# Vocabulary as a Linguistic component in foreign 

## LANGUAGE TEACHING

An analysis of three course books for year 5 in Norway

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The thesis consists of 40536 words (excluding appendices).

## Preface

This thesis is part of a Master Programme in Culture and Language Didactics at Hedmark University College. In the course of the programme I took a wonderful variety of courses within the field of humanities. One of them, English Didactics, gave me the idea about taking a closer look at material intended for teaching English in primary school. In 2006 many new textbooks appeared on the market, along with a new curriculum (LK06). This made such a project particularly interesting. I wanted to compare some of the new course books, and see how they dealt with vocabulary. Were they in accordance with the new curriculum and the latest theory? The work has given me a deeper insight in the teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language, and hopefully will be useful in my work as a teacher.

I am grateful to Anne-Line Graedler for being an excellent supervisor. She has given me comprehensive comments and encouraged me when I needed. Part of the time I have been living in California, but this has been no problem in the contact between us. Today's channels of communication make the world small, and I really appreciate her goodwill and patience.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my husband and two daughters for being patient with me during the period of writing this thesis. Without their cooperation and support this project would not have been reality.

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 Aim

My experience, both as a learner, and as an English teacher for 18 years in (Norwegian) primary school made it evident to me that it is a lack of words, rather than a lack of grammar or pronunciation, that potentially obstructs communication. This is consistent with Simensen (2007: 220), who argues that 'studies have shown that L2 students think a lack of vocabulary is one of their major problems in using the language'. Simensen further argues that vocabulary is the most clearly identifiable subcomponent of the ability to read, and hence a lack of vocabulary is the greatest obstacle to efficient reading (ibid.).

The purpose of this thesis is to describe vocabulary as a linguistic component in second language teaching. I used three textbooks as sources for my analysis but will see the analysis in light of vocabulary treatment in different teaching methods, L2 research and different curricula. I will discuss how vocabulary is treated in different teaching methods, in current L2 research, in the Norwegian curricula for the last 50 years and finally in three Norwegian textbooks.

### 1.2 Material and method

As mentioned above, section 1.1 Simensen (2007) points out that vocabulary is an important component in both using the language and for efficient reading. Until recently more attention has been given to questions of vocabulary selection and grading in L2 teaching and less to how vocabulary is learned and should be taught. As for methods of teaching, there is a distinction between professionals who maintain that there should be no formal teaching of vocabulary. Those who do not believe in formal teaching of vocabulary emphasize exposure to natural and interesting L2 material instead. Simensen (2007: 221) describes these two approaches to vocabulary as incidental and intentional. This distinction will be discussed in section 3.2.2 below.

### 1.2.1 Vocabulary in course books: Some preliminary questions

The authors of course books make a great impact on what vocabulary the pupils are going to meet during the lessons and how the pupils are meant to acquire the new words. The teaching of English in Norwegian classrooms is highly dependant on course books (see section 5.1
below). According to Tomlinson studies of material development is a recent phenomenon. Course books are an effective way of helping teachers to provide material that helps to 'achieve consistency and continuation, it gives learners a sense of system, cohesion and progress, and it helps teachers prepare and the learner revise' (Tomlinson, in Carter and Nunan 2001: 67). Opponents say that a course book 'cannot cater the diverse needs of all its users, it imposes uniformity of syllabus and approach, and it removes initiative and power from teachers' (ibid.). Gairns and Redman state that:


#### Abstract

Although historically the importance of vocabulary has been minimised, some of the more recently published EFL course books have adapted a more systematic approach to vocabulary learning and have become increasingly aware of the importance of developing vocabulary learning strategies (Gairns and Redman 1986: 171).


Course book writers and material designers, unlike practising classroom teachers, have easy access to word frequency counts and other checklists. They also have the time to ensure that high priority items are introduced at appropriate stages and recycled where possible.

The teacher should be able to find out if there is a vocabulary section and how those words are selected. Are the wordlists based on frequency counts, subjective selection or used simply as vehicles for structural or notional/functional practice? It is interesting to find out how the new words are presented. By reading theory on the learning of vocabulary, the teachers get to know that there are certain ways of grouping vocabulary that facilitate learning. Does the course book make use of any groupings of this kind? The amount of vocabulary is also of importance to the teacher when planning a lesson.

There are linguistic considerations to be made. Does the course book help both learners and teachers in clarifying meaning, dealing with style and connotation, or contrasting words which cause difficulty? Do the word lists provide phonemic transcriptions? How thoroughly does the course book deal with the use of new items?

Methodology is an important factor in a course book. Does the course book aim both to develop vocabulary learner strategies and provide learners with a useful selection of words for productive use? In what ways are practice and testing activities provided? Is the vocabulary recycled? It is also interesting for the teacher to see how learners are encouraged to consolidate and widen their vocabulary outside the classroom. Does the course book contain useful visual material?

In my presentation and analysis (section 5) I will show how the authors of A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English have designed material they think suitable for the teaching and
learning of vocabulary in year 5 in Norwegian schools. The authors have to bear in mind the pupils as well as LK06. The questions outlined in section 1.2.1 will form the basis for the description and discussion of the material.

### 1.2.2 Material and method for the analysis

Six series of textbooks have been approved by the standards of LK06. These series are A New Scoop (published by Det Norske Samlaget), Stairs (Cappelen), Talking English (Aschehoug/GAN), Steps (Gyldendal), Doors (Aschehoug) and Magic (Damm). The books are divided into modules for year 5 , year 6 and year 7. Doors was withdrawn from the market after only a few months, but the other five series are available and will be published according to plan.

It would, of course, have been very interesting to analyse the whole series for years 5-7 to see vocabulary in a longer perspective. This would be most relevant because LK06 has aims after year 4 and after year 7. Unfortunately I had to narrow down my scope both in relation to how many series to include and which year to concentrate on. The reason I chose to analyse the series for year 5 is that they were the first ones to be published. In LK06, years 5-7 are seen as a whole. Therefore, it might happen that different authors have chosen to include the same topics in textbooks for different years. This makes it impossible for me to say whether a publisher has included or excluded a topic altogether because I will only be able to say something about the textbooks for year 5 in my analysis.

I decided at an early stage that I wanted to include three of the series in my analysis. I chose A New Scoop, which I know from my own teaching. Stairs was chosen because it was a completely new textbook. Finally I planned to include Doors in my study, but I had to change my mind because the series was withdrawn by the publisher. My choice then fell on Talking English, which is also new. I chose it because the series looked exciting and different from the others. Steps and Magic were left out for practical reasons of time and space.

At first glance, none of the series differ radically from each other in how they treat vocabulary, so I think my choices give a general picture of the situation.

The three series in my study consist of the following modules:

Table A A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English with their modules.

| A New Scoop | Stairs | Talking English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| English Textbook | Textbook | Pupil’s Book $^{1}$ |
| English Workbook | Workbook | Talking English Englishcards ${ }^{2}$ |
| Teacher's Guide | Teacher’s Guide | Teacher’s Guide |
| CD | CD and Games | CD |
| Scoop Universe (web site) ${ }^{3}$ | Web site | Web site |

Chapter 4 shows how vocabulary as a linguistic component has been treated in English curricula in Norway during the last fifty years, from 1957 till 2007. I give a brief outline of the earliest curricula I have included in my thesis. The two latest curricula of English in Norway, L97 and LK06 are given more attention. I have chosen to include these as material for my analysis because they give guidelines for the teaching. Therefore, they influence the production of textbooks and teaching material available. These curricula give guidelines on both methods and what topics to teach. They also give directives about which objectives should be included at different levels and what the learners at the different stages in their education are expected to know. It is therefore necessary to study the existing curriculum in connection with the teaching material. It is also interesting to see how recent development in international theory and research on vocabulary has influenced the present English curriculum in Norway. Comments to LK06 are also useful background knowledge in order to understand the process behind the new curriculum.

Most interesting to me is the kind of exercises the series include and to what extent they encourage the learning and teaching of 'learner strategies'. I counted words in the glossaries to see how many words a pupil in year 5 is expected to learn in a school year.

The exercises in the workbooks are registered according to types. I have divided them into different categories and labelled them. Hatch and Brown (1995) talk about five different stages in vocabulary learning (see chapter 3). I have used them as basis for my categorisation of exercises. Four of the main types of categories are the same as the ones used in the model by Hatch and Brown. These are: getting the word form, getting the word meaning, consolidating form and meaning and using the word. I have called the fifth one grouping words and the last one other exercises. The last category is for the exercises that did not fit into any of the other five categories. ${ }^{4}$

[^0]Each of the categories comprises different exercises, as illustrated in table B.

Table B The categories used to identify the different types of exercises in the textbooks.

| Category | Types of exercises |
| :--- | :--- |
| Getting the word form | Spelling, word search |
| Getting the word meaning | Matching English and Norwegian words, picture <br> dictionary, Word Box |
| Consolidating form and meaning | Cloze test, crossword puzzle, match words and <br> pictures, synonymy, antonymy |
| Using the word | Produce sentences |
| Grouping words | Hyponymy, odd man out, collocations, connotations |
| Other exercises | Games, listening activities |

Nation (2001) is another theorist who describes a range of activities for vocabulary learning. Nation (2001: 99, table 3.7) divides vocabulary learning in much the same way as Hatch and Brown. His three categories are form, meaning and use. He further subdivides the main categories and describes activities that belong to the different groups. I have included all the types of exercises mentioned by Nation, except for the ones dealing with the grammar of words, e.g. exercises where the pupils are asked to put the words in correct order to make sentences. 'But there is a continuing debate going on (Sinclair 1991) about the relative role of vocabulary and grammar in determining how words are used’ (Nation 2001: 106). I am aware of the different theorists' opinion, but have chosen to exclude these exercises from my analysis. For the purpose of this thesis, the categories given by Hatch and Brown (1995) are most suitable for my categorisation.

It was sometimes difficult to decide whether an exercise was a vocabulary exercise or not. In some of the exercises, the pupils practise grammar and vocabulary at the same time. A good example this is shown in Stairs Workbook, exercise 86 p. 50. The pupils have to know the meanings of the words in order to put in the right forms of to be. And it was also sometimes difficult to put the vocabulary exercises into the right category. Because the skills and sub-skills of a language are so closely connected, it can be difficult to distinguish between exercises that practise other language components from those practising vocabulary. Some exercises practise more than one language component within the same exercise. In cases where one exercise tests other components, I have split the exercise and counted the separate parts as single exercises.

I have left out some of the exercises from all 3 books that claim to practise vocabulary, as they actually seem to be testing other things than vocabulary. In cloze exercises, the words left may be for example numbers and proper names taken from a given text. The same is the
case with some of the crosswords, where the pupils are supposed to fill in proper names from a specific text. The web sites also had many exercises where the pupils had to match a sentence to a picture. In order to do this, they had to know the text in the textbook. In my opinion, these exercises aim to test the memory of the pupils rather than their ability to guess words.

I also left out exercises that deal with a specific grammatical phenomenon, such as ' $a$ ' and 'an', which I consider to be a grammar exercise rather than a vocabulary exercise. Similarly, I omitted some translations out of the discussion when the aim is learning a grammatical phenomenon rather than practising vocabulary. I also included some exercises that concentrate on grammatical phenomena such as prepositions. It can be difficult to decide whether prepositions belong to the vocabulary component or the grammar component of a language. In these cases, the pupils are asked to insert in the correct prepositions alone; they are not given any alternatives to choose from.

In my tables, I have included some of the exercises intended to be pre-reading activities. Because reading and vocabulary are linguistic components that are closely connected, I have included these as vocabulary exercises. Many of these exercises are intended to help the pupils understand the meaning of words. Lastly, there are some cloze exercises where the pupils fill in missing words while listening to a song or a text. I see these as practising listening skills rather than vocabulary, and they have consequently been left out.

In some cases, it is rather difficult to count the exercises in the textbooks and teacher's guides. Some exercises are labelled A, B, C etc., and some of the exercises were subdivided. Others are not labelled at all, e.g. some of the picture dictionaries in Talking English. When counting, I had to be careful dividing the exercises where necessary and labelling them as appropriately as possible.

The different categories of exercises are seen in relation to current research and theories, and the approaches and exercises described there. I also compared the glossaries in the textbooks. Here I looked for words the glossaries had in common and the number of words in each textbook.

According to LK06, the pupils should be able to use digital tools in their work with all subjects. The authors of the three series I analysed have developed web sites as a component of their series. The web sites are also included as materials for my study. I went through each web site and studied the material that is provided for the teachers as well as the exercises for the pupils. The web sites have different layouts. I had to make a system that made it possible for me to label each exercise when I put them into my tables. I tried to use the same categories
as I did for the workbooks, but some exercises were given a more appropriate category name as I went along. I had problems with Stairs' web site, because it is interactive. This means that the exercises do not come in the same order every time you enter, but alter from time to time. This created a problem for my labelling, but I got in touch with the publisher. They advised me to print out the screen in order to count the different exercises. On this web site, I was not able to label each exercise with a number but I counted the total number of exercises in each category. It will not be correct to compare the three web sites because Talking English has not made their own exercises. It contains a collection of links listed under the relevant chapters of the book. I chose instead to give a detailed description of this web site. The other two web sites will be compared in my analysis because they are both made by the authors of the series and contain exercises made for special purposes.

### 1.3 A note on terminology

In order to discuss a topic like vocabulary, it is necessary to give an introductory and clarifying definition of what I mean a word actually is. Carter (1987) gives a number of definitions of a word and starts off with an orthographic definition. He says that 'a word is any sequence of letters (and a limited number of other characteristics such as hyphen and apostrophe) bounded on either side by a space or punctuation mark’ (ibid. 4). The definition is useful when it is necessary to count words, but there are some aspects of a word that it does not account for. It is, for example, not 'sensitive to distinctions of meaning or grammatical function' (ibid. 5). Because knowing a word implies knowing the different meanings carried out by a single form, e.g. the different meanings of pick, this definition is not adequate for all purposes. ${ }^{5}$

As far as learners of English are concerned, Carter's second definition may prove to be more helpful: a word is the minimum meaningful unit of language. Such a definition accounts for the different meanings of the above mentioned word pick. A complicating factor is that this definition presupposes 'clear relations between single words and the notion of 'meaning'’ (Carter 1987: 5). However, these relations are not always clear. Some meanings are conveyed by more than one word, such as train driver. Although these meanings are represented by two words, their references in the real world are single entities. Do these multi-word units count as one or two words? Another problem attached to this definition is that of function words. These words serve to structure a text more than to convey meaning as such. This definition

[^1]defines a word simply a lexical item that can stand on its own as a reply to a question or as a statement or exclamation. Carter here mentions the existence of idioms, which consist of several words, but which cannot be reduced by one or more words without loss of meaning, e.g. to rain cats and dogs.

Carter gives a third definition of a word: it will not have more than one stressed syllable. Two problems occur when discussing this definition. First, the above mentioned function words seldom receive stress at all, and are accordingly not counted as words. Secondly, a compound word such as school teacher has only one stressed syllable, and is therefore regarded as a single word.

The notion of lexeme helps to solve some of the problems mentioned above. A lexeme is an abstract unit which underlies some of the variants, e.g. grammatical variants, of a 'word'. Grammatical word-forms of the lexeme WALK would thus be: 'walk', 'walks', 'walking'. In other words, lexemes are the basic, contrasting units of vocabulary in language. This notion also includes items which consist of more than word-form, such as multi-word verbs (to catch up on), phrasal verbs (to drop in) and idioms (kick the bucket) (Carter 1987).

The notion of lexeme also includes the polysemy in individual words: 'lap (n. and v. as in a race), lap ( v . as in 'the cat laps the milk') and lap ( n . as in 'sit on my lap')' will have three lexeme meanings for the same word-form' (Carter 1987: 7).

Carter's discussion makes it clear that the meanings of what we usually refer to as words are not as easily specifiable as they may appear. As a conclusion to which term is most useful when discussing vocabulary and words, Carter suggests lexical item, which embraces the variable orthographic, phonological, grammatical and semantic properties of words. I have chosen to use the term 'word' meaning lexical item.

To avoid confusion, I will justify the use of some of the other terms in this thesis. Among theorists, the distinction made by Krashen (1983) between acquisition and learning is well known. Here the two terms will be used interchangeably.

Further, I will not differentiate between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) in so far as I use the term second language acquisition about both foreign language and second language learning. This is in accordance with most current literature. Ellis (1997: 3), for example, says that in the context of language acquisition, 'second' can refer to any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue. Thus, it can refer to the learning of a third or fourth language. He explains further that 'whether you are learning a language naturally as a result of living in a country where it is spoken, or
learning it in a classroom through instruction, it is customary to speak of "second" language acquisition’ (Ellis 1997: 3).

Another distinction that will not be applied in this thesis is the one between teaching approach and method. Jeremy Harmer (2007) has made a distinction between the two by defining approach as the term people use to refer to theories about the nature of language learning. They are the sources for the way things are done in the classroom. Further, he has described a method as the practical realisation of an approach. In this thesis, I will describe various methods that have been in focus over the years.

In the present discussion, the terms pupil, learner and student will be used interchangeably. The terms exercise, task and activity are used with the same meanings. Theme and topic will also be used to refer to interchangeably. I have chosen not to make a distinction between the uses of course book and textbook. When I refer to the textbooks in my analysis I will use only Stairs, A New Scoop and Talking English.

### 1.4 Structure of the thesis

Chapter 2 looks at how various approaches to L2 teaching deal with vocabulary as a linguistic component. The attitude towards grammar has varied drastically but I will attempt to find out whether vocabulary has been a bone of contention to the same extent.

The purpose of chapter 3 is to discuss some theoretical perspectives in L2 vocabulary teaching, i.e. to see what result the interest in vocabulary has brought. This implies looking at some educationalists’ treatment (see chapter 3) of the issue and seeing what topics they are concerned with. I will attempt to find out what kind of approaches and exercises these educationalists suggest. The choice of topics reflects the age group I am dealing with in this thesis.

In chapter 4, my aim is to see how different teaching methods and approaches for the subject of English are reflected in the Norwegian curricula of 1997 and 2006. Have the methods that have dominated the international arena reached Norway, and if they have, to what extent? In order to see the Norwegian curricula in perspective, I have included a brief outline of the curricula from 1957 - 1987. The number of books and articles written about vocabulary in L 2 teaching in recent years bear evidence of a remarkable interest in this field. It is interesting; therefore, to examine to what extent this interest is reflected in the latest Norwegian curricula.

In my fifth chapter, the intention is to see how authors of Norwegian English textbooks for the subject of English have treated vocabulary as a linguistic component. Have they, for
example, built on the multitude of theories and literature that have been produced during recent years? Another issue in this analysis is to see in what way the most recent curriculum has influenced the treatment of vocabulary in textbooks. In order to find answers to these questions, I will study glossaries from these books, looking into what types of exercises they include and to what extent the authors account for their choices in the teacher's guides that accompany the books. I will also include in my analysis the web sites developed to go with the textbooks and look at how they deal with vocabulary in particular.

Chapter 6, the conclusion, sums up the major points in each chapter and suggests some possible improvements for vocabulary in future curricula and textbooks.

## 2. The history of vocabulary in second language teaching

### 2.1 Introduction

Records of second language teaching go back at least to the second century B. C. , when Roman children studied Greek (Schmitt 2000). The students learned to read by mastering the alphabet, then progressing through syllables, words, and connected discourse. In the medieval period, grammar became incredibly important, to students learning Latin. The emphasis of language instruction remained firmly on deductive, rule-oriented treatments of Latin grammar. The methods used in this teaching later influenced the teaching of English.

In order to see the role of vocabulary in perspective, I will give a brief outline of L2 teaching methods that have influenced the development of curricula in Norway.

The two latest curricula in Norway are discussed in chapter 4 along with a brief outline of the earlier ones.

### 2.2 The influence of Latin brought into $\mathbf{L} 2$ teaching

The Grammar Translation Method is heavily influenced by the teaching of Latin in Europe. In the sixteenth century, Latin became a subject in the school curriculum.

The Grammar Translation Method was first used to teach modern languages at the end of the eighteenth century. The primary goals of the method were to prepare students to read and write classical materials and pass standardized exams. The most important characteristics of the Grammar Translation Method are: A comprehensive study of L2 grammar, an extensive use of translation exercises, and the use of authentic, profound, and worthy literature as teaching materials, most often in two versions, one in the L2 and the other in the L1. Schmitt (2000) says that a lesson would usually have one or two new grammar rules and some practice to translate from L1 into L2 or vice versa. Example sentences were used instead of whole texts. A vocabulary list of words which were necessary in order to understand a worthy literary text was included. Language skills were judged according to one's ability to analyze syntactic structure, primarily conjugating verbs. Another and perhaps more important criterion for vocabulary selection was the word's ability to illustrate a grammar rule (Zimmerman 1997).

In the Grammar Translation Method, it was seldom assumed that the students would actually use the language they were learning in practice. The reason for learning an L2 was the mental exercise it provided, a goal stemming from the teaching and learning of Latin. The students were given a bilingual vocabulary list which was a task of memorisation and should give them the vocabulary they needed to understand a literary text.

The Grammar Translation Method was still in use in the twentieth century, but it was subject to criticism and scepticism long before then.

### 2.3 Focus on speech

The fact that the Grammar Translation Method lost ground was a result of the Reform Movement, established by the English linguist Henry Sweet in the 1880's. The members of the movement worked for the development of linguistics, phonetics in particular, as a science. In addition to being preoccupied with an international phonetic script, two other aspects characterised the Reformers: They recognised the importance of speech and contemporary forms of language as opposed to written, archaic forms (Simensen 2007). The reformists also emphasized the importance of connected texts and monolingual teaching. Zimmerman says that 'Perhaps the Reformers' most significant departure from the past in the area of vocabulary instruction was that words came to be associated with reality rather than with other words and syntactic patterns. To this end, vocabulary was selected according to its simplicity and usefulness’ (Zimmerman 1997: 8).

### 2.4 The Direct Method

As a product of the work done by the Reform Movement, the Direct Method was introduced towards the end of the nineteenth century. Whereas the Grammar Translation Method had its focus on the ability to analyse language, time had now come for a change, for a method which focused on how to use it: The Direct Method. Its name came from the principle of relating meaning directly to the target language, without the intermediary of translation. The method was developed in the United States by Sauveur and made famous by Berlitz. A central idea was that students should work with everyday words instead of literary and often archaic words (Simensen 2007). It was assumed that by being exposed to speech, the students would eventually be able to produce language themselves. Even though the accumulation of new vocabulary was seen as important, vocabulary as such was not given primary focus, but was thought to be naturally acquired through interaction in the lessons. Lexical items that needed
specific explanations were taught by means of pictures or physical demonstrations in order to avoid the use of the pupils' L1.

Vocabulary was connected with reality as much as possible. There should be a direct linking to the objects, states and actions referred to.

The Direct Method was put under criticism for its random selection of vocabulary (Simensen 2007). The vocabulary was not chosen according to the students' needs, but from a printed word list. The scope of vocabulary selection was relatively narrow. The selection was based on frequency lists. Many traditionalists criticized the method for being trivial. It was never adopted into ordinary schools in America or Europe.

The approaches that are dealt with in the next section were all concerned with the problem of vocabulary selection in one way or another. In this matter they represent a shift of direction in L2 teaching.

### 2.5 A systematic approach

As a result of the 1929 Coleman report, which showed deficiencies in the foreign language reading skills of American students, the so-called Reading Method was developed in the USA. The Reading Method held strong, along with Grammar Translation and the Direct Method, until World War II.

In Great Britain, the linguist Michael West made a claim for a teaching method which would improve reading skills. One of his major concerns was to strengthen the learning of vocabulary. He stated that 'foreign learners did not even have a basic thousand-word vocabulary after three years of study’ (Zimmerman 1997: 9). West suggests an improvement of the situation by selecting vocabulary on the basis of frequency lists. In 1930 he suggested the use of Thorndike's word-frequency list, and in 1953 West published A General Service List of English Words.

At the same time, the British linguists Palmer and Hornby were promoting their Situational Language Teaching approach. This was a popular approach in Britain from the 1940's to the 1960's. Their primary belief was that language structures should be taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. In the language teaching programs that were published in accordance with Situational Language Teaching, vocabulary was for the first time considered one of the most important aspects of L2 learning. A priority was placed on developing a scientific and rational basis for selecting the vocabulary content of language courses. The research of Michael West combined with that of Palmer led to the principles of vocabulary control. ‘The assumption behind this practice is that the task of
acquiring language is greatly eased by eliminating (insofar as possible) the learning burden of recognizing too many word forms’ (Coady 1997: 230). The Vocabulary Control Movement resulted in the production of a lot of simplified and adapted text material (Coady 1997).

The third approach to teaching in this period, the Oral Method, was a result of the work of British scholars who further developed the work done by people involved in the Reform Movement. Similar to the Direct Method, the teaching in the Oral Method is monolingual, i.e. one should preferably use the second language in the classroom, and avoid using the L1 unless absolutely necessary (Simensen 2007). This is what gave the method its name.

Two highly important features of the Oral Method: An emphasis on system and on control. This implied a system for the selection of what to teach, including the principle of frequency and controlled ways of dealing with what is selected. Dictation is a favoured classroom activity, and another central teaching principle is also repetition. The introduction and the practice of new language items should in principle first take place in the oral medium. The emphasis on system and control led to the claim that the Oral Method had a more 'scientific' foundation than the Direct Method. It was a negative feature to introduce sentence patterns in series of unconnected sentences. This was interpreted as the death blow to the principle of connected texts, highly approved and argued for by Direct Method proponents. The method is based on L2 learning as habit-formation (Simensen 2007).

### 2.6 The Audio-lingual Method

The Audio-lingual Method drew primarily on theory from structural linguists and behavioural psychologists. During the war, the weaknesses of all the abovementioned approaches became obvious as the American military found itself lacking people fluent in foreign languages. They needed a method to quickly train soldiers in oral and aural skills. American structural linguists developed a program that borrowed from the Direct Method, especially its emphasis on listening and speaking. After the war, this method came to be known as the Audio-lingual Method, and it had great influence on the development of L2 teaching in the period 19501970. The founder of the Audio-lingual Method, Charles Fries, described this new approach in 1945 in Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. System and control are major characteristics of the Audio-lingual Method as well. As the major object of language teaching was seen to be acquisition of structural patterns, vocabulary items were selected according to simplicity and familiarity. Other important characteristics are the systematic use of contrastive analysis as a basis of the teaching materials and the importance attributed to language exercises.

The American structuralists used the way in which children learn their first language as their model. According to Simensen, the behavioural psychologist B.F. Skinner, 'interpreted verbal learning as a process of habit formation and as a result of some sort of automatic conditioning process: some patterns of language are reinforced because they are rewarded, and some are not' (Simensen 2007: 47). Because the emphasis was on structural patterns and grammar, no method for extending vocabulary existed since it was thought to increase naturally as a result of language exposure (Schmitt 2000).

Charles Fries even suggested that learning too much vocabulary early in the language learning process could give students a false sense of security. He claimed that language learners oversimplified the role of isolated words by making false assumptions about the nature of language. First, hardly any word has identical meaning from one language to another except highly technical words. Second, according to Fries, one word usually has fifteen to twenty meanings. The third, most important point was that words are merely linguistic forms that derive their meaning from the context in which they are used. Other theorists were concerned that L2 learners would fail to realise that words often appear in groups, and that their meaning may vary from situation to situation (Zimmerman 1997: 11).

The textbooks based on the Audio-lingual method had structure, i.e. grammar, as their primary focus, and the vocabulary, accordingly, was small and of minor significance. The meaning of the texts was also of secondary importance. Drills and structured exercises dominated the textbooks in the 1960s and 1970s, and vocabulary exercises clearly came second. In general, teaching material was considered more important in the audio-lingual method than it had previously been. Hatch and Brown comment on the use of materials in the Audio-lingual Method as follows:

> 'Audiolingual textbooks used a set plan for selecting and limiting vocabulary. [...] The lessons began with vocabulary of the classroom, then school, home community and work. [...] In addition to this expanding scope, writers of audiolingual materials believed that the number of vocabulary items per lesson should be kept to the minimum so that learners would concentrate on pronunciation and grammar (Hatch and Brown 1995: 405-406).

Since contrastive analysis was important during this era, vocabulary was also selected to show contrast. Many false cognates were highlighted for extra practice. Another typical feature of the Audio-lingual method was avoiding errors. This should be done by having the learners observe and practice the right model a sufficient number of times, and correcting them as soon as they respond incorrectly.

In Norway, the 'Oral Method’ and the 'Audio-lingual Method’ were explicitly referred to in the syllabus guidelines for the third quarter of the 20th century. A systematic approach to the selection, grading, and repetition of vocabulary was given high priority by the syllabus guidelines published in 1974. The teacher is advised to direct controlled oral exercises in such a way that errors could be avoided. At the same time it was also emphasized that a fear of making errors should be avoided, and that exercises involving less control should be used for the expression of meaning. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), represents a new shift of focus from structure to the ability to communicate.

### 2.7 Communicative Language Teaching

A major transition in linguistic theory was triggered by Noam Chomsky in 1957, when he published his work Syntactic Structures. He claimed that imitation is not the solution to the mystery of how language is learned. As opposed to the behaviourists, who claimed that the brain was 'empty', Chomsky's main hypothesis is that the ability to learn language is one we are born with. By claiming this, 'he challenged the behaviourist idea of habit formation, language was now seen as governed by cognitive factors, particularly a set of abstract rules that were assumed to be innate' (Schmitt 2000: 14)

In 1972, the American anthropologist and sociologist Dell Hymes added to Chomsky's idea of an innate linguistic faculty the concept of communicative competence, emphasizing sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors. Communicative competence is defined as the internalized knowledge of the situational appropriateness of language (Hymes 1972). This helped to swing the pendulum from focus on accuracy and correctness to focus on the suitability of language for a particular context. The approach that developed was called Communicative Language Teaching. The main focus of this approach was message and fluency rather than grammatical accuracy.

In any meaning-based approach, one would expect vocabulary to be given a prominent place. This was not the case in CLT. Vocabulary was given a secondary status, this time to issues of mastering language functions, e.g. how to apologise, how to make a request, and how language connects together into larger discourses. The proponents of the approach regarded learning language functions as more important than learning single lexical items: ‘CLT gives little guidance about how to handle vocabulary, other than as support vocabulary for the functional language use'(Schmitt 2000: 14). It is assumed that through learning such functional language, the students’ vocabulary will extend naturally.

The attitude towards vocabulary in teaching materials in CLT represents a break with the previous methods, which were predominantly based on frequency tables. 'In the preparation of communicative materials, frequency counts have been largely displaced by subjective assessments of the usefulness of words' (Zimmerman 1997: 14).

Teachers and producers of teaching material are now beginning to realise that the most important words for language learners are not always among the most frequently used by native speakers. A well known example is chalk or blackboard, which are not frequently used in a general context, but are very useful in a school context (Simensen 2007). Similarly, many of the most frequently used words in English are not particularly useful for a beginner. The students' personal interests are a possible starting point for the selection of vocabulary. Teaching words like hoof, mane, trot, canter, etc. to a student who is interested in horses, will provide him or her with a personally useful vocabulary, a set of words that can be used in communication outside the classroom. In the next approach, meaningful input is a key concept.

### 2.8 The Natural Approach

This is among the teaching methods that draw heavily on research and theory into first and second language acquisition. The Natural Approach applies this theory and research to the second language classroom.

Introducing the book The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom (1983), the American linguists Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell launched a teaching approach where great emphasis is put on comprehensible input, and meaningful activities in the classroom. The value of a large vocabulary is emphasized. Vocabulary is a very important factor in conveying meaning. Nevertheless, as in CLT, it is assumed that vocabulary will expand automatically, as in L1 learning. Time in the classroom is not spent on explicit teaching of grammar rules and other formal aspects of language like vocabulary. Krashen and Terrell want the students to pay attention to communication, not vocabulary, and on the goal of an activity. By doing this they believe true learning to take place (Krashen and Terrell 1983). The founders of the natural approach did not believe in drilling vocabulary. They claimed that true vocabulary acquisition with long-term retention occurs only with meaningful exposure in situations in which real communication takes place. The activities in the classroom should be carried out in such a way that they prepare the students for communication in real situations. Games (as discussed in section 3.8) are seen as an important element in the acquisition process (Nunan 1991).

### 2.9 The Lexical Approach

According to Simensen (2007) this is one of the new-comers among central teaching approaches today. Recent studies, based on corpus analysis, prove that both formal and less formal language are far more chunky and formulaic than people ever believed. This knowledge, combined with knowledge about the amount of separate words people are normally able to remember, is an important factor for the lexical approach to language teaching, which was presented by Michael Lewis (1993). One of the key tenets of the lexical approach is an understanding of language as 'grammaticalised lexis, not lexical grammar' (Lewis 1993: vi). This represents a challenge to the role of grammar in many traditional approaches.

A number of new distinctions were introduced. The distinction between vocabulary, seen as a collection of individual words with fixed meanings, and lexis including not only single words, but also word combinations we store in our mental lexicons.

Several taxonomies of lexical items were also proposed. One of the categories that was given a great deal of attention was the category 'collocations'. Corpus analysis proved that this category occurred more often than expected. An important implication of this is to focus on collocations in L2 teaching. Collocations are discussed in section 3.6.

A different and very important point is the learning of an L2 in terms of unanalysed wholes that need drill activities. The pupils are encouraged to learn chunks of words instead of separate words. The material in my analysis has exercises that are in this category called Grouping words. This issue is discussed and exemplified in section 5.4.5.

### 2.10 Summary

The views on both the position and type of vocabulary teaching have changed over the years. The development of the different teaching approaches has been influenced by the trends in general linguistic theory. Research and needs among linguists and teachers lead to the approaches that seemed most suitable for second or foreign language teaching in each period they were being used. The treatment of vocabulary in the different teaching methods can be divided in two kinds: how to learn or acquire new words (teaching methods), and what kind of words to teach (criteria for vocabulary selection). A common feature of all the methodologies, with the exception of the Reading Method, is that they hardly address vocabulary in any principled way.

During the first part of the twentieth century, several scholars wanted to lighten the student's vocabulary learning. They wanted to present common vocabulary first and limit the number of new words in any text. As a result of this thinking, the General Service List was published.

The development of what words to teach have changed drastically during the years. The more recent teaching approaches have focused on useful words and everyday vocabulary. The words were supposed to have a function to allow the student to communicate or get a message through in real life. The teaching of English as a foreign language has changed from being an intellectual exercise to a tool in communication in our everyday life.

The latest English curriculum (LK06) in Norway is clear evidence of how this subject has developed. LK06 is in accordance with an important principle in the work of the Council of Europe, to specify the objectives of teaching at definite stages in the school systems. There is no recommendation to any particular teaching approach. English is now seen as one of the central subjects, and an important tool in our global communication. Daily communication in many jobs and in higher education is in English, and the school system in Norway has therefore a responsibility to make the pupils as proficient users of English as possible, and to be in accordance with international demands.

## 3. Theoretical perspectives on vocabulary in second language teaching

### 3.1 Introduction

During the past 25-30 years, there has been a remarkable increase in the interest in vocabulary as a field in L2 teaching. Carter (1998) dates this revival of interest in vocabulary teaching to the late 1970s.

Scott Thornbury (2002) claims that there has been a revival of interest in vocabulary teaching in recent years. He states that:


#### Abstract

This is partly due to the recent availability of computerised databases of words (or corpora), and partly due to the development of new approaches to language teaching which are much more 'word-centred', such as the 'lexical approach’ (Thornbury 2002: vi).


The rising interest in vocabulary represents a break with the history of methods, presented in the second chapter, where vocabulary has either been ignored altogether, or has been thought to develop naturally if the learners were exposed to sufficient input. Currently, however, a common view seems to be that explicit attention needs to be paid to vocabulary if students are to have any chance of coping with it.

Simensen (2007) argues that one of the reasons for the blooming interest in vocabulary is that more people involved in teaching have claimed, often with basis in empirical studies, that implicit vocabulary learning, i.e. guessing the meaning of words, does not ensure that the pupils remember the words later. I will return to this issue in section 3.7.

In this chapter I will discuss some of the current trends in vocabulary research and theory and recapitulate the views of some vocabulary theorists.

### 3.2 General issues

### 3.2.1 Aspects of knowing a word

An important clarification that needs to be made when discussing vocabulary is what it means to know a word. Several educationalists have opinions about what it implies to know a word, Nation (2001: 27) lists the following aspects: At the most general level, knowing a word
involves form, meaning and use. 'Form' includes the written form of the word, the spoken form of the word and the word parts. The 'meaning' of the word includes form and meaning, concept and reference and associations. ‘Use’ includes grammatical functions, collocations and constraints of use (register, frequency). He states that there are different degrees of learning a word. The ability to understand a word is known as receptive knowledge and is normally connected with listening and reading. If one is able to produce a word of their own accord when speaking or writing, then that is considered productive knowledge. The assumption is that people learn words receptively first and later achieve productive knowledge. This is also how the textbooks in my analysis are built; they build the process of learning a new word going from receptive knowledge to productive knowledge. This distinction is discussed in section 3.2.4. The pupils meet the new words first in a text, followed by different activities in the workbook to make sure that different aspects of the word are made clear to the pupils. In the end, they can use the word in their own language production.

Hatch and Brown (1995: 370) list the following aspects of knowing a word: 'semantic fields and features, core meanings and prototypes, lexical relations, universals, loan words and cognates, figurative language and metaphors, scripts or domains, word borrowing and coining, incorporation, word building, lexical classes, morphology, and social 'markings' on words for location, gender, age, occupation, education, group and formality.' Motivation, desire, and need for a word determine which of these aspects an individual will know. The textbooks in my analysis are intended for pupils at a rather basic level, so the pupils who are not expected to master all the above mentioned aspects of a word. Some of the aspects, however, are more important than others. What pupils are expected to know depends to a large extent on the situation. In reading and listening, a word's meaning is the most central aspect to know. In reading aloud, knowledge about the word's pronunciation is required. In writing, correct orthography may be crucial for the message to be successful. In speaking, correct pronunciation may be decisive for the outcome of the communication. As expressed by Hatch and Brown (1995: 370): ‘What is considered sufficient knowledge under one circumstance will probably not be sufficient under others.'

Crow and Quigley (1985, in Hatch and Brown 1995: 370) suggest that 'learners may learn core or basic meanings of words sufficiently to understand what they hear or read without knowing enough about the syntactic restrictions, register appropriateness, or collocations to be able to produce the words on their own'. These last elements are basically related to differences of receptive and productive skills.

According to Hatch and Brown, the most crucial aspect of a discussion of word knowledge is to realize that multiple ways of 'knowing' a word exist. They speak of a continuum of knowing a word, as I have described in section 3.2.4 (Hatch and Brown 1995: 370).

Hatch and Brown also add to the discussion the notion of lexical choice. Behind this concept lies the assumption that knowing vocabulary may 'also consist of knowing enough to use words which represent the image we wish others to have of us' (Hatch and Brown 1995: 371). Thus it appears that the receptive/productive division is neither a simple dichotomy nor a simple knowledge continuum, but it is probably related to both a knowledge continuum and a self-image continuum.

For my purpose, it is important to know that words are taken into our vocabulary gradually. A new word is met in various contexts in the textbook. It is then activated and given meaning through different consolidating activities in the workbook. The pupils develop knowledge of the word from receptive to productive knowledge. As mentioned earlier, not every word will get to the productive stage because the learner has chosen not to use them for certain reasons.

### 3.2.2 The teaching/learning distinction

Hatch and Brown (1995), among others, make a distinction between vocabulary teaching and vocabulary learning. This is a reasonable distinction as most educators realise that what is taught is by no means always what is remembered. The distinction between teaching and learning, according to Meara (1980), is that the teaching of vocabulary is organised, whereas learning is concerned with the mental process going on in the learner's mind, a process which cannot be controlled by outride forces. I recognise this difference, but nevertheless, I have chosen not to make the distinction explicit in my thesis. The reason is that many of the activities, strategies and exercises I describe would fit under headings concerning both teaching and learning. They concern learning because they are strategies that the learners can use to improve and accelerate their learning. At the same time, they are learner strategy activities that can be used by teachers in planned teaching. The issues I will discuss in section 3.7, although basically aimed at learners, are issues in which the learner and the teacher meet. The learners need to develop their consciousness about how they learn vocabulary most effectively, but they must first be made aware of the existence of such strategies by their teacher. Finally, although the teacher cannot control the cognitive process which is taking place in the learner's mind, the teacher can promote and encourage learning.

### 3.2.3 The intentional and incidental learning of words

Another distinction frequently made in discussions of vocabulary learning is the one between intentional and incidental learning (Hatch and Brown 1995: 368-369). Intentional learning is learning that is planned or designed, i.e. intended by the learner or the teacher. Incidental learning is learning that happens as a by-product of doing or learning something else. In the case of vocabulary, it is regularly assumed that vocabulary learning takes place as a consequence of reading. Hatch and Brown (ibid.) argue that learners know a lot more L2 words than those which have been explicitly taught to them. For that reason, more focus should be given to the incidental learning of vocabulary. Guessing the meaning of words from context is one way of extending the learner's vocabulary. In this thesis, I will pay attention to both intentional learning and incidental learning of vocabulary in order to see how the authors of the textbooks intend vocabulary learning to take place.

### 3.2.4 Receptive and productive vocabulary

Yet another distinction of vocabulary learning that needs to be touched upon is the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary. The Norwegian curricula of 1957 and 1960 speak of active and passive vocabulary, but some theorists disapprove of these terms. They argue that reading and listening are not passive skills, and therefore 'the vocabulary needed for those skills should not be considered passive, either' (Hatch and Brown 1995: 370).

Hatch and Brown (1995) suggest that instead of operating with a dichotomy between receptive and productive vocabulary, we may speak with a continuum of knowledge. In this notion lies the idea that a word is not known either receptively or productively. We may know more about a word than merely recognising it in context but still not be able to use it. We may, for instance, know the spelling of a word and some or all of its inflexions, but still not be able to use it. Steps along such a continuum are described in the following paragraph.

### 3.3 Five essential steps in vocabulary learning

Hatch and Brown (2005) refer to a study published by Payne 1988, who asked seventeen ESL students randomly selected which strategies they used to learn vocabulary. From their answers, she formulated 32 statements which were given in the form of a questionnaire to more than 100 ESL students. She then asked them to rate how effective they thought each described strategy was for them. Using Payne's data, Brown and Payne (1994) did an analysis that resulted in a model containing five essential steps: (1) having sources for encountering
new words, (2) getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, for the forms of the new words, (3) learning the meaning of the new words, (4) making a strong memory connection between the forms and meanings of the words, and (5) using the words (Hatch and Brown 1995: 373). The steps might be seen as a series of sieves as illustrated in figure 1. I will discuss each step in more detail.


Figure 15.1 Five essential steps to learning new words

Figure 1 Five essential steps to learning new words (Hatch and Brown 1995: 374).

### 3.3.1 Encountering new words

The first step presupposes a source for words, such as books, dictionaries, videos, music, magazines etc. The textbooks analysed in chapter 5 are one type of source. The teacher should make the pupils aware of other sources where they can pick up new words. Interest and motivation are important factors in learning new words. Students also learn words more quickly if they have a need for them in some way. The number of times a word is encountered may also affect the learning process (Hatch and Brown 1995).

### 3.3.2 Getting the word form

'Getting the word form' means to get of a clear image, visual or auditory, of the form of the vocabulary item. In Payne's study this step was shown in comments such as 'associating words that sound similar in the learner's native language', or 'seeing a word that looks like
another word I already know’ (Hatch and Brown 1995). It is important to have a clear image of the word form when we try to retrieve words.

### 3.3.3 Getting the word meaning

This third step encompasses the strategy that is most often associated with vocabulary learning. Hatch and Brown mention various replies which may function as an answer to the question 'What is an azalea?' The answer 'a type of flower' may be sufficient in some contexts, whereas in a different context, the answer may be as specific as 'a genus of flowering shrubs with funnel-shaped corollas and deciduous leaves. They are from the heath family and related to the rhododendron' (Hatch and Brown 1995: 382). Common ways to get the meaning of words is to use a dictionary, guessing the meaning from context or getting definitions by having a bilingual friend or teacher explain.

### 3.3.4 Consolidating word form and meaning in memory

There are many kinds of activities that can strengthen the form-meaning connection in memory. Hatch and Brown (1995: 387) mention activities such as flashcards, matching exercises, crossword puzzles and mnemonic devices such as the keyword method, which will be described in further detail and exemplified later in this chapter. Nation (2001: 101) lists activities such as matching words and definitions, discussing the meaning of phrases, drawing and labelling pictures, peer teaching and riddles. Simensen (2007: 224) also mentions activities such as the cloze exercise, information gap exercises, and role play, among others. A more traditional method of consolidating words is simply to memorise words and their meanings from lists. As shown in my analysis in chapter 5, all the textbooks I have analysed include bilingual word lists and glossaries. A further discussion of consolidation activities will be given in section 3.7.4 below.

### 3.3.5 Using the word

Using a word constructively and productively, either in speech or in writing, is the last step in the continuum of learning it. Some would argue that this step is not necessary if all that is desired is a receptive knowledge of the word. However, using a word may provide a mild guarantee that it and its meaning will not fade from memory once learned. Hatch and Brown (1995) add the concept of confidence to the discussion of usage: 'Possibly because the use of a word tests the learner's understanding of the word, learners feel more confident about their word knowledge once they have used a word without undesired consequences’ (ibid. 390). In the same way, using a word is vital for students to test their knowledge of collocations, syntactic restrictions, and register appropriateness. This illustrates that, even within the final
step, there are various degrees of knowledge. Nation (2001) mentions the constraints of use, including activities such as identifying constraints and classifying constraints. The usage of a word may vary according to context, e.g. whether the communication is spoken or written, formal or informal etc. A word may be used formally, in a correct way, but nevertheless sound odd to a native speaker.

### 3.4 Computer corpora

Computer technology is a major reason for the flourishing interest in vocabulary, as it makes a lot of material easily accessible to a number of theorists. 'The vast improvement of corpora has been one of the most significant developments in vocabulary studies in recent years’ (Schmitt 2000: 68). Corpora are large collections or databases of language, incorporating stretches of discourse ranging from a few words to entire books. Insights from corpus research have revolutionized the way we view language, particularly words and their relationships with one other. In particular, two kinds of word knowledge in Nation’s (1990) list, frequency and collocation, have been studied almost exclusively through corpus evidence. I will return to both frequency and collocations (sections 3.5 and 3.6), and their implications for vocabulary teaching. Dictionary writing has also been fundamentally affected, as present-day publishers of dictionaries rely on corpus input to select which words to include in the dictionary and to set their word definitions and examples. Corpora are particularly useful for providing attested examples of language in use. Concordance and keyword programs are two of the tools that make corpus data available for classroom use (Thornbury 2002).

When Michael West assembled his General Service List in 1958, the word counts was carried out manually, a process which was expensive and slow (Meara 1980). For the past 30 years computer technology has given us a unique possibility of storing and systematising lexical material. The computerisation of word counting makes it possible to test a large number of texts, even if they are sizeable. One example is The Bank of English, a corpus that contains 450 million words (March 2008) (http://titania.cobuild.collins.co.uk).

Computers can supply helpful information at all of these levels. The three major kinds of information that computers can provide about language are the frequency that various words occur, which words tend to co-occur, and how the structure of language is organized.
'Probably the most basic thing that can be learned from studying the language contained in corpus is how frequently any particular word occurs' (Schmitt 2000: 71).

Meara (1980) says the expansive use of computer corpora mirrors the one-sided aspect of research on vocabulary teaching: there has been a tendency to focus on 'the management of
learning' rather than the process itself. In other words, 'the object of this type of research is to decide what words to teach and learn, not to find out how words are actually learned’ (ibid. 224). Meara's point is that there should be less focus on what words to teach and learn and more on how to teach them. Recently, however, theorists of L2 teaching have realised that more attention needs to be paid to the strategies learners can make use of in order to improve their vocabulary learning. This realisation has led to an interest in learner strategies, as will be discussed in section 3.7 below. Next, I will turn to one of the areas where computer corpora have proven extremely useful: the frequency count of words.

### 3.5 Frequency and coreness

Frequency has often been used as a criterion for the selection of vocabulary for teaching. The idea is to provide learners with the words they are most likely to come across. Nation (2006) says that the sequence of vocabulary learning should move from high frequency vocabulary and special purposes vocabulary to low frequency vocabulary. However, frequency is not as clear-cut as it may first appear.

The first distinction which requires attention is that between spoken and written corpora. Some words are frequent in spoken corpora, but not in written and vice versa. This has implications for vocabulary teaching. Should a word list based on frequency include words from both spoken and written corpora, or should emphasis be put on one kind rather than the other? Relevant examples are words like just, really and even which are fairly frequent in speech, but not common to the same extent in written texts. Pedagogical word lists based on corpora and frequency also face a second problem, the problem of words which are frequent in daily use, but not in linguistic corpora, such as television, stereo, etc. (Carter 1998).

The use of frequent words to basic learners of English is another topic that needs attention. 'In his critique of word lists generated on the basis of frequency, J. Richards (1974) points out that frequency does not necessarily equate with usefulness or relevance to learner needs.' (Nunan 1991: 119). Richard’s article suggests that we may need differentiated lists for different learners (Nunan 1991)

Carter (1998) and Hatch and Brown (1995) discuss the concept of core vocabulary and core meaning. Hatch and Brown say that 'Core (as opposed to periphery) relates to meanings of a particular word which are more central, primary, or invariant' (Hatch and Brown 1995: 47). The core meaning of a word is usually the one that are listed first in the dictionary. The core meaning of break is that of breaking an object as a glass, and not the breaking of waves on the shore. Coreness can also influence a choice between two or more synonyms. Although
dash, trot and sprint all mean to move your feet at a rapid pace, it would be more natural to teach a learner the more central word run first, to express the same meaning. Replacing less central words with more central words is often what educators do when they adapt and simplify texts. Carter (1998) argues that the notion of core vocabulary will be more relevant for the teaching of English at a beginner’s level than for teaching at intermediate and advanced levels.

Considerable attention has been paid to vocabulary. When West published his General Service List of English Words, he argued that it provided learners with an adequate speech vocabulary. In other words, West was also of the opinion that high frequency words function best in providing learners with a productive vocabulary.

An issue of central importance to the selection and grading of vocabulary, according to Nunan, is that 'the frequency of lexical items in corpora derived from native speakers, and the learnability of such items for second language learners do not necessarily coincide’ (Nunan 1991: 121). A number of issues need to be considered and kept in mind if one bases a selection of vocabulary on frequency and coreness, but they are undoubtedly useful starting points for the selection of vocabulary in course books.

### 3.6 Chunking and collocation

Nation (2001) defines a 'collocation' as a 'group of words that belong together, either because they commonly occur together like take a chance, or because the meaning of the group is not obvious from the meaning of the parts, as with by the way' (Nation 2001: 317).

As an example of a free collocation, Hatch and Brown (1995: 199) use the word read. 'We can read books, lists, papers, schedules, or we can read slowly, rapidly, with difficulty, or we can read as long as there is light, in the morning, or read in the library, or on the bus.' Each of these phrases go together, and the collocations are numerous and flexible. Money is a word that collocates more narrowly. 'We can donate, spend, earn, invest, steal or exchange money' (ibid.). With both words, some of the collocations are stronger than others, e.g. read the paper, read a book, earn money, spend money. Free collocations are not about formal rules, but about typicality and tendencies.

Some collocations are much more restricted than those described above. Bolinger (1975) mentions high probability as a strong collocation. If we replace high with strong or great, it does not sound right. According to Hatch and Brown (1995), because the adjective in this case is predictable, we can think of high probability as a single lexical unit. Similarly, the collocation 'to take fright' cannot be changed into 'what he took was fright'. The collocation
'to take fright' is restricted so that the elements cannot be rearranged or divided up into their constituents without sounding strange.

In some phrases, elements are combined in a specific order. The combination 'fork and knife' sounds odd compared to 'knife and fork'. This example is also said to be a tight connection.

If we return to fixedness in collocations we find idioms. What characterises an idiom is that the words which constitute it cannot, as a rule, be separated, or rearranged or grammatically changed without changing the meaning of the idiom. We cannot find the meaning of an idiom by summing up the meanings of the constituent words. The phrase 'hold your horses' is an idiomatic expression that does not necessarily have anything to do with holding horses or even horses in general. 'She is holding her horses', does not carry the meaning of the idiom 'hold your horses'. To a person familiar with the words speak, your and mind, but unfamiliar with the combination of them, the phrase 'speak your mind' will sound absurd.

Hatch and Brown claim that learners of both L1 and L2 learn such collocations or lexical chunks fairly easily and long before they know the meaning of the words constituting the chunks. Computational linguistic research has led to recognition of the significance of such items in language.

Lewis argues that traditional vocabulary teaching extracts words from their context instead of trying to insert them with co-text. In his book the The Lexical Approach (1993), he argues for teaching of chunks of language instead of isolated lexical items. Lewis expresses his view in the introductory key principles of his book: ‘A central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of, and developing their ability to "chunk" language successfully' (Lewis 1993: vi). Lewis further argues 'Collocation, by concentrating on linguistic environment rather than real-world environment, provides the most powerful organisational principle for language teaching, and for arranging for the efficient recording of new items' (Lewis 1993: 119). He claims that multi-word items, and especially phrasal verbs (take something away, take something down, take somebody on etc.) are particularly problematic to students because students are ignorant of the existence of such items. A practical implication of this view for the classroom would be that instead of extracting words from their context, teachers should try to insert words in co-text. As an example, Lewis suggests an approach for the teaching of the word just and its multiple meanings. Various chunks of language containing just can probably illustrate its different meanings in a better way than explicitly teaching the uses of just (Lewis 1993: 118).

### 3.7 Vocabulary learning strategies

One of the current trends in language teaching is the recognition of individual needs among learners. Language teachers and syllabus designers have realised that learners need to be taught learner strategies, i.e. knowledge about how to learn, not only what to learn. Learners need to be conscious of which strategies work best for them, knowledge which will lead to an increasing ability of autonomous learning (Simensen 2007).

LK06 stresses the importance of learner strategies: 'When we are aware of the strategies we use to learn a new language, and the strategies that help us to understand and be understood, the acquisition of knowledge and skills will be easier and more meaningful.'
(LK06: 1). Learner strategies are also mentioned under Language learning in the section about Main Subject Areas. It is stated that a student should be 'able to assess one’s own language use, define one's own needs, and select strategies and ways of working' (LK06: 2) And again under Competence Aims after Year 7, the pupils are expected to be able to 'give examples of various ways of learning English words and expressions' (LK06: 5).

Nation (1990) argues that because of the large number of low-frequency words it is better to teach learner strategies than to teach the words themselves. He further states that strategies which learners can use independently of a teacher are the most important of all ways of learning vocabulary.

There are particularly two strategies that are important in my work. One of them is guessing from context and the other is the keyword technique.

### 3.7.1 Guessing from context

'Incidental learning by guessing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning’ (Nation 2001: 232). By learning from context Nation refer to the incidental learning of vocabulary from reading or listening to ordinary language use where the main focus is on the message of the text. This is the most important way that language users can increase their vocabulary. In section 3.7.3.2 I have included examples of exercises where the aim is to practise guessing from context.

### 3.7.2 The keyword technique

The keyword technique is, primarily, a way of making a strong link between the form of an unknown word and its meaning. Hulstijn (1997) discusses, among other things, mnemonic methods in foreign language vocabulary learning. He gives an account of the so-called keyword-technique, one well known among L2 educationalists but not often used in the classroom. Hulstijn, however, does not presuppose the keyword to be a native word as do

Carter and McCarthy. On the contrary, he says that if possible, 'keywords should be taken not from L1, but from L2 vocabulary with which the learner is already familiar’ (Hulstijn 1997: 204).

According to Hulstijn (1997) and Nation (2001), it is preferable that the association made between the target word and the key word is of an unusual character. Nation (2001) uses as example an Indonesian learner of English who wants to memorise the word pin. First, the learner thinks of the word with an aural link to pin, for example the Indonesian word pintu meaning ‘door’. The learner then thinks of an image involving a door and a pin. The keyword technique involves two steps after the learner has met the unknown word and has found or been provided with its meaning. The first step is to think of a first language word which sounds like the beginning or all of the unknown word. The second step is to think of a visual image where the meaning of the unknown word and the keyword is combined (Nation 2001). The keyword technique can be used with ready made keywords and images, and this is generally recommended for young learners and seems to work as well as self created keywords and images. Nation (2001) reports that there has been considerable research on the keyword technique. The studies generally showed that the keyword technique resulted in faster and more secure learning than other approaches. The keyword technique is one of several possible methods for remembering words. The idea is not to come up with the best mnemonic, but to spend time and effort trying to find one. The more a word is dwelled upon, the more likely it is to be remembered.

Simensen (2007) describes current trends in the teaching of vocabulary in terms of two stages: 1) How to make students understand the meaning of new words, and 2) How to ensure that new words are remembered through subsequent consolidation activities.

### 3.7.3 Comprehension activities

The first stage is only concerned with comprehension whereas the consolidation of vocabulary comprises both comprehension and production. Simensen makes a distinction between expository approaches and discovery approaches. The latter will be dealt with in detail below (section 3.7.3.1 and 3.7.3.2), whereas expository approaches will only be briefly described. A third category is that of bilingual glossing, which simply means providing the students with an L1 equivalent of the L 2 word. This is a disputed method among language teachers. Some of them seem to think it should be used only as a last resource. In Norwegian course books in English, this is the most common method of presenting new words. Almost every little piece of text is provided with a bilingual glossary as will be shown in chapter 5 . Simensen claims
that this kind of word list need not be controversial as long as 'subsequent consolidation activities ensure that enough ties are established between the word to be learned and other L2 words' (Simensen 2007: 223). In my analysis below (section 5.4), I will try to show whether such consolidation activities are encouraged in the textbooks.

### 3.7.3.1 Expository approaches

Expository approaches are activities where no investigation on the part of the student is required. This term applies to the use of:

- Definitions
- Demonstration (bringing realia into the classroom, for example a utensil; showing pictures of a thing or an action,; miming/using gestures for an action or state)
- Synonyms (joyful’: ‘glad’)
- Antonyms ('joyful’: ‘sad’)
- Hyponyms ('chair', 'table', 'bed', etc. as hyponyms of 'furniture')


### 3.7.3.2 Discovery approaches

'In discovery approaches students have to infer or guess the meaning of unfamiliar words on the basis of the context in which they occur' (Simensen 2007: 222). If they are unable to guess or the guessing is wrong, some of the above mentioned expository approaches may have to be used (ibid.)

In his book Teaching and Learning Vocabulary, Nation refers to studies showing that at least $80 \%$ of unknown words can be guessed from their context (Nation 1990: 160). The inevitability of encountering new words, which increases as pupils become more advanced and read more, makes guessing strategies a helpful tool. Honeyfield (1977, in Nunan 1991) suggests three types of activities which help learners develop their skills in inferring meaning from context: the cloze exercise, words-in-context-exercises, and context enrichment exercises. A cloze exercise is one in which many words have been omitted from a piece of text, either systematically, e.g. from every sixth to every eleventh word, depending on the level of the learners, or the producer of the text can take out particular words he or she wants the learner to find. There are numerous variations of cloze exercises in the three books in my analysis. It was also widely used as an activity in the internet resources connected to each of them. The following example is taken from Stairs p. 29 (appendix 20). The pupils are asked to fill in the missing words referring to page 35 in their textbook. In this exercise, there are many
deleted words from the text, numbers, nouns, verbs and names of persons. As far as I can see, there is no system in the deletion of words.

Words-in-context exercises 'are those in which learners encounter target vocabulary items in the meaningful context of a continuous text, and use the surrounding context to arrive at meaning through focused discussion' (Nunan 1991: 122-123). The learners are given several options for an explanation of the vocabulary item in question.

Context enrichment exercises take learners through several stages in which progressively more context is provided progressively. 'They are designed to show learners how the more context one takes into account, the greater the chances of guessing an unknown word' (Nunan 1991: 123).

Discovery-based activities such as the ones above are designed to provide students with strategies for guessing and inferring from context and to prevent students from relying too much on dictionaries. Summers (1988) argues that there has been a reluctance on the part of language teachers to let the students consult their dictionaries about a word's meaning. She claims that a reason for this reluctance may be a fear that the students, if over-reliant on dictionaries, may develop an expectation of a one-to-one correlation between their L1 and English. It seems to have been a widespread opinion within Communicative Language Teaching that comprehension of every word within in a spoken or written text is not necessary for successful communication. In her argument, Summers claims that not only are dictionaries a useful tool for finding the meanings and spellings of words, they may also give useful information on the 'grammatical aspects of the item in question', such as inflections, word class and collocations. In order to accept the importance of dictionaries, one must, according to Summers, agree to the idea that 'meaning is not always "negotiated" or entirely dependent on the context and structure of the text in which it occurs' (Summers 1988: 115). In other words, she claims that there are inherent qualities in certain words which are consistent and independent of the context. Summers argues for 'a corrective to the general tendency among language teachers to insist on teaching words in context’ (Carter and Mc Carthy 1988: 123). A sensible approach seems to be a learning situation in which the learners can combine the use of inferring strategies with the use of both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries to check whether the inference is correct and also to acquire information about the word's formal aspects. A challenge is teaching students to choose the approach that is most time-effective in particular situations.

Carter asserts that whether words are most effectively learned in or out of context depends on the level of the learner. 'The more advanced the learner becomes, the more
"inferential" or "implicit" and learner-centred vocabulary strategies will have to become' (Carter 1998: 209). If words are not to be learned as discrete items, they will have to be learned in context. This method may be valuable to students from the intermediate level and up, but to others, it may seem a bit technical. It requires that the learners are comfortable with the word classes, which is not always the case. The use of grammatical terms may scare many students. One the one hand, some students are perhaps doing what is described in these stages without thinking consciously about it. In other words, this is possibly a complex way of describing a process which happens fairly automatically when a student attempts to guess at an unknown word.

### 3.7.4 Frequently used consolidation activities

Learners of an L2 need strategies for inferring meaning and for confirming their inferences. In order to reach the fourth and fifth step of vocabulary learning as described in sections 3.3.4 and 3.3.5, further strategies and activities are required. Once a word's meaning is clear, it does not necessarily indicate that the learners remember this meaning the next time they come across the same word. Strategies to anchor the word in our memory are an indispensable step in learning an L2. This stage of learning is what Simensen (2007) refers to as stage 2: Consolidation activities. A crucial idea in this type of thinking is for the learners to create associative links. Hopefully the associations will facilitate the recollection of a word's meaning. The greater amount of associations and the more varied they are, the better the chances are to remember the word. An important factor to consider at this stage is the difference between receptive and productive uses of a word. In the former (receptive use), the challenge is to see the word and remember its meaning. In the latter (productive use), you see an object or have a thought which you would like to express and which you have to remember the word for. It is more difficult to come up with strategies for productive uses than for receptive uses. Simensen (ibid.) discusses and gives examples of five types of activities for consolidating words in your memory: simple word association activities, grouping words, making finer distinctions between words, connecting words in collocations, and ranking and rating.

In simple word association activities, students are given a word and asked to come up with other words they associate with it. There are no correct or incorrect answers. The point is to activate conscious thinking about the words in question. An example from Simensen is included as appendix 1.

Grouping words is an activity which can take various forms. Simensen calls her first example distinguishing between words within a topic. Appendix 2 shows what such an exercise might look like. The students can group the small pieces of paper according to how they find it natural.

In the other type of grouping words activity, the students are asked to place words in a mind map, where you place a topic in the middle and words in the same semantic field in ellipses around the centre, as in appendix 3 . In this example, the students are given some possible words to fill in the mind map, but they should also find words on their own. This exercise is likely to be used in the fifth grade when introducing a new topic. The children can put the words they connect with a given topic in the mind map. This activity is usually done on the blackboard with the whole class. The teacher writes the topic in the middle, and the pupils come up with their associations to the given word.

As an example of an exercise where the aim is to make finer distinctions between words, Simensen mentions spot the odd one out, where the purpose is to make the students find the word that is odd or unique in relation to the other words in the same group. This activity is useful for creating some sort of system for a learner in what may well seem a chaotic universe of single lexical items. All the three text books to be analysed included one or several variants of this activity among their exercises.

The purpose of the fourth type of activity, connecting words in collocations, is to 'make students notice the collocational relationships between words by asking them to determine which of the words placed vertically collocates with which of the words placed horizontally at the top of a grid by marking the appropriate box (+)' (Simensen 2007: 228). An example is in appendix 4.

The last consolidation activity described in Simensen is the ranking and rating activity. Simensen gives examples of several different varieties of this activity in her book, and I will quote one of them here: a scale for ranking personal points of view. 'The purpose here is to make students conscious of the relationships between words by asking them to rank words for a number of insects and wild animals along four different scales, on the basis of personal points of view and experience and then compare their personal ranking afterwards’ (Simensen 2007: 229). Appendix 5 shows this activity.

### 3.8 The use of games for presentation and revision of vocabulary

Many experienced textbook writers and methodology manual writers have argued that games are not just time filling activities, but have a great educational value. Games have become a popular technique used by many educators in the classroom and recommended by many educationalists. It is generally assumed that games encourage, teach and promote fluency (see e.g. Uberman 1998).

Uberman (1998) shows how using games can be a successful activity in learning vocabulary. She used games to acquaint students with new words or phrases and help them consolidate lexical items. She compared games with other activities and found that games are effective as a technique for vocabulary introduction and revision. A great majority of Uberman's respondents found games relaxing and motivating. The students preferred games and puzzles to other activities. The games helped develop the students’ communicative competence. Not everyone feels comfortable with games and puzzles, and not everyone obtains better results. Uberman finishes off by recommending the use of games with vocabulary work as a successful way of acquiring language competence.
W.R. Lee holds that most language games make learners use the language instead of making them think about the correct forms (Lee 1979: 2). He also says that games should be treated as central, not peripheral, to the foreign language teaching programme.

There are many factors to consider while discussing games. One of them is appropriacy. Different age groups require different topics, materials, and modes of games. For example, children benefit most from games which require moving around, imitating a model, competing between groups and the like (Siek-Piskozub 1994 in Uberman 1998). Games become difficult when the task or the topic is unsuitable or outside the student's experience.

When to use games is another question of interest. Games are often used as a short warmup activity or if there is some time left at the end of the lesson. Rixon (1981) suggests that games should be used at all stages of a lesson, provided that they are suitable and carefully chosen. Games can also be used as revision exercises, helping learners to recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way.

### 3.9 Using pictures and word cards as a strategy to learning new words

A range of objects, pictures and cards can be used for presenting and manipulating language as well as involving students in activities of all kinds. Jeremy Harmer (2007) describes how teachers have always used pictures or graphics to facilitate learning and says that 'with
beginners, and particularly children, using realia is helpful for teaching the meaning of words or stimulating student activity' (2007: 177). It is easier to start an activity or present a new word if the teacher has an e.g. a book on the desk, than describing an object using only words.

Pictures can be used in the form of flashcards, posters, or as in my material, photographs or illustrations in textbooks. Pictures can also be drawn on the board to help with explanation and language work. 'Flashcards are particularly useful for drilling grammar items, for cueing different sentences, and practising vocabulary’ (Harmer 2007: 178).

In the text books, I have analysed pictures that are often used to explain the meaning of a word. Talking English has introduced the activity Word Box, where pupils produce their own flashcards, to explain the meaning of new words and practise vocabulary. The Word Box will be described in section 5.4.

Pictures can also be used to show the meaning of words. One of the most appropriate uses of pictures is for the presentation and checking of meaning. An easy way of explaining the word apple, is to show a picture. In the all three workbooks, there are several exercises where the pupils are asked to draw lines between a word and the corresponding picture.

Pupils are often asked to describe pictures as a 'warm up' for a new topic. Such an activity gives them vocabulary to go into the topic. The Picture Dictionaries in Stairs and Talking English is one of these activities. They are engaging and give the pupils words they need when they write and talk about a topic. In addition the pupils can predict what is coming next in the lesson.

Pictures can also be used for creative language use. The pupils can be asked to write a description of a picture or to invent a conversation between the people in a picture.

Finally, photographs and pictures are often used to make work more appealing. It is more exciting for children to read a story with an illustration than with text alone.

### 3.10 Summary

Teaching and learning vocabulary in a foreign language is a topic with many aspects. The issues chosen are the ones that are most important for the teaching of the particular age group, keeping in mind the type of material I am dealing with. The various approaches and strategies discussed in this chapter make up the theoretical basis for chapter 5, where three textbooks used in Norwegian schools are analysed. Educationalists have different ideas of how vocabulary can best be taught and learned. But all seem to agree that learner strategies are crucial for the successful learning of a foreign language. The various theorists argue that both teachers and learners should pay specific attention to vocabulary.

For the teacher, it is important to know about the different attitudes towards the teaching of vocabulary and not be too focused on a single method. Learning vocabulary is a process connected to personal preferences, so one of the most important jobs for the teacher is making the students aware of the different approaches and giving them the option to choose the methods they prefer in order to increase their vocabulary. Carter says that 'The most realistic approach is probably to recognize that learning occurs along a cline or continuum with no clearly marked stages of transition and that a mixture of approaches should be adopted’ (Carter 1998: 213).

The aim of my analysis is to see in what way the authors have chosen to deal with vocabulary and what theoretical basis they rely on in their choice of methods. I will also show the extent to which Norwegian textbook authors have included activities of the kinds described in this chapter.

## 4. The recent curricula of English in Norway

### 4.1 Introduction

In the present chapter the main objective is to show how vocabulary as a linguistic component has been treated in English curricula in Norway. I have chosen to concentrate on L97 (Læreplan for 10-årig grunnskole) and LK06 (Kunnskapsløftet 2006), the two most recent curricula, as they have influenced the teaching material which is the data for my analysis. The textbooks I have analyzed are approved according to the curriculum of 2006. I will only give a short outline of the earlier curricula, in order to see the current in perspective. I will focus my presentation on the treatment of vocabulary, beginning with the situation of English as a school subject in Norway.

### 4.2 A brief outline of the curricula from 1957-1987

The period from about 1950-1975 brought some important changes to the compulsory part of the school system. English, as a school subject, was extended on a compulsory basis to all students nationwide, and there was a gradual lowering of the mandatory starting age in the new 9-year primary school system. Curriculum guidelines for this period explicitly referred to both 'Oral’ and 'Aural-oral methods’ (meaning Audiolingual). In the Normalplan for byfolkeskolen (NFB), high priority was given to a systematic approach for the selection, grading, and repetition of vocabulary. ${ }^{6}$

NFB from 1957 referred explicitly to the direct method. Good pronunciation was among its primary concerns. A list of 725 words was issued together with the curriculum and was to constitute the pupils' active vocabulary. The list also contained the words which were supposed to constitute the pupils’ passive vocabulary ( 478 words), where the 107 most important words were printed in italics. Instructions were also given for the method of learning new words; the pupils were to have a rough book where they wrote new words and phrases. The teacher was also advised to draw on the blackboard, as this would facilitate the connection between a word and its content. Vocabulary seems to be an important linguistic factor in the teaching of English.

[^2]With 'Lereplan for forsøk med niårig skole' (LFN) in 1960, compulsory schooling was extended to nine years. The curriculum divides the pupils into three levels of proficiency, where the third level is meant for the pupils who are likely to continue their education after the nine years of compulsory schooling. There are some general objectives for all three levels. The education should provide the pupils with the ability to make them understood in English. Emphasis was put on a good pronunciation and a useful vocabulary. The definition of 'useful' was based on frequency. The authors behind this curriculum argued for the reading of texts with a central vocabulary, i.e. vocabulary based on frequency lists: ‘A textbook should have a gradual introduction of new words, with a suitable dispersion and repetition of the words' (LFN 1960: 204-5). ${ }^{7}$ A general aim for the teaching of English at lower secondary level was to continue to extend vocabulary, with the vocabulary acquired in year 5 and year 6 as a basis, i.e. about 500 words. The number of words the pupils were expected to know at the different levels were specified for both the active and the passive vocabulary. Vocabulary is listed as one of the objectives under the heading 'Making oneself understood in English speech and writing'. It is also mentioned in connection with oral language. In fact, the main objective of 'daily conversations in English between the teacher and the pupils' is a development of vocabulary (LFN 1960: 206).

LFN 1960 argued that textbook authors were to aim for a gradual introduction of new words and a sensible spread and repetition of the words at a slowly increasing level of difficulty. The purpose of such directives was to make the central vocabulary the core of the texts, and to reduce the number of infrequent words (LFN 1960: 209).

In contrast to the curriculum of 1957, LFN 1960 did not come with a printed vocabulary list. However, the teachers were supposed to make a list of words which the pupils were expected to learn. This list was intended to consist of the first 2000 words in Michael West's A General Service List of English Words and an additional 1000 words. The curriculum suggested basing the selection of these 1000 additional words on various studies of frequency, with the possibility of leaving out words which one finds unsuitable for pupils at the levels in question. By giving these instructions the curriculum is quite clear about how to handle vocabulary in terms of what methods should be used and what words should be taught. The handling of vocabulary in 'Lœereplan for forsøk med 9-årig skole' shows a great consciousness regarding the importance of vocabulary as a linguistic factor.

[^3]The curriculum that followed LFN 1960 also had a lot of instructions for the teaching of vocabulary. 'Forslag til normalplan for grunnskolen' (FNG) from 1970 was merely a draft and was never actually developed further or implemented. I have included this curriculum in my overview, because it has an interesting approach to the teaching of vocabulary, with a specific number of words the pupils were expected to learn for each school year and specific instructions for the teaching of vocabulary. 'Words' was a separate point under the heading Learning material. The number of words the pupils were expected to know at the different levels were specified (FNG 1970: 240), starting with the year 4 all the way up to year 9 . The curriculum presupposed an official list of words which the pupils were supposed to acquire during their compulsory schooling. This vocabulary list was not printed, as this was just a preliminary draft. Such a list was printed and edited when the amended version of this curriculum was implemented in 1974. Textbooks based on this curriculum also had vocabularies based on the official list of words.

This curriculum gave specific instructions for methods of teaching new words and patterns. The progression for language learning was quite clear.

In all, this curriculum was highly conscious about the learning of words, more than the learning of grammar. Drastic changes were made in the alternative version in comparison with the draft. These changes were implemented in 1974.

Mønsterplan for grunnskolen (M74) replaced the 'Lcereplan for forsøk med 9-årig skole' from 1960. This curriculum presupposed mixed ability learning. Pupils were no longer divided into different levels of proficiency, and they all followed the same curriculum. This curriculum focused strongly on practical and oral skills in the language. The most important objective was, therefore, to teach the pupils 'to comprehend and speak English, primarily in simple and everyday situations' (M74: 147). The teaching of grammar was given clear guidelines. The grammatical structures to be taught each school year were specified.

Vocabulary, on the other hand, was mentioned in connection with 'learning material'. The vocabulary list was meant to be a guide to what words to teach during the compulsory schooling in Norway at this stage. The teaching of English now starts in year 3 with the vocabulary being situational and strictly limited. The curriculum recommended a gradual development of words and phrases. Vocabulary was given less focus in M74 than in the preceding curricula, especially as far as methods were concerned.

In 1987, a revised edition of M74 called the Mønsterplanen 1987 (M87) was implemented. ${ }^{8}$ The curriculum for English stressed the importance of process over product. This was shown in the contents of what the pupils were supposed to learn. It further implied that the starting point for a lesson in the textbook should be a topic rather than a grammatical phenomenon. Authentic material was a new element in the curriculum. M87 emphasised English as a subject which focused on communication, skills, experiences, and knowledge. 'The pupils should use, practise and develop the language in situations that involve as much real communication with others as possible, both inside and outside the school' (M87: 204). M87 showed influence from the communicative approach. It is not said explicitly, but one can easily interpret this from the text. Under the heading 'Subject matter and progression', M87 states that 'The pupils should build up as large and varied a vocabulary as possible' (M87: 205). This is a stronger claim for vocabulary learning than what we find in L97, discussed below.

M87 did not mention learner strategies specifically, but the authors argued that pupils should be made conscious of various approaches to solving problems they come across in their comprehension and production of English. 'In their work with texts the pupils are advised to try to get the meaning of new words and phrases from the context’ (M87: 206). They were supposed to learn to use dictionaries and other relevant sources to check meaning, spelling and inflection. This was a first step towards developing the pupils' awareness about their own learning, which is further developed in the later curricula, discussed below. A lot more is said about grammar than vocabulary in this curriculum. The decrease in focus on vocabulary seen in M87 is taken even further in L 97.

### 4.3 The 1997 curriculum (L97) ${ }^{9}$

### 4.3.1 General perspectives on L97

L97 is a result of the reform in the Norwegian educational system, 'Reform 97’. This reform was implemented in August 1997, and brought some important changes: Children start school at the age of six, and compulsory education is extended to ten years.

The curriculum consists of three main parts: The core curriculum for compulsory, upper secondary and adult education, Principles and guidelines for compulsory education and Subject syllabi.

[^4]With the new reform, pupils started learning English as early as their first year of school, which means that they are still in the process of acquiring their first language when they start learning English. This also means that they have little or no skills in writing or reading. Accordingly, the development of their L1 written language will run parallel with the learning of an L2. In fact, the curriculum aims to take advantage of the pupils' acquisition of their L1:


#### Abstract

The curriculum in English is based on the language-learning foundations laid when pupils learn their first language, on experience they have already gained through contact with other languages and cultures both at school and elsewhere, and on text competence which pupils have acquired through learning their first language (L97: 223).


The curriculum in English was divided into three parts, where the levels are grouped as follows: Year 1-4, year 5-7 and year 8-10. It was further divided in such a way that there were specific aims for each school year. The introduction says something about the subject's position in the school system and teaching methods. It gave quite clear directives, e.g. ‘Communication in the classroom should mainly be in English' (L97: 224). 'It is emphasised that the pupils should also work with texts which are not made especially for language teaching' (authentic texts) (L97: 224). A reading of this curriculum also gives associations to the communicative approach, even though it is not explicitly said in the text.

### 4.3.2 Learning materials

The curriculum was very detailed when it comes to teaching material, and at each level, a list of authentic material was referred to as examples. At the lower levels, there are songs, nursery rhymes, poems, stories, fables and fairy tales: the curriculum for year 3 suggests that the pupils should meet the following selection of songs, games and fairy tales: 'London Bridge is falling down', 'Oranges and Lemons’, ‘Goldilocks’ and ‘Cinderella’. In year 5, the pupils were introduced to stories, fairy tales, excerpts from children's books (e.g. 'Just so stories’ by Rudyard Kipling), short excerpts from books they have worked with in Norwegian (e.g. ‘Robinson Crusoe’ and ‘Huckleberry Finn’, poems, e.g. ‘The Owl and the Pussycat’ by Edward Lear). These titles were only examples of teaching material, not compulsory, but when the textbook authors started making books for the different levels, they all included the suggested material in their books. This is the most detailed curriculum so far, when it comes to literary works. The suggested teaching material, therefore, was easy to find, as it was usually included in textbooks made for the level in question. This gave the teacher less freedom to choose, but it also helped the inexperienced teacher to find material suitable for
the right age group. The use of authentic material was intended to give the pupils good examples in their work with the language.

### 4.3.3 Learner strategies

The English subject in L97 includes four main areas:

1. Encountering the spoken and written language
2. Using the language
3. Knowledge of the English language and its cultural context
4. Knowledge of one’s own learning (L97: 225)

Of the General aims for the subject, one is particularly interesting:
> 'To promote pupils' insights into what it is to learn English and their capacity to take charge of their own learning, in order to give all pupils good opportunities to learn and lay foundations for further learning in English and learning of other languages (L97: 240).

This touches upon the pupils' consciousness of their own learning process, a point which is new in L97 and which is emphasised several times in the curriculum for English. The teaching of learner strategies becomes part of learning a foreign language.

### 4.3.4 Vocabulary in L97

Vocabulary is given little attention in L97. The communicative aspect is strong. Focus is turned towards real communication, meaning-based activities and understanding of words in context, rather than a systematic approach to vocabulary acquisition. From a communicative point of view, a sufficient number of words and correct words, are more important than the language component grammar (Simensen 2000: 25). Simensen states that the second half of the1980's and 1990's, has seen little interest in vocabulary in the Norwegian curricula. In L97, the definitions 'vocabulary', 'collection of words' or 'choice of words' are mentioned five times total (Simensen 2000: 25-26). The curriculum states that the above mentioned areas are to be worked with, but there is no follow up.

Under the heading Knowledge of the English language and culture and one's own learning, year 5-7, the following is said about vocabulary for year 5: ‘The pupils should work with texts, see structures and different words' functions in the language, e.g. nouns, verbs and adjectives, and acquire a varied vocabulary' (L97: 228). Under the corresponding heading for year 6, the only thing that can be linked to vocabulary is this: 'The pupils should have the
opportunity to work with [...] spelling’ (L97: 229). This aim says nothing about the kind of vocabulary or the amount of words in question. For year 7, the following is said: ‘The pupils should work with vocabulary' (L97: 229). Under the same heading, the use of dictionaries and other sources of reference is mentioned for all three years.

### 4.4 The curriculum of 2006, Kunnskapsløftet (LK06) ${ }^{10}$

### 4.4.1 General perspectives on LK06

The Quality Framework in Knowledge Promotion (LK06) is the first Norwegian curriculum which has been made for Primary and Lower Secondary Education as well as Upper Secondary Education and Training. This shows how school is part of a life-long learning process that starts in kindergarten and ends with the person in a job. The school system is instructed to give an equal education to everyone and reduce differences between individuals and groups.

LK06 is divided into four main parts:

- The Core Curriculum for Primary and Secondary Education and Training
- The Quality Framework
- Subject Curricula
- The Framework Regulating the Distribution of Periods and Subjects

While L97 said a lot about the process for reaching the aims, the new curriculum states what the pupil is expected to know at certain competence aims. There are four basic skills which are integrated in the competence objectives for all subject curricula. These are: Being able to express oneself both in writing and orally, being able to read, having skills in mathematics, and finally being able to use digital tools.

The description of each subject has a similar layout. It starts with a description of 'The Objectives of the Subject'. It is followed by the Main Subject Areas. Teaching Hours specified, and the Basic skills are listed and connected to the subject in question. In LK06 there are Competence Aims after Year 2, Year 4, Year 7, Year 10 and Vg1- Programmes for General Studies and Vg2 -Vocational Education Programmes. Finally there is a Subject Curriculum Assessment.

[^5]The terms I use in this paper are the official terms used in connection with the new curriculum (LK06). A Norwegian -English glossary follows the curriculum (http://www.utdanningsdirektoratet.no/templates/udir/TM_Artikkel.aspx?id=2376).

In the introduction to the English Subject Curriculum, one can clearly see how English has become a language we need in our everyday life.


#### Abstract

The English language is used everywhere [...] we need English for communication [...] English words and expressions have found their way into our own language [...] When we want information on something of private or professional interest, we often search for it in English. [...] English is used increasingly in education and working life, in Norway and abroad (LK06: 1).


LK06 states that 'English as a school subject is both a tool and a way of gaining knowledge and personal insight’ (LK06: 1).

### 4.4.2 The basis for the new curriculum

The authors of LK06 were given some directives. The plan should be short and give maximum freedom to the teachers. This resulted in a plan without any exemplification or anything that could be interpreted as instructions for teaching methods. The directives also made the authors a little frustrated since they found it difficult to indicate important characteristics of language use which differentiate between levels. The communicative approach is central to this curriculum, as it was the L97 and M87. This influence is easy to recognise through the heading of one of the main subject areas. Another directive for the design of the plan was that only 'measurable' aims should be included. This created problems when the authors wanted to make the pupils capable of enjoying literature (Hasselgren 2005: 7-8).

The authors set out with the implication that they could refer to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF), but they were given the opposite directives before the final draft was made. Therefore, all direct references to CEF were taken away in the final version. I will give a brief outline of CEF below, even if it is not explicitly referred to in LK06 as a lot of work has been done in Norway to implement the CEF into schools, and the authors of textbooks and other teaching material know it is there as basis for foreign language learning in general.

### 4.4.3 The structure of LK06

There are three Main Subject Areas:

- Language Learning
- Communication
- Culture, society and literature

The Subject Areas are the same for all levels. Language learning involves developing the pupils' awareness of what goes into learning a foreign language, their ability to recognise what they can and should be able to do, and the strategies they use to acquire and cope with the language. I will return to this point in section 4.4.4.

The third area communication is about the pupils' ability to actually use the language to communicate, and involves both what they can do and how efficiently they can do it.

The main area culture, society and literature focuses on cultural understanding in a broad sense. It is based on the English-speaking world and covers topics connected to social issues, literature, and other cultural expressions. This main area also focuses on developing knowledge about English as a world language with many areas of use. Working with various types of texts and other cultural expressions is important for developing linguistic skills and understanding how others live.

Basic skills (as described above) are listed and connected to the English subject. The aims listed under basic skills show that the English subject has a strong position in the new curriculum. English is central in communication with other people, in reading texts and in producing texts. The pupils are also expected to know mathematical terms in English and to be able to read information from graphs, tables, and statistics, which is important for understanding English texts. In the use of digital tools, English is often the language of instruction and communication. This allows authentic use of the language and opens additional learning arenas for the subject of English. English-language competence is, in many cases, a requirement for using digital tools. The English Subject Curriculum clearly shows how English has developed into an important tool in our lives at school, work, and in our spare time.

### 4.4.4 Vocabulary in LK06

Communicative competence is one of the main aims of LK06. This means that the vocabulary the pupils are intended master has to be words about everyday life and situations they will actually come across. This is reflected in LK06 under the headings language learning and
communication. On the lower levels (year 2 and year 4) vocabulary is listed both under language learning and communication. Under language learning after Year 2 the pupils shall be able to 'find words and phrases that are common to English and the native language' and 'give examples of terms and phrases connected to personal interests’ (LK06: 4). After Year 4 they shall be able to 'find similarities between words and expressions in English and his/her own native language’ (LK06: 4). Under communication after Year 2, it is stated that the pupils shall be able to 'understand and use some common English words and phrases that have a connection with the local community' and 'recognise some words, expressions and simple sentences in spoken and written texts'. For Year 4, it is expected that the pupils shall be able to 'understand and use common English words and phrases connected to day-to-day life, recreation and interests, both orally and in writing', 'use some common grammatical structures, words, simple sentence structures and spelling patterns' and 'understand the meaning of words and phrases based on the context they are used in' (LK06: 5).

Under Competence Aims after Year 7, vocabulary is listed under the heading language learning and communication. Under language learning the pupils shall be able to 'give examples of various ways of learning English words and expressions' (LK06: 5). This means that the pupils should learn different methods for acquiring new words. Under communication, it says that the pupils shall 'master a vocabulary that covers everyday situations' (LK06: 5). Further down the list there is a specification. The pupils should be able to 'talk about currency, measures and weights' (LK06: 6). Otherwise, the aims are quite open and general in the way they describe the learning of vocabulary. The pupils should e.g. be able to 'participate in conversations on everyday situations', and 'express an opinion on various topics', i.e. the communicative situation decides what vocabulary the pupils need. This means that the teacher has to give the pupils the words they might need to master daily life in an English speaking country and in contact with English speaking people through different media.

After a detailed reading of LK06 it seems to me that vocabulary has more focus than what has been the situation in the latest curricula. The consciousness about how to learn new words is as important as what words are being taught in the context of life long learning. The term vocabulary is mentioned under communication for all levels, and this shows the importance of mastering words for communicative needs.

### 4.4.5 The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The authors at the outset were instructed that The Common European Framework (CEF) (Council of Europe 2001) should be incorporated into the plans, and that the standards that the standards of language education in Norway should be in accordance with the directives given for foreign language education in all European countries.

The main aims of CEF are:

- to strengthen communicative competence in foreign languages
- to ensure that competence in foreign languages is measured by the same scales in all European countries
- to strengthen each European's multi language
- strengthen intercultural cooperation (Simonsen and Speitz 2006: 4)

Most European countries have developed or are about to develop their own language portfolios (see section 4.4.6). In Norway Språkpermen is developed as a tool for implementing CEF.

The Ministry of Education (UFD) has decided to follow up with CEF and the development of a European framework for foreign language education. Later in the process, the committee was instructed that no reference was to be made to the Common European Framework (CEF). Important components from the CEF are National tests of English, European Language Portfolio and the division into levels of proficiency. These components were implemented in the drafts but taken away in the final version. Hasselgren thinks this is surprising as the Directorate of Education has invested considerable resources in introducing CEF into schools e.g. through the Portfolio project, National tests of English, and the translation of CEF into Norwegian (Hasselgren 2005: 8).

The communication component of the English plan, therefore, was made up of 'can do' statements directly linked to levels in the CEF. The descriptions of these levels are removed in the final version, but there was no objection to their essence being there. The authors of LK06 hope that the teachers will recognise and understand the levels intended by the statements.

CEF describes vocabulary as a linguistic component under communicative competence (see section 5.2.1). Vocabulary is divided into levels of proficiency which is the same throughout the CEF. One of the parameters is general linguistic range, which says something about learners’ capability to express themselves in a foreign language. Vocabulary competence is further specified and divided into vocabulary range and the number of single
words and idiomatic expressions the learner masters and vocabulary control how precisely language users can express themselves.

There is nothing specific concerning what words to teach.

### 4.4.6 The European Language Portfolio

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) or Språkperm is new with LK06. This is an important component of the Main Subject Area language learning. The introduction of the Portfolio is to take the pupils' consciousness about their own learning further than what was stated in L97. The ELP is a concrete way of documenting the pupils’ language experience and communicative ability across their range of foreign/second languages as well as their progress as they build up what they 'can do'. It arouses pupils' awareness of what it entails to be a language user, enabling them to reflect on and do something about, their own relative strengths and weaknesses (Hasselgren 2001: 8).

But the ELP has to be related to the Norwegian school system. A project for research and development of material/methods assessment has been going on for some years under the auspices of the University of Bergen. In Norway, the decision was taken that the Portfolio should be implemented with the new curriculum (Simonsen and Speitz 2006: 4), though it is not explicitly mentioned in LK06.

Widespread implementation of the Portfolio was taken for granted, and this is reflected in the statements in the language learning component. The Portfolio is published for the age group 13-18. A Guide for Teachers is also available. They are to be found at the web site for Fremmedspråkssenteret (http://www.hiof.no/index.php?ID=10756).

### 4.5 Summary

In view of the international development of increasingly more focus on vocabulary as discussed in chapter 2, the development in Norway has not followed the same pattern. As it appears from my discussion of curricula from 1957 and up till 1997, the L97 has the least focus on vocabulary skills. Looking at LK06, the trend seems to have changed. Vocabulary is mentioned explicitly under all Competence Aims, and it is also stated that the pupils should learn different methods for acquiring new words. This is also in line with the aim that the pupils should develop a consciousness about their own learning in general. The aim came into the curriculum with L97 and is now given more focus in LK06.

By reading LK06 and CEF, I find a clear correspondence between the treatments of vocabulary in the two documents. Vocabulary is there as a basis to serve the communicative
needs. Even if the CEF is not explicitly referred to in LK06, one can easily see that the intention behind LK06 is influenced by CEF.

How the pupils learn new words is an important part of learning a foreign language since words are important for communication. It is not stated in detail what kind of words the pupils should learn, but the communicative situation will give implications for what words they need. The authors of textbooks and other teaching material are, therefore, quite free to choose what vocabulary they present in their books. Children nowadays may have more varied and different sources for learning English than some years ago, the aspect of "leaning how to learn" is as important as what words to learn. It is important for the teacher to make the pupils aware of all the input they get in English. The textbooks pupils meet at school are only one of many sources for learning new words in a foreign language.

## 5. Presentation and discussion of three textbooks

### 5.1 Course books in language teaching

There are a growing number of studies looking at what teachers do about vocabulary in classrooms. According to Nation (2001: 74) 'a common theme in many of the studies is that what happens in the classroom does not take account of the full range of options suggested by theory and research'. One reason for this might be that the teachers have limited time with their pupils and tend to stick to course books which satisfy the aims of the curricula, making the learning time efficient.

Nunan comments that 'Materials are an important component within the curriculum, and are often the most tangible and "visible" component of pedagogy" (Nunan 1991: 227).

A project which was carried out in Norway in 2001-2002, ‘Læreboken i reformtider - et verktøy for endring?' ('How is the curriculum distributed?', my translation) (Bachmann 2004) deals with the use of teaching materials in different school subjects. Although the survey was carried out among teachers in lower secondary school, I think it shows a tendency easily found in primary school. When asked about what kind of material they used in planning and teaching, $87 \%$ of the teachers answered that they used the text books (Bachmann 2004: 122). The results show the important role of textbooks in Norwegian classrooms. The project concludes that teachers of English tend to use textbooks and teacher's guides more often than teachers of most other subjects. The only subject that ranked higher was Natural Science (Bachmann: 127). Teachers of English answer that they use specialist literature and periodicals very little compared to other teachers. However they use the internet a lot, and they are the group who use CD-ROMs the most.

There may be several reasons why teachers base their teaching on textbooks to such an extent, but one reason apparent to anyone who has spent time as a language teacher in a classroom may be the amount of time it takes to prepare a lesson without using ready made material. Textbooks are easy to turn to. They assure a certain progression, and variation, and they are easily accessible. Whatever the reasons for depending so heavily on textbooks, this state of affairs puts certain demands on both the textbooks and their authors. Hatch and Brown (1995: 405) underline the importance for teachers in the classrooms of knowing 'what kind of
vocabulary adjustments are made by [...] materials developers - to know how vocabulary is selected and in what context it is introduced in language teaching materials'.

Stairs, A New Scoop and Talking English, are all theme-based books (see section 5.1.2 below). Thus they have to base their glossaries on the vocabulary in the texts. We do not know, however, how they select words from these texts. For those using the books it would be useful to know whether the authors base their vocabulary selection on frequency, assumed utility, or other considerations.

All the three books in my analysis contain word lists, which show that the bilingual word list is not a phenomenon of the past but is still used. At the back of the textbook, they all have an alphabetically organized wordlist in addition to a glossary for each chapter. Lehr (1984) claims that the word list is 'probably the most widely used approach to vocabulary development in formal settings, and most textbooks, particularly those used in foreign language settings, provide chapter word lists, end glossaries, or both' (in Hatch and Brown 1995: 376).

### 5.1.1 Material in the textbooks

There has been much focus in recent years on the use of authentic language material and on the communicative aspect of language use. The books analysed in this thesis all contain a great deal of such material, i.e. material intended for native speakers or used in real life situations. 'In authentic language approaches, the vocabulary materials ideally reflect the needs and interest of the students and their teachers'. (Hatch and Brown 1995: 407)

The textbooks in my analysis contain many songs, nursery rhymes, fairy tales and cartoons. These are good examples of authentic material. Longer texts are often provided with illustrations that help the pupils to understand the meaning of the text. There are also many dialogs where the pupils can practise certain communicative situations. The intention with many of texts is to provide the pupils with words and phrases they will need in every-day life. Other texts give information about culture or topics the pupils are interested in.

There is some variation in opinion among teachers and theorists as to whether it is desirable to adapt and simplify material. Nation (1990) comments on simplification in reading material when it comes to choice of vocabulary. The primary aim of removing or reducing the number of low-frequency words and constructions is that the pupils can concentrate on content instead of giving all their attention to unknown words.

### 5.1.2 Theme-based textbooks

In LK06, one point is of great importance: The pupils should be able to 'understand and use common English words and phrases connected to day-to-day life, recreation and interests, both orally and in writing' (LK06: 5). For year 7 it is stated that 'the pupils should master a vocabulary that covers everyday situations’ (LK06: 5).

Meeting the pupils and their interests is perhaps easiest in textbooks which are based on themes, so called content-based books. Characteristic of these books is that a certain topic, rather than linguistic phenomena is the starting point of a chapter. The topics chosen in the books I analyse bear evidence of authors attempting to meet the pupils on their level. They also put emphasis on learning useful vocabulary and facts about cultural differences. The topics are presented in such a way that learning a foreign language should be fun. The tasks are varied and involve a lot of communication between the pupils. Topics such as friendship, family, food, clothes, and seasons are present in all three books.

Organising a book by themes can be advantageous to the learning of vocabulary as well. It can be an aid to the students in linking some words to other words within the same semantic field (see chapter 3), as opposed to learning words randomly (Lewis 1993: 118). Further still, content-based books often provide a real-world context to which the students can relate the vocabulary. Conclusive to Lewis' argument about topics and semantic fields is this sentence: ‘Language teaching is about helping students to see what language properly belongs with other language items - in other words it is centrally and intrinsically about collocation' (Lewis 1993: 119).

Willis (1994) seems to be of the opinion that not even authors of textbooks and course books which are content-based detach themselves from the notion that language can be presented in sequences of patterns:

> Teachers and researchers have been aware for many years that "input" does not equal with "intake", that what researchers claim to be teaching bears only a tenuous relationship to what learners are actually learning. But in spite of this, course book writers continue to act on the assumption that language can be broken down into series of patterns which can then be presented to learners and assimilated by them in a predictable sequence (Willis 1994: iii).

The books I discuss below are, to a certain degree, based on this type of sequencing. As mentioned in section 1.2.2, my objects of study are only the modules written for year 5 .

In the following, I will present and discuss all the components of the three series that deal with vocabulary, i.e. the teacher's guides, textbooks, workbooks and the web sites. My
primary focus will be on tasks and exercises, as it is this material which shows what types of comprehension strategies and consolidation strategies the authors have intended for the pupils to work with.

The questions in section 1.2.1 will be an important part of the basis for my description and analysis. The other component that will be taken into consideration is LK06, which gives directives about what the pupils are expected to master at certain stages during their education.

The following questions are central in my treatment of the material:

- Is there a section on vocabulary, and what reasons are given for the selection of words?
- Are the word lists based on frequency counts, subjective selection or simply used as a vehicle for structural or notional/functional practice?
- How are the new words presented?
- What about the amount of vocabulary?
- Do the word lists provide phonemic transcriptions? Does the course book help both learners and teachers in clarifying meaning, dealing with style and connotation, or contrasting words which cause difficulty?
- Does the course book aim to develop vocabulary learner strategies and provide learners with a useful selection of words for productive use?
- In what ways are practice and testing activities provided?
- Is the vocabulary recycled?
- Are the learners encouraged to widen their vocabulary outside the classroom?
- Does the course book contain useful visual material?
- How do the authors of the course books relate their work to LK06?


### 5.2 The teacher's guides

The three series all have teacher's guides with background material for the teacher, page-bypage notes to the textbooks and originals for photocopying. I want to highlight some of the characteristics of each of the series in order to describe and analyse their way of dealing with language teaching in general and the teaching of vocabulary in particular. In the introductions, the authors say something about their philosophy concerning language learning and relate their work to LK06. They show how theoretical principles are brought into practical teaching and learning.

### 5.2.1 The course books and LK06

A New Scoop states that the main areas in communication are based on criteria in the Common European Framework (CEF). This is the only series which mentions CEF in their teacher's guide. The 'Can do' check list is also taken from the CEF. The communicative competence aims include what the pupils can do in and with their foreign language.

In Stairs, the authors have related their methodology to LK06 under the heading 'What, why and how in Stairs'. The reason for the difference between A New Scoop and Stairs in their description of the curricula might be that the former is a revised work, while Stairs is new.

As opposed to these two series, Talking English does not refer explicitly to LK06. The only part that clearly reflects LK06 is one sentence saying that the learning should mainly take place through communication (Collins 2006, b: 4)

### 5.2.2 Differentiation

In the section called 'Principles of education’, LK06 states that the education should be in accordance with established regulations and guidelines adapted to local and individual needs and qualifications. This means that the pupils should get challenges at their own level. While all the books studied are concerned with differentiation, they have solved this in different ways. In Stairs, it is emphasised that all pupils should meet challenges and be able to have something to reach for in relation to where they are in their learning process. This is the reason why all their texts and exercises in Stairs have been labelled according to level of proficiency; Step 1, Step 2 and Step 3. A symbol with stairs and a number indicate at which level the pupils are working. The pupils will always know what step they are on. This is a book where all the texts have been written especially for this book. I cannot even find an authentic nursery rhyme.

The division into levels is used in both the Textbook and Workbook. In the Textbook, the intention is that the teacher takes all the pupils through the texts from Step 1 to Step 3. After this, the pupils can work individually with exercises at the right level. Choosing the right level is something the pupil should do in collaboration with the teacher and the home. The intention is that the pupils start with Step 1 and work their way through the exercises as far as they manage.

In A New Scoop, the teacher's guide informs the teacher about the level of difficulty of the tasks, while this is not made explicit to the pupils. 'Easy versions' of some texts from the textbook are found on the web site Scoop Universe. On the Teacher's Page, a list gives
information about the grading of the texts according to difficulty and style. A New Scoop also has a chapter called 'Warming up', which is a revision of topics and language from lower primary school (year 1-4).

The authors of Talking English state that differentiation will take place in the pupils' production of the tasks they are doing (Collins 2006, b: 4). I will show how differentiation is taken into account as I go through the other components, especially concerning vocabulary.

### 5.2.3 The page-by-page notes

The main part of the teacher's guides is made up of page-by-page notes for the teacher. Since LK06 has communication as one of its main aims, the authors of A New Scoop think that communication in the classroom ought to be mainly in English, and, consequently, that the page-by-page notes are in English as well.

Every lesson note in A New Scoop starts with an 'information board' with information on Topics and functions, expressions and structures, and vocabulary.

Topics and functions gives an indication to what is going to be talked about in the following unit or the pages referred to. This can be topics such as clothes, colours, animals etc., and language functions such as asking for directions, apologizing, describing animals etc.

Expressions and structures tell the teacher which grammatical structures the pupils are supposed to master, e.g. ‘Do you like...? Yes, I do./No, I don't' and 'Why? Because...'. Special expressions such as idioms and 'sayings' are also included here.

Vocabulary reminds the teacher about new or unfamiliar words presented in the text, e.g. 'season, spring, summer, autumn, winter, ripe, etc.' Some words are marked with an asterisk to indicate that though they appear in the text, they are not meant to be part of the pupils' active vocabulary. As for the remaining words, the authors leave it to the teachers’ judgement to decide which words they expect the pupils to master both in speaking and writing and which words they are to understand when they see or hear them in context. Here the teacher has possibilities to differentiate and take into consideration the individual pupils' learning ability. By keeping vocabulary as a separate heading, the authors emphasize the importance of working with words as a separate discipline.

In Stairs, the page-to-page notes for the teacher has an introduction which lists the ingredients of the chapter. In the Textbook the learning aims are listed (of each chapter) under four headings: Write, Speak, Grammar and Read and listen.

The lesson notes in Stairs' Teacher's Guide are based on the language material in the Textbook. The Textbook activities are in English intended for the teacher to take the pupils
through. The corresponding exercises in the Workbook have instructions in Norwegian, so the pupils can work on their own.

The Teacher's Guide for Talking English is organised under four headings: Methodology, Page-by-page notes to the different chapters, Games and Originals for photocopying. The part about methodology explains the basis for the development of the series: Activity, creativity and imagination, to be self confident, authenticity, and happiness. The authors want most of the learning to happen through communication. The pupils are expected to work in pairs or groups. The pupils should be active most of the time, and they are expected to use their creativity and imagination as much as possible.

A separate chapter is about passive learning. The teachers are encouraged to talk English in class and translate what they say. Some words and phrases are frequent and so easily illustrated by body language that there is no need for translation.

### 5.2.4 Vocabulary

The Stairs Teacher’s Guide describes vocabulary over two pages. These pages give a short introduction to how we learn new words. They start by explaining the difference between incidental learning and intended learning (see section 3.2.3). Stairs has plenty of material to develop the pupils’ vocabulary by incidental learning. The pupils are expected to read a text and guess the meaning of the words from the context.

The authors claim that it is also necessary to work with vocabulary as a discipline in its own right. They give numerous examples of how the teacher can organise intended learning of vocabulary. The authors describe the subsequent phase after being exposed to new words as the consolidation phase. This is where the pupils have to use the words in different ways, as in exercises in Workbook or on the web site. When the pupils understand the new words and have worked with them, they are supposed to learn the spelling by heart. The teachers should give the pupils a number of new words they expect them to be able to learn according to what level they are. The authors give an explanation of how they think the pupils on each level can manage the learning of new words. They also give examples of how the testing of new words can be done.

The authors of Stairs even mention that the teachers should talk to their pupils about different strategies for learning new words and raise consciousness about what strategies the pupils use in the learning of new words.

Stairs has a separate chapter dealing with learner strategies for reading, listening, writing and speaking.

The Teacher’s Guide of A New Scoop has no separate chapter about teaching methods and learner strategies for the learning of new words. The authors want to focus on learner strategies and consciousness about the pupils' own learning in general and help them to become 'lifelong learners'. In A New Scoop Teacher's Guide (p. 21), the authors recommend using word games with the pupils to establish spelling and meaning. A New Scoop Teacher’s Guide suggests a large number of games for use with the various topics, but the games are not included in the Workbook. Thus, there will be numbers of games shown in table C. Such games are useful for the learning of new words, and activate the pupils’ vocabulary in a communicative way. The pupils have to cooperate and work together. Then they might also help each other in searching for the words they are looking for.

I will pay particular attention to some methods and activities concerning the learning and consolidation of new words, which are typical for each of the series. The 'Word Box' is one element which seems to be crucial in the learning of new words according to the authors of Talking English. This is a box of words which the pupils produce themselves. In this box they collect all the word cards they work with in the activity Word Box in the Pupil's book. These words should be used directly in communication. The words that are included in the Word Box are taken from the pupils' everyday lives and are always learned with a phrase. New words should be learned by using pictures to illustrate the words, and then be transferred to picture cards which the pupils make themselves, then saved in the Word Box. The words are learned through practice and games.

In Talking English, the pupils are also expected to work individually with words in connection with a new text. This means that the pupils choose some words from the text they want to learn and say why they want to learn these specific words. The pupils work individually with their collection of words. They can be asked to make up sentences with the words, make up questions with the words, or translate the words into Norwegian. The pupils' individual work with words should be shared with other pupils afterwards, either in pairs or small groups. The authors' intention is that the pupils should talk together in connection with every exercise they do! The teachers are encouraged to check regularly how the pupils work with their words and guide them in their further work according to their ability.

### 5.2.5 The use of games for learning vocabulary

Several theorists, among them Agnieszka Uberman (1998), emphasise the use of games as an important way of learning new words. The authors of the course books have suggested games for use in the classroom in their teacher's guides. Some of the games are also found in the
workbooks. Many games are only described in the teacher's guides (some with originals for photocopying), so the teacher organises the games with the pupils.

Stairs has three pages with games for use in the classroom. The authors claim that games are an important part of learning English in 5th grade. Playing games is seen as fun and a change from ordinary lessons, and at the same time, games are an activity where the pupils get to use the language in practice. For each chapter, the authors have suggested a suitable game. The editors of Stairs have also planned a separate part called Games. This component will not be on the market until the spring of 2009.

Talking English has a separate 4 pages with games after the page-to-page guide. The authors suggest various games for use in the classroom and have given detailed instructions and pointed out the aim of the game.

A New Scoop mentions the use of games under the heading 'Cooperation' (p. 11 in Teacher's Guide).

I will not be able to do a comparative analysis of the material, but I want to describe the use of games in the different series in my material. Some of the games are only described in the teacher's guides, and some of them are also included in the workbook.

Table C shows such activities in the teacher's guides and the number of games in the course books, the number of games in the different workbooks, and how many games the authors have suggested for use in class (total number of games).

Table C Page references and number of games in the ‘Teacher’s Guides and the Workbooks.

|  | A New Scoop | Stairs | Talking English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Where to find the games in the | $21,36-37,39$, | $24-27,29,39,47$, | $26,28,30,38,44,46,53,63,71$, |
| teacher's guides | $55-56$, | $59,67,79$ | $87,107,109,110-113$ |
|  | $61-62,71,82$, |  |  |
|  | 90,92, |  |  |
|  | $99,108,117$, |  |  |
|  | 119,126, | 174 |  |
| Number of games in the <br> workbook | 6 |  | 8 |
| Total number of games | 22 | 9 | 27 |

As the table shows, there are a considerable number of games in the course books for fifth grade. The treatment of games as a component varies, but the children will be presented with a relatively high number of games through the school year in the two series that are completed.

Talking English has the highest number of games altogether. They also have a separate section where they suggest other games than the ones mentioned under each chapter. A New Scoop has no separate section on games, but the authors have suggested many different games under each unit. Stairs is not completed, but the authors of the series have listed a number of games on p. 24-27.

### 5.2.6 Consciousness about one's own learning

LK06 states that the individual pupil should be able to 'assess one's own language use, define one's own needs, and select strategies and ways of working' in order to gain 'knowledge about the language, language usage and insight into one’s own language learning' (LK06: 2)

Stairs has a separate unit with tests for each chapter in the Textbook. Each test is divided into levels. The tests are meant to find out what the pupils master when they go through a chapter. The tests can go into a Language Portfolio for each pupil.

A New Scoop Workbook has a list with 'Learning aims' at the beginning of each unit. This list says what skills the pupils are expected to master after having gone through the unit. These aims are controlled by the pupils themselves at the end of the unit by answering a 'Can do checklist'. The pupils are supposed to describe how well they master the skill in question. The 'Can do checklist' has three alternatives for answers; a little, quite well and very well (Flemmen 2006, b: 52). As far as vocabulary is concerned the Can do checklists never list specific words the pupils are expected to master, but they describe areas of life the pupils are expected to master, as e.g. '- talk about times for my daily routines'(Flemmen 2006, b: 94).

Talking English asks the pupils to make a 'File'. This is the pupils' portfolio or documentation of their work. All pupils should have their own unique portfolio which is unique. The file is a documentation of the pupils' development, interests, and knowledge. The teacher's guide suggests methods for how to evaluate and how to follow up the pupils' progression. This should also be documented in the 'File'.

Documentation of learning aims is a requirement in LK06. All three series took this aim seriously and made material which is useful in helping the pupils to develop their consciousness about their own learning.

As I will show below, there are quite a few exercises which focus on vocabulary, but there is not much focus on strategies for learning new words or explaining to the pupils why they are doing all these exercises.

In Stairs' Teacher's Guide, a letter to the parents says something about motivation, homework, and working with words. The parents get advice about how to help their children
with the learning of new words. It is said that at school, the pupils learn the meaning of the words, and to use them in the right contexts. In addition to this, the pupils have to learn some selected words both in writing and orally by heart. This is important in order to improve the reading, writing, and speaking of English. It is interesting to find information like this in one of the series. This shows that the authors of Stairs treat vocabulary as an important skill of language learning, not only as a vehicle of another activity.

### 5.3 The glossaries in the textbooks

### 5.3.1 A presentation of the glossaries

A New Scoop is organised into 7 units which concentrate on one theme each. Within the main theme, there are several topics (see table D). In addition to the 7 units, there is a chapter called 'Warming up’ which is a repetition of material from Junior Scoop (year 1-4).

At the end of the Textbook is a page-by-page glossary with a total of 847 words and phrases (e.g. in the woods, keep an eye on, make faces). The glossary is followed by an alphabetical wordlist with 1031 words: Only the words in the glossary have phonetic transcriptions, and neither of the lists include word class marking. The alphabetical word list provides an additional 184 words to the page-by-page glossary.

Table D No. of words in the glossaries of the different units of A New Scoop Textbook, and in the alphabetical word list.

| Unit number | Title | No. of words |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
|  | "Warming up" | 9 |
| Unit 1 | "Me and my family" | 146 |
| Unit 2 | "Friends and pets" | 134 |
| Unit 3 | "Hobbies and everyday activities" | 110 |
| Unit 4 | "Shopping" | 101 |
| Unit 5 | "Time and travel" | 98 |
| Unit 6 | "The year - weather and seasons" | 109 |
| Unit 7 | "Food and health" | 140 |
| Total no. of words |  | 847 |
| No. of words in the alphabetical wordlist |  | 1031 |

Stairs is organised into 6 chapters. The Textbook has two glossaries at the end of the book, one word list with the words in alphabetical order and one word list with new words page-bypage. The size of the glossary in Stairs is shown in table E and makes up a total of 727 words and phrases.

Table E No. of words in the glossaries of the different units of Stairs Textbook, and in the alphabetical word list.

| Unit number | Title | No. of words |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Chapter 1 | All about me | 128 |
| Chapter 2 | Hobbies | 130 |
| Chapter 3 | All year round | 92 |
| Chapter 4 | Read me a story | 206 |
| Chapter 5 | Secrets and mysteries | 83 |
| Chapter 6 | Travelling in the British Isles | 88 |
| Total no of words |  | 727 |
| No. of words in the alphabetical wordlist |  | 713 |

At the end of the textbook, the alphabetical wordlist contains 713 words, i.e. 14 words fewer than the page-by-page glossary. English words that may have more than one meaning in Norwegian are listed with separate senses, e.g. point - 1. punkt, 2. poeng, 3. peke. Another example is orange -1 . appelsin, 2 . oransje. Both wordlists contain some fixed expressions translated into Norwegian, e.g. 'stay over' - overnatte, 'get dressed' - kle på seg, 'take care of' - passe på.

In addition to the glossaries at the back of the book, this textbook contains some more material to help the pupils with the learning of vocabulary. All the texts on Step 1 have a glossary in the margin. These words are important to understand the text. Another source for the learning of new words is a picture dictionary at the end of each chapter. The words are chosen from the theme of the chapter. The 'Picture Dictionary' is part of the pupils' 'word bank'. The words in the Picture Dictionary are meant to be part of the pupils’ active vocabulary and should therefore be learned by heart. The authors emphasize that differentiation should be seen in relation to how many words each pupil should learn. The Picture dictionary contains illustrated nouns and adjectives and verbs translated. Some of the words from the picture dictionary are found either in the alphabetical glossary or in the page-by-page glossary. It is impossible to tell if there is a system in which words from the Picture dictionary are listed at the end of the book.

Talking English 5 has its main focus on Australia and presents different aspects of the Australian society, both from the past and the present perspective. The Pupil’s Book is organised in ten chapters. At the back of the book, two pages are found about strategies in talking, listening, reading and writing English. This is followed by a mini-grammar. Finally, the textbook has two glossaries. They are a page-by-page glossary, and an alphabetical glossary.

Table F No. of words in the glossaries of different units of Talking English, and in the alphabetical wordlist.

| Unit number | Title | No. of words |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Chapter 1 | I feel pretty | 41 |
| Chapter 2 | As Time Goes by | 26 |
| Chapter 3 | My Home is my castle | 39 |
| Chapter 4 | Welcome to Henley Beach | 36 |
| Chapter 5 | What do you do with a didgeridoo? | 85 |
| Chapter 6 | Rhinoceros Stew | 43 |
| Chapter 7 | Man Gave Names to All the Animals | 83 |
| Chapter 8 | I'm leaving on a Jet Plane | 51 |
| Chapter 9 | I am sailing | 22 |
| Chapter 10 | Words to whisper, words to shout | 56 |
| Total no. of words |  | 482 |
| No. of words in the alphabetical wordlist |  | 454 |

All the titles of the chapters are taken from sayings, songs, phrases and nursery rhymes. The exercises in the Pupil's Book are divided into nine different categories, each with its own symbol (see appendix 12)

The alphabetical wordlist contains 454 words, which is 28 words less than the page-bypage glossary. Most of the words in the word lists are single words, but there are fixed some fixed expressions e.g. 'pull out' - trekke ut, 'melting butter' - smeltet smør and 'look of determination' - et bestemt uttrykk. In the Pupil’s Book, there are some exercises called 'Picture Dictionary' (Pupil’s Book p. 9). These exercises have pictures with labels written on the different items. The words are taken from the theme of the chapter. Various exercises are suggested in the Teacher's Guide to use in connection with the picture dictionaries.

### 5.3.2 Discussion and comparison of the glossaries

Although the word lists are different in character and size (see tables $\mathrm{D}-\mathrm{F}$ above), the textbooks have in common the fact that they all include such lists.

Table G The chapter glossaries and the alphabetical wordlists in A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English compared.

|  | A New Scoop | Stairs | Talking English |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Chapter glossary | 847 words | 727 words | 482 words |
| Alphabetical wordlist | 1031 words | 713 words | 454 words |

There are some variations in terms of style. A New Scoop includes phonetic transcriptions for all words, whereas the chapter glossaries for Stairs and Talking English have no phonetic transcriptions. In Stairs and A New Scoop, words that have the same spelling but more than
one meaning, homographs, are translated with the different meanings in the glossary. In A New Scoop, this is done only in the alphabetical word list. Stairs includes both the chapter glossary and the alphabetical wordlist. None of the glossaries or word lists includes word class marking.

Stairs and Talking English have picture dictionaries in addition to word lists. The authors of Stairs say that the words in the Picture dictionary are intended to be part of the pupils' active vocabulary and therefore learned by heart. In Talking English, it is said that the Picture dictionary will help the further learning in the chapter.

One of the LK06 aims after year 7 is for the pupils to master a vocabulary that covers everyday situations. LK06 does not say anything about the number of words or exactly what words the pupils should learn, but it indicates briefly what areas the words should be taken from. I have chosen to compare one chapter from each book that deals with the same topics. These topics are: The year, seasons, and time. In A New Scoop, unit 6 is called 'The year weather and seasons’. In Stairs, chapter 3 is called 'All year round’. In Talking English chapter 2 is called 'As time goes by'.

The table below shows how many words the different books have included in their page-by-page glossaries, and which words they have in common. The total number of words will vary greatly since the books have divided into chapters in different ways. A New Scoop has 7 chapters, Stairs has 6 chapters and Talking English has 10 chapters.

Table H Comparison between the page-by-page glossaries dealing with the year, seasons and time in A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English.

| A New Scoop, unit 6 'The <br> year- weather and <br> seasons' | Stairs, chapter 3 'All <br> year round' | Talking English, chapter <br> 2 'As time goes by' | Words the books have <br> in common |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 107 words | 92 words | 26 words |  |
| X |  | X | leap year |
| X |  | X | celebrate |
| X | X |  | witch |

As table H shows, only a few words occur in more than one glossary. A New Scoop and Talking English have the words 'leap year' and 'celebrate' in common, while A New Scoop and Stairs have the word 'witch' in common. The word 'leap year' is actually taken from a poem that occurs in both the textbooks of Talking English (p. 18) and A New Scoop (p. 93). There are some words that mean nearly the same in the glossaries, but I have chosen not to
include them since they are not exactly the same, e.g. scare and scary. This comparison shows how random the selection of vocabulary can be.

Common for all the books is that they do not discuss how they selected vocabulary items from the texts. As illustrated by the quotation from Hatch and Brown (1995) in section 5.1, teachers would benefit from knowing what kinds of adjustments the authors of materials have made as far as vocabulary is concerned.

I have also chosen to include a comparison of words from the alphabetical word lists in the three books (see appendix 6 and 7). These are all the words listed under the letter ' $r$ ' and ' 1 ' in the textbooks. These letters are arbitrary choices, but a cross-check with the letter ' $a$ ' and the letter ' $s$ ' showed that the differences for these letters were comparable to those for ' $r$ ' and ' 1 '. The words that are found in more than one book are printed in bold in the tables. Two other words that are not printed in bold (rabbit and ribbon) are found in more than one book, but they are written in the singular form in A New Scoop and in the plural in Talking English.

Table in appendix 6 considerable variation both in the number of words listed under ' $r$ ' and in the words actually included. In fact, none of the words are found in all three books. A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English have listed 42, 20 and 26 words respectively under the letter 'r'. A New Scoop and Stairs have 5 words in common, 'race', 'rather', 'ready', 'remember' and 'right'; A New Scoop and Talking English have 2 words, 'river' and 'room', in common, and Talking English and Stairs have the word 'rent' in common.

There is also considerable variation in the number of words listed under ' 1 ', and words actually included in the glossaries (appendix 7). None of the words are found in all three books here, either. A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English have listed 51, 36 and 16 words under the letter 'l'. A New Scoop and Stairs have the words 'late', 'leave', 'lesson', 'let', 'lettuce', ‘light', 'look' and 'lucky' in common. A New Scoop and Talking English have the word 'log' in common. This indicates that which words the pupils in year 5 are expected to learn, is quite dependant on which textbook their teacher has chosen for them. Further, it illustrates the need for the teachers to know on what basis the authors have made their vocabulary selection, and is further evidence that the vocabulary selection for pupils in Norwegian schools is quite random.

The discussion of Norwegian curricula in chapter 4 might provide part of the explanation for what appears to be an unsystematic way of treating vocabulary in the textbooks. LK06 states that the pupils should learn a vocabulary that makes them able to master everyday situations, but nothing more precise is said about this vocabulary. This leaves textbook authors with hardly any guidelines for the treatment of this linguistic component. Inevitably,
textbooks will vary both in style, number, and content as far as vocabulary is concerned. Considering the fact that the pupils are all heading towards the same final exam at the end of year 10, this issue deserves more attention from curriculum designers and textbook authors. Perhaps a glance back in time at previous curricula giving more attention to vocabulary could serve as a contribution to a future discussion of vocabulary among Norwegian educationalists? My tables show how random this selection can be and how the number of words included in the word lists vary. How will this reflect the pupils’ vocabulary as they go on learning English?

Another aim stated in LK06 after year 7 is to give examples of different ways to learn new words and phrases. This aim is also very open and gives the authors of course books a lot of freedom when it comes to what learner strategies to include in their books. How should the teacher raise the pupils' consciousness about their own learning of new words? The pupils should encounter different ways of acquiring new words, so they can test out different strategies and find some that work for them. But in order to do this, the teachers must have some background knowledge about vocabulary and how we acquire new words. The teachers also need knowledge about learner strategies. I think it would be a good idea for the authors of course books to include some background material on the subject for the teacher in the teacher's guides. It would also be useful for the pupils to have something on this matter in their own textbooks or workbooks. There is quite a lot of literature about how to teach vocabulary, so I think the course books should have included a list of relevant literature for the teachers. As the situation is in Norwegian schools today, many of the English teachers in primary schools lack university level education in English. Therefore, they follow the teacher's guides to a larger extent than those teachers who are well qualified in the subject they are teaching. With this situation, the teacher's guides are important tools in making the teaching of English best, and what the authors have included in them is of great importance.

### 5.4 Vocabulary exercises in the workbooks

Figure 1, illustrating Hatch and Brown’s (1995) five steps of vocabulary learning, serves as a starting point for a comparison and discussion of some of the exercises found in A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English. As discussed in section 3.3.1, the first step, 'encountering new words', is what happens when pupils are exposed to language. In the present section, this refers to the reading of the texts in the textbooks and will not be debated any further. The second step, however, 'getting the word form' is a relevant point when discussing vocabulary exercises. The same can be said of the last three steps of the model, i.e. 'getting the word
meaning', 'consolidating word form and meaning in memory', and 'using the word'. The table below shows what the categories are and how they are further subdivided. The categories given here were chosen to cover the various ways of dealing with new words in a foreign language. It is sometimes difficult to tell whether an exercise should be placed in one category or another because exercises that focus on the same phenomena may involve tasks that are designed in different ways. I have made the division into types of exercises as detailed as possible, without making too many categories.

Table I The categories of vocabulary exercises in the workbooks.

| Main category | Types of exercises |
| :--- | :--- |
| Getting the word form | (1) Word search |
|  | (2) Spelling alter the letters) |
|  | (3) Similar words in English and Norwegian |
|  | (4) Rhyming |
| Getting the word meaning | (1) Draw the word, draw pictures to the text |
|  | (2) Translation into Norwegian |
|  | (3) Picture dictionary |
|  | (4) Word Box |
|  | (5) Select words from a text and translate them |
|  | (6) Work on the text. Translate and make sentences |
| Consolidating form and meaning | (7) Dictionary |
|  | (1) Word game |
|  | (2) Crossword puzzle |
|  | (3) Matching symbols and words |
|  | (4) Write the words to the pictures |
|  | (5) True or false. Understanding words in context |
|  | (6) Cloze test |
|  | (7) Match English and Norwegian words |
|  | (8) Synonyms/explaining the words |
|  | (9) Make cartoons |
| Using the word | (1) Five rows' poems |
| Grouping words | (2) Make sentences. Tell a story. |
|  | (1) Collocations |
|  | (2) Connotations |
|  | (3) Hyponymy |
|  | (4) Odd man out |
| Other exercises | (5) Antonyms |
|  | (1) Listen! Correspond word and drawing |
|  | (2) Translation into English |
|  | (3) Games |
|  |  |

In the following, I will first present the exercises in the three books and then compare and contrast the types of exercises related to relevant theory.

In the introduction to each unit, A New Scoop has a table which shows where to find the topic presented in the different components: Teacher's Guide, Textbook and Workbook. No explicit differentiation is made in the teaching material which is available for the pupils. It is
up to the teacher to differentiate. The Teacher's Guide suggests ways of meeting the pupils’ needs as far as reading material and exercises are concerned.

In the table below, I have categorised all the exercises in the Workbook that are concerned with the learning and consolidation of new words. The exercises are indicated by a letter and the page it is found on. Some exercises do not have a letter as a heading: In these cases, I have referred to the page they are found on.

Table J Vocabulary exercises in A New Scoop Workbook.

| Main type | Subtype | Page references | Number of exercises |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Getting the word form | (1) Word search | B60, B116 | 2 |
|  | (2) Spelling (alter the letters) | A8, B12, C26 | 3 |
|  | (3) Similar words in E and N | A6 | 1 |
| Getting the word meaning | (1) Draw the word, draw pictures to the text | D6, A12, B28, C51, C63, D63 | 6 |
| Consolidating form and meaning | (1) Word game | 88, 125 | 2 |
|  | (2) Crossword puzzle | $\begin{aligned} & \text { C12, A14, A23, A29, A72, B73, A77, } \\ & \text { B77, A97,110, C112, 113, 115, A124, } \\ & \text { A130 } \end{aligned}$ | 15 |
|  | (3) Matching symbols and words | $\begin{aligned} & \text { B70, B81, A95, 98-99, A101, 126, A46, } \\ & 48,57,85,135, \text { E143, A106 } \end{aligned}$ | 13 |
|  | (4) Write the words to the pictures | A18, A32, B33; A49, D51, 56, A62, 64, E74, C92, B96 B101, A104, D121, B129, A131, A140, B141, D142 | 19 |
|  | (5) True or false. Understanding words in context | A39, 45, 61, A68 | 4 |
|  | (6) Cloze test | A136 | 1 |
| Using the word | (2) Make sentences. Tell a story | $\begin{aligned} & \text { B27, C43, B49, C58, D67, B104, A100, } \\ & \text { B114, 127, C138 } \end{aligned}$ | 10 |
| Grouping words | (1) Collocations | B68 | 1 |
|  | (2) Connotations | A116, B119 | 2 |
|  | (3) Hyponymy | A120, C121, A133, B133 | 4 |
|  | (4) Odd man out | A26, B62, B120, B124, B130 | 5 |
|  | (5) Antonyms | B107, C136 | 2 |
| Other exercises | (1) Listen! Correspond word and drawing | B26, A82, 102 | 3 |
|  | (2) Translation into English | C107 | 1 |
|  | (3) Games | 10-11, 39, 69, 86-87, 98-99, 139 | 6 |
| Total number of vocabulary exercises |  |  | 100 |

The total number of exercises I found in the Workbook was 202. The number of vocabulary exercises was 100 , i.e. half of the total.

The different exercises are not marked according to what area of the language they focus on. There are many examples of the type 'Crossword puzzles’, ‘Matching symbols and words', 'Write the words to the pictures', which shows that the authors have emphasized working with the new words in order to consolidate form and meaning. A23 (see appendix 11) is a typical example, where the pupils are expected to find the word corresponding to the drawing and then put the words into a crossword puzzle. In exercise 57 (see appendix 17), the pupils are asked to match symbols and words by drawing lines between a word and its corresponding symbol. In A18 (see appendix 18) the pupils are asked to write the words under the pictures. There are open squares to indicate how many letters the word contains. Different ways of grouping words are also represented among the exercises. In the Stairs Workbook all the exercises are marked with the stairs indicating the difficulty of the task. This helps the pupils select exercises according to their level of proficiency.

In the table below, I have categorised all the exercises in the Workbook that are concerned with the learning and consolidation of new words. The exercises are indicated by numbers and what page number. For most of the exercises, I have classified the whole exercise under one category, but some exercises are subdivided into a), b) etc. When the different parts of an exercise belong to different categories, I have split the exercise and referred to the specific task in question. This categorisation has consequences for the counting the total number of exercises. I have counted the divided exercises as separate exercises, and the whole ones as one exercise.

Table K Vocabulary exercises in Stairs Workbook.

| Main type of <br> exercise | Subtype of exercise | Page references | Number of <br> exercises |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Getting the word <br> form | (1) Word search | $45(28), 79(47), 139(75), 173(93)$ | 4 |
|  | (3) Spelling (alter the letters) | $12(10), 168(91)$ | 2 |
|  | (4)Rhyming | $16(12), 37(25), 144(76)$ | 3 |
| Getting the word <br> meaning | (1) Make a drawing to the <br> description or colour the <br> drawing | $13(10), 14(10), 24(15), 41(26), 146(78)$, <br> $53(33), 123(68)$ | 7 |
|  | (2) Translation into <br> Norwegian (use a dictionary) | $8 \mathrm{a}(8), 88(51)$ | 2 |
| Consolidating form <br> and meaning | (2) Crossword puzzle | $26(17), 155(85)$ | 2 |
|  | (3) Matching symbols and <br> words | $171(93), 9(8), 23(14), 42 a(27)$, | 3 |
|  | (9) Make cartoons | $62 \mathrm{c}(38), 172(93), 134(72)$ | 8 |
|  | (4) Write the words to the <br> pictures | $50(31), 51(32), 52(33), 124(69), 137(74)$, <br> $157(86), 167(91), 170(92)$ | 4 |
|  | (5) True or false. | $11(9), 38(25), 43(28), 100(57), 109(61)$, | 6 |


|  | Understanding words in <br> context | $127(70)$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | (6) Cloze test | $46(29), 47(29), 68(43), 90(52), 96(55)$, <br> $97(55), 104(58), 145(77), 151(82)$, <br> $175(94), 176(95)$ | 11 |
|  | (7) Match English and <br> Norwegian words | $5(7), 6(7), 42 \mathrm{~b}(27)$ | 3 |
|  | (8) Synonyms/explaining the <br> word | $27(18), 20(13), 55(34), 89(51)$ | 4 |
| Using the word | (1) Five rows' poems | $72(44), 73(45), 74(45), 102(58), 122(68)$ | 5 |
|  | (2) Make sentences. Tell a <br> story. | $49(30), 71(44), 77(46), 48(46), 80(47)$, <br> $81(48), 83(48), 84(48), 99 a(56), 117(65)$, | 14 |
| Grouping words | (1) Collocations | $91(52), 136 \mathrm{~b}(73), 149(80), 165(90)$ |  |

There were a total of 190 exercises in the Workbook. 97 of these, i.e. about half, deal with vocabulary.

The authors have emphasized certain aspects of the word. This is the series which has the widest variety of types of exercises. There are some aspects of knowing a word that clearly dominate in Table K ‘Consolidating form and meaning', 'Using the word’ and 'Grouping words'. Under 'Consolidating form and meaning' the type 'Write the words to the pictures' has many exercises. Exercise 50(31) is a typical example where the pupils are asked to write what time it is under pictures showing a clock with handles indicating the time (see appendix 19). In most of these exercises the pupils are not given the words they need but have to find them elsewhere. This is more difficult than exercises where they are given the words they need but only have to match them with the right picture.

Another type of exercise the authors have used frequently is the cloze test. In exercise 46(29) the pupils are asked to look at page 35 in the StairsTextbook and fill in the missing words (see appendix 20). The pupils are not given the missing words with the exercise but have to look for them in another place. This workbook also has many exercises under the category 'Using the word'. In exercise 81(48), the pupils have to use the words they know about winter in order to describe their personal interests (appendix 21) This category of exercises focuses on the production of sentences, not only on words, which makes the tasks
more challenging. A hyponymy relation is another aspect of knowing a word the authors want to focus on. In exercise 15(11) the pupils are asked to put words into categories according to which season they belong to (appendix 22).

Talking English is largely based on the teacher as the leader of the work since the pupils need additional instructions from the teacher to be able to do the exercises. There is not much room for individual work. The exercises are not marked with labels according to difficulty, and full instructions to each exercise are only given in the Teacher's Guide, which makes it very difficult for the pupils to work on their own in Pupil's Book.

I have categorised all the exercises in the Pupil's Book that are concerned with the learning and consolidation of new words. The subtypes are given somewhat different names here to indicate the characteristics of this series. Examples will be given below. As mentioned earlier, the exercises in the Pupil's Book are divided into nine categories. I will indicate the exercises by a number (where one exists) and page number in brackets. The originals for photocopying are included in this table and are indicated with CO in the brackets.

Table L Vocabulary exercises in Talking English.


|  |  | $5(\mathrm{CO}, 58), 4(52)$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Other exercises | (3) Games | $18(15), 11(23), 15(36), 10(45), 14(60-$ <br> $61), 14(98),(120),(124-125)$ | 8 |
|  | (2) Translation into English | $2(\mathrm{CO}, 58), 1(40), 5(\mathrm{CO}, 59), 3(\mathrm{CO}, 62)$, <br> $4(\mathrm{CO}, 62)$ | 5 |
| Total number of <br> vocabulary <br> exercises |  |  | 77 |

The number of vocabulary exercises in the Pupil's Book is 77 , or $48 \%$ of the total.
There are some types of exercises that are typical to Talking English. A Picture dictionary, as in 9(12), is found in nearly every chapter (see appendix 13). In the Teacher's Guide, there are suggestions for how to use the picture dictionary. It can be used in Kim's game, where the pupils look at the picture for some time and then are asked to close the book and say or write down as many of the things as they can remember. The pupils can also use the picture dictionary as a help further in the chapter.

Another type of exercise found in nearly every chapter is 'Work on the text', as in 2(52) (see appendix 14). Here the pupils are asked to write down six words from the text that they would like to learn, and justify their choice. They are asked to make up sentences with two of the words, and translate the remaining words into Norwegian. This method gives a random choice of words for the pupils. The teacher can control what words the pupils have chosen and why, but they cannot make sure that every pupil learns the same words.

The third example is 'Word Box', as in 11(13) (see appendix 15). This is where the intended leaning of new words should take place. This work is controlled by the teacher, who puts up pictures on the blackboard and says what is on the pictures. The pupils are asked to repeat after the teacher. There are often fixed expressions to be learned together with the pictures. At the end of the session, the pupils are asked to make their own cards for their own word boxes. The authors of this series are very focused on getting the form of new words by showing the pupils drawings or pictures. Another subtype of exercise which is common is to match words with pictures, as in exercise 9(22) (appendix 16)

Table M sums up the number of exercises in each of the series, how many deal with the learning and consolidation of vocabulary.

Table M Exercises in the three series, number of vocabulary exercises and percentage of total.

|  | A New Scoop | Stairs | Talking English |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total number of exercises | 202 | 190 | 161 |
| Vocabulary exercises | 100 | 97 | 77 |
| Percentage of total | $50 \%$ | $51 \%$ | $48 \%$ |

There is not much variety in the percentage of exercises that focus on vocabulary. However, the actual number of exercises dealing with vocabulary varies quite a lot between Talking English with 77 exercises and A New Scoop with 100.

### 5.4.1 Getting the word form

Exercises concerned with pronunciation and spelling fall under this category. All three series contain exercises called 'spelling (alter the letters)', which practise the pupils' ability to spell words correctly. The exercises called 'spelling' or 'make up words from letters', are activities where the letters in various words are jumbled. The pupils' task is to rearrange the letters to find a proper word. In other words, the meaning of the word is not crucial in this type of exercise. The aim is to make the pupils recognise forms. A New Scoop has plenty of crossword puzzles. The 'word search' is also a type of activity found in all three books, in which word forms are to be recognised. A word search exercise may look as example 79(47) in Stairs (see appendix 23)

Talking English has two exercises and Stairs has three exercises where the pupils are asked to find rhyming words. In order to do this, they need to know the pronunciation of the words.

### 5.4.2 Getting the word meaning

As mentioned above (section 3.3.3), is the step most frequently associated with vocabulary learning. Several of the exercises in the three books belong to this category.
'Picture dictionary' in Talking English is one of the options when searching for word meaning. The pupils are given words which are illustrated. The picture dictionaries are organised by themes. This is a very common way of explaining the meaning of new words for pupils in this age group. Illustrations of words are found throughout all the three series in my analysis.

Another way of getting the word meaning is by drawing a picture to a given word or translating the word into Norwegian. All three books include activities where the pupils are asked to translate from English into Norwegian. At this level, there are no exercises where the pupils are given direct instructions about using a dictionary.

Talking English has two other types of exercises found only here. That is 'Word Box', (described in section 5.2.4) and 'Work on the text'. This type of exercise seems to me to give a random choice of words, which is difficult to follow up for the teacher. 'Work on the text' might look like exercise 2(52) of Talking English (see appendix 14). Talking English is definitely the series that has most exercises in the category 'getting the meaning of the word'.

### 5.4.3 Consolidating word form and meaning in memory

As mentioned, Hatch and Brown (1995) list flash cards, matching exercises, crossword puzzles, and mnemonic exercises as activities that can consolidate the connection between form and meaning in our memory. Nation (2001) mentions activities where the pupils should match words and definitions, drawing, and labelling pictures, among many others.

The exercise types 'match words and symbols' and 'match words with pictures' are widely used both in A New Scoop and in Stairs. In these exercises, the words are given, and the task for the pupils is to match the words with the right picture.

Crossword puzzles are a widely used activity in A New Scoop. Stairs has two crossword puzzles, while Talking English has none. I have listed crossword puzzles as an exercise practising the word form, i.e. correct spelling, above. This does not exclude it from being mentioned in this category as well, as Crosswords also imply matching the definition or word given with a correct meaning or synonym.

Cloze exercises are found in all three books, but Stairs uses them the most. The cloze exercises in Stairs are primarily made so pupils need their textbooks in order to fill in the missing words.

The exercises called 'grouping words', which can be found in A New Scoop and Stairs are also consolidation activities. As discussed above (section 3.7.4), Simensen (2007) describes several types of grouping words activities. I have labelled my subtypes 'hyponymy’ and 'odd man out'. Stairs and A New Scoop have several exercises in each of these categories. Hyponymy exercises are a much used activity in Stairs. One example is exercise 48(30) where the pupils are given a list of words and three headings, and asked to put the words from the list under the right heading (see appendix 24). The pupils are usually given the superordinate terms and asked to find the hyponyms e.g. exercises concerning the grouping of words deal with seasons of the year, where the pupils are asked to put months into the right season. Talking English has no exercises that belong to this category. This seems strange since other exercises concerning the grouping of words deal with seasons of the year. 'Grouping words’ in different ways is a widely used activity to learn the different aspects of a word. There are no mnemonic exercises in my material.

### 5.4.4 Using the word

All three series have exercises which fall under this category. Some of the exercises are difficult to categorize, especially because some are also aimed at learning grammar and syntax in addition to vocabulary. I chose to include both exercises where the primary aim seems to be
vocabulary and exercises where I see vocabulary knowledge as a side effect of the exercise, even though this might not be the authors' intent.

A good example of a exercise where the primary aim is vocabulary is exercise 49(30) in Stairs (see appendix 25). The pupils are asked to write sentences using words from a picture. Exercise 99a(56) in Stairs is an example of an exercise where the pupils activate their knowledge of vocabulary connected to a specific animal as well as grammar and syntax to make a continuous story. Stairs definitely has the highest amount of these exercises. There are many activities where the pupils are asked to use the words they have learned in production. These exercises are open, and the pupils can write and produce text at their own level. The vocabulary the pupils are expected to use are words they have learned in the textbook. In exercise $49(30)$ (see appendix 25), the pupils are asked to write sentences about what they can see in the picture on page 61 of the Textbook. This is a Picture Dictionary. A New Scoop also comes up with a lot of exercises where the pupils are asked to produce sentences at their own level. These exercises are more challenging for pupils with a higher proficiency. The five row poems in Stairs also activate the pupils' vocabulary. Five row poems are made after a certain pattern, as shown in exercise 72(44).

### 5.4.5 Grouping words

Collocations and chunking are by theorists as Lewis and Hatch and Brown regarded as lexical items that can contribute to the learning of an L2. A New Scoop included some exercises I would classify as collocation exercises. In exercise $B(68)$ the pupils are asked to insert in the right verb about what they can do with a number of things, from a selection of verbs.

There are also two exercises in A New Scoop I have classified as connotation exercises. Hatch and Brown (1995: 135) define connotation as 'all the cultural associations called up by a word'. Exercise $\mathbf{B}(119)$ is culture dependent in the way that the same associations will not be made to the same seasons in Norway as in Australia. In Stairs, one exercise, 91(52) (see appendix 26) about what wild animals can do, is classified as a collocation exercise. Talking English has no exercises on collocation. No explicit mention is made about grouping words in any of the series.

### 5.4.6 Other vocabulary exercises

All three series contain exercises where the pupils are asked to translate from Norwegian into English. A New Scoop also has two listening activities that I considered to be vocabulary tasks, where the pupils are asked to listen to a text in order to match word and drawing. I have also considered games as vocabulary activities.

The table below shows the number of different types of exercises found in the three series.

| Type of exercise | No. | A New Scoop | Stairs | Talking English |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Getting the word form | 1 | 2 | 4 |  |
|  | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
|  | 2 | 3 |  | 1 |
|  | 4 |  | 3 | 2 |
| Getting the word meaning | 1 | 6 | 7 | 2 |
|  | 2 |  | 2 | 6 |
|  | 3 |  |  | 8 |
|  | 4 |  |  | 6 |
|  | 5 |  |  | 4 |
|  | 6 |  |  | 6 |
|  | 7 |  |  | 1 |
| Consolidating form and meaning | 1 | 2 |  |  |
|  | 2 | 15 | 2 |  |
|  | 3 | 13 | 4 | 17 |
|  | 4 | 19 | 8 |  |
|  | 5 | 4 | 6 |  |
|  | 6 | 1 | 11 | 2 |
|  | 7 |  | 3 |  |
|  | 8 |  | 4 |  |
|  | 9 |  | 3 | 2 |
| Using the word | 1 |  | 5 |  |
|  | 2 | 10 | 14 | 6 |
| Grouping words | 1 | 1 | 1 |  |
|  | 2 | 2 |  |  |
|  | 3 | 4 | 13 |  |
|  | 4 | 5 | 3 |  |
|  | 5 | 2 | 1 |  |
| Other exercises | 1 | 3 |  |  |
|  | 2 | 1 | 2 | 5 |
|  | 3 | 6 |  | 3 |
| Total number |  | 100 | 97 | 77 |

Table N Exercises in the different groups and subtypes found in A New Scoop, Stairs and Talking English.


Figure 2 Diagram of vocabulary exercises in the three textbooks

## $5.5 \quad$ The web sites

While the course book has a long tradition when it comes to layout and content, the web site is a new teaching aid. This is challenging both for the designer of the web site and the user, if the aim is to make it something more than just a course book put on the internet.

I have looked at how the web sites deal with learning of new words in comparison with the course books. I have not undertaken analysis of the layout and graphics of the web sites. I have concentrated on the content related to vocabulary learning and teaching.

The following questions are central in my treatment of the material:

- Are the types of exercises the same as in the workbook, or are they different? If they are different, how do they vary?
- Are the exercises of the type that practise drilling or are they for solving problems?
- Are there any restrictions as to what kind of exercises can be used on the web sites?

Heian and Pettersen (2002) claim that possibilities for quick update are one of the great advantages of a web site compared to a printed course book. To what extent has the publisher of the series in my analysis taken advantage of this possibility?

### 5.5.1 Presentation of the digital resources that come with the course books

The websites are additional components to the Textbook, Workbook and Teacher’s Guide. Since LK06 has digital skills as one of the pupils’ basic skills the publishers take it for granted that the schools will have access to computers.

My discussion will concentrate on the treatment of vocabulary as a linguistic component in the web sites accompanying A New Scoop and Stairs, as Talking English is not completed and is too different from the others to be compared with them. I will focus on the content of the web sites and comment briefly on the layout and graphics where I find it interesting. I have chosen to give a presentation of the three web sites before I discuss and compare them in relation to current theory, LK06, and the course books. The various tasks were divided into the same main groups as I did with the workbooks (section 5.4, table I), but some of the subtypes are given other names since they practise different aspects than the exercises in workbook. The tables for the web sites are divided into categories and subtypes as shown in table O. Subtypes (a) - (d) are only found on the web sites.

Table O Categories found on the web sites of A New Scoop and Stairs.

| Type of exercise | Subtype |
| :--- | :--- |
| Getting the word form | (1) Word search |
|  | (a) Rhyming |
|  | (2) Spelling |
|  | (b) Pronunciation |
| Getting the word meaning | (c) Match English and Norwegian word |
| Consolidating form and meaning | (2) Crossword puzzle |
|  | (3) Matching symbols and words |
|  | (6) Cloze test |
|  | (8) Synonyms/explaining words |
| Using the word |  |
| Grouping words | (1) Collocations |
|  | (3) Hyponymy |
|  | (4) Odd man out |
|  | (5) Antonyms |
| Other exercises | (d) Questions |

From the table, it appears that the web sites are not as varied as the workbooks with respect to types of exercises (cf. table I in section 5.4). Interactive web exercises have to be corrected automatically, which often means multiple choice and gap-filling exercises where the pupils cannot answer in their own words.

### 5.5.2 The web site for A New Scoop: Scoop Universe

The web site 'Scoop Universe'(http://scoop.samlaget.no/startsiden.cfm) is common to the whole Scoop series 1-7. The web site has extra material for teachers and pupils. For the
pupils, there are more exercises and interactive tests where they can test their own language competence, more texts, 'easy versions' of texts in the textbook and links to other relevant pages. For the teachers, there are background material, grammar, relevant links etc.

I will focus on the links called A New Scoop, Grammar and Teacher's Page. These pages are concerned with vocabulary.

A typical example of an exercise found on Scoop Universe is a task where the pupils are asked to match a Norwegian word with the corresponding English word or vice versa. Scoop Universe Tb.p. 38-39 (FC, U2) is an example. ${ }^{11}$ The Norwegian words and the English alternatives are listed in two columns, and the pupils are asked to draw lines between the corresponding words.

Scoop Universe has a lot of cloze tests where the pupils have to fill in the missing words from a given page in the Textbook to give the text meaning and coherence. Tb.p. 20 (FI, U1) is a typical example of this.

Another major group of exercises on Scoop Universe is explaining the meaning of words or finding synonyms. In exercise Tb.p. 20 (FF, U1), the pupils are asked to draw lines between a word and the correct synonym.

Nearly all the exercises at Scoop Universe are linked to given pages in the Textbook.
As appendix 8 shows, there is a total of 171 exercises on Scoop 5.79 of the exercises ( $44.4 \%$ of the total) are directly connected to the learning and consolidation of new words.

Under the heading Grammar, there are exercises dealing with the different word classes the pupils are expected to master after year 7: Verbs, nouns, adjectives, articles, question words, word games and grammar games. The exercises found under 'Word games’ are taken from various resources on the internet: Flash Hangman Games and Interesting Things for ESL Students, Word Based Games for ESL Students and ESL Blues.

On Teacher's Page we find 'New vocabulary', which gives examples and suggestions of how to present and work with new words. It gives an overview of what kind of exercises and activities to find in the Workbook concerning the learning of new words. The authors explain how to teach new words, but there is nothing about their philosophy. This is identical to the introduction found in the previous version of A New Scoop called Scoop. Under the heading 'Differentiation', the authors have indicated the difficulty of the texts in the textbook. In 'Suggestions for curricula', the authors have given suggestions about how to work with the material through the school year. The web site has a user friendly layout and is easy for the

[^6]pupils to use. Another good thing about the web site is that the pupils can do the same exercises over and over again to practise what they need most.

### 5.5.3 The web site for Stairs

The web site http://stairs.cappelen.no is an additional component to the Stairs Textbook, the Workbook and the Teacher's Guide. There are exercises for each chapter. Some of them are connected to the themes in Stairs, and others are directly related to the texts in the Textbook. The pupils work with words, definitions, and grammar and can choose between three levels of proficiency. The exercises are corrected automatically.

The web site is common to the whole Stairs series 1-7. Stairs 5 has one entry to each chapter. The headings for each chapter are 'Exercises, Grammar, and Listen'. 'Exercises’ is concerned with the learning and consolidation of vocabulary in different ways. 'Grammar' is concerned with both vocabulary and grammar.

I have chosen to go through 'Exercises' and 'Grammar' in order to select and classify the tasks that deal with vocabulary. On entering the links for 'Exercises' and 'Grammar', the user will find the tasks that come up on the screen are altered from time to time. The exercises come up as different numbers every time you enter. More surprising, there are alternations within one single exercise. This makes it interesting for the pupils, and they can practise the exercises several times without getting bored because the same exercises turn up in different order. This makes it impossible for me to identify the different exercises by number, but I have counted how many exercises are found under each category for each chapter.

A typical example of an exercise is matching an English word with the Norwegian translation. Another task is finding the right sentence to the picture shown on the screen. Cloze tests are also common. Most of them come with a printed list of words on the side, where the pupils have to choose from the list and put the words in the right sentences. The category I have called 'Questions' is a version of 'hangman' where the pupils are asked to answer a question by finding the right word to put on a line where it is indicated how many letters the word consists of.

Under 'Grammar', many of the exercises are of the same type as the ones under 'Exercises', but they are focused on a particular grammatical phenomenon. The exercises in chapter 1-3 are of a more general character. Chapters 4-6 have exercises that are more closely linked to the texts in the Textbook.

The table in appendix 9 shows that the total number of tasks under Exercises was 240. 139 of the tasks or $58 \%$ deal with the learning and consolidation of vocabulary. Under Grammar there are 72.

### 5.5.4 The web site for Talking English

The web site www.gan.no/talkingenglish is mainly a collection of exercises taken from other resources, not produced by the authors of this series. The exercises are organised by themes under the actual chapters, and links are given to relevant sources on the internet. There is an enormous amount of exercises, which makes it impossible for me to compare it with the two other web sites, but I will give an overview and a description of the web site.

On the top of the opening page, there is a collection of links to useful resources for learning English. So far, there are only exercises to be found for six of the ten chapters. The remaining four were to be finished during June 2007. ${ }^{12}$

Under the introduction to each chapter, the exercises and links are listed, and they are classified according to level of proficiency. I will give some examples of exercises and classify them as I have done with the previous two series (se appendix 10)

The exercises are taken from different resources on the internet. Some of them are: "English Vocabulary Quizzes with Images" which is part of Activities for ESL students, published by The Internet TESL Journal, esl.about.com, LEV (Learn English Vocabulary), Focus English.com, Eclecticenglish.com, learnenglish.org.uk.

### 5.5.5 Discussion and comparison of the web sites

The table below shows a comparison of the number of exercises in A New Scoop and Stairs.

Table P Vocabulary exercises on the web sites of A New Scoop and Stairs.

|  | A New Scoop | Stairs <br> Exercises | Stairs <br> Grammar | Stairs Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total number of exercises | 171 | 240 | 113 | 353 |
| Vocabulary exercises | 81 | 156 | 72 | 228 |
| Percentage of total | $47 \%$ | $65 \%$ | $66,4 \%$ | $64,5 \%$ |

The total number of exercises on the Stairs web site is a lot higher than that of A New Scoop. In A New Scoop 47\% of the total are vocabulary exercises, while Stairs has 65 \% vocabulary

[^7]exercises. It is also interesting to find that in the part called Stairs Grammar there is an even higher number of vocabulary exercises than in Stairs Exercises.

The table below shows the number of exercises in the different categories for A New Scoop and Stairs.

Table Q The number of exercises in the different categories at the web sites of A New Scoop and Stairs. ((a) - (d) do not appear in the table for the workbook).

| Type of exercise | A New Scoop | Stairs |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Getting the word form <br> (1) Word search |  | 35 |
| (a) Rhyming |  | 2 |
| (2) Spelling | 1 | 4 |
| (b) Pronunciation |  |  |
| Getting the word meaning | 17 | 55 |
| (c) Match English and Norwegian words |  |  |
| Consolidating form and meaning | 1 | 22 |
| (2) Crossword puzzle | 23 | 60 |
| (3) Matching symbols and words | 23 | 22 |
| (6) Cloze test | 8 |  |
| (8) Synonyms/explaining words | 2 | 1 |
| Using the word | 4 | 1 |
| Grouping words <br> (1) Collocations |  |  |
| (3) Hyponymy |  | 26 |
| (4) Odd man out | 81 | 228 |
| (5) Antonyms |  |  |
| Other exercises |  |  |
| (d) Questions |  |  |
| Total |  |  |

Under the category getting the word form, Stairs has a lot of exercises called 'word search'. The only type of exercise under getting the word meaning is matching English and Norwegian words. This is a way of controlling if the pupils have got the exact meaning of a word. Both series have plenty of such exercises.

In both A New Scoop and Stairs the majority of exercises fall under the category
consolidating form and meaning. Stairs has a lot of crossword puzzles while A New Scoop has none. Stairs also has a lot of exercises where the pupils are asked to match symbols and words, whereas A New Scoop has only one. Both series have plenty of cloze tests. A New Scoop has 23 exercises where the pupils are asked to find synonyms or explain the meaning of words. This is a very good way of checking the pupils' vocabulary.

The category using the word is left out altogether because exercises that fall under this category mainly involve producing sentences or writing a story. A New Scoop has some activities under grouping words. Collocations, odd man out, and antonyms are represented.

Stairs had one exercise under hyponymy and one under antonyms. In the category other exercises, Stairs had 26 exercises that I have labelled 'questions'.

As mentioned above, the Stairs web site has a higher number than A New Scoop of exercises concerned with vocabulary both under 'Exercises' and 'Grammar'. It may seem a little strange that 'Grammar' actually had more exercises on vocabulary than the entry that claimed to deal with vocabulary, but I think this shows how closely related grammar and vocabulary are within a language. It may also show that vocabulary often is not seen as a separate language skill, but is treated together with other language skills, as here, in this case, grammar.

Another question of interest is whether the publishers take advantage of the opportunity to give quick updates, or the fact that they are dealing with an interactive medium? Stairs has taken the advantage of making an interactive web site by alternating the tasks which makes it more exciting for the pupils. Apart from that, I have not detected any changes on the web sites. There are some restrictions as to what kinds of exercises you can have on a web site. This might also be the reason why you do not to find the same variety of exercises as in the workbooks. Still, I think it is a very motivating way of practising vocabulary. The pupils can work at their own level and speed which is in accordance with the aims of LK06.

On the web sites Scoop Universe and Stairs, the authors have been able to make good connections to the course books by using the texts in the textbooks as sources for the tasks. In the case of Stairs, the levels of proficiency the pupils recognise from the text book. It is important not to have too many tasks that are drills because it might lead to the pupils getting bored. According to Heian and Pettersen (2003), the tasks should also be problem-solving in nature. The web site of Talking English is useful, but not as engaging as the other ones for the pupils. I think the pupils find it more interesting when there is a connection between the textbook, workbook, and the web site.

Although it takes a lot of resources to make and update a web site the aims in LK06 about using digital tools are so clear that the publisher should do what they can to follow up the aims. The teachers have no use for a web site that does not work. Talking English has not even finished their web site. This does not give a good impression of the status of the web site.

The use of web sites as a teaching aid is relatively new, and I can see that the publishers have a lot to learn in order to make the most out of the opportunities such a tool gives them. They should update the web sites regularly; bring news, authentic material for reading which is easily available from a lot of English speaking countries around the world. The publisher
has unlimited opportunities when it comes to creating web sites. After talking to the publishers about this component of the course books, it seems to me that money is one of the main factors that limit the development of the web sites. It would also have been very interesting to find out to what degree the web sites are used in teaching. Do schools have sufficient computers facilities that enable them to use the web sites as teaching aids in the way presupposed by LK06?

Teachers should also know about some of the most important resources that are available on-line to encourage their pupils to learn more words outside the classroom. The amount of resources available on-line can feel nearly unlimited, so I think the most important thing is to give teachers an overview, as Talking English has done. They have selected a number of online resources they find useful for learners at this stage. It is also very important that the links given are actually working. Aud Marit Simensen (2007) gives a useful and updated overview of on-line resources available.

## 6. Summary and conclusion

In this chapter, I will sum up some of the main points from chapter 1-4 and give a more extensive summary of chapter 5 . I will make a claim for the need for future vocabulary studies and make suggestions for writers of future textbooks for English as a subject in primary school.

As mentioned in the introduction, the purpose of this thesis is to discuss how vocabulary is treated in various approaches to EFL teaching in Norwegian curricula of English, in current L2 research, and finally in three Norwegian course books.

Chapter 1 gives an overview of the thesis. Material and method are described. I have brought up some introductory questions about vocabulary in textbooks. The terminology is given attention in order to clarify the use of terms in the thesis. The concept of 'word' is defined as a lexical item which embraces the various orthographic, phonological, grammatical and semantic properties of a word.

The focus of chapter 2 is on the historical perspective and the treatment of vocabulary as a linguistic component within the various approaches to language teaching. This historical outline shows that vocabulary as a language component has been frequently ignored in L2 teaching. Some teaching methods realised that vocabulary was an important element of a language, e.g. the direct method, the audio-lingual method, and CLT, but common to these methods is that they assume vocabulary to develop naturally as long as the students are exposed to sufficient input. Based on this, we may say that the teaching of vocabulary has been a non-topic unlike, for example, the teaching of grammar.

In chapter 3 some current trends and the state-of-the-arts of vocabulary teaching are presented as described by theorists such as Nation, Hatch and Brown, Schmitt, Nunan, Carter, Lewis and others. I have included the topics that are relevant for this thesis and discussed such concepts as implicit and explicit vocabulary learning, five essential steps in vocabulary learning, computer corpora, frequency and coreness, collocations and fixed expressions, learning strategies, and finally the use of games for presentation and revision of vocabulary. The chapter argues that one of the reasons for the flourishing interest in vocabulary during the past 20 years is that educationalists have realised that implicit learning, i.e. guessing unknown words, is not a good method for increasing and consolidating vocabulary for L2 learners.

Hence, the focus of the chapter is explicit vocabulary learning and teaching, that is, learning and teaching which is intended by teachers or learners or both.

The five essential steps of vocabulary learning described in chapter 3 are based on the model by Hatch and Brown(1995) shown in figure 1, and include the following steps: encountering new words, getting the word form, getting the word meaning, consolidating form and meaning in memory, and using the word. The last four of these steps also form the basis for the analysis of my material in chapter 5.

Computer corpora have played an important role in the increasing interest in vocabulary because they give us the opportunity to store and systematise material and words quickly and inexpensively. These corpora give us information about how frequently a word is used in English and suggest how often the learner can expect to come across a particular word. Such information can be used, among other things, to determine how useful a particular word is to a learner. However, frequency is not necessarily the only criterion for selecting a learner's vocabulary. Other factors also need to be taken into account when deciding what kinds of words will be useful for a learner of English.

Another type of information relevant to teaching which can be found in computerised language corpora is how words collocate, i.e. what other words they frequently co-occur with. Because some collocations are so tightly connected, they are considered of great importance for the language learner in order to obtain fluency in the L2. Fixed expressions are often the premise for an idiomatic language which, again, is crucial for fluency. The language may appear more predictable to the learner if they are familiar with collocations and fixed expressions.

In section 3.7 I make a distinction between comprehension activities and consolidation activities. Comprehension activities are further divided into expository approaches and discovery approaches. The first type of approach is only touched upon briefly while the last is discussed in detail, including activities such as cloze test, words-in-context and context enrichment. The section of consolidation activities includes a discussion of various activities which can help the student to create associative links between words, and through that, facilitate the memorising of new words. The activities discussed are simple word association, grouping words, making finer distinctions between words, connecting words in collocations, ranking and rating and the keyword method.

One central element present in international literature and in LK06 is the importance of explicit focus on learning strategies. I find that focus on learning strategies is what is lacking in the course books in my analysis. There is no focus on learner strategies for acquiring new
words in any of the text books. In two of the teacher's guides, I found something about learner strategies, e.g. section 5.2.4 in Stairs, but strategies for learning new words are not mentioned here. In A New Scoop, the authors state that the pupils should get help to develop their own strategies for learning a language and to become 'life-long’ learners, but nothing is said about how to develop various learner strategies or what kind of strategies pupils at this age are expected to manage. The pupils’ consciousness about their own learning is taken seriously in this series, but learner strategies are given any specific attention. Talking English also has a lot of methods for working with new words but again, nothing is said about learner strategies. Also, no theory presented to the teacher.

In my opinion Talking English is the series that would work best for a well-educated teacher in English. The whole series is very much based on the teacher as the leader and coordinator. The pupils cannot work as independently as they can in the other series, because they need instructions from their teacher as they go along. Nevertheless, many of the activities mentioned in chapter 3 are present in the course books. Stairs, on the other hand, claims that the pupils must work with explicit learning of new words. They divide the learning into two phases. In the first phase, the pupils have to understand the new word, and in the second phase, the pupils should consolidate their vocabulary by using the new words in different contexts. This is the only place in any of the teacher's guides with some theoretical background on the learning of new words. It is not much, but maybe this chapter could be developed in a new edition to include some more useful information on the topic. The other teacher's guides contain numerous suggestions on how to do things but do not explain why those particular methods have been chosen.

I think some theory would lighten the burden for the teacher and give more insight into what they are actually doing. Even though Stairs mentions two phases of learning a new word, there is no information in any of the books about the five essential steps of learning a new word, as discussed in sections 3.3.1-3.3.5, or about the fact that different vocabularylearning strategies can be applied in order to increase and consolidate new vocabulary.

As shown in section ..., 'knowledge of one's own learning' is an important area of learning a new language in LK06. This is taken seriously in all three course books. The pupils are asked to fill in forms where they answer questions about their own learning of a new language. A New Scoop has a 'Can do checklist' at the end of every unit to help each pupil to say something about their own development in learning a new language. It helps them focus on what they master. Talking English has a 'File' which is supposed to include documentation on every pupil's development, interests and knowledge of the language. Stairs has tests at the
end of each chapter to show what the pupils should master after having worked through the specific chapter. The tests are meant to be tools for evaluating the pupils’ development.

Stairs is the only series that has marked the texts and exercises with levels. This is also a way of making the pupils conscious their own level. The tests are divided according to the levels in the course book, so the pupils can choose a test at the same level as they work on in the course book.

The development of material for evaluation of the pupils is something completely new in these course books. I have not seen it in earlier course books for pupils in this age group, and the authors have helped the teacher a lot by developing this kind of material, which is useful, and a good way of making the pupils conscious about their own learning. It gets them engaged in describing their work with a new language.

The glossaries in the three text books discussed in chapter 5 showed that there was some variation as to the number and types of words in the three books. The number of words in the glossaries varied a lot. This makes me wonder about the situation after year 7 when pupils using these course books might be placed in the same group in lower secondary school. Nothing is said about the criteria for choice of words in the glossaries for the three textbooks. After a close study of the glossaries, I find the choice of words quite random. The same topic - time and seasons of the year - is glossed with 107 words in A New Scoop, 92 words in Stairs and 26 in Talking English. No word is found in all three books. Maybe it would be a good suggestion for the curriculum to give some guidance as to what words to include? As mentioned in section 4.2, the curriculum of 1957 had such wordlists.

The selection and number of exercises in the workbooks do not vary to the same extent as the glossaries. After studying LK06, it appears to me that vocabulary has received more attention than it did in the previous curriculum. The aims seem clear and more specific than earlier, but there is no explanation of how to reach them. One of the aims for year 7 is that the pupils should be able to 'give examples of various ways of learning English words and expressions’ (LK06: 5). The authors of the course books do not have any guidelines to follow as far as types of exercises and strategies for learning new words are concerned. This may lead to quite different ways of presenting the material to the pupils depending on the teachers, their competence, and the choice of course book. After analysing the three course books, it surprised me that the number and types of exercises did not vary that much. There were a relatively high number of exercises dealing with vocabulary in all three series. Furthermore, the authors have managed to give an impressive variety of exercises to practise the different 'steps' in learning a word. The analysis of the various types of exercises shows that all the
five essential steps of learning a word are represented in all books, i.e. encountering new words, getting the word form, getting the word meaning, consolidating word form and meaning in memory, and using the word. Talking English has no exercises on grouping words (cf. table L), but apart from that, every category of exercises is found in all three course books.

The attention given to vocabulary varies in the three teacher's guides. In A New Scoop, the teacher's guide has no separate unit on vocabulary. Stairs teacher's guide on the other hand, has two full pages. I find the exercise 'Work on the text' in Talking English interesting. A separate task is given after some of the texts where the pupils work with learning words individually. This is a kind of exercise I have not found in any of the other course books. In order to make the pupils conscious about what they are doing, the teacher should teach the pupils about learner strategies, in order that the pupils could benefit more from working independently with words. The pupils would definitely be better prepared for this type of exercise if they had some knowledge about learner strategies and could tell what kind of strategy they use in selecting and learning words. I think it would also be useful for the pupils to learn about the five essential steps for learning a new word at this age. They could use this competence for the rest of their lives and benefit from it outside the classroom.

The amount of exercises in the work books does not seem to reflect the attention given to vocabulary in the teacher's guides. The variation between the three books in percentage is small, considering the total number of exercises. The exercises in the three books could have been introduced by informing the pupils what purpose a particular exercise serves, and what strategies they need to employ when working through it. It might also be a good idea to make the pupils aware that there are several ways of going about memorising new vocabulary. Besides, the pupils should be given a chance to test and compare various strategies in order to find the ones that work best for them. It is not enough simply to ask the pupils to choose one or two out of several exercises. Teaching them strategies for learning also provides them with tools that are useful when they encounter unknown words outside the classroom.

In conclusion, I find that there are more didactic principles and explicit reasons stated for the choices made in A New Scoop and Stairs. The authors of A New Scoop make clear that their didactic platform is Communicative Language Teaching, as stated in LK06. Since A New Scoop is a revised series, the authors have the advantage of picking the best from their old book, improving it and adding material to make it comply with the curriculum LK06. Stairs also give their reasons for choices with reference to LK06. They mention explicitly the aims of the curriculum and how they have dealt with the different topics in their series. Talking

English presents no theoretical platform or any mention of LK06 at all, and they do not refer to any teaching methods. The authors base their book on six 'cornerstones' they think are important when learning a new language. Language learning in this book is based on fun and pair work, and not as much on individual practice. Most of the teaching is based on the teacher as the leader and the pupils following the instructions given by him or her. It seems to me that this series is not that easy to use if the teacher wants the pupils to work independently with learning new words. The instructions and exercises in A New Scoop and Stairs are more open to pupils working independently and at their own speed. This is in accordance with LK06 and underlines how the pupils should be conscious about their own learning and work at their own level. The division of levels in Stairs is, in my opinion, an excellent way of showing the pupils the level of difficulty of the exercises they are doing. It is also very hard work for the teacher if he or she is responsible for giving all the instructions as the pupils go along in their workbooks. Clear instructions in the workbooks help the pupils to work individually.

Variation is also a clue. The pupils should not get bored by too many exercises that look exactly the same. This is a complex issue, because for the weaker pupils, exercises that are familiar to them feel safe. For the stronger pupils, variety is more challenging.

As far as the web sites are concerned, they emphasise learning and consolidation of vocabulary along the same lines as the work books do. My analysis deals with A New Scoop and Stairs only, as Talking English is too different from the others to be included in the comparison. The figures for the different categories do not vary much from those of the work books, but the tasks were a little different because they have to be interactive. The web sites give a great opportunity for the pupils to work on their own and vary the way they go about learning a new language. The pupils can also access the web sites from their own computers, and I think teaching the pupils about different sources for learning a new language is an important part of the teacher's job. In our multi-media world it is good to have some guidance to sources that are useful for language learning on the internet, and avoid those that are not serious, or of poor quality.

Chapter 5 is a theoretical analysis of the treatment of vocabulary in Norwegian course books for the subject English in year 5. I will emphasise 'theoretical analysis' because it has been beyond the scope of my thesis to investigate how the books function in practice, and the position and role these books have in Norwegian schools. These questions would have been very interesting and are issues which need to be taken seriously in future studies. As far as I know, no larger studies exist on the use of course books for teaching vocabulary in primary
school. This does not mean that primary school is less important. On the contrary, I think years 1-7 are very important because this is where the pupils lay the foundations for further learning, and a good basis is often decisive for the pupils' attitude towards learning a new language. I cannot find any studies of how teachers feel about and deal with the teaching of vocabulary. What are the teachers' opinions of their course books, and to what extent do they follow the textbooks? These are questions it would have been very interesting to find more about. As I have pointed out several times in this thesis, Norwegian teachers have next to no guidelines for dealing with vocabulary. Some research on vocabulary has been done in Britain and in the US, but 'The tentativeness and inclusiveness of much of the research [...] indicates the extent to which vocabulary still remains a neglected aspect of language learning’ (Carter 1998: 205).

After this, we may ask ourselves what can be done to improve the state of affairs in course books written for primary school. In my opinion, a lot can be done with the content of the teacher’s guides. In Stairs Teacher’s Guide, the two pages on vocabulary could easily have been expanded to cover more background material for the teacher. In A New Scoop, a few lines about vocabulary tell the teacher what the authors think about the treatment of new words in the course book. I think things are left in the hands of the teachers too much, especially if the teacher has little experience in teaching English or lacks academic specialization in English. A suggestion would be to supply the teachers with more extensive and more theoretical teacher's guides. Most teachers would probably find current theory on L2 teaching both useful and interesting.

As I have pointed out before, it is important to be aware of the use of the resources available on the internet. Links are given to many excellent web sites on Talking English, and the site has an almost unlimited numbers of exercises. The pupils can learn and practise vocabulary at their own speed and level. The authors of the other series might also have mentioned some web sites for further work on various topics. There are so many to choose from, and I, for one, would be very pleased if the authors of course books gave some suggestions for teachers about which web sites to look at in connection with various topics.

The authors of course books for primary school in Norway have a lot of influence on how the subject English is presented to the pupils. A report from the Council for Education states that 50 \% of the teachers in years 1-7 lack a specialization in English (Bredeveien: 2007). The situation in Norwegian primary school is that many teachers have no special training in English and tend to follow the book. Studies have shown that English is a subject where the
teachers follow the course books to a high degree (Bachmann: 2004). This is an important reminder for the publishers when they select material for course books.

I would like to give a quotation by Nation as a reminder as far as vocabulary is concerned: 'Vocabulary learning cannot be left to itself. It needs to be strengthened by careful planning and well-directed teaching' (Nation 2003: 150)

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## List of abbreviations

ESL English as a second language
EFL English as a foreign language
L1 First language
L2 Second language
TB Textbook
WB Workbook
NFB Normalplan for byfolkeskolen
LFN Læreplan for forsøk med niårig skole
FNG Forslag til normalplan for grunnskolen
M74 Mønsterplanen for grunnskolen
M87 Mønsterplanen 1987
L97 The Curriculum for the 10 year compulsory school
LK06 The Quality Framework in Knowledge Promotion

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#### Abstract

The topic for the thesis is vocabulary as a linguistic component in L2 teaching in Norway. The material for the analysis is three course books for year 5 and Norwegian curricula. In order to see the Norwegian textbooks for the teaching of English in a larger perspective, I give attention to teaching methods and theoretical perspectives. The objective of the thesis is to find out how the authors of textbooks have treated vocabulary and how they emphasize the learning of new words. What kind of exercises do they include in their books, and what is the reason for their choice of vocabulary? Are the textbooks in accordance with the latest curriculum of 2006 (LK06)?

The textbooks for the analyses are A New Scoop (published by Det Norske Samlaget), Stairs (Cappelen) and Talking English (Aschehoug/GAN). After a detailed reading of LK06 it seems to me that vocabulary has more focus than what has been the situation in the latest curricula. The consciousness about how to learn new words is as important as what words are being taught in the context of life long learning. Mastering words for communicative needs is seen as important. Vocabulary is mentioned in all Competence Aims.

A comparison of the glossaries in the textbooks shows that there is some variation as to the number and types of words in the three books. The number of words in the glossaries varies quite a lot. The selection and number of exercises in the workbooks do not vary to the same extent. There are a relatively high number of exercises dealing with vocabulary in all three series. Furthermore, the authors have managed to give an impressive variety of exercises to practise the different steps in knowing a word. All five essential steps of learning a word are represented in each series. The web sites emphasise learning and consolidation of vocabulary along the same lines as the workbooks do.

I find that there are more didactic principles and reasons stated for the choices made in $A$ New Scoop and Stairs. Talking English presents no theoretical platform or any mention of LK06 at all. In my study of the teacher's guides I find some information that can be helpful for the teachers in presenting new words but I think many teachers would profit if the authors had included some theory on the vocabulary teaching. As I have shown in my study, research on the use of textbooks in Norway show that teachers of English tend to follow the book to a large extent. This is a proof of the importance of good textbooks.


## Abstract in Norwegian

Oversatt til norsk er oppgavens tittel: Vokabular som en lingvistisk komponent $i$ fremmedspråksundervisning. En analyse av tre lcereverk for femte trinn i Norge. Materialet for analysen er tre serier for femte trinn og norske fagplaner for undervisning av engelsk. For å kunne se de norske tekstbøkene for undervisning av engelsk i et større perspektiv er undervisningsmetoder og teoretiske perspektiver viet oppmerksomhet. Formålet med oppgaven er å finne ut hvordan forfattere av engelskverk har behandlet vokabular og hvordan de vektlegger læring av nye ord. Hva slags type oppgaver inkluderer de i bøkene sine, og hva er begrunnelsen for valget av gloser? Er verkene i overenskomst med den siste fagplanen fra 2006 (Kunnskapsløftet)?

Bokverkene for analysen er A New Scoop (utgitt av Det Norske Samlaget), Stairs (Cappelen) og Talking English (Aschehoug/GAN). En detaljert studie av LK06 viser at vokabular har større fokus enn hva som har vært situasjonen i de foregående fagplanene. Bevisstheten om hvordan man lærer nye ord er vel så viktig som hvilke ord, i forhold til livslang læring. Vokabular er nevnt under alle Kompetansemål.

En sammenligning av ordlistene i tekstbøkene viser at det er en del variasjon i forhold til antall og type ord som er inkludert i de tre bøkene. Antall ord i ordlistene varierer ganske mye. Utvalget og antallet av oppgaver i arbeidsbøkene varierer ikke i samme grad. Det er et relativt stort antall oppgaver som omhandler vokabular i alle tre bøkene. Videre har forfatterne laget et imponerende utvalg av oppgaver som trener elevene i de ulike trinnene som inngår i å lære et ord. De fem essensielle trinn av å lære et ord er representert i alle verkene. Internettsidene vektlegger læring og konsolidering av ord på samme måte som i arbeidsbøkene.

Jeg finner flere didaktiske prinsipper og begrunnelser for valg i New Scoop og Stairs. Talking English presenterer ingen teoretisk plattform eller referanse til LK06. I studien av lærerveiledninger finner jeg en del informasjon som kan være nyttig for læreren ved presentasjon av nye ord, men jeg tror mange lærere vil ha glede av at forfatterne inkluderer noe teori om undervisning av vokabular. Som jeg har omtalt i studien viser forskning at norske lærere i engelsk har en tendens til å følge læreboka i stor grad. Dette er et bevis på betydningen av lærebøker.

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## Appendix 1 Simple word association activity (Simensen 2007: 225)

The students are asked to write down everything the word makes them think of as quickly as possible.

1. City
2. Countryside
3. Apartment
4. Skyscraper
5. Neighbour

Appendix 2 Distinguishing between words within a topic (Simensen 2007: 226)

| Curriculum | Neurotic | Library | Accountant |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Anxious | Head-master | Syllabus | Accomodation |
| Nursery | Form | Mark | Educator |
| Ignorant | Subject | Hospitable | Physical education |
| Obedient | Grade | Typist | Campus |
| Bleak | Illerate | Award | Establishment |

Appendix 3 Placing words in a mind map (Simensen 2007: 226)




Appendix 5 Ranking words along different scales (Simensen 2007: 229)
ant, beetle, butterfly, wasp, lion, elephant, snake, giraffe

| fast | $\square$ | slow |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| small | $\square$ | large |
| silent | $\square$ | noisy |
| pleasant | $\square$ | unpleasant |

## Appendix 6 A comparison between word lists for the letter ' $r$ ' in the

 textbooks| A New Scoop rabbit race railway rain rather ray reach read ready real record recorder relax remember repeat reporter respect rest result ribbon riddle ride right ring ripe rise river roar rock rocket roll room rotten rough round row rubber rubbish rucksack rule ruler run | Stairs <br> race <br> radish <br> rage <br> raise <br> rather <br> ready <br> really <br> referee <br> remember <br> rent <br> require <br> reservation <br> right by <br> right <br> ripped <br> robber <br> Rolling pin <br> rotten <br> rub <br> rum | Talking English <br> rabbits <br> rainbow <br> raisins <br> rapid writing <br> rearrange <br> recess <br> refrain <br> relaxing <br> remind <br> rent <br> repay <br> resolution <br> rest <br> restless <br> reward <br> rhinoceros <br> rhyme <br> rhythm <br> ribbons <br> river <br> roast fowl <br> roll call <br> room <br> rosebud <br> rotation <br> row |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

Appendix 7 A comparison between word lists for the letter 'l' in the textbooks

| A New Scoop | Stairs | Talking English |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lady | ladder | Lake |
| Language | lad | Landmark |
| Lane | lake | Landowner |
| Landingship | lamb | Lay |
| Lantern | lamppost | Lazy |
| last | land | Legend |
| Late | large | leap year |
| Later | last year | Leaves |
| Laugh | late | Licking |
| Launch | latrine | Lid |
| Laundry | leap | Lips |
| Lawn | leave | Little Red Riding Hood |
| Lay | left | Log |
| Leaf | left-handed | look of determination |
| Learn | lemonade | Loud |
| Leather | lesson | Lullaby |
| Leave | let |  |
| Leap | let's |  |
| Left | let's go |  |
| Leg | lettuce |  |
| Lemon | light |  |
| Lend | likely |  |
| Lesson | line |  |
| Let | liniment |  |
| Letter | listen |  |
| Lettuce | liver |  |
| Lick | lizard |  |
| Lie | lodge |  |
| Life | look |  |
| life-jacket | look forward to |  |
| Lift | lose |  |
| Light | lost |  |
| Lightening | lousy |  |
| Like | lucky |  |
| Lily | lumpy |  |
| Lion | lunch |  |
| Listen | lurk |  |
| Little |  |  |
| Live |  |  |
| living-room |  |  |
| Log |  |  |
| Lollipop |  |  |
| Long |  |  |
| Look |  |  |
| Lorry |  |  |
| lots of |  |  |
| Love |  |  |
| Lovely |  |  |
| Lover |  |  |
| Lucky |  |  |
| Luggage |  |  |

## Appendix 8 Vocabulary exercises on the web site Scoop Universe

| Main type of exercise | Subtype of exercise | Where to find it | Number of tasks |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Getting the word form | Spelling (alter the letters) | Numbers (FI, Warming Up) | 1 |
| Getting the word meaning | Matching the English and the Norwegian word This matching can be translations either from Norwegian to English or from English to Norwegian. (the alternatives are given) | Can you write the word in English (MCT, Warming up),Tb.p. 18 (FC,U1), <br> Tb.p. 13 (FC,U1), Tb.p. 12 <br> (MCT, U1), Tb.p. 38-39 <br> (FC,U2), Tb.p. 27 <br> (FC,U2), Tb.p. 44-45 <br> (FC,U3), Tb.p. 52 (FC, <br> U3), Tb.p. 67 (FC,U4), <br> Words about travel(1 and <br> 2)(FC,U5), Tb.p. 80 <br> (FC,U5), Tb.p. 81 <br> (FC,U5), Tb.p. 82-83 <br> (FC,U5), Tb.p. 98 <br> (FC,U6), Tb.p. 101 <br> (FC,U6), Some words in <br> U6 (Level 1, 2 and <br> 3)(FC,U6), Tb.p. 120 <br> (FC,U7) | 17 |
| Consolidating form and meaning | Cloze test <br> The pupils are to fill in the correct words without any given alternatives. | Tb.p. 20 (FI,U1), Tb.p. 2425 (FI,U2), Tb.p. 32 (FI,U2), Tb.p.38-39 (FI,U2), Tb.p.30-31 (FI,U2), Tb.p. 33 (FI,U2), Tb.p.44-45 (FI,U3), Tb.p. 43 (FI,U3), Tb.p.4849(FI,U3), Tb.p.54-55 (FI,U3), Tb.p.69-71 (FI,U4), Tb.p. 75 (FI,U5), Tb.p. 78 (FI,U5),Tb.p. 81 (FI,U5), Tb.p.82-83 (FI,U5), Tb.p. 93 (FI,U6), Tb.p.94(FI,U6), Tb.p. 98 (FI,U6), Tb.p. 102 (FI,U6), Tb.p. 104 (FI,U6), Tb.p. 109 (FI,U7), Tb.p.118-119 (FI,U7), Tb.p.124-125 (FI,U7) | 23 |
|  | Matching symbols and words | Tb.p. 75 (FC,U5) | 1 |
|  | Antonyms | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Tb.p.12 (FF,U1), Tb.p.87- } \\ & 89 \text { (FC,U5), Tb.p. } 105 \\ & \text { (FC,U6), Tb.p. } 126 \\ & \text { (FC,U7) } \end{aligned}$ | 4 |
|  | Synonyms/explaining words | Tb.p. 8 (MCT,U1), Tb.p. 20 (FF,U1), Tb.p.30-31 (FC,U2), Tb.p. 32 (FC,U2), Tb.p. 42 (FC;U3), Tb.p. 43 (FC,U3), Tb.p. 50 (FC,U3), Tb.p.69-71 (FC,U4), Tb.p. 78 (FC,U5), Tb.p. 79 (FC,U5), Tb.p.82-83 (FC,U5), Tb.p.84-85 | 23 |


|  |  | (FC,U5), Tb.p.87-89 <br> (FC,U5), Tb.p. 94 (FC,U6), <br> Tb.p. 96-97 (FC,U6), <br> Tb.p. 98 (FC,U6), Tb.p. 100 <br> (FC;U6), Tb.p. 102 <br> (FC,U6), Tb.p.124-125 <br> (FC,U7), Tb.p. 108 <br> (FC,U7), Tb.p.118-119 <br> (FC,U7), Tb.p. 121 <br> (FC,U7), Tb.p. 122 <br> (FC,U7) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Using the word |  |  |  |
| Grouping words | Collocation | Tb.p. 5 (FC,Warming up), Tb.p.44-45 (FC,U3), Tb.p.48-49 (FC,U3), Tb.p. 59 (FC,U4), Tb.p.6366 (FC,U4), Tb.p. 109 (FC,U7), Tb.p. 113 (FC,U7), Where do the words belong (FC,U7) | 8 |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | Odd man out | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Tb.p. } 95 \text { (FI,U6), TB:P:101 } \\ & \text { (FI,U6) } \end{aligned}$ | 2 |

On Scoop Universe there are no letters or numbers used to refer to the tasks. I have chosen to use the references in the textbook and the group of exercise and what unit the task belongs to, in order to find the task on the website. The reference to a task is given by indicating the page number in the Textbook, and in brackets I have put what kind of task it is, and what unit it belongs to. There are 7 units, which I have given the numbers U1-U7. Each unit has exercises organised under up to five headings. These are: Multiple choice tasks (MCT), fact connections (FC), fill in (FI), fact files (FF) and easy versions (EV).

## Appendix 9 Vocabulary exercises on the web site for Stairs

$\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|}\hline \begin{array}{l}\text { Main type of } \\ \text { exercise }\end{array} & \text { Subtype of exercise } & \text { Where to find it } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Number } \\ \text { of tasks }\end{array} \\ \hline \begin{array}{l}\text { Getting the } \\ \text { word form }\end{array} & \text { Word search } & \text { 2(C1,ES2), 1(C1,GS3), 1(C3,ES2),1(C4,ES1), } & 35 \\ & & \text { 1(C3,ES3), 2(C4,ES1), 4(C4,ES2), 1(C4,GS3), } & \\ & & \text { 2(C5,ES1), 3(C5,ES2), 3(C5,ES3), 1(C5,GS1), }\end{array}\right]$

| form and meaning |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 1(C4,GS1), 3(C2,GS1), 2(C4,GS2), 1(C5,ES1), } \\ & \text { 1(C5,ES2), 1(C5,ES3),2(C6,ES1), 1(C6,ES3), } \\ & \text { 1(C6,GS1), 1(C6,GS3) } \end{aligned}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Matching symbols/drawings and words | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 7(C1,ES1), 7(C1,ES2), 1(C1,ES3), 3(C1, ES3), } \\ & \text { 8(C1,GS1), 4(C1,GS2), 4(C1,GS3), 7(C3,ES1), } \\ & \text { 4(C3,ES2), 4(C3,ES3), 2(C3,GS1), 2(C3,GS3), } \\ & \text { 1(C4,GS2), 1(C4,GS3), 2(C5,ES1), 2(C6,ES2), } \\ & \text { 1(C6,GS1) } \end{aligned}$ | 60 |
|  | Crossword puzzle | 2(C1,ES2), 2(C1,GS2), 2(C1,GS3), 2(C4,ES2), 1(C3,ES2), 2(C3,ES3), 3(C5,ES1), 2(C5,ES2), 2(C5,ES3);2(C6,ES1), 1(C6,ES2), 1(C6,ES3) | 22 |
| Grouping words | Antonyms | 1(C5,GS3) | 1 |
|  | Hyponymy | 1(C1,GS1), | 1 |
| Other exercises | Questions | 1(C1,ES2), 1(C1,ES3), 1(C1,GS1), 1(C1,GS2), <br> 1(C1,GS3), 1(C3,ES1), 1(C3,ES2), 1(C3,ES3), <br> 1(C4,ES1), 2(C4,ES2),2(C5,ES1), 2(C5,ES2), <br> 3(C6,ES1), 6(C6,ES2), 2(C6,ES3) | 26 |

I have grouped the exercises in the same way as I did with the ones from Scoop Universe. When it comes to where to find it, I have counted the number of exercises under each category, and pointed out in which chapter (C) the exercises are found, and whether they belong to the category Exercises (E) or Grammar (G). I have further indicated which step (S) they belong to. The numbers outside the brackets indicate the number of exercises, and in the brackets I have indicated chapter, group of exercises and level of difficulty.

## Appendix 10 Some examples on exercises found on the website for Talking

## English

| Main type of exercise | Subtype of exercise | Where to find it |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Getting the word form |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Getting the word meaning |  |  |
|  |  | $3(1)$, |
| Consolidating form and meaning | Match the words with the pictures | $1(1), 2(1), 1(2), 3(2)$, |
|  | Crossword puzzle |  |
| Using the word |  | $1(3), 2(3)$, |
| Other exercises | Grouping words | $4(3)$, |
|  | Synonyms |  |

I have given the exercises numbers according to where they are placed on the list, and in the brackets I have indicated under which chapter they are found.

Appendix 11 Exercise A23 A New Scoop Workbook p. 23

## A clothes crossword



These words will help you:
sweater trousers blouse

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { jacket } \\
& \text { skirt } \\
& \text { shoes }
\end{aligned}
$$

shirt
shorts
tie

Appendix 12 List of symbols used in Talking English p. 2


Spille og leke
[8.2. Snakke
( 亿 Lytte
W. Arbeide med ord

ใ. Løse problemer
Co Lese og forstå
Skrive

Appendix 13 Picture Dictionary 9(12) in Talking English p. 12


Appendix 14 Work on the text 2(52) in Talking English p. 52

V

## 2 Work on the text

Work on your own
Choose and write down six words that you would like to learn.

Why did you choose these words?
Make up sentences using two of the words.

Translate the remaining words into Norwegian.

Appendix 15 Word Box 11(13) in Talking English p. 13
W1 11 Word Box


What are you wearing today?

- Today I'm wearing a cap.


Appendix 16 Match text and pictures in Talking English p. 22

## $0_{9}$ Match text and pictures

Work on your own
1 It's four o'clock. Oh, there's my bus.
2 It's half past four. I must do my homework. 3 It's a quarter past three.
It's time for me to play the piano.
4 It's half past ten. We have our morning break now. 5 It's nine o'clock. I'm late for my first lesson. 6 It's a quarter to nine. Bedtime!


A


C


E


B


D


F

Appendix 17 Exercise 57 from A New Scoop Workbook p. 57

## The sport and activity centre

Do you know the names of all these sports and activities? Read and draw lines!


## Can you write it?

A Write the word.

$B$ Write the right sentence.


Mark is $\qquad$
$\qquad$

Mary is
Mary is riding a horse.
Mary is dancing.
Mary is swimming.


Appendix 19 Exercise 50(31) from Stairs Workbook p. 31

## Thapter 3

## fleyear round

## What time is it?

50 Skriv klokkeslettene under klokkene.
Eksempel: It is a quarter past one.


## Appendix 20 Exercise 46(29) in Stairs Workbook p. 29

## Acting:

Textbook page 35
46 Skriv ordene som mangler.
I want to be a $\qquad$ ! I'll $\qquad$ all of you! Mirror,
on the wall, who is the $\qquad$ of them all?

To be or not $\qquad$ ! I want to be $\qquad$ !

I want to be a $\qquad$ ! I love $\qquad$ .

I want to be an $\qquad$ when I grow up. I want to play

Appendix 21 Exercise 81(48) in Stairs Workbook p. 48


81 Skriv fem setninger om hva du liker å gjare om vinteren. Eksempel: I like skiing.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

## Appendix 22 Exercise 15(11) in Stairs Workbook p. 11

## 15 Skriv hvilke klar som

 passer til de ulike årstidene.Bruk disse ordene, og flere hvis du kan: scarf, hat, raincoat, wellingtons, jeans, swimming costume,
 sunglasses, boots, shoes, sandals, sweater, t-shirt, skirt, shorts, long underwear, dress, fleece jacket, mittens, gloves, jacket, jumper, blouse, socks, woollen socks, trousers


Appendix 23 A word search exercise 79(47) in Stairs Workbook p. 47


79 a Finn seks ord om vinter. Sett ring rundt ordene.
b Skriv ordene du fant.

Appendix 24 Exercise 48(30) in Stairs Workbook p. 30


48 Sorter ordene under riktige overskrifter.
 horse, mouse, opera, basketball, Hamlet, tragedy, swimming, dog, skiing, cat, tortoise, Annie, Guinea pig, running, parrot, handball, roles, baseball, comedy, go-carting, Cats, hockey, fish, The Jungle Book, tennis, music, budgie, drama
Sports
football
Theatre and film

Animals hamster
$\qquad$
musicals
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

## Picture dictionary



Textbook page 37
49 Skriv fire setninger om hva du kan se på bildet.
I cansee
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

Appendix 26 Grouping words 91(52) in Stairs Workbook p. 52


91 Skriv hva dyrene giør. Bruk disse verbene: runs, jumps, talks, sleeps, slides, swims, climbs, eats

The elephant $\qquad$ grass every day.

The snake $\qquad$ on the ground.

The lion $\qquad$ very fast.

The bear $\qquad$ during the winter.

The penguin $\qquad$ in the water.

The monkey $\qquad$ the trees.

The parrot $\qquad$ to me.

The kangaroo $\qquad$ up and down.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ I refer to the combined textbook and workbook as Pupil's Book.
    ${ }^{2}$ Talking English Englishcards is an addition to the basic components, and not included in my analysis.
    ${ }^{3}$ The web site for A New Scoop is called Scoop Universe, the others do not have a name.
    ${ }^{4}$ In the Norwegian context a similar way of using categories is for example to be found in Daasvand (2001).

[^1]:    5 'Meaning' is here used in an informal non-theoretical sense.

[^2]:    ${ }^{6}$ As far as I know there is no English version of this curriculum.

[^3]:    ${ }^{7}$ All quotations from the curricula LFN 1960 - M87 are my translations.

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ M87 has an English version: The Curriculum Guidelines for Compulsory Education in Norway.
    ${ }^{9}$ L97 is available in English with the title The Curriculum for the 10 year compulsory school.

[^5]:    ${ }^{10}$ LK06 is available in English as The Quality Framework in Knowledge Promotion.

[^6]:    ${ }^{11}$ Abbreviations used in the table are explained in appendix 8.

[^7]:    ${ }^{12}$ This was a little late to meet the demands for exercises, as the users would be almost finished with the school year. The teachers cannot expect to find material for all chapters as they work through the book. After a return to the web site in January 2008, there are still no tasks for the remaining four chapters.

