. For consolidation strategies, repetition of words came to rank first among all which can be inferred from the EFL Japanese learning context in which learners always remember things by rote learning. Overall, it can be concluded that there are six strategies that students actually use and also consider them to be helpful: using bilingual dictionary, written repetition, oral repetition, saying a new word aloud, studying a word's spelling and taking notes in classroom. Another interesting issue that Schmitt pointed out is while most participants perceive the usefulness of monolingual dictionaries; however, only a few number of them reported using this strategy.

According to Gu and Johnson's (1996), most learners who succeed in learning vocabulary are those who employ a broad range of VLS and know how to choose the most suitable strategy for each particular task while the weak learners counterparts only make use of limited numbers of strategies (as cited in Nation, 2001, p.219). With a narrow range of vocabulary strategies employment, learners tend to be less successful in vocabulary acquisition (Richards & Renandya, 2002). As a result, as many strategies as possible should be taught to learners in order for them to be able to deal with many low-frequency words themselves instead of teaching individual word items (Nation, 1990).

2.3 Vocabulary instruction in a foreign language classroom

There are numerous teaching methodologies taking place in second language instruction since the early 1900s ranging from Grammar-Translation which focuses on grammar and translation for language practice with the reliance on bilingual dictionaries, Direct method (oral skills are emphasized), Audiolingual method (language habits are built through drills), to Communicative Language Teaching or CLT in which fluency is the main focus rather than accuracy with inadequate advice on how to learn vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). As can be seen from these methods, there is still a lack of systematic vocabulary learning and teaching (Summers, 1988; Schmitt, 2000); however, since the beginning of the twentieth century, principles for vocabulary learning have been introduced by many scholars (Schmitt, 2000).

In vocabulary acquisition, there are two primary learning processes namely, explicit and incidental learning (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Hunt & Beglar, 2002; Schmitt, 2000). While explicit instruction of vocabulary involves direct attention of learners in vocabulary learning which allows good opportunities for learners to directly acquire vocabulary knowledge, implicit learning happens when learners participate in such as communicative activities with no emphasis on explicit learning nor clear objectives stated (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Schmitt, 2000). Nation (1990) as well as Rubin and Thompson (1994) added, in explicit or direct learning, vocabulary can be emphasized while learners getting involved in exercises and activities; on the other hand, other aspects (i.e. making an attempt to produce or comprehend the message) receive attention when learners indirectly learn vocabulary especially from listening or reading, vocabulary strategies are thus called for to cope with unknown items. As there is limited time for explicit vocabulary teaching, extensive reading can be a very useful technique for incidental learning to help increase one's vocabulary acquisition (Hunt & Beglar, 2002; Schmitt, 2000) and learners need to have considerable exposure to the target language (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006; Gardner, 2013; Schmitt, 2000). In extensive reading, learners' interests and background knowledge are emphasized (Coady, 1997). Wallace (1991) recommended that teachers make a choice of books appropriate to students' vocabulary competence. It is necessary that high frequent words should be explicitly taught since they are essential

in actual language use and allow learners to continue their learning over time (Gardner, 2013; Nation & Newton, 1997; Schmitt, 2000). Nation and Newton (1997) pointed out that there is a huge number of low-frequency words and these words appear infrequently, thus learners can use vocabulary strategies to deal with them instead of having explicit instruction. Advantages of explicit vocabulary teaching are that a wide variety of strategies are introduced and autonomous learning is encouraged (McCarthy, 1990; Sokmen, 1997 as cited in Schmitt, 2000), meaning that they need to be responsible for their own vocabulary learning process (Thornbury, 2002). It is widely accepted that explicit instruction appears to yield more rapid acquisition than the implicit counterpart since it involves learners' conscious awareness (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013), thus becoming a more attractive way of teaching among many educators (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). Nonetheless, it comes to an agreement that both explicit and incidental vocabulary learning are important for L2 learners as these two types of vocabulary learning can complement each other, thus yielding more benefits in vocabulary acquisition (Nation & Newton, 1997; Schmitt, 2000).

Interestingly, research carried out by Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009) concerning the investigation on the effectiveness of explicit VLS instruction with Japanese EFL university learners revealed that a group of learners, provided with over a period of 10-week explicit VLS teaching integrated into their regular language classes, yielded better performance on the vocabulary test. From the findings, not only was the strategy training efficient for the improvement of learners' VLS frequency use, it also enhanced the utility of some particular strategies of the learners.

2.3.1 Strategy training

Nation (2001) expressed it is not simple to come up with a definition of "strategy"; nevertheless, he highlighted that a strategy is supposed to include numerous strategies and enhance vocabulary use. He stressed that VLS are beneficial throughout vocabulary learning process which makes learners be more independent and permits teachers to also focus on something else. He also advised that strategy training be integrated in a course with this suggested plan: teachers should make a

decision which strategies must be emphasized, know how to manage time wisely on training learners, offer opportunities for learners to practice strategies and give feedback on their strategy use. Nevertheless, Hedge (2000) proposed the definition of “learner training” as

a set of procedures or activities which raises learners’ awareness of what is involved in learning a foreign language, which encourages learners to become more involved, active and responsible in their own learning, and which helps them to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning (p.85).

Weaver and Cohen (1998) highly recommended that strategies-based instruction (SBI), a learner-centered approach that promotes strategy training in a classroom, be provided in the curriculum of a foreign language program to effectively enhance learners’ awareness of the learning strategies. With this instruction, they stated that learners take more control in learning a foreign language and it is not only a teachers’ duty but also the learners themselves who need to be part of responsibilities in L2 learning to become successful learners. Therefore, to facilitate learning, SBI can be integrated in the classroom to raise students’ awareness of strategies which can be used all over their learning process since this explicit strategy training teaches students to know how to make use of a wide variety of learning strategies. They added that all types of learners can develop their learning by receiving the training on how to boost their understanding and their language production with the explicit teaching of LLS. Fortunately, vocabulary strategy teaching can nicely be incorporated into any four language skills taught in a language course (Nation, 1990).

Oxford (1990) emphasized “learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process” (p.201) since the use of strategies requires training. She also mentioned that a large number of language teachers are proponents of explicit strategy training for that training must be practical instead of being abstract, thus yielding benefits to students and increasing meaningfulness in L2 learning. In order for a teacher to be a good trainer, Oxford stressed that it is necessary that teachers broaden their knowledge of the strategies as well.

The intention of this strategy training is to effectively give instruction to learners on how, when and why strategies can promote L2 learning so that the learners become aware and know the reasons for strategy use (Ellis, 2012; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 2002; Weaver & Cohen, 1998). These guided techniques help stimulate learners' process of vocabulary learning and allow learners to efficiently make use of strategies both inside and outside classroom (Macaro, 2003; Nation, 1990). Moreover, students are encouraged to self-evaluate and self-direct their own learning process, providing them opportunities to select strategies according to their preferences; learners also have a chance to practice how to monitor and evaluate the efficiency of their strategy use (Ellis, 1997; Hedge, 2000; Weaver & Cohen, 1998).

Useful steps for strategy training development proposed by Peasson and Dole are:

- 1) Initial modeling of the strategy by the teacher, with direct explanation of the strategy's use and importance;
- 2) Guided practice with the strategy;
- 3) Consolidation where teachers help students identify the strategy and decide when it might be used;
- 4) Independent practice with the strategy; and
- 5) Application of the strategy to new tasks.

(as cited in Weaver & Cohen, 1998, pp. 71-72)

Other helpful steps that can be followed are of Nation's (2001, p.223):

- 1) The teacher models the strategy for the learners.
- 2) The steps in the strategy are practised separately.
- 3) Learners apply the strategy in pairs supporting each other.
- 4) Learners report back on the application of the steps in the strategy.
- 5) Learners report on their difficulties and successes in using the strategy outside class time.
- 6) Teachers systematically test learners on strategy use and give them feedback.

- 7) Learners consult the teacher on their use of the strategy, seeking advice where necessary.

A summary of VLS instruction could be drawn from Nyikos and Fan's research (2007, p.273), which gives significant pedagogical implications:

Pedagogically, the main lessons of research are: (1) that integration of VLS [vocabulary learning strategies] into instruction appears to be more effective than non-integration, (2) that significantly better vocabulary performance is possible with VLS instruction, and (3) that combination of metacognitive and specific VLS seems to work better than either in isolation....In short, VLS instruction should be integrated throughout a course as a crucial pedagogical component in course materials which are sensitive to the learners's needs.

(as cited in Oxford, 2011, p. 256).

Thornbury (2002) and Cook (1996) added that frequency of words should be taken into consideration and that the most frequent vocabulary should be taught initially because it is one of the key elements in strategy training. Thornbury (2002) also advocates vocabulary testing because without testing, it is difficult to assess how efficient the teaching process has been implemented and testing also yields a beneficial backwash in terms of prompting learners to study harder and be well prepared for the test. In addition to monitoring students' progress, tests also allow teachers to see whether their students have gained enough vocabulary knowledge to respond their needs (Read, 2000). According to Heaton (1988), lexical items to be tested should be carefully selected to test vocabulary knowledge of the learners; the test constructor can choose words from learners' textbooks or materials, and learners' errors from their writing or from their wrong responses in a cloze test.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) concluded in his learning strategies instruction framework that strategy training would rather be incorporated in regular classroom teaching instead of being a separate course and that "direct instruction" of strategy training is more preferable to "embedded instruction" in that the former one allows the students to know the purpose of the strategy. However, Schmitt (2000) asserted

that “in any well-structured vocabulary program there needs to be the proper mix of explicit teaching and activities from which incidental learning can occur” (p.145).

It has been reported from much research concerning learner training that successful learners employ these following strategies: paying attention to both forms (i.e. spelling, pronunciation and stressing) and meanings of words, guessing meanings from the context very well, making use variety of strategies to deal with words, and organizing their own learning process meaning that they have already become independent learners (Ellis, 1997; Thornbury, 2002).

2.3.2 Teacher’s role

Thornbury (2002) suggested that teachers can motivate their students to take importance of vocabulary learning into account and equip them with ideas.

Oxford (1990) mentioned new roles in teaching that teachers should identify their students’ learning strategies, offer strategy training and encourage them to become independent learners because if students possess more responsibility, language learning acquisition will become successful.

Gardner (2013, p.108) proposed four questions as a guide for teachers:

- 1) What is a useful overall approach for addressing the vocabulary needs of my particular learners?
- 2) How do I deal with the immediate vocabulary needs of my learners?
- 3) How do I prepare my students to be independent word learners and to negotiate unknown vocabulary they will encounter outside of my instructional influence?
- 4) What specific vocabulary strategies are essential for my learners to know?

Four guidelines to become effective vocabulary teachers are also introduced by Blachowicz and Fisher (2006, p.6) as follows:

- 1) The effective vocabulary teacher builds a word-rich environment in which students are immersed in words for both incidental and intentional learning.

- 2) The effective vocabulary teacher helps students develop as independent word learners.
- 3) The effective vocabulary teacher uses instructional strategies that not only teach vocabulary effectively but model good word-learning behaviours.
- 4) The effective vocabulary teacher uses assessment that matches the goal of instruction.

With consideration of teachers' role, Rubin (1987) affirmed that teachers are undoubtedly able to facilitate students' use of strategies by giving them optional strategies for their learning organization, so that they can figure out what strategies suit their learning the most. Moreover, teachers are supposed to comprehend and allow time for strategy training since it is their responsibility to make learners value the importance of the training (Nation, 2001).

Oxford (2002) mentioned multiple ways teachers can encourage the effective strategy use: examining learners' use of strategies through strategy surveys, observations or discussion with learners and noticing the effectiveness of their strategies used, equipping learners with a wide variety of strategies, modelling how to employ a cluster of strategies for a particular task (e.g. starting with metacognitive strategy followed by cognitive with a social strategy), incorporating strategy training into regular pedagogy instead of a separate course, and asking learners to make an evaluation on their own strategies use.

Teachers are supposed to both explicitly and implicitly introduce strategies into their daily teaching materials so that learners can practice the strategies taught; that is to say, in SBI, explicit teaching is emphasized for some times and for other times the strategies will also be implicitly put into the tasks or textbooks (Weaver & Cohen, 1998).

A good teacher should not ignore the assessment of their learners' progress; in order to do this, the vocabulary tests must have validity and reliability to yield satisfying results (Wallace, 1991). Likewise, Coady (1997) mentioned vocabulary knowledge of students should be assessed so that it can help them to be able to select suitable texts for their own learning.

Gardner (2013) supports direct vocabulary instruction since it guides learners to become autonomous in learning vocabulary with the help of the teachers in the way that the teachers directly teach essential words, provide learning materials and teach vocabulary strategies. He also emphasized that teachers should model before asking learners to learn things themselves and give them a great deal of opportunities for them to practice.

2.4 Beliefs and Practices

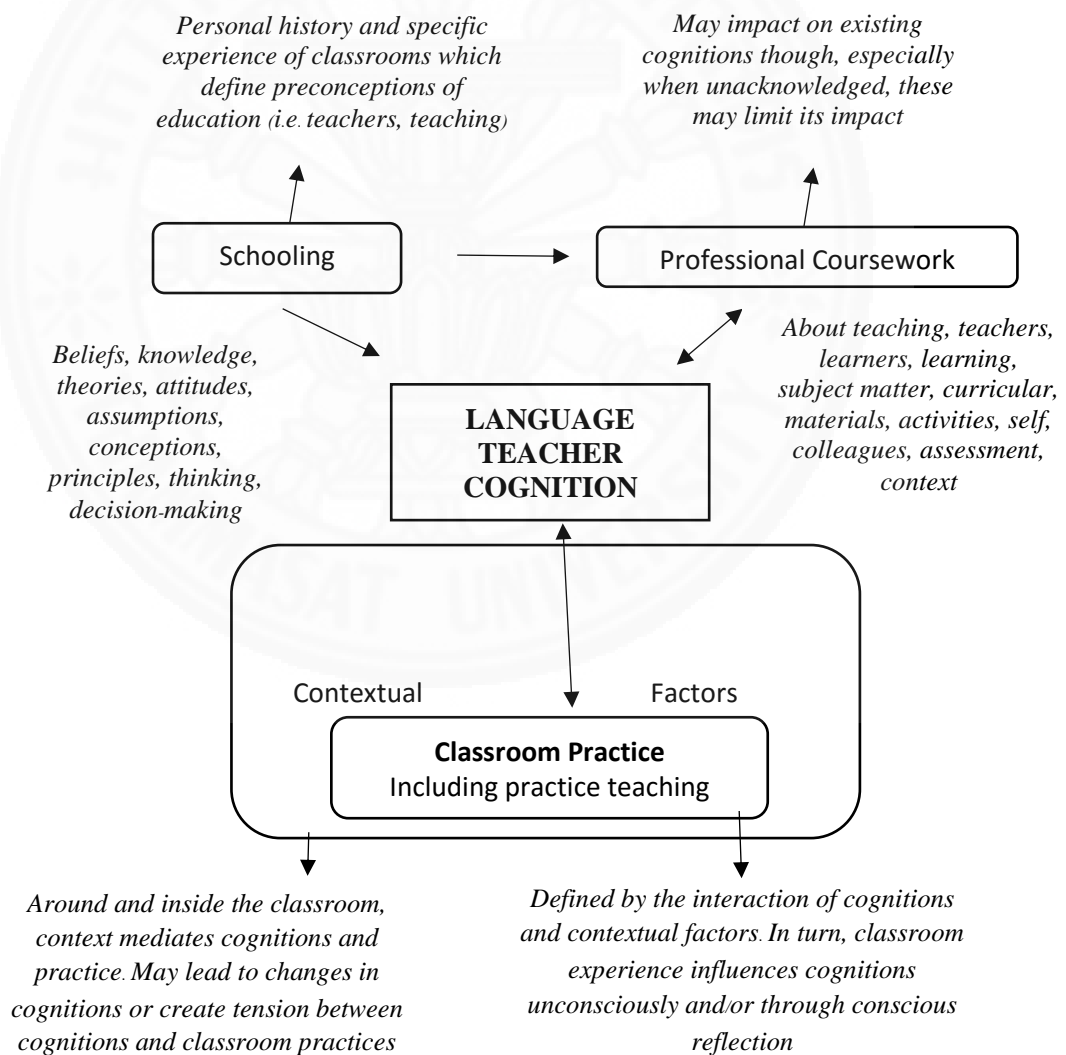
2.4.1 Teachers' Beliefs and Pedagogical Practices

Teachers' beliefs acquired from many sources such as prior learning, teaching experiences, teacher training, school practice, colleagues, educators and researchers can all influence classroom practices (Ellis, 2012; Hall, 2011; Johnson, 1999; Richards, 1998; Woods, 1996). Generally speaking, beliefs can bring about how teachers think and behave in the classroom and are not easy to change (Johnson, 1999). Belief systems i.e. “the information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom” (p.66) are considered to be a principal source of pedagogical practices (Richards, 1998). However, Pajares (1992) viewed teachers' beliefs as unsettled conceptions in which different definitions have been given to this concept, thus yielding unclear mutual understandings of beliefs. Since the concept of “beliefs” has played a very important role in language education, Pajares then stated it is essential for the researchers that the nature of beliefs and belief systems should clearly be defined. In Borg's (2001) views, beliefs are associated with various facets of language teaching and can refer to “a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual” (p.186). Pajares (1992) noted that teachers' beliefs involve teachers' attitudes about education—about schooling, teaching, learning, and students (p.316)'.

Borg (2003) utilized the term “cognition” to refer to unobservable cognitive components of teaching (i.e. what teachers know, believe and think) as these components are interrelated. Borg (2006) presented a diagram (Figure 2.3) depicting

how language teachers' cognitions relate to other constructs namely, teacher learning (through schooling and professional coursework) and their classroom practices. He pointed out that teachers' experiences as learners in previous education and their professional training can influence their cognitions. Meanwhile, teachers' cognitions and their practices influence one another. The importance of this framework has been spotted in that it helps raise researchers' awareness of the relationship between teachers' cognitions and other crucial elements, especially their classroom practices.

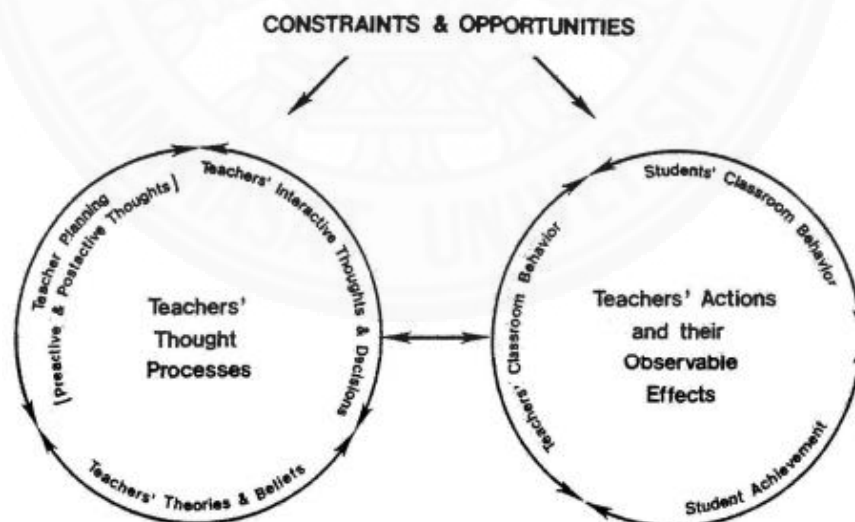
Figure 2.3 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition
(Borg, 2006, p.283)



Clark and Peterson (1986) illustrated teachers' thought processes and actions in their model (Figure 2.4) in which there are two main domains namely, "Teachers' Thought Processes" and "Teachers' Actions and their Observable Effects" (as cited in Borg, 2006; Ahmad, 2008). It is worth studying this model since it can enhance understanding of the teaching process. The first circle represents teachers' thought processes which are unobservable consisting of teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, teacher planning (preactive and postactive thoughts) and teachers' theories and beliefs. On the other hand, the second circle shows actions that are observable including teachers' classroom behavior, students' classroom behavior and student achievement. The arrows indicate the relationship between these components in the two circles in which thoughts can affect actions and can, in turn, be influenced by actions as well. Moreover, it should be noted that other factors i.e. constraints and opportunities can also make an impact on both teachers' thoughts and actions.

Figure 2.4 A model of teacher thought and action

(Clark and Peterson, 1986, p.25 as cited in Ahmad, 2008; Borg, 2006)



Woods (1996) argued there is no clear distinction between the concepts of "beliefs" and "knowledge". While knowledge concerns what teachers know based on acknowledged facts, beliefs may refer to what teachers believe based on their

judgement (Pajares, 1992; Woods, 1996). Woods (1996) also pointed out the fact that there is an overlap between these two terms as he found in his interviews that what teachers revealed about the use of knowledge and the use of beliefs did not differ from each other. For this reason, he then integrated these similar terms to refer to the same concept called BAK (i.e. beliefs, assumptions and knowledge) in which “teachers use it to explain their thinking and their behaviour” (p.196). Therefore, his BAK systems are considered comprehensive in his own views and these three themes show interrelationships among themselves which can excellently represent teachers’ verbalizations.

Beliefs cannot be explicitly examined; however, the researchers can infer from what teachers say or perform in order to elicit the conceptions underlying their beliefs (Pajares, 1992). To investigate teachers’ beliefs, various research instruments can be used to elicit teachers’ thoughts such as questionnaires, interviews and think-aloud protocol, thus revealing more insights into their beliefs in language teaching (Richards, 1998). Borg (2006) stressed the widespread use of questionnaires as a popular tool to investigate teachers’ beliefs in the area of language teaching because a great quantity of data can be simply collected without much effort; however, observations or interviews can also be incorporated to fulfil the reliability of the results; for example, interviews allow teachers to elaborate their beliefs and thoughts which cannot easily be drawn from questionnaires.

As Gebhard (1996) stated, since there are “no born teachers” (p.5), the self-development on language teaching is so essential that even teachers with high experience should always continue developing their teaching beliefs and classroom practices.

2.4.2 Relevant studies

A large number of studies have investigated into teachers’ beliefs and classroom practices. However, there are both congruence and mismatches revealed between teachers’ beliefs and practices. It is worth noting that teachers’ beliefs may also vary from culture to culture.

Lai (2005) conducted research to find out EFL teachers' awareness, beliefs and their pedagogical practices in teaching vocabulary learning strategies in Taiwan where VLS instruction have not been emphasized. The researcher described that even Taiwanese teachers themselves have been taught through grammar-translation method in which rote learning is preferable, so Lai had a special interest to survey this issue. The questionnaires developed based on Schmitt's (1997) VLS taxonomy were administered to twenty EFL in-service senior high school teachers. Both closed-ended and open-ended items were included in the questionnaire in which the open-ended questions were intended to allow the respondents to answer openly without constraints of settled choices provided. The results suggested EFL Taiwanese teachers were aware of VLS based on their previous learning experiences. Unsurprisingly, the strategies "read a word repeatedly" and "write a word repeatedly" were reported using the most frequently since teachers seem to be quite familiar with "repetition" strategy as recognized from the Taiwanese context. Moreover, 95% of the respondents revealed they employ word lists from the textbook to teach vocabulary, thus reflecting how the teaching practice in Taiwan has been. Regarding the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and practices, the findings showed an overall positive correlation between these two variables meaning that the strategies that the teachers perceive as useful are prone to be taught accordingly. However, there existed some discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and actual implementation of VLS, thus leading to inefficient instruction; this may be due to some factors such as time constraints and teachers' lack of training. Therefore, the researcher concluded that it is crucial that both pre-service and in-service teachers are equipped with VLS awareness-raising and training workshops so as to fulfil their pedagogical practices.

Farrell and Lim (2005) conducted a case study for two months to investigate two English language teachers' perceptions and their actual practices of grammar teaching in Singapore. The researchers collected data with pre-study interview, non-participatory observations along with pre and post lesson interviews, students' written work samples and pedagogical materials. The results revealed that both participants are in agreement that grammar teaching is of importance as an aid for students to create proper grammatical structures in their written tasks. Furthermore, the teachers tend to support grammar drills as seen helpful in their own views. The teacher-

centered approach was adopted in their classes and both the participants gave feedback on the students' writing compositions by correcting the errors. There was a firm congruence between beliefs and practices found in one participant in that what she actually taught in the classroom was consistent with her beliefs in traditional approach. Another teacher tends to prefer indirect grammar teaching (i.e. integrated into other skills such as speaking, writing and reading), but it was found that there occurred some mismatches; for example, she taught explicit grammar which was contrast to her own beliefs.

Nishino (2008) explored beliefs and classroom practices of twenty one Japanese teachers in communicative language teaching (CLT) through a survey. Most of the teachers were aware of CLT and primarily stated they learned by themselves. The respondents possessed rather clear understanding towards CLT and the majority thought CLT was beneficial for their learners in terms of enhancing effective communication and offering enjoyment. These teachers revealed that they would like to involve their students in more communicative activities. However, there appears to be some contextual factors affecting the CLT implementation (e.g. inadequate financial support for teacher training, number of class hours and class size); some teachers claimed they could manage better with a smaller class when having to deal with students doing group work and it would yield more effective results if time could be extended for communicative tasks. In addition, despite the teachers' desire to implement CLT in class, they admitted that listening and speaking skills are less necessary for the entrance examination, thus maintaining the beliefs in importance of grammar and vocabulary testing purposes over communicative skills.

Phipps and Borg (2009) carried out a study on tensions between teachers' grammar instruction beliefs and practices. The researchers observed and interviewed three EFL English teachers working at a preparatory school in Turkey over an 18-month period. While observations in a natural setting offered insightful evidence into how grammar was instructed, semi-structured interviews were also used to investigate teachers' beliefs underlying their classroom practices. In this research, "tensions" is referred to discrepancies among different elements. After each lesson, the participants were interviewed to elaborate upon perspectives of their lesson in terms of the activities they used and the reasons for their in-class decisions. The researchers

conducted each post-lesson interview after a few days of the lesson so that the teachers had time to reflect on how they taught. The interval was not too long as it might affect the teachers' recall. The findings showed that teachers' beliefs were generally congruent with their instructional practices in grammar teaching in that all the teachers seemed to make use of "focus-on-forms" approach. Nevertheless, some tensions arose between their expressed beliefs and practices linked with three aspects: presenting grammar, controlled grammar practice and group-work. For example, teachers' beliefs contrast with how their students expect them to teach.

Lee (2009) examined secondary school EFL teachers' beliefs and their practices in giving students written feedback. She collected data from two sources including feedback analysis of written texts from 26 teachers in Hong Kong followed by interviews with seven of the teachers and questionnaires distributed to 206 participants along with follow-up interviews with 19 of the participants. The aim of the first data source was to look into teachers' written feedback practices. Meanwhile, the second source was intended to investigate the participants' beliefs and reported practice, with an emphasis on error correction. Disparities between teachers' beliefs and their practices were found as follows: teachers excessively gave feedback on students' use of language form but they also believe that good writing constitutes not only accuracy but also on favourable concepts and overall organization. Another mismatch is that most of the teachers always spot errors exhaustively in which this practice does not conform to their beliefs of selective marking preference as required by a school policy for such a practice. Next, teachers reported they usually correct their students' errors while they believed that students should be able to correct their own errors. Moreover, the majority of respondents reported that they make use of error codes even though they know that weak students' capability to decipher error codes is constrained. Additionally, while teachers perceived the usefulness of process writing, they only have their students perform one-shot writing due to limited time to allow multiple drafting since various text types also need to be covered for exam preparation.

Another case study was carried out by Kuzborska (2011) to explore eight EAP teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching reading to advanced learners in Lithuanian university. Many instruments were employed in this five-month period research

namely, lesson observation, video stimulated recall followed by interviews and documents (i.e. syllabuses, textbooks and tests) in order to gain richer data of teachers' actual practices. After being observed, the participants were asked to view the video tape or listen to the tape and describe what they were thinking and performing at that time; this video-stimulated recall session was conducted no later than a week after the observations. It was found from the results that teachers' beliefs were consistent with their classroom practices in that they placed an emphasis on vocabulary, translation, reading aloud, and whole class work. It can be concluded that teachers' behaviours were guided by their own beliefs and resulted from their background knowledge or teaching experiences. However, as the findings showed, teachers' understanding of alternative practices is still absent. To find a solution to this issue, teachers should be equipped with preparatory workshops so that they can have opportunities to learn new reading approaches.

Young and Sachdev (2011) attempted to find out the relationship between experienced English language teachers' beliefs and practices in the USA, UK and France. Multi methods were used to elicit data from the teachers' implementation of a model of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) to English language programs. Twenty one teachers working in private language schools from these countries participated in the study. There were two major stages in carrying out this research. In the first stage, the participants were requested to record diaries of what happened in class with the follow-up focus group interviews in which the diary was to help them remember the situations in the classroom. Secondly, a larger group of 105 participants was administered with questionnaires in order to seek out their perceptions of ICC model and the results given were to support the findings from the focus group interviews; for example, to investigate if they understood what the model was and if it was essential to be incorporated in an EFL program. From the findings of focus groups, solid views illustrated that teachers in all countries did not consider the ICC model as an explicit element of the school curriculum in spite of their beliefs in positive outcomes on language learning and teaching. Interestingly, there was a common accord among teachers that ICC should be introduced to the students owing to its benefits to pedagogy. The survey findings reported that most teachers claimed that they knew the meaning of ICC and the participants also believed that it is their

responsibility to promote international understanding. To sum up, discrepancies were found between teachers' beliefs and practices in that there is hesitation in implementing ICC despite teachers' views of its usefulness. This might be due to a lack of students' interest, a lack of ICC testing and possibly inadequacy of teacher training.

Mak (2011) conducted research on pre-service and EFL teacher's beliefs and practices of the application of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the Hong Kong context. This longitudinal study lasted one year at postgraduate teacher education program with the purpose to see a teacher's continual development. A triangulation of methods was used to collect data and compare results at each stage of the participant's beliefs consisting of these instruments: questionnaires, interviews, field notes, conferences between the course instructor and the participant, advisors' feedback and interviews with instructors. At first, the participant took the view that CLT could be efficient to drive students' learning and she had a positive intention that this approach should be implemented in the classrooms; however, she expressed concern over its practicality in the classroom due to class hours and class size. In her classes of the first teaching practicum, she made use of authentic materials and provided students with pair/group work activities to raise students' motivation in using the language. From her experiment with CLT, she viewed this approach as beneficial in that her students seemed to be more attentive when dealing with the tasks; however, she adopted the teacher-centered approach from the other teachers' practices to teach the senior classes as she thought there appeared many language points to be covered. In the second teaching practicum, she realized that her students were not active in participating activities as she explained that it is not practical to encourage student talk due to their local learning culture and she eventually revealed that it was much simpler for her to take control of the class. Overall, the disparities between the participants' beliefs and practices occurred according to the needs to adapt to local teaching context and the participants' own previous learning experiences.

Research done by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) gave a very valuable insight into teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy with the use of triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Sixty-one English teachers

from a university in Oman were involved in the study in which twenty of them were selected to join the interview session to elicit more in-depth information from teachers' views towards learner autonomy. The researchers developed a well-designed questionnaire according to their concerns in that they would like the instrument to be pertinent, professional-looking and not complicated to fill out, thus making them go through considerable revision before actually launching the questionnaires. After the administration of the questionnaires, they carried out follow-up semi-structured interviews in order to examine in more detail participants' responses to the questionnaire. The results from this research revealed that most teachers' understandings of the learner autonomy concept were consistent with the literature reviewed by the researchers. The majority of participants were also in agreement that learner autonomy is beneficial to L2 learning. Regarding the desirability and feasibility in promoting learner autonomy, the rating for the former was significantly higher than the latter in nearly all statements provided in the questionnaire, thus showing incongruity between teachers' beliefs and their reported feasible practices. The participants were also asked whether they felt their students were autonomous. The findings yielded approximately equal weight from both negative and positive sides i.e. almost half of them disagreed that their students were autonomous while the other half agreed. However, most of the teachers reported that they believed they promoted learner autonomy in their instructional practices. In addition, the difficulties in enhancing learner autonomy were identified as the factors concerning learners, institution and teachers such as learners' lack of motivation, limited space with the curriculum and teachers' limited expectations.

Azari, Moeini and Shafiee (2014) investigated EFL teachers' awareness, beliefs and instructional practices in VLS. This study was carried out with fifty participants from various language institutes in Iran in which twenty three of them had received training from preparatory education workshops while the others learned by self-study. The researchers employed a questionnaire as an instrument to collect data. This exploratory research is quite similar to that of Lai's (2005) in terms of a tool used and the results in that these studies are consistent in the way that the teachers were aware of a range of VLS based on personal learning background. On the whole, the findings yielded a positive correlation between teachers' beliefs and

their teaching practices. The teachers used particular strategies to teach more frequently in the classroom according to their perceived usefulness of the strategies. However, there is a lack of congruence between these two variables found in some teachers' practices since some strategies that teachers believed useful were not frequently implemented in the classroom, thus implying an urgent need to involve teachers in an effective training program to cope with present difficulties.

In conclusion, only two relevant research studies directly focus on vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) i.e. those of Azari, Moeini and Shafiee (2014) and Lai (2005). With the use of the questionnaire, the findings of these two studies showed the same results of an overall positive correlation between teachers' beliefs and practices with a few mismatches which occurred due to some contextual factors such as time constraints and teachers' lack of training. The other researchers involved in the field of beliefs and practices conducted their studies on various aspects namely, communicative language teaching (CLT), grammar instruction, written feedback, reading instruction, implementation of a model of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), and learner autonomy. Similarly, the results of these studies also revealed that most of the participants tend to teach according to what they believe is useful to their students; yet, some incongruence was detected in many studies due to the teachers' hesitation in implementing each specific teaching method in spite of teachers' perception of its usefulness. Obviously, there is a lack of research carried out specifically on VLS regarding teachers' beliefs and instructional practices, thus leading the researcher to continue examining this valuable topic by making use of multiple methods i.e. questionnaires and interviews. The employment of interviews can supplement what has not been utilized in the research of Azari, Moeini and Shafiee (2014) and Lai (2005); this can benefit the outcomes of the present study. In order to come up with the instruments to be administered, the section that investigates teachers' preferable strategies and correlation between teachers' beliefs and practices will be based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy of VLS as reviewed in the literature. Lastly, the issue of "teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools" has been added in this current study to fulfil the inadequacy viewed by two earlier studies, thus yielding more in-depth data.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section includes the information about participants of the study, research instruments, research procedures and data analysis of the study.

3.1 Participants

The participants for this study were 90 in-service Thai EFL teachers who are currently teaching at a high school level in public schools in Maha Sarakham province, Thailand. The sample size for teachers was based on Taro Yamane's formula to find out the sample to be included in this study with a 95% confidence level in which $P = .5$ was assumed for equation. Yamane (as cited in Israel, 1992) presents a simplified formula for the calculation of sample size where n is the sample size, N is the population size and e is the level of precision (sampling error) which is .05 as following:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2}$$

Cluster sampling which is one type of probability sampling was used in this current study in which population was divided into natural groupings according to geographical locations of the province and treating the teachers within a local area as a cluster. For this study, one-stage cluster sampling was applied.

The process of the calculation for the sample can be demonstrated as follows:

Step 1 All clusters that constitute the population were listed.

Figure 3.1 Clusters according to districts in Maha Sarakham



Step 2 Yamane's formula was calculated to draw a sample which came out to be 158 teachers from the population of 261 teachers as a whole.

The equation was applied as follow:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2}$$

n = sample size

N = population size

e = acceptable sampling error (.05)

$$n = \frac{261}{1+(261 \times 0.05^2)}$$

$$n = 158$$

Step 3 Clusters were obtained by random selection of five clusters from thirteen clusters using Excel.

In order to satisfy the expected number of 158 participants obtained from Yamane's formula, the researcher then tried to gather the proper number of sample by randomly selecting the clusters from the whole population until a certain number of clusters was met, ending up with five clusters altogether with 167 teachers, a number which was slightly higher than the initial calculation. However, only 90 out of 167

participants were able to submit data by distributing the questionnaires at each school, owing to their availability during the period of data collection.

3.2 Research instruments

To collect data on teachers' beliefs and practices, both quantitative and qualitative methods were applied using a questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Dörnyei (2007) illustrated the strengths of triangulation in that mixed methods can improve the validity of research outcomes and reduce bias in the study. Also, it is advised to utilize multiple tools to triangulate findings from mixed methods of both quantitative and qualitative in order to gain more reliability of the results as "qualitative methodologies can often enhance the information we get from quantitative approaches" (Schmitt, 2010, p.149). The integration of both procedures was thus considered to be very beneficial for this current study. There were two phases for this research including administering questionnaires and conducting semi-structured interviews.

3.2.1 Questionnaire

According to Nunan and Bailey (2009), questionnaires are a popular and convenient device in which the data means can be easily collated. To accomplish this research, questionnaires can allow a large sample of the given population to be contacted with ease and are relatively simple for the respondents to complete. The return rates of the questionnaire are also satisfying when the questionnaires are directly administered to the teachers at their schools.

Before conducting the first phrase of the study, the researcher received some feedback from the experts on the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) of the questionnaire to see if the questions provided in the survey corresponded to the research questions posed in this study. Some statements were also required to be rewritten for clearer understandings such as the titles of each section and some items regarding VLS, making the questionnaire more valid and reliable before its actual launch. In addition, the format of the questionnaire was also improved.

After analysing the data gained from the survey, the researcher came up with some interview questions to further elicit information from the respondents who volunteered to be involved in the second phase of the study. The researcher once again had all the interview questions reviewed by the same experts to approve the questions. One expert suggested how to come up with a better way of asking questions in order to effectively gain the needed information.

This survey is based on Schmitt's (1997) VLS taxonomy since his compilation provides the most comprehensive classification of strategies, thus covering all the strategies needed to conduct this research. The questionnaire for this research consists of three parts as follows (see Appendix A).

Part A

Part A consists of four questions asking about the participants' personal background information including years of experience as an EFL teacher in a high school, highest educational qualification, gender and experience in training on how to teach vocabulary learning strategies.

Part B

This part was adapted from the original questionnaire of Lai's (2005) consisting of 38 closed-ended statements to find out teachers' beliefs and their actual practices in vocabulary learning strategies. The items were all adopted from Schmitt's (1997) VLS taxonomy in which most suitable statements were carefully selected to correspond to the Thai instructional setting. Among Schmitt's 58 strategies, some were omitted due to some constraints; for example "using cognates" was discarded since Thai language is not from the same origin as English. To make it clear for certain strategies, explanation and examples were provided for the participants; for instance, "keyword method" is not a common strategy that everyone is familiar with, so illustration was needed to ensure that the respondents comprehend the strategy before giving a response.

Regarding the rating scale for the questionnaire, a five-point Likert scale was employed to cover respondents' various views instead of a six-point Likert scale in the original work of Lai's (2005) to avoid confusion and complexity of the frequency.

Two sets of scale were presented separately for the participants to rate each item, i.e. teachers' beliefs in usefulness of the strategies and teachers' actual practices of the strategies in the classroom as shown in Table 3.1. Both scales were assigned numerical values in which the lowest score is 1 and the highest score is 5.

Table 3.1 Five-point Likert scales of teachers' beliefs and practices

Teachers' beliefs in usefulness of the strategies			Teachers' actual practices of the strategies in the classroom		
5	=	Very useful	5	=	Always
4	=	Useful	4	=	Often
3	=	Moderately useful	3	=	Sometimes
2	=	Slightly useful	2	=	Seldom
1	=	Not at all useful	1	=	Never

Part C

A follow-up question was intended to explore teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students if they consider teaching vocabulary strategies necessary and to find out their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools by having the teachers who consider teaching vocabulary strategies necessary respond to the following five statements given regarding whether the support is needed or not. The checklist was developed by the researcher under an advisor's recommendation, based on the findings of related studies (Azari, Moeini & Shafiee, 2014; Lai, 2005) concerning the factors that impede teachers' VLS instruction.

3.2.2 Semi-structured interview

Interview is one of the elicitation procedures employed to collect the informants' views and attitudes or their language learning background (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Schmitt (2010) affirms that interviews used in quantitative design can furnish the study with rich information as a supplement of statistical data. Moreover,

in-depth interviews can also help the researchers elicit whether the participants' responses in the questionnaires have been given sufficient attention. In addition, Nunan and Bailey (2009) state that in a semi-structured interview, the researcher has a general idea of the interview or may have prepared questions. Unlike a structured-interview, this type of interview is more flexible and utilized by many field researchers.

Phase 2 of this study was conducted using follow-up interviews with teachers who had completed the survey and volunteered to be involved in this session. The researcher aimed to gather participants' information in more detail and to make use of the data collected to compare to that of the questionnaires. The interviews were conducted with 9 teachers employing one-on-one interview with approximately 10 minutes for each participant. The interviewees selected were volunteers from both the groups whose responses in the questionnaire consist of mismatches (negative correlation) between their beliefs and teaching practices and the ones whose answers were congruent (positive correlation).

The interview questions were developed corresponding to the questionnaires to seek out teachers' beliefs and practices (see Appendix C). Once again the questions were reviewed by the same experts to help ensure that the questions were appropriate to answer the research questions. Throughout the process of interviewing, audio recording was used with teachers' permission.

3.3 Research procedures

Initially, the questionnaire was translated from English into Thai to gain mutual understandings between the respondents and the researcher. A Thai version of the questionnaire (see Appendix B) was piloted with those who possess similar characteristics as the expected sample (i.e. 14 Thai EFL teachers from public high schools within one cluster from the same population who have experience in teaching vocabulary, however; these teachers were not included in the sample) and some changes were made in the questionnaire according to the feedback from data collection in the piloting process: i.e. the purpose of the study attached to the questionnaire was shortened in order for the participants to have more time to

concentrate on the questions and the lengthy written consent form that asked the respondents to sign their names before completing the questionnaire was also left out and replaced by oral consent to allow a quicker process in completing the questionnaire. The first phase of data collection took place approximately two weeks in March 2016 using survey questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered to the participants at their schools with the approval of the directors of each institution. The research purposes were attached to the questionnaire to inform the teachers about the intention of the researcher. According to the calculation of the sample size, teachers within five selected clusters were asked to complete the questionnaires. The data collected from all participants were kept confidential in terms of ethics. For those who were interested in the results of the study were required to leave an email so that the researcher could send back the findings, thus offering them benefits from the research.

Next, after analysing all the data from the questionnaires, the researcher continued to conduct the second phase of data collection by carrying out follow-up semi-structured interviews with the teachers who volunteered to participate in this session in April 2016. There were twenty one teachers who were willing to be interviewed but only 10 percent of all participants (90 teachers) was needed in order to be representatives of the whole population. Thus 9 from 21 teachers were chosen to be involved in the interview session, including both whose results showed negative (1 teacher) and positive correlations (8 teachers), and were asked for permission for audio recording so that the researcher could refer back to the data at any time, thus yielding benefits to the transcribing process. Interviews were carried out using Thai language to promote mutual understandings between the researcher and the interviewees. Then, the transcriptions were translated into English by the researcher (see Appendix D).

3.4 Data analysis

The closed-ended questions data in the survey were analysed statistically utilizing SPSS program consisting of descriptive statistics (i.e. mean scores, standard deviation, frequency and percentage). Each mean score of VLS was calculated to represent to what extent the average of participants preferred each strategy both in terms of their beliefs and practices. To investigate teachers' preferences for VLS, the mean score obtained from each strategy was assigned into each category of the level of preference according to its degree of usefulness and practices as illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Interpretation of the mean scores according to the preference level

Mean	Preference level of usefulness
4.21 – 5.00	Highest (Ht)
3.41 – 4.20	High (H)
2.61 – 3.40	Moderate (M)
1.81 – 2.60	Low (L)
1.00 – 1.80	Lowest (Lt)
Mean	Preference level of practices
4.21 – 5.00	Highest (Ht)
3.41 – 4.20	High (H)
2.61 – 3.40	Moderate (M)
1.81 – 2.60	Low (L)
1.00 – 1.80	Lowest (Lt)

In order to find the relationship between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices, Pearson's correlation coefficients was computed. The open-ended responses from the questionnaires and the interview data were coded and categorised into themes in which the statements that were under the same themes were put into the same category and the findings were then presented by the summary of the statements or direct quotations. The findings from these mixed methods should allow the researcher to corroborate the results and gain more insightful understanding of the participants' responses.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results from the questionnaires and interviews along with the data discussion on the findings. Participants' background gained from part A of the questionnaire is described in the first section (4.1). The second section (4.2) shows the descriptive statistics data and correlation results between two constructs obtained from part B of the questionnaire with respect to teachers' beliefs and instructional practices. The third section (4.3) reveals the findings from part C of the questionnaire regarding teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools, with both the results from close-ended and open-ended questions. The results from semi-structured interviews with regard to the exploration that helps confirm the findings from the questionnaires are incorporated throughout the chapter. Finally, all the analyzed data are discussed in the last section (4.4) of this chapter with reference to four research questions posed in this study.

4.1 Participants' background

There were 51 teachers with a bachelor's degree while the rest possessed a master's degree. Most of the participants were female, with 76 in contrast to 14 males. These teachers have experience as EFL teachers in a high school ranging from 0-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years to more than 20 years with 13, 7, 19, 16 and 33 teachers in each category of age respectively (two participants did not give responses). Only 21 teachers have received training on how to teach vocabulary learning strategies whereas the majority of them (43 teachers) have not and the rest did not respond to the question. Among those who reported being involved in the training, some workshops were specified namely, in-service workshop, techniques in teaching English language, English for communication, group activities regarding imagery vocabulary and spelling while the others did not mention the sources where they participated the training.

4.2 Descriptive statistics and Correlation interpretation from quantitative survey findings on Teachers' Beliefs and Instructional practices

This section illustrates descriptive statistics results and correlation results between two constructs i.e. teachers' beliefs in vocabulary learning strategies and teachers' instructional practices on vocabulary learning strategies. While Table 4.1 demonstrates results from teachers' beliefs, Table 4.2 shows the frequency of teachers' actual teaching practices in the classroom. In both tables, the number of the respondents (N) is shown followed by five different scales of ratings along with mean score (\bar{x}), standard deviation (SD) of each strategy and the preference level (PL); see Table 3.2 for the interpretation of the mean scores according to the preference level.

There are altogether 38 strategies in which they were listed in the same ordering as appeared in the questionnaire. All strategies have been specified with capital letters to represent "strategy classification, i.e. Determination Strategies (DET), Social Strategies (SOC), Memory Strategies (MEM), Cognitive Strategies (COG), and Metacognitive Strategies (MET)". In Table 4.3, preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS were ranked with the highest strategies. Looking at Table 4.4, preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS are shown in terms of classifications of the strategies. Lastly, results from Pearson's Correlation Coefficient concerning teachers' beliefs and instructional practices are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.1 An overview of teachers' beliefs in vocabulary learning strategies

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Discover Strategies	1	DET Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning	90	70 (77.8%)	20 (22.2%)	-	-	-	4.78	.418	Ht	
	2	DET Analyze affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and roots to figure out the meaning	90	43 (47.8%)	45 (50%)	2 (2.2%)	-	-	4.46	.544	Ht	
	3	DET Guess the meaning from context	89	50 (55.6%)	36 (40%)	3 (3.3%)	-	-	4.53	.566	Ht	
	4	DET Use bilingual dictionaries	90	50 (55.6%)	34 (37.8%)	6 (6.7%)	-	-	4.49	.623	Ht	
	5	DET Use monolingual dictionaries	89	35 (38.9%)	40 (44.4%)	13 (14.4%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.22	.735	Ht	
	6	DET Study the meaning from word lists	90	44 (48.9%)	43 (47.8%)	3 (3.3%)	-	-	4.46	.564	Ht	
	7	DET Study the meaning from flash cards	89	31 (34.4%)	50 (55.6%)	8 (8.9%)			4.26	.613	Ht	
	Total									4.46	.580	Ht
	8	SOC Ask a teacher for L1 translation	90	35 (38.9%)	28 (31.1%)	22 (24.4%)	3 (3.3%)	2 (2.2%)	4.01	.989	H	
	9	SOC Ask classmates for the meaning	90	19 (21.1%)	43 (47.8%)	25 (27.8%)	3 (3.3%)	-	3.87	.782	H	

Table 4.1 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Consolidation Strategies	10	SOC Study and practice the meaning in a group activity	87	49 (54.4%)	36 (40%)	2 (2.2%)	-	-	4.54	.546	Ht	
	11	SOC Have a teacher check flash cards or word lists for accuracy	89	43 (47.8%)	40 (44.4%)	6 (6.7%)	-	-	4.42	.618	Ht	
	Total									4.21	.733	Ht
	12	MEM Study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning	90	51 (56.7%)	37 (41.1%)	2 (2.2%)	-	-	4.54	.544	Ht	
	13	MEM Connect the word to a personal experience	90	54 (60%)	35 (38.9%)	1 (1.1%)	-	-	4.59	.517	Ht	
	14	MEM Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	89	51 (56.7%)	33 (36.7%)	5 (5.6%)	-	-	4.52	.605	Ht	
	15	MEM Use semantic maps	90	62 (68.9%)	27 (30%)	1 (1.1%)	-	-	4.68	.493	Ht	
	16	MEM Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives	90	50 (55.6%)	36 (40%)	4 (4.4%)	-	-	4.51	.585	Ht	

Table 4.1 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL
Consolidation Strategies	17	MEM Group words together to study them	90	62 (68.9%)	27 (30%)	1 (1.1%)	-	-	4.68	.493	Ht
	18	MEM Use a new word in sentences	90	52 (57.8%)	37 (41.1%)	1 (1.1%)	-	-	4.57	.520	Ht
	19	MEM Study the spelling of a word	90	53 (58.9%)	32 (35.6%)	5 (5.6%)	-	-	4.53	.603	Ht
	20	MEM Study the sound of a word	90	50 (55.6%)	39 (43.3%)	1 (1.1%)	-	-	4.54	.523	Ht
	21	MEM Underline initial letter of the word	90	34 (37.8%)	43 (47.8%)	9 (10%)	3 (3.3%)	1 (1.1%)	4.18	.829	H
	22	MEM Use keyword Method	88	49 (54.4%)	32 (35.6%)	7 (7.8%)	-	-	4.48	.643	Ht
	23	MEM Use affixes and roots (for remembering)	90	52 (57.8%)	33 (36.7%)	5 (5.6%)	-	-	4.52	.604	Ht
	24	MEM Use parts of speech (for remembering)	90	50 (55.6%)	37 (41.1%)	3 (3.3%)	-	-	4.52	.565	Ht
	25	MEM Learn the words in chunks	89	57 (63.3%)	29 (32.2%)	3 (3.3%)	-	-	4.61	.556	Ht

Table 4.1 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Consolidation Strategies	26	MEM Use physical actions when learning a word	89	33 (36.7%)	50 (55.6%)	5 (5.6%)	1 (1.1%)		4.29	.625	Ht	
	Total									4.51	.580	Ht
	27	COG Say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition)	89	45 (50%)	35 (38.9%)	9 (10%)	-	-	4.40	.669	Ht	
	28	COG Write a word repeatedly (Written repetition)	89	44 (48.9%)	36 (40%)	9 (10%)	-	-	4.39	.668	Ht	
	29	COG Study word lists (to continue reviewing)	89	48 (53.3%)	36 (40%)	5 (5.6%)	-	-	4.48	.605	Ht	
	30	COG Study flash cards (to continue reviewing)	89	35 (38.9%)	48 (53.3%)	6 (6.7%)	-	-	4.33	.599	Ht	
	31	COG Take notes in class	89	42 (46.7%)	41 (45.6%)	6 (6.7%)	-	-	4.40	.616	Ht	
	32	COG Use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook	89	46 (51.1%)	36 (40%)	7 (7.8%)	-	-	4.44	.639	Ht	

Table 4.1 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL
Consolidation Strategies	33	COG Listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs	89	51 (56.7%)	29 (32.2%)	9 (10%)	-	-	4.47	.676	Ht
	34	COG Put English labels on physical objects	89	44 (48.9%)	38 (42.2%)	6 (6.7%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.40	.669	Ht
	35	COG Keep a vocabulary notebook	89	49 (54.4%)	37 (41.1%)	3 (3.3%)	-	-	4.52	.566	Ht
	Total								4.42	.634	Ht
	36	MET Use English-language media	89	56 (62.2%)	31 (34.4%)	2 (2.2%)	-	-	4.61	.536	Ht
	37	MET Skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one	89	31 (34.4%)	31 (34.4%)	19 (21.1%)	6 (6.7%)	2 (2.2%)	3.93	1.02	H
	38	MET Test oneself with word tests	89	41 (45.6%)	44 (48.9%)	4 (4.4%)	-	-	4.42	.580	Ht
	Total								4.32	.712	Ht

Note: One participant out of 90 teachers appeared in each of these strategies 3,5,7,11,14,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37 and 38 did not give the answers; three teachers did not respond to the strategy 10; and two teachers did not respond to the strategy 22.

As shown in Table 4.1, an overview of all strategies was presented together with the capital letters of strategy classification (i.e. DET, SOC, MEM, COG and MET) that each strategy was categorized in. The results were interpreted from the scales specified in the questionnaire (i.e. 5 = very useful, 4 = useful, 3 = moderately useful, 2 = slightly useful and 1 = not at all useful); under each scale a number of respondents along with its percentage is shown. Regarding teachers' beliefs in the usefulness of vocabulary learning strategies, it can be clearly seen that almost every strategy was considered useful to the teachers, with the mean score above 4 for almost all strategies while only 2 strategies received the mean scores that were less than 4, i.e. "Ask classmates for the meaning (SOC)" and "Skip or pass a new word (MET)", with the mean scores of 3.87 and 3.93 respectively.

With regards to the preference level (according to Table 3.2) in which the mean scores were assigned as Highest (Ht), High (H), Moderate (M), Low (L) and Lowest (Lt), it was found to be altogether 34 strategies considered as highest (4.21 – 5.00) and 4 strategies were considered as high (3.41 – 4.20). No strategy was put into moderate, low and lowest.

Table 4.2 An overview of teachers' practices on vocabulary learning strategies

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Discover Strategies	1	DET Teach students to analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning	90	49 (54.4%)	30 (33.3%)	11 (12.2%)	-	-	4.42	.703	Ht	
	2	DET Teach students to analyze affixes and roots to figure out the meaning	90	21 (23.3%)	54 (60%)	14 (15.6%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.06	.660	H	
	3	DET Teach students to guess the meaning from context	89	42 (46.7%)	36 (40%)	11 (12.2%)	-	-	4.35	.693	Ht	
	4	DET Teach students to use bilingual dictionaries	89	45 (50%)	33 (36.7%)	9 (10%)	2 (2.2%)	-	4.36	.757	Ht	
	5	DET Teach students to use monolingual dictionaries	90	43 (47.8%)	26 (28.9%)	15 (16.7%)	6 (6.7%)	-	4.18	.943	H	
	6	DET Teach students to study the meaning from word lists	90	40 (44.4%)	38 (42.2%)	11 (12.2%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.30	.728	Ht	
	7	DET Teach students to study the meaning from flash cards	90	33 (36.7%)	40 (44.4%)	15 (16.7%)	2 (2.2%)	-	4.16	.778	H	
	Total									4.26	.751	Ht
	8	SOC Encourage students to ask a teacher for L1 translation	90	30 (33.3%)	35 (38.9%)	21 (23.3%)	4 (4.4%)	-	4.01	.868	H	
	9	SOC Encourage students to ask his/her classmates for the meaning	90	32 (35.6%)	32 (35.6%)	22 (24.4%)	4 (4.4%)	-	4.02	.887	H	

Table 4.2 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Consolidation Strategies	10	SOC	Encourage students to study and practice the meaning in a group activity	90	41 (45.6%)	41 (45.6%)	7 (7.8%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.36	.676	Ht
	11	SOC	Check students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy	90	38 (42.2%)	45 (50%)	6 (6.7%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.33	.653	Ht
	Total									4.18	.771	H
	12	MEM	Teach students to study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning	90	35 (38.9%)	46 (51.1%)	9 (10%)	-	-	4.29	.640	Ht
	13	MEM	Teach students to connect the word to a personal experience	90	42 (46.7%)	36 (40%)	12 (13.3%)	-	-	4.33	.703	Ht
	14	MEM	Teach students to connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	90	47 (52.2%)	32 (35.6%)	11 (12.2%)	-	-	4.40	.700	Ht
	15	MEM	Teach students to use semantic maps	88	42 (46.7%)	36 (40%)	10 (11.1%)	-	-	4.36	.681	Ht
	16	MEM	Teach students to use 'scales' for gradable adjectives	90	35 (38.9%)	40 (44.4%)	15 (16.7%)	-	-	4.22	.715	Ht

Table 4.2 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL
Consolidation Strategies	17	MEM Teach students to group words together to study them	90	42 (46.7%)	40 (44.4%)	8 (8.9%)	-	-	4.38	.646	Ht
	18	MEM Encourage students to use a new word in sentences	90	47 (52.2%)	36 (40%)	7 (7.8%)	-	-	4.44	.638	Ht
	19	MEM Encourage students to study the spelling of a word	90	40 (44.4%)	45 (50%)	5 (5.6%)	-	-	4.39	.594	Ht
	20	MEM Encourage students to study the sound of a word	90	49 (54.4%)	38 (42.2%)	3 (3.3%)	-	-	4.51	.566	Ht
	21	MEM Encourage students to underline initial letter of the word	89	31 (34.4%)	37 (41.1%)	17 (18.9%)	1 (1.1%)	3 (3.3%)	4.03	.947	H
	22	MEM Teach students to use keyword Method	89	40 (44.4%)	36 (40%)	12 (13.3%)	1 (%1.1)	-	4.29	.742	Ht
	23	MEM Encourage students to use affixes and roots (for remembering)	90	41 (45.6%)	35 (38.9%)	14 (15.6%)	-	-	4.30	.726	Ht

Table 4.2 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Consolidation Strategies	24	MEM Encourage students to use parts of speech (for remembering)	90	43 (47.8%)	37 (41.1%)	10 (11.1%)	-	-	4.37	.678	Ht	
	25	MEM Teach students to learn the words in chunks	90	43 (47.8%)	36 (40%)	11 (12.2%)	-	-	4.36	.692	Ht	
	26	MEM Teach students to use physical actions when learning a word	90	39 (43.3%)	35 (38.9%)	16 (17.8%)	-	-	4.26	.743	Ht	
	Total									4.32	.694	Ht
	27	COG Encourage students to say a word repeatedly	90	44 (48.9%)	35 (38.9%)	11 (12.2%)	-	-	4.37	.694	Ht	
	28	COG Encourage students to write a word repeatedly	90	39 (43.3%)	39 (43.3%)	12 (13.3%)	-	-	4.30	.694	Ht	
	29	COG Encourage students to study word lists (to continue reviewing)	90	45 (50%)	39 (43.3%)	6 (6.7%)	-	-	4.43	.619	Ht	

Table 4.2 (continued)

		Strategy	N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Consolidation Strategies	30	COG	Encourage students to study flash cards (to continue reviewing)	90	42 (46.7%)	35 (38.9%)	13 (14.4%)	-	-	4.32	.716	Ht
	31	COG	Encourage students to take notes in class	90	47 (52.2%)	33 (36.7%)	10 (11.1%)	-	-	4.41	.685	Ht
	32	COG	Encourage students to use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook	90	44 (48.9%)	36 (40%)	10 (11.1%)	-	-	4.38	.680	Ht
	33	COG	Encourage students to listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs	90	36 (40%)	39 (43.3%)	14 (15.6%)	-	1 (1.1%)	4.21	.786	Ht
	34	COG	Encourage students to put English labels on physical objects	90	41 (45.6%)	32 (35.6%)	15 (16.7%)	-	2 (2.2%)	4.22	.884	Ht
	35	COG	Encourage students to keep a vocabulary notebook	90	50 (55.6%)	31 (34.4%)	9 (10%)	-	-	4.46	.673	Ht
	Total									4.34	.714	Ht

Table 4.2 (continued)

	Strategy		N	Very useful	Useful	Moderately useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful	\bar{x}	SD	PL	
Consolidation Strategies	36	MET	Encourage students to use English-language media	90	45 (50%)	38 (42.2%)	6 (6.7%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.41	.669	Ht
	37	MET	Encourage students to skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one	90	30 (33.3%)	29 (32.2%)	21 (23.3%)	9 (10%)	1 (1.1%)	3.87	1.03	H
	38	MET	Encourage students to test oneself with word tests	90	43 (47.8%)	41 (45.6%)	5 (5.6%)	1 (1.1%)	-	4.40	.650	Ht
	Total									4.22	.783	Ht

Note: One participant out of 90 teachers did not give answers shown in strategies 3,4,21 and 22; and two participants did not respond to the strategy 15.

From Table 4.2, similar to the responses gained from teachers' beliefs in the utility of VLS, the results of the mean scores that the teachers reported on their actual teaching practices were all higher than 4 except strategy 37: Encourage students to skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one (MET), with the mean score of 3.87. The above findings suggested that the teachers have taught a variety of strategies to their students, meaning that 97% of the strategies were frequently instructed. This interpretation was gained accordingly as in the scales used in the questionnaire: 5 = Always, 4 = Often, 3 = Sometimes, 2 = Seldom and 1 = Never.

Regarding the preference level i.e. Highest (Ht), High (H), Moderate (M), Low (L) and Lowest (Lt), there were 31 strategies with the highest degree and the other 7 strategies were considered high. Once again, there was no strategy in the categories of moderate, low and lowest.

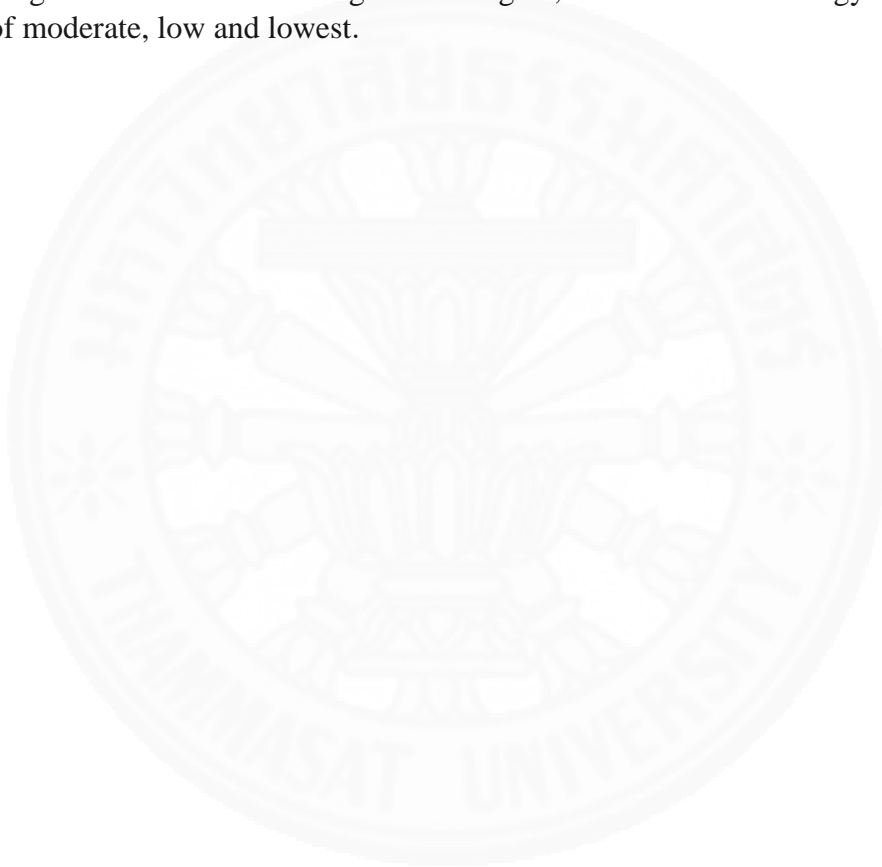


Table 4.3 Preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS in terms of each specific strategy

Preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs		
N	Strategy	Mean
1	Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning (DET)	4.78
2	Group words together to study them (MEM)	4.68
3	Use semantic maps (MEM)	4.68
4	Learn the words in chunks (MEM)	4.61
5	Use English-language media (MET)	4.61
6	Connect the word to a personal experience (MEM)	4.59
7	Use a new word in sentences (MEM)	4.57
8	Study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning (MEM)	4.54
9	Study and practice the meaning in a group activity (SOC)	4.54
10	Study the sound of a word (MEM)	4.54
11	Guess the meaning from context (DET)	4.53
12	Study the spelling of a word (MEM)	4.53
13	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms (MEM)	4.52
14	Use affixes and roots (for remembering) (MEM)	4.52
15	Use parts of speech (for remembering) (MEM)	4.52
16	Keep a vocabulary notebook (COG)	4.52
17	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (MEM)	4.51
18	Use bilingual dictionaries (DET)	4.49
19	Use keyword Method (MEM)	4.48
20	Study word lists (to continue reviewing) (COG)	4.48
21	Listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDS (COG)	4.47
22	Analyze affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and roots to figure out the meaning (DET)	4.46
23	Study the meaning from word lists (DET)	4.46
24	Use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook (COG)	4.44
25	Have a teacher check flash cards or word lists for accuracy (SOC)	4.42
26	Test oneself with word tests (MET)	4.42

27	Say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition, COG)	4.40
28	Take notes in class (COG)	4.40
29	Put English labels on physical objects (COG)	4.40
30	Write a word repeatedly (Written repetition, COG)	4.39
31	Study flash cards (to continue reviewing, COG)	4.33
32	Use physical actions when learning a word (MEM)	4.29
33	Study the meaning from flash cards (DET)	4.26
34	Use monolingual dictionaries (DET)	4.22
Preferable strategies of teachers' instructional practices		
N	Strategy	Mean
1	Encourage students to study the sound of a word (MEM)	4.51
2	Encourage students to keep a vocabulary notebook (COG)	4.46
3	Encourage students to use a new word in sentences (MEM)	4.44
4	Encourage students to study word lists (to continue reviewing, COG)	4.43
5	Teach students to analyse parts of speech to figure out the meaning (DET)	4.42
6	Encourage students to take notes in class (COG)	4.41
7	Encourage students to use English-language media (MET)	4.41
8	Teach students to connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms (MEM)	4.40
9	Encourage students to test oneself with word tests (MET)	4.40
10	Encourage students to study the spelling of a word (MEM)	4.39
11	Teach students to group words together to study them (MEM)	4.38
12	Encourage students to use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook (COG)	4.38
13	Encourage students to use parts of speech (for remembering, MEM)	4.37
14	Encourage students to say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition, COG)	4.37
15	Teach students to use bilingual dictionaries (DET)	4.36
16	Encourage students to study and practice the meaning in a group activity (SOC)	4.36
17	Teach students to use semantic maps (MEM)	4.36
18	Teach students to learn the words in chunks (MEM)	4.36
19	Teach students to guess the meaning from context (DET)	4.35

20	Check students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy (SOC)	4.33
21	Teach students to connect the word to a personal experience (MEM)	4.33
22	Encourage students to study flash cards (to continue reviewing, COG)	4.32
23	Teach students to study the meaning from word lists (DET)	4.30
24	Encourage students to use affixes and roots (for remembering, MEM)	4.30
25	Encourage students to write a word repeatedly (Written repetition, COG)	4.30
26	Teach students to study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning (MEM)	4.29
27	Teach students to use keyword Method (MEM)	4.29
28	Teach students to use physical actions when learning a word (MEM)	4.26
29	Encourage students to put English labels on physical objects (COG)	4.22
30	Teach students to use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (MEM)	4.22
31	Encourage students to listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs (COG)	4.21

Table 4.3 illustrates the highest individual strategies to reveal preferable strategies for both teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS. As can be seen, all strategies scored starting from 4.21 to as high as 4.78 in the mean score, thus being selected as shown. On the part of teachers' beliefs i.e. including 34 highest strategies in total, the strategy "Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning" ranked the highest of all with the mean score of 4.78 from Determination Strategies which is in turn under the category of Discovery strategies followed closely by "Group words together to study them" and "Use semantic maps" from Memory Strategies with slightly lower mean score of 4.68. The strategies "Learn the words in chunks (MEM)" and "Use English-language media (MET)" shared the same third place with the mean score of 4.61. Regarding the participants' teaching practices with 31 highest strategies out of 38 strategies, the teachers tended to teach "Study the sound of a word (MEM)" the most as analysed to be 4.51 for the mean score. The next two most preferable strategies in teaching practices were "Keep a vocabulary notebook (COG)" and "Use a new word in sentences (MEM)" of which the mean scores showed not much difference, i.e. 4.46 and 4.44.

Table 4.4 Overall preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS according to the types of strategies (classifications of strategies)

Preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs			
Rank	Classifications of strategies	Mean	PL
1	Memory Strategies (MEM)	4.51	Ht
2	Determination Strategies (DET)	4.46	Ht
3	Cognitive Strategies (COG)	4.42	Ht
4	Metacognitive Strategies (MET)	4.32	Ht
5	Social Strategies (SOC)	4.21	Ht
Preferable strategies of teachers' instructional practices			
Rank	Classifications of strategies	Mean	PL
1	Cognitive Strategies (COG)	4.34	Ht
2	Memory Strategies (MEM)	4.32	Ht
3	Determination Strategies (DET)	4.26	Ht
4	Metacognitive Strategies (MET)	4.22	Ht
5	Social Strategies (SOC)	4.18	H

Regardless of looking specifically into each individual strategy, preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS mean scores were shown in Table 4.4 according to classifications of strategies within two main classifications (Discovery strategies and Consolidation strategies). Discovery strategies consist of Determination Strategies (DET) and Social Strategies (SOC) while Consolidation strategies involve some of Social Strategies (SOC), Memory Strategies (MEM), Cognitive Strategies (COG) and Metacognitive Strategies (MET) in which the latter (i.e. Consolidation strategies) adopts more sub-strategies. With regard to preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs, Memory Strategies (MEM), out of five sub-strategies, ranked the first preceding Determination Strategies (DET), Cognitive Strategies (COG), Metacognitive Strategies (MET) and Social Strategies (SOC) with the mean scores of 4.51, 4.46, 4.42, 4.32 and 4.21 respectively. With reference to preferable strategies of teachers' practices, Cognitive Strategies (4.34)

have been taught the most followed by Memory Strategies (4.32), Determination Strategies (4.26), Metacognitive Strategies (4.22), and Social Strategies (4.18). It is worth noting that Social Strategies (SOC) ranked at the bottom for both categories: beliefs and practices.

In addition to the results received from quantitative survey on teachers' most preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and instructional practices, the results from semi-structured interviews were also gathered to illustrate beneficial strategies as perceived by teachers towards English vocabulary learning both for themselves and their students. The strategies that the interviewees addressed include learning vocabulary through word cards, cartoons, songs, stories, games, pictures and translation. A few teachers pointed out that learners can increase their vocabulary knowledge through practicing conversation consisting of various situations and claimed that the students can automatically grab words from performing communication skills. Some teachers teach words according to the content being taught so that the students truly understand how the words are used in the context. Words are also categorized into the same group for easy memorization by some teachers. One teacher suggested concrete words need pictures while examples of words from everyday-use sentences need to be provided for abstract words. Another teacher prefers to demonstrate how to use new words in sentences. Meanwhile, verbal repetition was found the most useful for one interviewee.

Every teacher from the interview session has carried out many VLS activities in the classroom for their students; for example, dictionary competitions, group activities, pair work activities, translating passages e.g. from the news, using word cards, matching pictures with word cards, matching synonyms or antonyms, learning phrases, filling words in the blank, learning consonants and how to spell, word guessing games and power point presentations of words.

Regarding teachers' own effective vocabulary learning strategies, the strategies that were mentioned comprise a crossword, a jigsaw of words, storytelling, rhymes of Thai and English words, consulting peers and dictionaries, and watching animation. One participant remarked that reciting word by word does not help at all; the effective way is learning words through labels attached to common consumer products.

Table 4.5 Results from Pearson's Correlation Coefficient showing correlation between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS

Pair	Strategy		N	Correlation	Sig.
1	DET	Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning	90	.246*	.019
2	DET	Analyze affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and roots to figure out the meaning	90	.179	.091
3	DET	Guess the meaning from context	88	.023	.830
4	DET	Use bilingual dictionaries	89	.245*	.021
5	DET	Use monolingual dictionaries	89	.354**	.001
6	DET	Study the meaning from word lists	90	.321**	.002
7	DET	Study the meaning from flash cards	89	.365**	.000
8	SOC	Ask a teacher for L1 translation	90	.432**	.000
9	SOC	Ask classmates for the meaning	90	.539**	.000
10	SOC	Study and practice the meaning in a group activity	87	.278**	.009
11	SOC	Have a teacher check flash cards or word lists for accuracy	89	.280**	.008
12	MEM	Study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning	90	.060	.577
13	MEM	Connect the word to a personal experience	90	.165	.121
14	MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	89	.292**	.005
15	MEM	Use semantic maps	88	.237*	.026

Table 4.5 (continued)

Pair	Strategy		N	Correlation	Sig.
16	MEM	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives	90	.316**	.002
17	MEM	Group words together to study them	90	.245*	.020
18	MEM	Use a new word in sentences	90	-.056	.597
19	MEM	Study the spelling of a word	90	.261*	.013
20	MEM	Study the sound of a word	90	.302**	.004
21	MEM	Underline initial letter of the word	89	.611**	.000
22	MEM	Use keyword Method	88	.470**	.000
23	MEM	Use affixes and roots (for remembering)	90	.433**	.000
24	MEM	Use parts of speech (for remembering)	90	.345**	.001
25	MEM	Learn the words in chunks	89	.370**	.000
26	MEM	Use physical actions when learning a word	89	.348**	.001
27	COG	Say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition)	89	.430**	.000
28	COG	Write a word repeatedly (Written repetition)	89	.351**	.001
29	COG	Study word lists (to continue reviewing)	89	.398**	.000
30	COG	Study flash cards (to continue reviewing)	89	.252*	.017
31	COG	Take notes in class	89	.189	.077
32	COG	Use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook	89	.107	.319
33	COG	Listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs	89	.405**	.000
34	COG	Put English labels on physical objects	89	.505**	.000
35	COG	Keep a vocabulary notebook	89	.515**	.000
36	MET	Use English-language media	89	.049	.648
37	MET	Skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one	89	.594**	.000
38	MET	Test oneself with word tests	89	.181	.089

Correlation between teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS was analysed using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient. The coefficient value for Pearson's Correlation is represented by the small letter r in which the strength of correlation depends on the value of r . According to Evan (as cited in Statstutor), the absolute value of r can be labelled as follows: .00-.19 "very weak", .20-.39 "weak", .40-.59 "moderate", .60-.79 "strong" and .80-1.0 "very strong". Hence, the strength of correlation for this current study will be interpreted following Evan's (1996) suggestion. The sig. or p-value of less than 0.05 with one asterisk (*) indicates the correlation is significant at 0.05 level and the p-value of less than 0.01 denotes the correlation significance at 0.01 level (with two asterisks**).

From Table 4.5, the correlation results were displayed in pairs to show the relationship between two constructs in question i.e. teachers' beliefs and instructional practices on VLS. The overall relationship between teachers' beliefs in usefulness of strategies and their instructional practices highlights a positive correlation of the majority of strategies i.e. 37 pairs out of 38 pairs with twenty-three strategies presenting a significant positive correlation ($p < .01$) and six strategies coming up with $p < .05$. The strategies with the p-value greater than .05 mean the result is not statistically significant or might occur by chance. However, there was a very weak negative correlation in pair 18 but not significant i.e. Use a new word in sentences (MEM), $r = -.056$, indicating a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and teachers' implementation of the strategy. A Pearson's r data analysis revealed a strong positive correlation in pair 21 i.e. Underline initial letter of the word (MEM), $r = .611^{**}$. The pairs of strategies that were moderately correlated are as follows: Ask a teacher for L1 translation (SOC), $r = .432^{**}$, Ask classmates for the meaning (SOC), $r = .539^{**}$, Use keyword Method (MEM), $r = .470^{**}$, Use affixes and roots (for remembering) (MEM), $r = .433^{**}$, Say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition) (COG), $r = .430^{**}$, Listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs (COG), $r = .405^{**}$, Put English labels on physical objects (COG), $r = .505^{**}$, Keep a vocabulary notebook (COG), $r = .515^{**}$ and Skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one (MET), $r = .594^{**}$. Among all pairs, the pairs containing a very weak and weak correlation involve pairs 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,24,25,26,28,29,30, 31, 32,36 and 38.

Difficulties encountered by the teachers in teaching VLS were elicited from the interviews. The following obstacles were found to impede successful VLS instruction in the classroom despite how useful the strategies the teachers perceived to be:

- Students' lack of attention due to their resistance to the challenge of a new language;
- Students' lack of motivation and enthusiasm;
- Obstacle with memorization in some particular lengthy words;
- Students' insufficient fundamental knowledge of the target language;
- Inadequate instructional media such as old computers;
- Too many words being taught at one time;
- Students' difficulty with pronunciation of the words;
- A problem with learning new words for some weak students;
- Limitation of time for vocabulary instruction in the classroom.

The above contextual factors that hamper efficient vocabulary learning and teaching mostly come from the students rather than from the teachers or the teaching materials. To deal with these constraints, some teachers sought out ways to comfort their students by means of not introducing numerous unfamiliar words at a time in order for the students to better memorize words. Another solution to cope with learners' diverse language foundation is to divide students into groups in which each group has both types of learners i.e. proficient and less proficient learners so they can help each other and learn from one another. Nevertheless, there happened to be other problematic issues that come to interplay among all these difficulties leading to unsuccessful instruction. One of the biggest concerns originated from the teachers themselves i.e. some teachers do not emphasize necessary things the students should know nor ask the students to review the lessons they have learnt, so the students easily forget words they have just learnt. What a good teacher should do is to ask the students to apply what they learn to their daily life, so they can continue practicing the target language.

4.3 Findings of teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools

Table 4.6 Findings of teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools

No.	Items	Frequency	
		Needed	Not needed
1	There should be a strategy training workshop regarding VLS conducted by a specialist held up at school regularly to help enhance teachers' understanding towards the effective VLS instruction (at least once a year).	88 (97.8%)	2 (2.2%)
2	A school needs to provide at least one native speaker to help students with vocabulary learning.	89 (98.9%)	1 (1.1%)
3	Financial support should be provided for VLS teaching materials.	89 (98.9%)	1 (1.1%)
4	Financial support should be granted to those teachers who would like to participate in a workshop held up outside the school.	89 (98.9%)	1 (1.1%)
5	Sufficient time should be allowed for VLS instruction in the classroom.	89 (98.9%)	1 (1.1%)

In part C of the questionnaire, the participants were asked if introducing strategy training to the students is necessary and surprisingly the percentage of those who responded "yes" was 99%, indicating most of the teachers agreed that strategy training is useful. These participants were then required to further answer the following five questions concerning their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools. The findings were tabulated in Table 4.6 above. 97.8% of the teachers reported that statement 1 i.e. "There should be a strategy training workshop regarding VLS conducted by a specialist held up at school regularly to help enhance teachers' understanding towards the effective VLS instruction (at least once a year)" was

needed while 2.2% disagreed. Similarly, the teachers' opinions attained from the interview session revealed that many teachers would like to have strategy training at least once or twice a year while some prefer more frequently i.e. once or twice a semester. Despite already having opportunities to attend the training workshops from time to time, the reason that there should be successive training for teachers is because there are always new teachers getting in each semester and teachers do need techniques to help enhance their teaching ability. On the other hand, one interviewee showed his disapproval towards the VLS training since, in fact, teachers have always been excessively attending many training programs a year and have known enough theories, so he thinks there should be less training. For statements 2-5, the result was consistent among the majority of respondents with an agreement of 98.9%.

The optional open-ended question was also provided at the end of the questionnaire to seek teachers' opinions about the support of VLS instruction from their schools. Only eight participants (8.9%) wrote down comments as follows:

- Teacher1: *The implementation of vocabulary learning strategies should be carried out step by step and as naturally as possible; for example, follow the development on vocabulary acquisition of the students for approximately three consecutive years and analyze the effectiveness of VLS on the students' L2 learning.*
- Teacher2: *Thai EFL teachers should be given an opportunity to visit other countries to see how instruction has been taken place and bring back the knowledge to improve our own instruction.*
- Teacher3: *Thai EFL learners have been struggling with learning English as they have not been given much opportunity to learn. Thus, vocabulary learning should not be limited to the classroom environment since they can as well study on their own at home. A teacher should assign homework and assess their progress.*
- Teacher4: *Having the students learn vocabulary through wordlists conforming to their proficiency level is very essential because*

each vocabulary word is different in terms of its difficulty and profoundness.

Teacher5: *There should be an academic seminar on English use throughout the academic year for staff development. Also, learning and teaching materials should be sufficiently provided to meet the needs of all staff and students.*

Teacher6: *As the students are having trouble with acquiring vocabulary, instructional time should be arranged appropriately to respond to their needs. There should also be measurement corresponding to the purposes of the learners. The fact that teachers should be equipped with vocabulary learning strategies should seriously be taken into account.*

Teacher7: *A school should support Thai EFL teachers to teach English because Thai teachers can sometimes explain the vocabulary words better than the native speakers who cannot speak Thai language.*

Teacher8: *Even though foreign teachers can teach students correct pronunciation of the words, they cannot somehow explain the words in Thai. Thus, Thai teachers should be supported with regular workshops.*

From the comments above, the teachers see vocabulary learning as a crucial element in second language acquisition. Most of them are in agreement with the statement that teachers should participate in a strategy training workshop in order to be more qualified. Two participants support Thai EFL teachers to teach English for that Thai teachers can explain words better than the native counterparts, which is inconsistent with the statement “a school needs to provide at least one native speaker to help students with vocabulary learning”, indicating that these teachers believe that an L1 or a mother tongue language has always been very important in English

language teaching in favor of making things understandable to all students. Moreover, some teachers suggest the ways to give students the benefits from vocabulary learning strategies; for example, teachers should analyze the effectiveness of VLS on the students' L2 learning. The teachers involved in the interview session further contributed some useful suggestions regarding the support of school on VLS instruction. They requested that an extra class should be provided specifically for students who are interested in learning more vocabulary and those who are weak at this. Furthermore, teachers should be offered continual opportunities to develop their potential, resulting in teachers' effective professional development. One teacher envisions some benefits from academic competitions allowing a great way for talented students to deepen their knowledge about the target vocabulary words. Another salient point made by one teacher is "only enough financial support can cover everything" meaning that the vocabulary instruction will be much more satisfying if suitable amount of funds is available for the teachers to make use of.

When interviewed about the effectiveness of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) in helping enhance learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition, all of the participants reported that vocabulary learning strategies can really help enhance learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition if the teachers plan the instruction well and properly. One teacher replied that it is obviously better than having no strategy at all to aid students' learning because the students seem to forget the newly learnt words so easily. This, however, points out that the teachers are aware that a diversity of strategies is important in vocabulary instruction instead of having the students cling to just a few strategies.

Regarding the significance of teachers as role models in supporting students' use of VLS, all participants are in agreement that a teacher plays a very important role in the class as a teacher can offer students guidance. Thus, a teacher has to master the knowledge that is to be taught to the students, so the students can have much more confidence in learning vocabulary. Without a teachers' advice, the students will not know how to increase their vocabulary knowledge since most of the students lack enthusiasm to learn. How well the students learn reflects how well the teacher teaches. Therefore, a good teacher should conduct the class efficiently, motivate students to learn and provide knowledge that is needed for them to learn.

4.4 Discussion

All research questions are discussed as the followings: research questions 1 and 2 (4.4.1), research question 3 (4.4.2) and research question 4 (4.4.3) in order to show how the results of this study correlate with those of the previous studies.

4.4.1 Preferable vocabulary learning strategies among Thai EFL teachers

With respect to preferable strategies of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices, the findings gained from Part B of the questionnaire (see Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 & 4.4) show a slight difference when compared to Lai's (2005) research results in that the strategy "Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning" from Determination strategies ranked the highest for teachers' beliefs in the usefulness of the strategies in this study while in Lai's, this strategy was in the second place preceded by a strategy from Memory strategies i.e. "Use new words in sentences". The similar popularity of the strategy "Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning" reflects the importance of eight components of the parts of speech which are usually taught by EFL teachers: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and determiners. These constituents classify the type of grammatical features as stated in Schmitt (2000). Regarding preferable strategies for teachers' instruction practices in this research and Lai's, the only common strategy shown in the top strategies was "Encourage students to use new words in sentences" from memory strategies. "Encourage students to study the sound of a word (MEM)" was the first-ranking strategy which matches the comments from one interviewee that some students have difficulty with pronunciation; this should be why this strategy gained the most attention from the teachers in terms of their pedagogical practices. In the non-Asian context, teachers in Iran from Azari, Moeini and Shafiee's (2014) study revealed their preferences mostly on memory strategies both in terms of their beliefs and practices.

Since Memory Strategies (MEM) seem to take much more space in the top rankings than any other strategy, it is worth mentioning one strategy within this group i.e. Keyword method. Despite the fact that Keyword method has been analysed as the least useful and the least instructed strategy for both Taiwanese and Iranian EFL

teachers, the findings in this research contradict the results of these two studies in that Keyword method for Thai teachers was not seen as the least useful nor the least taught strategy. Instead, the strategy “Skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one” from Metacognitive Strategies (MET) possessed the least mean score among all both for teachers’ beliefs (3.93) and practices (3.87). This result is inconsistent with Nation’s (2001) in that high frequency words should be selected to learn and with Oxford’s (2011) remark that frequency of actual use of words should also be taken into account. Another strategy that ranked low for teachers’ beliefs was “Ask classmates for the meaning” from Social Strategies (SOC) with the mean score of 3.87; this might be because most of the Thai teachers were not aware of the benefits that learners can get from their peers. However, the discussion referring to these relevant studies was based only on the most and least popular individual strategies.

To make it clearer, the researcher has tabulated preferable types of strategies to illustrate the outstanding classifications of strategies as a whole in addition to investigating the most favoured individual strategies. Among five major types of strategies, Memory Strategies (MEM) ranked first followed by Determination Strategies (DET) and Cognitive Strategies (COG) for teachers’ beliefs while for teachers’ teaching practices Cognitive Strategies (COG) was at the top preceding Memory Strategies (MEM) and Determination Strategies (DET). In terms of teachers’ thoughts, the fact that Memory Strategies (MEM) was considered the most attractive could possibly imply that teachers might be aware that mnemonic or memory techniques can be effectively used as an alternative to aid students’ vocabulary acquisition. Nevertheless, teachers declared Cognitive Strategies (COG) as the number-one taught strategies in the classroom in spite of their positive beliefs towards mnemonics. It can be inferred from this conflict that teachers mostly put emphasis on repetition and careful scrutiny of the target vocabulary. As can be seen in Table 4.2, every single strategy included in this category i.e. Cognitive Strategies (COG) obtained the average score of over 4, suggesting that all these strategies such as verbal and written repetition were frequently introduced to the learners. This outcome further emphasizes how Thai and other Asian EFL learners have learnt words, confirming the results of Boonkongsaen and Intaraprasert (2014); Yang and Dai (2011) and Fewell (2010) regarding the popularity of rote repetition. In contrast, Social Strategies (SOC)

turned out to be the least useful and the least instructed strategies, demonstrating less interaction between either learner-learner or teacher-learner in Thai classroom context.

The insights gained from the interviewees concerning strategies such as “Ask a teacher for L1 translation” and “Ask classmates for the meaning” revealed clearer thoughts of teachers’ opinions on why these strategies were not given much attention. Some teachers expressed their feelings that these strategies are quite boring and it would be better if students could learn from new interesting instructional media. Learner autonomy should also be taken into account instead of relying on others. The teachers think students should look for the meanings of the words by themselves. Unlike other participants’ views, one teacher claimed these strategies are still useful in certain cases depending upon how good at the second language the students are; if they are slow learners, they do need help from their teachers and peers in order to gradually climb up from where they are.

4.4.2 Correlations between Teachers’ beliefs and instructional practices on VLS

Overall positive correlation with a small amount of discrepancies between teachers’ beliefs and pedagogical practices for this present study is in line with that of Lai’s (2005) and Azari et al. (2014). The fact that the results showed positive correlations for most of the strategies (97%) is in congruence with the scholars’ explanation reviewed in the literature e.g. Borg (2003); Borg (2006); Clark and Peterson (1986) that teachers’ beliefs and how teachers behave in the classroom are correlated. It is a good signal that the findings gained from Thai EFL teachers are consistent with the prior theories proposed by the majority of experts in this particular field concerning teachers’ thoughts and actions for that all relevant stakeholders such as teachers, curriculum developers, and school administrators can easily cooperate in figuring out the solution to the problems occurring in the classroom context with the guidance of the related assumption.

Corresponding to the diagrams (see Figures 2.3 and 2.4 in section 2.4.1) introduced by Borg (2006) and Clark and Peterson (1986), tensions can always occur between teachers’ beliefs and practices due to many factors that could affect the way

teacher think and behave i.e. teachers, learners, curricular, materials, etc. The cause of mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices can thus emerge from any influences involved in teacher cognition and classroom practices. Likewise, this current study also displayed a negative correlation in pair 18 i.e. "Use a new word in sentences (MEM)". Looking closely into the r and p values in which $r = -.056$. and $p = .597$, this indicates the result of the correlation was very weak and not significant ($p > .05$), yet only this strategy showed a negative relationship among all other strategies, thus it would be worth investigating why this could happen or whether it turned up by chance. Therefore, the respondents' comments from the interview session should at least answer how disparities between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices could take place. The teacher who was involved in the negative-correlation strategy claimed the amount of time given to vocabulary instruction was not enough, so it was impossible for the teachers to cover every crucial point needed for the students to learn; the teachers thus kept on moving to other language points and did not emphasize a single strategy. Students' attention is also considered very important. No matter how hard the teachers try to teach, the students' learning will still not progress if they do not value the significance of the material being instructed. Similarly, most of the teachers' opinions on difficulties found in vocabulary teaching were from students and other contextual factors while a few teachers blamed themselves. All in all, even though no exact factor can be pointed out why the negative correlation occurred, all these mentioned factors, however, should not be ignored.

4.4.3 Teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools

The data gained from the interviews are primarily in line with that obtained from the questionnaires. The results from both methods thus confirm the teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools. Firstly, almost every teacher viewed a strategy training program as a necessary step to be introduced

to the students. Undoubtedly, teachers are aware that equipping students with a number of vocabulary strategies can effectively make changes on how the students learn words. However, in order for the implementation of VLS training to work efficiently for all the learners, teacher should provide numerous strategies, so the learners can make their own choices of what strategies should be used under various circumstances. Since a teacher is considered a role model, for all participants of this research, in guiding the students with the right path to success, the teachers themselves need to learn how to facilitate the learning process and broaden their knowledge of the strategies (Oxford, 1990). Teachers are supposed to initially model the strategies explicitly to the learners and give opportunities for students to practice them (Nation, 2001); this is only one of many reasons why teachers are needed to aid students. Most importantly, the ultimate goal of conducting an explicit strategy training for all the students is to guide students to develop to be independent learners (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006); this would be impossible without teachers' advice.

Besides, the vocabulary instruction would probably be carried out with difficulty unless the teachers were given sufficient support from their schools. This current study then also sought out to see how the teachers thought about receiving support from their schools to aid their vocabulary teaching. It can be clearly seen from the results in Table 4.6 along with the opinions from some teachers that the majority of Thai EFL teachers in Maha Sarakham would be more satisfied if they could get some essential support to help enhance their vocabulary instruction. Teachers would like several teacher training workshops in order to gain more understanding towards how to conduct their instruction effectively. They also need help from native speakers even though a few participants prefer Thai teachers since they believe an L1 language can make students comprehend what is taught more easily. The funding seems to be able to cover nearly all the support namely, financial support for pedagogical materials, training workshops both at school and outside the school and employment of native speakers. It is advised that a school should allocate a spending plan comprehensively to meet all the needs. In terms of time allocation, sufficient time is called for VLS instruction; hence, all school administrators and staff involved should discuss how to provide appropriate time for it and come up with the best solution, without posing a negative impact on other language points to be covered as well.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This last chapter comprises conclusion of the study, implications of the study and recommendations for future research.

5.1 Conclusion of the study

This study was purposefully carried out to investigate teachers' preferred vocabulary learning strategies to see how much, in terms of attention, the contemporary vocabulary strategies differ from the at-all-time popular strategy i.e. rote memorization in relation to both teachers' beliefs and instructional practices. Surprisingly, there are as many strategies that obtained equally well-received attention as the well-known traditional method. This has given the researcher a huge relief after having noticed that the concern of extreme use of rote repetition did not alone possess the top-ranking position.

As the teachers have envisioned the importance of vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary instruction should be taken forward to help strengthen students' capacity of learning new words. Learning vocabulary is the basis to acquire other components of the target language; it is essential to conduct the class by a solid foundation for the students to build on to other harder steps to become successful learners. This study allows the researcher to gain more insights what strategies are perceived as useful and frequently instructed in today's classroom. From doing this research, the researcher eventually realized that a great number of participants are aware of the utility of a broad range of VLS, which is inconsistent with the researcher's first understanding towards the excessive use of rote memorization among Thai EFL learners and teachers. Even though verbal repetition and written repetition are still popular among Thai users of English, it is advantageous for teachers to familiarize their students with other beneficial strategies as they claimed they have introduced many.

Another intention of the study, in addition to teachers' preferable strategies, was to find the relationship between two powerful constructs that led the researcher to conduct this study i.e. teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices. The findings were found to be in line with previous studies in that teachers mostly teach students from what they believe. Therefore, an overall positive correlation for almost strategies cited in the questionnaire has become further evidence to confirm that teachers' beliefs and practices influence each other meaning that what teachers teach tends to reflect how they think and what teachers think can be shown by how they instruct. With respect to discrepancies that occurred with one strategy in this study, the researcher has gained sufficient information to conclude that there appeared some major factors posing conflicts against the well-acknowledged theories. The issue from the students is not to be blamed alone, but various factors are also involved namely, time, teachers and materials.

The last significant objective to fulfil the research problems was to explore teachers' views towards the necessity of introducing strategy training to the students and towards their desires for support of VLS instruction from their schools. Apparently, teachers are in agreement that it is required that students know how to make use a variety of strategies; in this case, a teacher is the one that needs to provide students with enough strategy training in order for them to become learner autonomous. In order to facilitate vocabulary instruction, support from school is considered essential to build a successful path towards not only vocabulary instruction but also second language acquisition.

To sum up, using both questionnaires and interviews has allowed the researcher to gain valuable insights into the implementation of Thai EFL high school teachers on what strategies they prefer and what support from school they desire to receive to improve the vocabulary instruction. All research questions were well answered and kind cooperation was also given from the participants involved in the study, permitting the researcher to comprehend the whole picture of how the instructional progress concerning VLS instruction is going on with the education in the researcher's hometown, which is Maha Sarakham, Thailand.

5.2 Implications of the study

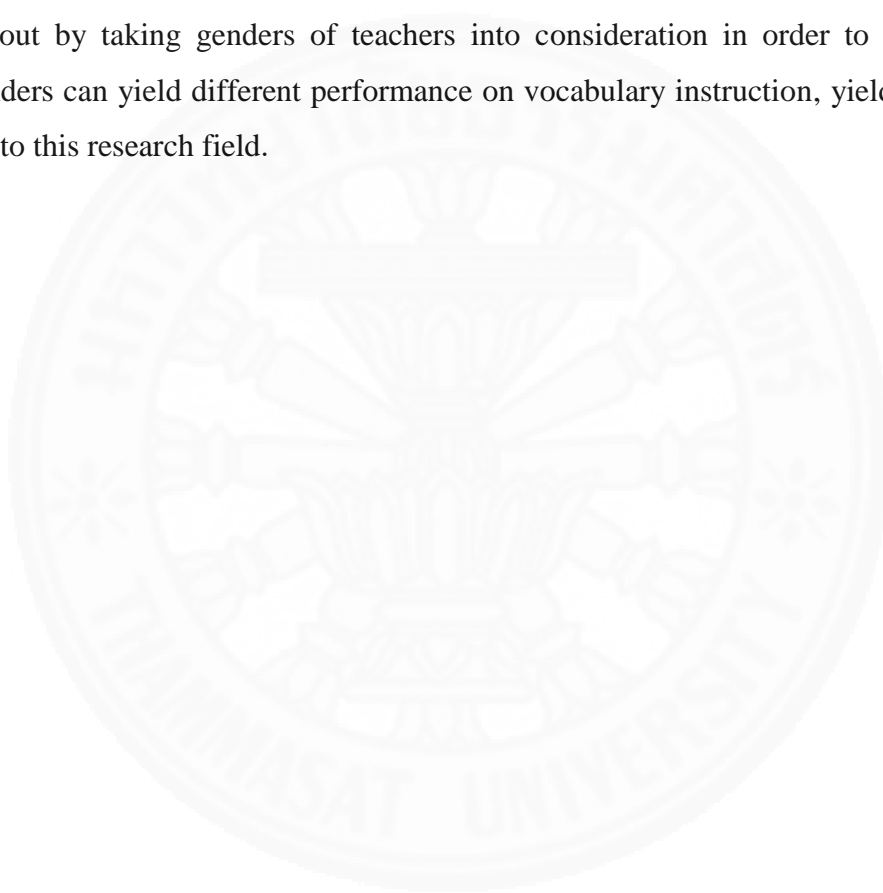
As this study has put a great emphasis on teachers, implications for language teachers should be primarily discussed. Since only 21 teachers claimed they have received training on how to teach vocabulary learning strategies, the teachers including both pre-service and in-service thus should find more opportunities to participate in the teacher training workshops. Generally speaking, lack of training could yield a negative impact on vocabulary instruction in that teachers do not know how to effectively teach what is supposed to be learnt by the learners, leaving vocabulary pedagogy unsuccessful. In spite of attending the workshops, teachers should not hesitate to also improve their own teaching by committing themselves to continuous self-development. Moreover, teachers should always observe what strategies work best for their students and encourage the students to employ the strategies that suit them best. Besides, not only should the teachers carefully plan their instruction, they also need to be able to point out the problems and figure out what can be done to solve them.

Implications for language learners should also be brought up. Since difficulties found to impede vocabulary learning arose mostly from students i.e. their lack of attention and motivation, it can be suggested that students themselves should get involved in the awareness-raising program to gain understandings on how vocabulary learning strategies can aid their vocabulary learning so as to not let the burden overwhelm the teachers. They can also repeat practicing the vocabulary strategies on their own and should have more responsibility throughout their learning process if they would like to become more proficient in a second language.

Lastly, the results of this study may shed some light on how school administrators can get engaged in finding ways to develop the educational system of their schools. School administrators, including e.g. the director of the school and assistants of the director, need to pay more attention to what is going on in the classroom context. With the power to govern the school, they should be able to at least take the problematic issues into consideration and find solutions for areas that need improvement.

5.3 Recommendations for future research

Since this study focuses only on the teachers' beliefs and practices at a high school level, it is highly recommended that future research can include teachers from another levels of education to see how vocabulary instruction varies from level to level. Moreover, researchers who are interested in conducting a similar study should also supplement the research instruments with actual classroom observation to discover how the teachers actually teach and to find out if their teaching practices correspond to what they believe. Another interesting point is that future research can be carried out by taking genders of teachers into consideration in order to see if various genders can yield different performance on vocabulary instruction, yielding a new aspect to this research field.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire on Teaching Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

This questionnaire is designed to examine Thai EFL high school teachers' beliefs and teaching practices regarding vocabulary learning strategies. Please answer all of the questions as best as you can. Your answers will be kept confidential.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Part A: About Yourself

Please inform us about your background.

1. Years of experience as an EFL teacher in a high school (Please tick ONE):
 0-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 21+
2. Highest educational qualification:
 Bachelor's Master's Doctorate Other (please specify)_____
3. Gender:
 Male Female
4. Have you received any training on **how to teach vocabulary learning strategies**?
 - **Yes** (Please specify what type of training:_____)
 - **No**

Part B: Beliefs and Actual Practices of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

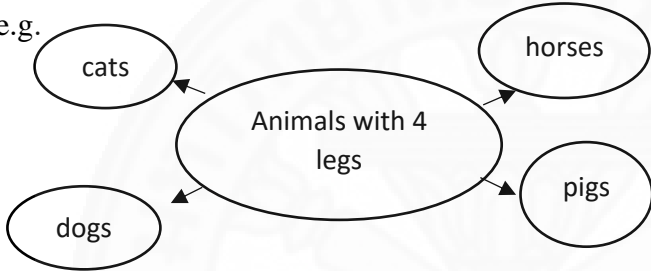
Instructions: For each statement, there are *two scales* for you to place a tick (✓).


- The first scale is for you to specify *to what extent you believe the strategy is useful* to your students.
- The second scale is for you to specify *to what extent you ACTUALLY introduce the strategy in the classroom*.

The first scale: To what extent do you believe each strategy is useful to your students? Please give your opinion about the statements below by ticking ONE answer for each, according to the following scale:

- 5 = Very useful
 4 = Useful
 3 = Moderately useful
 2 = Slightly useful
 1 = Not at all useful

No.	Strategy Description	Scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning (e.g. nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions)					
2	Analyze affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and roots to figure out the meaning (e.g.the prefix <i>mis-</i> in the word <u>mis</u> understand)					
3	Guess the meaning from context					
4	Use bilingual dictionaries					
5	Use monolingual dictionaries					
6	Study the meaning from word lists					
7	Study the meaning from flash cards					
8	Ask a teacher for L1 translation					
9	Ask classmates for the meaning					
10	Study and practice the meaning in a group activity					

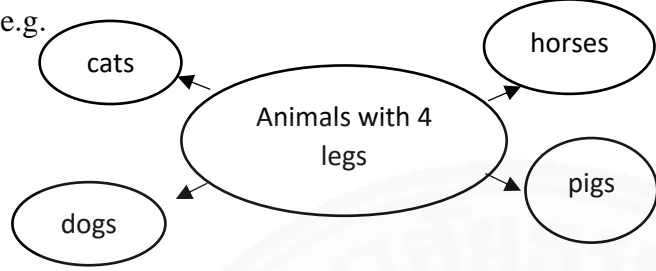

No.	Strategy Description	Scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
11	Have a teacher check flash cards or word lists for accuracy					
12	Study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning					
13	Connect the word to a personal experience (e.g. connecting the word <i>beach</i> to a memory of going to the beach with a family)					
14	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms (e.g. <i>male</i> is an antonym of <i>female</i>)					
15	Use semantic maps e.g. 					
16	Use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (e.g. tiny/small/medium/big/huge)					
17	Group words together to study them (e.g. similar words can be grouped together to make it simpler to memorize; cats and dogs are grouped in terms of animals)					
18	Use a new word in sentences					
19	Study the spelling of a word					
20	Study the sound of a word					
21	Underline initial letter of the word					

No.	Strategy Description	Scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
22	<p>Use keyword Method</p> <p>* This technique involves looking for a Thai word (keyword) that sounds similar to the target word. Then create a mental image to link the keyword and the target word translation.</p> <p>e.g. the word 'licence' meaning 'an official document that shows that permission has been given to do something': the word pronounced 'lai-sen' in Thai means 'signature'. Thus, 'lai-sen' is the keyword that is created to mean 'permission'.</p>  <p>Licence(n.)=permission</p>					
23	Use affixes and roots (for remembering)					
24	Use parts of speech (for remembering)					
25	Learn the words in chunks (e.g. phrases, idioms, collocations)					
26	Use physical actions when learning a word					
27	Say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition)					
28	Write a word repeatedly (Written repetition)					
29	Study word lists (to continue reviewing)					
30	Study flash cards (to continue reviewing)					
31	Take notes in class					
32	Use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook					
33	Listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs					
34	Put English labels on physical objects					
35	Keep a vocabulary notebook					
36	Use English-language media (songs, movies, news, etc.)					
37	Skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one					
38	Test oneself with word tests					

The second scale: To what extent do you ACTUALLY introduce the strategy in the classroom? Please give your opinion about the statements below by ticking ONE answer for each, according to the following scale:

- 5 = Always
 4 = Often
 3 = Sometimes
 2 = Seldom
 1 = Never

No.	Strategy Description	Scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Teach students to analyze parts of speech to figure out the meaning (e.g. nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions)					
2	Teach students to analyze affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and roots to figure out the meaning (e.g.the prefix <i>mis-</i> in the word <u>mis</u> understand)					
3	Teach students to guess the meaning from context					
4	Teach students to use bilingual dictionaries					
5	Teach students to use monolingual dictionaries					
6	Teach students to study the meaning from word lists					
7	Teach students to study the meaning from flash cards					
8	Encourage students to ask a teacher for L1 translation					
9	Encourage students to ask his/her classmates for the meaning					
10	Encourage students to study and practice the meaning in a group activity					
11	Check students' flash cards or word lists for accuracy					
12	Teach students to study a word with a pictorial representation of its meaning					
13	Teach students to connect the word to a personal experience (e.g. connecting the word <i>beach</i> to a memory of going to the beach with a family)					

No.	Strategy Description	Scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
14	Teach students to connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms (e.g. <i>male</i> is an antonym of <i>female</i>)					
15	Teach students to use semantic maps e.g. 					
16	Teach students to use 'scales' for gradable adjectives (e.g. tiny/small/medium/big/huge)					
17	Teach students to group words together to study them (e.g. similar words can be grouped together to make it simpler to memorize; cats and dogs are grouped in terms of animals)					
18	Encourage students to use a new word in sentences					
19	Encourage students to study the spelling of a word					
20	Encourage students to study the sound of a word					
21	Encourage students to underline initial letter of the word					
22	Teach students to use keyword Method * This technique involves looking for a Thai word (keyword) that sounds similar to the target word. Then create a mental image to link the keyword and the target word translation. e.g. the word 'licence' meaning 'an official document that shows that permission has been given to do something': the word pronounced 'lai-sen' in Thai means 'signature'. Thus, 'lai-sen' is the keyword that is created to mean 'permission'. 					

No.	Strategy Description	Scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
23	Encourage students to use affixes and roots (for remembering)					
24	Encourage students to use parts of speech (for remembering)					
25	Teach students to learn the words in chunks (e.g. phrases, idioms, collocations)					
26	Teach students to use physical actions when learning a word					
27	Encourage students to say a word repeatedly (Verbal repetition)					
28	Encourage students to write a word repeatedly (Written repetition)					
29	Encourage students to study word lists (to continue reviewing)					
30	Encourage students to study flash cards (to continue reviewing)					
31	Encourage students to take notes in class					
32	Encourage students to use the vocabulary section (glossary) in the textbook					
33	Encourage students to listen to the word lists from an audio recorder/CDs					
34	Encourage students to put English labels on physical objects					
35	Encourage students to keep a vocabulary notebook					
36	Encourage students to use English-language media (songs, movies, news, etc.)					
37	Encourage students to skip or pass a new word, especially a low frequency one					
38	Encourage students to test oneself with word tests					

Part C: Follow-up question

In your opinion, do you think introducing VLS strategy training to your students is necessary? If necessary, what types of support would you like from your school in order to respond to the needs of teaching effective VLS to the students?

[Note: a strategy training in this case means teaching students to know how to make use of a wide variety of vocabulary learning strategies to help enhance students' English vocabulary acquisition by incorporating a training into any English classes in order for the students to later be able to employ the strategies effectively on their own both inside and outside the classroom.]

Please place a tick on either of the following options:

not necessary

necessary (if you choose this option, please further inform your desires below)

For each of the following statements, please answer by ticking ONE answer for each, according to the following options:

Needed	Not needed
--------	------------

No.	Items	Needed	Not needed
1	There should be a strategy training workshop regarding VLS conducted by a specialist held up at school regularly to help enhance teachers' understanding towards the effective VLS instruction (at least once a year).		
2	A school needs to provide at least one native speaker to help students with vocabulary learning.		
3	Financial support should be provided for VLS teaching materials.		
4	Financial support should be granted to those teachers who would like to participate in a workshop held up outside the school.		
5	Sufficient time should be allowed for VLS instruction in the classroom.		

If there are any other needs and desires besides the above statements, please express below:

APPENDIX B

แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลยุทธ์ในการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์

แบบสอบถามมีทั้งหมด 3 ส่วน ขอความกรุณาท่านตอบแบบสอบถามให้ครบทุกข้อ เพื่อความสมบูรณ์ของแบบสอบถาม ขอขอบคุณเป็นอย่างสูงในการให้ความอนุเคราะห์ตอบแบบสอบถามในครั้งนี้

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

คำชี้แจง

โปรดเขียนเครื่องหมาย / ลงใน หน้าข้อความตามความเป็นจริงเกี่ยวกับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. ประสบการณ์การสอนระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย

0-5 ปี 10 ปี 11-15 ปี 16-20 ปี 21+ ปี

2. วุฒิการศึกษาสูงสุด

ปริญญาตรี ปริญญาโท ปริญญาเอก อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____

3. เพศ

ชาย หญิง

4. คุณเคยเข้าร่วมการอบรมเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลยุทธ์(เทคนิค) การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์มาก่อนหรือไม่

เคย (โปรดระบุว่าเป็นการอบรมลักษณะใด _____)

ไม่เคย

ส่วนที่ 2 ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์

คำชี้แจง ในส่วนนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 2 ข้อด้วยกันคือ

- 1) ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์
- 2) การสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในชั้นเรียน

1) ความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์

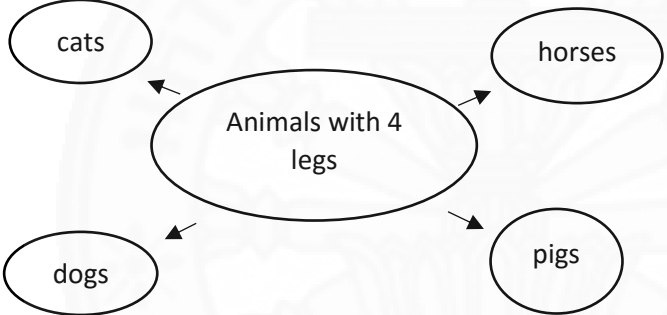
ท่านคิดว่ากลยุทธ์แต่ละข้อดังต่อไปนี้ มีประโยชน์ต่อนักเรียนของท่านมากน้อยเพียงใด

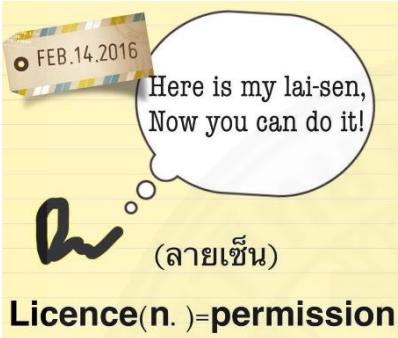
กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นของท่านด้วยการขีดเครื่องหมาย / ลงใน ที่ตรงกับ

ความเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด โดยเลข 5 4 3 2 และ 1 มีความหมายดังต่อไปนี้

- | | | |
|---|---------|--------------------|
| 5 | หมายถึง | มีประโยชน์มาก |
| 4 | หมายถึง | มีประโยชน์พอสมควร |
| 3 | หมายถึง | มีประโยชน์พอใช้ได้ |
| 2 | หมายถึง | มีประโยชน์เล็กน้อย |
| 1 | หมายถึง | ไม่มีประโยชน์เลย |

ลำดับ	กลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์	ระดับความเห็น				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	วิเคราะห์ชนิดของคำ (part of speech) เพื่อที่จะหาความหมายของคำศัพท์ (เช่น คำนาม คำสรรพนาม คำกริยา คำคุณศัพท์ คำวิเศษณ์ คำบุพบท)					
2	วิเคราะห์คำนำหน้า (prefix) คำเสริมท้าย (suffix) และรากศัพท์เพื่อที่จะหาความหมายของคำศัพท์ (เช่น คำนำหน้า mis- ในคำว่า <u>mis</u> understand)					
3	เดาคำศัพท์จากบริบท					
4	ใช้พจนานุกรมสองภาษา (อังกฤษ-ไทย หรือ ไทย-อังกฤษ)					
5	ใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาเดียว (อังกฤษ-อังกฤษ)					
6	เรียนรู้ความหมายของคำศัพท์จากรายการคำศัพท์ (word list)					
7	เรียนรู้ความหมายของคำศัพท์จากแผ่นคำศัพท์ (flash card)					
8	ถามคำแปลเป็นภาษาไทยจากครูผู้สอน					

9	ถามความหมายจากเพื่อน					
10	เรียนรู้และฝึกฝนคำศัพท์โดยการทำกิจกรรมกลุ่ม					
11	ให้ครูผู้สอนตรวจเช็คแผ่นคำศัพท์และรายการคำศัพท์เพื่อความถูกต้องแม่นยำ					
12	เรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากรูปภาพประกอบ					
13	เชื่อมโยงคำศัพท์เข้ากับประสบการณ์ส่วนตัว (เช่น เมื่อเจอคำว่า beach ให้นึกถึงประสบการณ์ที่ไปทะเลกับครอบครัวเพื่อช่วยการจำ)					
14	นึกถึงคำเหมือน(synonym) และคำตรงกันข้าม (antonym) (เช่น คำว่า male เป็นคำตรงกันข้ามของ female)					
15	ใช้แผนภาพประกอบการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ เช่น 					
16	เรียนคำคุณศัพท์โดยการเรียงลำดับ (เช่น tiny/small/medium/big/huge)					
17	จัดคำศัพท์ไว้ในหมวดหมู่เดียวกันเพื่อให้จำได้ง่ายขึ้น (เช่น จัดคำศัพท์ cats/dogs ไว้ในหมวดหมู่สัตว์เลี้ยง)					
18	ฝึกใช้คำศัพท์ใหม่กับประโยคต่างๆ					
19	เรียนรู้การสะกดคำศัพท์					
20	เรียนรู้การออกเสียงคำศัพท์					
21	ขีดเส้นใต้ตัวอักษรแรกของคำศัพท์					
22	ใช้วิธีการจำ keyword (keyword Method)					

	<p>* วิธีนี้ทำได้โดยการหาคำไทยที่จะใช้เป็น keyword ที่ออกเสียงคล้ายกับภาษาอังกฤษ จากนั้นให้คิดรูปภาพขึ้นมาประกอบเพื่อที่จะให้ keyword กับคำแปลของคำศัพท์นั้นสัมพันธ์กัน</p> <p>เช่น คำว่า ‘licence’ หมายถึง ‘การอนุญาต’: คำนี้ออกเสียงคล้ายกับคำว่า ‘ลายเซ็น’ ในภาษาไทย จึงใช้คำว่า ‘ลายเซ็น’ มาเป็น keyword ในการช่วยจำว่า คำว่า ‘licence’ หมายถึง ‘การอนุญาต’</p>  <p>Licence(n.) = permission</p>						
23	ฝึกใช้คำนำหน้า (prefix) คำเสริมท้าย (suffix) และรากศัพท์เพื่อให้จำได้						
24	ฝึกใช้ชนิดของคำต่างๆ (part of speech) เพื่อการจำ						
25	เรียนคำศัพท์เป็นกลุ่มคำ (เช่น วลี สำนวน หรือกลุ่มคำที่มีกฎปรากฏร่วมกัน)						
26	ทำท่าทางประกอบการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์						
27	ท่องคำศัพท์ซ้ำๆจนจำได้						
28	เขียนคำศัพท์ซ้ำๆจนจำได้						
29	ทบทวนคำศัพท์จากรายการคำศัพท์ไปเรื่อยๆ						
30	ทบทวนคำศัพท์จากแผ่นคำศัพท์ไปเรื่อยๆ						
31	จดคำศัพท์จากที่เรียนในชั้นเรียน						
32	เรียนรู้ศัพท์ที่มีให้ในหมวดอภิธานศัพท์ในหนังสือเรียน						
33	ฟังคำศัพท์จากแผ่นเสียงหรือไฟล์เสียง						
34	คิดป้ายคำศัพท์ลงบนสิ่งของต่างๆ						

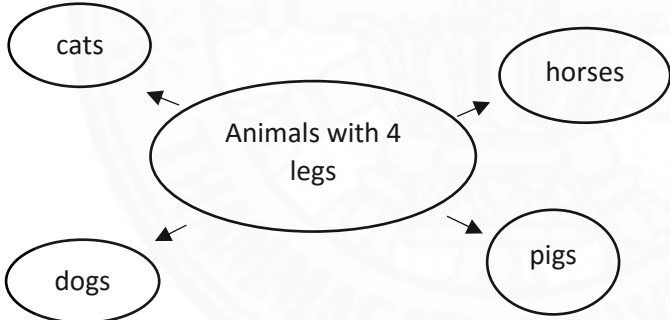
35	มีสมุดจดคำศัพท์					
36	ใช้สื่อภาษาอังกฤษช่วยในการเรียนคำศัพท์ เช่น เพลง หนังสือ ข่าวสารต่างๆ					
37	ข้ามคำศัพท์ใหม่ที่ไม่ค่อยได้ใช้					
38	ทดสอบคำศัพท์กับตัวเองด้วยข้อสอบคำศัพท์					

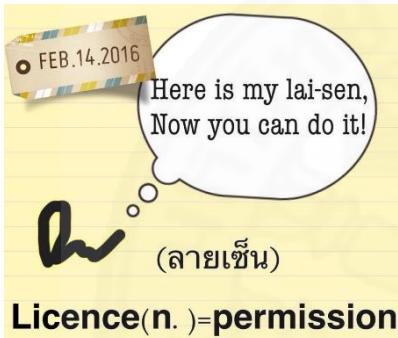
2) การสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในชั้นเรียน

ท่านได้สอนกลยุทธ์ดังต่อไปนี้ให้กับนักเรียนของท่านบ่อยเพียงใด กรุณาแสดงความ
 คิดเห็นของท่านด้วยการขีดเครื่องหมาย / ลงใน ที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด
 โดยเลข 5 4 3 2 และ 1 มีความหมายดังต่อไปนี้

- 5 หมายถึง เป็นประจำ
 4 หมายถึง บ่อย
 3 หมายถึง บางครั้งคราว
 2 หมายถึง แทบจะไม่เคย
 1 หมายถึง ไม่เคย

ลำดับ	กลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์	ระดับความเห็น				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	วิเคราะห์ชนิดของคำ (part of speech) เพื่อที่จะหาความหมายของคำศัพท์ (เช่น คำนาม คำสรรพนาม คำกริยา คำคุณศัพท์ คำวิเศษณ์ คำบุพบท)					
2	วิเคราะห์คำนำหน้า (prefix) คำเสริมท้าย (suffix) และรากศัพท์เพื่อที่จะหาความหมายของคำศัพท์ (เช่น คำนำหน้า mis- ในคำว่า <u>mis</u> understand)					
3	เดาคำศัพท์จากบริบท					
4	ใช้พจนานุกรมสองภาษา (อังกฤษ-ไทย หรือ ไทย-อังกฤษ)					
5	ใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาเดียว (อังกฤษ-อังกฤษ)					

6	เรียนรู้ความหมายของคำศัพท์จากรายการคำศัพท์ (word list)					
7	เรียนรู้ความหมายของคำศัพท์จากแผ่นคำศัพท์ (flash card)					
8	ถามคำแปลเป็นภาษาไทยจากครูผู้สอน					
9	ถามความหมายจากเพื่อน					
10	เรียนรู้และฝึกฝนคำศัพท์โดยการทำกิจกรรมกลุ่ม					
11	ครูผู้สอนตรวจเช็คแผ่นคำศัพท์และรายการคำศัพท์ของนักเรียนเพื่อความถูกต้องแม่นยำ					
12	เรียนรู้คำศัพท์จากรูปภาพประกอบ					
13	เชื่อมโยงคำศัพท์เข้ากับประสบการณ์ส่วนตัว (เช่น เมื่อเจอคำว่า beach ให้นึกถึงประสบการณ์ที่ไปทะเลกับครอบครัวเพื่อช่วยการจำ)					
14	นึกถึงคำเหมือน(synonym) และคำตรงกันข้าม (antonym) (เช่น คำว่า male เป็นคำตรงกันข้ามของ female)					
15	ใช้แผนภาพประกอบการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ เช่น 					
16	เรียนคำคุณศัพท์โดยการเรียงลำดับ (เช่น tiny/small/medium/big/huge)					
17	จัดคำศัพท์ไว้ในหมวดหมู่เดียวกันเพื่อให้จำได้ง่ายขึ้น (เช่น จัดคำศัพท์เช่น cats/dogs ไว้ในหมวดหมู่สัตว์เลี้ยง)					
18	ฝึกใช้คำศัพท์ใหม่กับประโยคต่างๆ					
19	เรียนรู้การสะกดคำศัพท์					

20	เรียนรู้การออกเสียงคำศัพท์					
21	ขีดเส้นใต้ตัวอักษรแรกของคำศัพท์					
22	<p>ใช้วิธีการจำ keyword (keyword Method)</p> <p>* วิธีนี้ทำได้โดยการหาคำไทยที่จะใช้เป็น keyword ที่ออกเสียงคล้ายกับภาษาอังกฤษ จากนั้นให้คิดรูปภาพขึ้นมาประกอบเพื่อที่จะให้ keyword กับคำแปลของคำศัพท์นั้นสัมพันธ์กัน เช่น คำว่า ‘licence’ หมายถึง ‘การอนุญาต’: คำนี้ออกเสียงคล้ายกับคำว่า ‘ลายเซ็น’ ในภาษาไทย จึงใช้คำว่า ‘ลายเซ็น’ มาเป็น keyword ในการช่วยจำว่า คำว่า ‘licence’ หมายถึง ‘การอนุญาต’</p>  <p>Licence(n.)=permission</p>					
23	ฝึกใช้คำนำหน้า (prefix) คำเสริมท้าย (suffix) และรากศัพท์เพื่อให้จำได้					
24	ฝึกใช้ชนิดของคำต่างๆ (part of speech) เพื่อการจำ					
25	เรียนคำศัพท์เป็นกลุ่มคำ (เช่น วลี สำนวน หรือกลุ่มคำที่มีกฎปรากฏร่วมกัน)					
26	ทำท่าทางประกอบการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์					
27	ท่องคำศัพท์ซ้ำๆจนจำได้					
28	เขียนคำศัพท์ซ้ำๆจนจำได้					
29	ทบทวนคำศัพท์จากรายการคำศัพท์ไปเรื่อยๆ					
30	ทบทวนคำศัพท์จากแผ่นคำศัพท์ไปเรื่อยๆ					
31	จดคำศัพท์จากที่เรียน ในชั้นเรียน					

32	เรียนรู้ศัพท์ที่มีให้ในหมวดอภิธานศัพท์ในหนังสือเรียน					
33	ฟังคำศัพท์จากแผ่นเสียงหรือไฟล์เสียง					
34	ติดป้ายคำศัพท์ลงบนสิ่งของต่างๆ					
35	มีสมุดจดคำศัพท์					
36	ใช้สื่อภาษาอังกฤษช่วยในการเรียนคำศัพท์ เช่น เพลง หนังสือ ข่าวสารต่างๆ					
37	ข้ามคำศัพท์ใหม่ที่ไม่ค่อยได้ใช้					
38	ทดสอบคำศัพท์กับตัวเองด้วยข้อสอบคำศัพท์					

ส่วนที่ 3 การสนับสนุนจากโรงเรียน

คำชี้แจง

ในความคิดเห็นของท่าน ท่านคิดว่าการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ให้กับนักเรียนในชั้นเรียนมีความจำเป็นหรือไม่ ถ้ามีความจำเป็น ท่านคิดว่าการจัดการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในชั้นเรียนนั้นควรที่จะได้รับการสนับสนุนใดบ้างจากโรงเรียนเพื่อทำให้การสอนประสบความสำเร็จอย่างแท้จริง

[หมายเหตุ: การจัดการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในกรณีนี้หมายถึง การสอนและแนะนำให้นักเรียนได้รู้จักการใช้กลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์อย่างหลากหลายวิธี เพื่อที่จะเป็นอีกหนึ่งทางที่จะช่วยพัฒนาการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษให้กับนักเรียน ด้วยการจัดการสอนกลยุทธ์ให้กับนักเรียนควบคู่ไปกับคาบเรียนภาษาอังกฤษใดก็ได้ไม่ว่าจะเป็นชั่วโมงการฟัง พูด อ่าน หรือ เขียน ทั้งนี้เพื่อให้นักเรียนได้รู้จักนำเอากลยุทธ์ไปใช้ได้ด้วยตนเอง ทั้งในและนอกห้องเรียนอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ]

กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นของท่าน:

[] ไม่จำเป็น

[] จำเป็น (ถ้าท่านได้เลือกข้อนี้ กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติมดังต่อไปนี้)

กรุณาแสดงความคิดเห็นของท่านด้วยการขีดเครื่องหมาย / ลงใน ที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด โดยให้ท่านเลือกว่าการสนับสนุนจากโรงเรียนดังต่อไปนี้มีความจำเป็นหรือไม่

ลำดับ	การสนับสนุนจากโรงเรียน	จำเป็น	ไม่จำเป็น
1	ควรจะมีการจัดอบรมเกี่ยวกับกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์โดยวิทยากรผู้เชี่ยวชาญให้กับครูอย่างต่อเนื่อง โดยจัดการอบรมที่โรงเรียนอย่างน้อยปีละ 1 ครั้ง เพื่อให้ครูมีความเข้าใจมากขึ้นเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ		
2	โรงเรียนควรจัดหาชาวต่างชาติที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่อย่างน้อยจำนวน 1 ท่านเพื่อมาช่วยพัฒนาการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ของนักเรียน		
3	ควรได้รับการสนับสนุนด้านการเงินอย่างเพียงพอเพื่อสื่อการเรียนการสอนสำหรับการพัฒนาการเรียนรู้คำศัพท์		
4	ควรสนับสนุนทางการเงินให้กับครูชาวไทยที่ต้องการเข้าร่วมการอบรมนอกสถานที่เกี่ยวกับการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์		
5	ควรมีเวลาเพิ่มให้กับการสอนกลยุทธ์การเรียนรู้คำศัพท์อย่างเพียงพอในชั้นเรียน		

ถ้าท่านมีความเห็นอื่น ๆ อาจจะมีขึ้นเกี่ยวกับการสนับสนุนที่ควรได้รับจากโรงเรียนเพิ่มเติม นอกเหนือจาก 5 ข้อด้านบน กรุณาเขียนความคิดเห็นของท่านด้านล่างนี้

** เบอร์โทรติดต่อ _____ (เพื่อในกรณีที่ผู้วิจัยต้องการสอบถามข้อมูลเพิ่มเติม)

** ถ้าท่านสนใจผลสรุปงานวิจัย กรุณากรอกอีเมลล์ของท่าน: _____

ขอขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถามเป็นอย่างดี

APPENDIX C

Interview questions

1. To what extent do you think vocabulary strategies are able to help enhance learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition? Why?
2. Do you think a teacher plays a significant role in supporting students' use of VLS? Why (not)?
3. Thinking back on your own experience of learning English, what techniques or strategies do you consider beneficial to your English vocabulary learning and why do you think so?
4. Have you ever designed any activities to train your students to make use of vocabulary learning strategies? Can you provide an example on how you do it?
5. (Ask only one person whose result showed negative correlation and who volunteers to be interviewed) From the strategy 18 (Use a new word in sentences), you believe the strategy is very useful; however, practically you sometimes teach this strategy to your students. Could you clarify why you do not often or always teach this strategy? What is/ are the reason(s) behind this?
6. What difficulties have you encountered in teaching VLS?
7. How often would you like a strategy training workshop regarding VLS held up at your school to improve teachers' instruction?
8. Can you share your own effective VLS that have not been listed in the list?
9. Regarding the support of your school on VLS instruction, do you have any suggestions on this to help develop students' learning of VLS?
10. In your opinion, why do you think the strategies *Ask a teacher for LI translation* and *Ask classmates for the meaning* were not given much attention compared to the other strategies? (this question emerged during the interview)

APPENDIX D

An example of the interview transcriptions

Interviewee 1

Interviewer: Do you mind if I record our conversation?

Interviewee: No, please go ahead.

Interviewer: Let's begin with the first question.

Interviewee: Ok.

Interviewer: To what extent do you think vocabulary strategies are able to help enhance learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition? Why?

Interviewee: In my opinion, I think vocabulary learning strategies can really help enhance learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition if the teachers plan the instruction well and properly.

Interviewer: The next question. Do you think a teacher plays a significant role in supporting students' use of VLS? Why (not)?

Interviewee: I think a teacher plays quite a very important role in the class as a teacher can offer students guidance. Thus, a teacher has to master the knowledge that is to be instructed to the students, so the students can have much more confidence in learning vocabulary.

Interviewer: Thinking back on your own experience of learning English, what techniques or strategies do you consider beneficial to your English vocabulary learning and why do you think so?

Interviewee: I think word cards, cartoons, songs, stories and games are quite helpful.

Interviewer: Next. Have you ever designed any activities to train your students to make use of vocabulary learning strategies? Can you provide an example on how you do it?

Interviewee: I give them an opportunity to join an open dictionary competition and I also provide some group activities in class such as having the students translate the passage e.g. from the news.

Interviewer: What difficulties have you encountered in teaching VLS? You can talk about any difficulties you have had.

Interviewee: Students at my school have different language backgrounds, so we need to divide students into groups in which each group has both types of learners i.e. proficient and less proficient, so they can help each other and learn from one another.

Interviewer: Ok, let's now move on to the next question. How often would you like a strategy training workshop regarding VLS held up at your school to improve teachers' instruction?

Interviewee: I hope there is training at least twice a year.

Interviewer: Can you share your own effective VLS that have not been listed in the list?

Interviewee: For me, I think a crossword, a jigsaw of words and storytelling are quite effective.

Interviewer: Now we have two more questions to go. Regarding the support of your school on VLS instruction, do you have any suggestions on this to help develop students' learning of VLS?

Interviewee: An extra class should specifically be provided for students who are interested and those who are weak at this. Also, academic competitions are a great way for talented students to deepen their knowledge

Interviewer: Here we come to the last question. Regarding the questionnaire consisting of 38 strategies, there are two strategies shown in the results receiving the least attention from the teachers in Maha Sarakham both in terms of teachers' beliefs and practices compared to the other strategies i.e. "Ask a teacher for L1 translation" and "Ask classmates for the meaning". In your opinion, why do you think the strategies "Ask a teacher for L1 translation" and "Ask classmates for the meaning" were not given much attention?

Interviewee: It is possible that their friends might not know the meaning of the word either and it is good for the students to look up the words themselves instead of just relying on the teacher.

Interviewer: Now we've covered all the interview questions. As you've left you email at the end of the questionnaire that you would like to see the results, I'll send you as soon as I've finished analyzing all the data. Thank you very much for your kind cooperation in getting involved in the interview session. I really appreciate it.

Interviewee: You're welcome.



BIOGRAPHY

Name	Miss Ratiporn Panduangkaew
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