e-ISSN: 2279-0837, p-ISSN: 2279-0845.

www.iosrjournals.org

# The Contextualised Word Family Model of Direct Vocabulary Instruction.

# Frankie Subon

Universiti Teknologi Mara, Shah Alam, Malaysia Corresponding Author: Frankie Subon

**Abstract:** A review on direct vocabulary instruction of past studies has contributed pertinent knowledge which has led to the formulation of a new theoretical perspective and the introduction of the Contextualised Word Family (CWF) Model. This proposed model offers a rich, systematic, structured and principled strategy of vocabulary acquisition. It is developed based on pertinent steps, models and principles of effective direct vocabulary instruction as revealed in literature of past studies. This model employs word families which are vital prerequisites for learners to function effectively in all the language skills. Besides, tier two or high frequency words are used to form the word families in this present model. It also integrates a contextualised approach and a word family to explicitly teach vocabulary to second language learners to boost their vocabulary acquisition and writing skills.

**Key Words:** word family, contextualized word family, direct vocabulary instruction, <u>vocabulary size</u>, <u>vocabulary acquisition</u>

Date of Submission: 25-02-2018 Date of acceptance: 12-03-2018

\_\_\_\_\_\_

#### I. INTRODUCTION

This paper reviews literature related to direct vocabulary instruction and introduces a model known as the Contextualised Word Family (CWF) Model of direct vocabulary instruction. It is a rich, systematic, principled and structured model that integrates vocabulary teaching and learning of word families with context. Teachers can employ this model to give direct instruction of word families to learners in a second language classroom. The aim of proposing this model is to help second language learners to increase their vocabulary size and enhance their writing skills. A current study by Subon (2016; 2017) has proven that the CWF Model is effective for increasing learners' vocabulary size and their guided writing test scores despite its limitations.

#### II. A NEED FOR A DIRECT INSTRUCTION OF WORD FAMILIES

This model is introduced in response to Conan's (2010) suggestion that further research in vocabulary instruction is needed in order to determine which practices are best to use with students in the classroom. Specifically, he recommends studies comparing traditional methods of vocabulary instruction with more contemporary methods of learning such as rich instruction, using graphic organisers, mnemonic devices for learning, repetition, and learning from context will be most beneficial for practitioners in reading instruction. Moreover, scholars of second language vocabulary acquisition have uttered the need for a developmental model of vocabulary learning (Gu, 2003; Vitale & Romance, 2006). Vitale & Gu (2003) proposed a developmental model that gives more emphasis on the serious work of vocabulary acquisition rather than emphasising solely on vocabulary learning strategies. This is supported by Romance (2006) who proposed a systemic national initiative on vocabulary development that allows students to gain a greater rate of vocabulary learning. On that note, Vocabulary learning models such as Grave's Visionary Model (Grave, 2000), Frayer Model (Frayer, Frederick & Kalausmeier, 1969) and the STAR Model (Blachowicz, 2005) have emerged in the literature. However, these models did not use word families for DVI as they involved learning words in separation or individual words. Thus, this gap in literature suggests a need to explicitly teach vocabulary in word families to enhance vocabulary acquisition.

In view of the above, it is vital to identify features that characterise an effective direct vocabulary instruction, the importance of context in vocabulary instruction and then, defining the concept of word families. All this leads to the introduction of the new concept of contextualised word families and the actualisation of the Contextualised Word Family (CWF) Model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction.

DOI: 10.9790/0837-2303035770 www.iosrjournals.org 57 | Page

#### III. CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE DIRECT VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION

According to the National Reading Panel (2000) in its analysis of the research on vocabulary instruction, it discovered that there is no one best method for vocabulary instruction and it suggested that vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly. Direct vocabulary instruction means teaching specific words, such as pre-teaching vocabulary prior to a reading comprehension lesson. Besides, direct instruction can also involve the analysis of word roots and affixes (suffixes and prefixes) (Sedita, 2005). Direct vocabulary instruction has been suggested as one important means for enhancing vocabulary knowledge whereby the teacher intentionally focuses instruction on developing the students' knowledge of word meanings by targeting specific words (Biemiller, 2001; Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle, & Watts-Taffe, 2006; Robbins & Ehri, 1994). Although teaching words indirectly has equal importance with direct teaching, many studies reveal that direct or explicit instruction has positive impacts on vocabulary acquisition (Beck & McKoewn, 1991; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; Graves, 1987). There are some advantages of giving direct vocabulary instruction to students in the classroom.

First, an increase in the amount of direct vocabulary instruction will result in an increase in the number of word meanings acquired by students (Biemiller & Boote, 2006; Beck, & McKeown, 2007). Next, direct vocabulary instruction has also been proven to boost comprehension of text (National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 1999) and it is found that students who obtain the most gains in vocabulary also experience the highest gains in comprehension (Shany & Biemiller, 2010). Third, direct vocabulary instruction may benefit students with reading difficulties the most especially in their comprehension (Elleman et al., 2009). Thus, it is suggested that in early reading instruction and in reading interventions, direct vocabulary instruction can be included for students who demonstrate reading difficulties (Fisher & Blachowicz, 2005). It is approximated that students can be taught explicitly some 400 words per year in school and on average students should add 2,000 to 3,000 new words a year to their reading vocabularies (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002). Beck, McKeown and Kucan (2002) also estimated that struggling readers and low achievers learn one or two new words a day while better readers may learn as many as seven new words a day.

Direct vocabulary instruction is beneficial to help students who enter school with limited vocabulary. These students struggle with comprehension as there are too many words, facts and concepts that they cannot understand. This problem will worsen over time if they are not given vocabulary instruction in the classroom. As a result, without proper vocabulary instruction students with low vocabulary knowledge at the end of kindergarten typically translates into low vocabulary knowledge throughout their school life (Stone & Urguhart, 2008). They reason that this is because students who are lacking in everyday and academic vocabulary will ultimately experience shallow interaction with print and spoken words, get fewer job opportunities and less income. Thus, it is imperative to find out what effective strategies or approaches are effective for direct instruction as suggested by past researchers.

Traditionally, vocabulary instruction focuses more on two general approaches, namely the definitional and contextual approach. In definitional method, students are taught to look up for words in a dictionary, write down and/or memorise definitions, use the words in sentences, find synonyms and then complete worksheets or do quizzes (Shostak, 2002). Undeniably, there are some advantages of this approach. However, in order for vocabulary instruction practice to be effective, it focuses not only on the growth in word knowledge but also on the importance of impacting comprehension. Although the definitional method can be both useful and necessary, learning definitions alone can leave only a relatively superficial level of vocabulary knowledge and does not necessarily improve reading comprehension. Nagy (1988) continues to explain that although definitions can play a vital role in vocabulary instruction, learning definitions alone shows little about how a word should be actually used. Thus, in order to be effective, researchers suggest that direct vocabulary instruction should include rich contexts.

Providing a rich context is more effective than merely providing contextual clues. In the contextual approach, the teachers ask students to infer the meaning of a word by scrutinising semantic, syntactic cues in a sentence or group of words containing that word, or by examining typographic clues from charts, graphs, pictures and the like. This approach also can be useful, but it should be noted that contextual clues alone may provide only a partial meaning of a word and occasionally may even be misleading (Nagy, 1988; Beck, McKeown and McCaslin, 1983). Besides, it is found that learning vocabulary from context is not effective for poor readers as it is claimed that "... learning word meanings from context does not seem to occur with particular ease," (Biemiller 1999). One way, according to Stahl (1985, 1986) and others, to make the contextual approach more effective in helping the reader to understand the meaning of a new word is to imbed it within a rich context of supportive and indicative information.

Both the definitional and contextual approaches fit in an effective vocabulary programme (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). However, the approach to vocabulary instruction that researchers have identified as being the most successful in providing students with fuller, richer word knowledge and increasing their reading comprehension, is an eclectic, systematic one that not only involves both of these approaches, but also contains

three distinct elements: integration, repetition, and meaningful use (Nagy, 1988). A systematic vocabulary instruction must be prominent in classroom interaction (Stone & Urguhart, 2008).

The first feature of a systematic and effective instruction is integration. It means that when giving instruction, teachers must relate newly acquired words to other related words and concepts (Nagy, 1988). This is related to schema theory which requires teachers to harness the students' background knowledge when teaching them a new concept. This feature stresses on the importance of knowing the inter-relationships among words and the importance of connecting new learning concept with the students' existing knowledge. There is a better chance that the new word will be remembered later when the students store new information by linking it to their existing schema, or network of organised information (Rupley, Logan, & Nichols, 1999). In order for learning to occur, new information must be integrated with and be built upon what the student already knows (Christen & Murphy, 1991).

The second feature is repetition which emphasises on the importance of sufficient practice in using the newly learnt meanings so that the meanings can be automatically accessed during reading (Nagy, 1988). It is not enough to acquire the word meanings without practising to use them in the right contexts. Research shows that repeated encounters with new words are essential if vocabulary instruction is to have a measurable impact on reading comprehension (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986; McKeown, Beck, Omanson & Pople, 1985). Through repeated encounters or exposures of between 5-16 times (Nation, 1990), students will be able to remember and retain the acquired vocabulary in their memory and use them when needed in reading comprehension, speaking and writing. This is supported by past studies which stated that through repeated encounters with words over time in a rich oral and written contexts, learners can generate experiences and clues to the word's meaning and help them develop and change their mental structures for a word's meaning (Eller, Pappas, & Brown, 1988; Nagy, 1988; Vosniadou & Ortony, 1983). In short, repetition improves vocabulary acquisition.

The third feature, meaningful use, is related to the level of word processing needed to perform a task, or rather, the situation where students are actively engaged in using the word meanings that they have acquired (Nagy, 1988). Hence, it is imperative to make students engaged in variety of vocabulary learning activities to enable them to use the words that they have learnt in the right contexts. It is believed that the higher the level of processing, the more likely students will learn and retain word meanings (Nagy, 1988). Research indicates that when students are called upon to process information more deeply, and to make inferences based on that information, they will be more likely to retain the information (Nagy, 1988).

These analysis and synthesis of literature lead us to an important knowledge about five pertinent features of an effective strategy for direct vocabulary instruction: definitional, contextual, integration, repetition and meaningful use. Apart from these five features, the literature review by Subon (2017) has also enabled us to identify some other vital features of an effective direct vocabulary instruction by analysing the strengths and weaknesses of past steps, models and principles of direct vocabulary instruction (e.g. Marzano, Pickering & Pollock, 2001; Marzano & Pickering, 2005; Graves, 2000; Frayer et al, 1969; Blachowicz, 2005), The strengths lie on the need for students to make their own non-linguistic representations or pictures of the new vocabulary learnt (Marzano, Pickering & Pollock, 2001; Marzano & Pickering, 2005 and Frayer et al, 1969), provide a graphic organiser (Frayer et al, 1969), provide exposure in new contexts (Grave, 2000; Blachowicz 2005) and engage in varied activities (Marzano & Pickering, 2005; Graves, 2000 and Blachowicz, 2005). This is in accordance with the NRTC's (2010) claim that teachers or educators need to intentionally provide a variety of rich and robust activities for students to learn new words and their meanings to make vocabulary instruction effective. In other words, direct or explicit vocabulary teaching should be systematic, repetitive and eclectic (The National Reading Panel, 2000). This becomes the main characteristic of the present study's approach in its Contextualised Word Family Model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction.

On the other hand, it is also discovered that these past studies and existing models of direct vocabulary instruction did not use word families per se. Therefore, the present model gives emphasis to the integration of word families in its proposed CWF model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction. It is proposed that students should be given exposure to more learning opportunities through effective instructional strategies to expand their vocabulary size, to build deep levels of vocabulary knowledge, and able to use effective strategies which can help them to be independent learners in vocabulary acquisition. All of the steps and models of direct, explicit vocabulary instruction highlighted in this review used individual words but very few have used word families for their direct instruction. This becomes the most fundamental feature of the present model. Subsequently, the terms context and contextualised word family are discussed in further detail in the following sub-heading.

# IV. CONTEXT AND THE CONTEXTUALISED WORD FAMILY

Context is vital in language learning as it helps learners in understanding of word meaning. It provides the intended meanings as conveyed by a speaker or writer. With context the danger of misinterpretation can be avoided, for meaning lives in context and the context defines meaning (Xu, 2013). There are two types of

contexts i.e. learning context and language context. According to Gu (2003), learning context refers to the "learning environment which includes the teachers, the peers, the classroom climate or ethos, the family support, the social, cultural tradition of learning, the curriculum, and the availability of input and output opportunities". Next, language context refers to the textual or discoursal place in which a particular word or structure can be found. In view of this, Lawson and Hogben (1996) suggests that vocabulary must be learnt in context as Zimmerman (1997) contends that presenting words in meaningful contexts may lead to vocabulary gains and are valued highly by students. Prince (1996) concludes that advanced learners can make more efficient use of context than weaker learners. Due to its importance, it is necessary to use context in vocabulary instruction to enhance the learners' word power and reading comprehension. There are four types of contexts in language learning: Linguistic context, grammatical context, situational context and cultural context.

## 4.1 Linguistic Context

Linguistic context refers to the linguistic setting in which a word occurs. According to Leech (1981 p.91) it refers to the words, clauses or sentences where a word appears and it may also cover a paragraph, a whole chapter and even the whole book. In short, linguistic context covers the lexical and grammatical context. In English, a word can carry multiple meanings and can be confusing to EFL and ELL learners. For instance, the polysemy such as 'accept'. This word carries a number of meanings and only context will determine what exactly is meant.

- (i) He accepts (to receive willingly) the gift happily.
- (ii) We accept (to give admittance or approval) him as one of our group members.
- (iii) She accepts (to endure without protest or reaction) her family's poor living conditions.
- (iv) The idea is widely accepted (inevitable).
- (v) They refused to accept (to recognize as true: believe) the explanation.

In the sentences above, the word 'accept' has different meanings according to the linguistic context.

#### **4.2 Grammatical Context**

A polysemous word may have different meanings when it appears in different grammatical contexts (Leech, 1981). For example, the meaning of verb 'get' varies according to the different syntactical structures used. get+n., as in

I got (meaning "receive") a present today

get+adj., as in

The food is getting (meaning "become") cold.

get+n.+infinitive, as in

I will get (meaning "to cause to do something") him to see a doctor.

The above sentences show that 'get' has different meaning in a different sentence based on its grammatical context.

# 4.3 Situational Context

Apart from linguistic context, vocabulary instruction also involves non-linguistic context. Non-linguistic context refers to the extra-linguistic factors that exist in the physical environment and cultural settings where the utterances occur (Xu, 2013). Leech (1981, p.94) contends that it involves the people, time, place, mode of transmission and even the whole cultural background of the speakers. The two main types of non-linguistic context are situational context and cultural context, which is also known as cultural knowledge.

Situational context is defined as the authentic speech situation where a word or an utterance or a speech takes place. In addition, it is believed to be the physical and relatively easily recognised aspect that is related to factors such as who are the participants involved, and what is the relationship between them: parent and child, friends, employer and employee, or strangers (Zhang Yunfei, 1988, p.237). The setting where the language takes place is also relevant; talking in a church is different in many ways from talking in the home or a restaurant, talking in the theatre is not like talking in a church. Thus, situational context clues are important in determining the meaning of a word. The analysis of situational context is necessary. In vocabulary teaching, if students want to fully understand a word in a text, they should also know some of the background knowledge (Xu, 2013).

#### 4.4 Cultural Context

Cultural context refers to an abstract way of people's social activities. Culture includes all the shared elements of human society which includes not only material things such as cities, organisations and schools but also non-material things such as ideas, customs, family patterns, relationships and languages" (Leech, 1981, p.98).

#### V. THE CONTEXTUALISED WORD FAMILIES

The above shows that context is vital in language learning and in vocabulary learning and acquisition in particular. The integration of context enhances understanding in the learners' vocabulary learning and this will boost retention and acquisition. Therefore, it is important to integrate context in vocabulary teaching and learning to achieve better success in vocabulary growth. Most of the past studies on direct vocabulary instruction involved the effects of teaching individual words in context using reading comprehension texts (Ghapanchi, Eskandari & Tabasi, 2012), morphology and context (Baumann & al., 2003), story books (Biemiller & Boote, 2006), vocabulary learning strategies (Cohen & Byrnes, 2007), etc. on vocabulary acquisition and comparing the effects of explicit and implicit teaching of words (Nadarajan, 2009), contextualising and decontextualising techniques (Soureshjani, 2011) on lexical knowledge, etc. It shows that in the past decades the focus of direct vocabulary instruction has been on the effects of teaching contextualised and decontextualised individual words on vocabulary acquisition. As claimed earlier in the problem statement, limited studies have been conducted on word families and furthermore most of these past studies involved decontextualised word families. In view of this gap and its importance, this present study integrates context with word families in its CWF Model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction.

Before defining the idea of contextualised word family, it is necessary to know and understand the operational definitions of a word family. Nation (2001) defines word families as words built around a particular root, base, or headword that are then linked together to establish associations and general meanings among them. Similarly, according to Bauer and Nation (1993), the idea of word family involves learning a root word and all its derivational and inflectional forms as a group but not learning them separately. For example, *succeed, succeeds, succeedded, successful, successfully* and *succeeding* are related members of the same word family. They explained that it is necessary to consider the idea of a "word family" in dealing with the growth in morphological knowledge because when a learner's knowledge of affixation improves the size of the word family also increases. Furthermore, according to Nation (2001), knowing some of the common affixes and stems of words can reduce the learning burden of new word learning.

Utilising a word family concept in vocabulary learning can lead to an increase the learners' vocabulary knowledge. This is based on the claim that learning a word family will enable learners to know the other members of a word family better once they know the root form or a derivational form (Bauer & Nation, 1993). However, they added that the meaning of the root word in the derived form must be closely related to the meaning of the base when it stands alone or occurs in other derived forms. On the other hand, Mast (2011) explained the idea of word family as a strategy that shares some commonality with semantic mapping that incorporates grouping words into their semantic categories so that the focus is on the affinity the words share in their roots and suffixes. This according to him involves a morphological analysis of individual word parts. For example, a learner's familiarity with the word 'mend' can lead to learning other forms and meanings associated with it such as *mends*, *mended*, *mending*, *mender*, *mendable*, and *unmendable*. Thus, it can be concluded that all the members in a word family shares the same common meaning and knowing the root word of a word family can help the learners to identify all its members.

In addition, Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) cited in Mast (2011) and Schmitt (2008) argue that using word families can maximize vocabulary learning in comparison to learning individual words and their meanings separately. This is supported by the idea that direct instruction using word families enable learners to be introduced to other members of a word family that can boost vocabulary growth and develop the learner's habit of viewing its derivatives (Schmitt, 2000). A word family is made up of between 6 to 10 or more members depending on the type of words. For example the word 'succeed' is made up of eight members which include succeed, succeeded, succeeded, successful, successfully and succeeding. Hence, the more word families the learners acquire the more individual words and word meanings they have and this will develop their word knowledge and power.

In view of the importance of utilising context in vocabulary learning and the benefits of using word families on the learners' vocabulary growth, the present study (Subon, 2017) integrates the two concepts into a new concept known as the contextualised word families. This new concept forms the focus of this proposed model. Besides, all the four types of contexts are integrated into this model namely linguistic, grammatical, situational and cultural context. As discussed earlier, linguistic context refers to the linguistic setting in which a word occurs. This includes the words, clauses or sentences, a paragraph, a whole chapter and even the whole book where a word appears. In other words, linguistic context covers lexical and grammatical context. In this proposed model learners learn new words by identifying members of a word family, making sentences and writing a short paragraph using these new words (members of a word family). As learners identify the members of a word family, they are actually applying the grammatical context to their vocabulary learning. There are seven grammatical features of a word covered in this model. This includes identifying its plural verb, singular verb, adjective, noun, past tense, past participle and the present participle. By using a grammatical context, the learners are able to differentiate the meanings of the words, which vary according to the different

syntactical structures used. Thus, learners can enhance their grammar knowledge as they learn new words using this CWF Model (Subon, 2016). Situational context is used when the learners are writing sentences and paragraph whereby they need to think of suitable setting and characters involved in their writing. The same applies to cultural context, whereby the learners will need to consider the cultural aspects when composing the short paragraph such as material things and non material things for instance ideas, customs, family patterns, relationships, etc. related to the topic of their paragraph writing.

This Contextualised Word Family Model (Subon, 2016) is a rich, systematic, structured and principled approach of direct vocabulary instruction. It is well-planned, rich, structured and systematic in its vocabulary teaching and learning activities. As discussed earlier, through this CWF Model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction students learn new vocabulary by identifying the word families and then learning the members of the word families using appropriate contexts such as constructing sentences and a paragraph and sharing the completed entry of the word family orally with other learners. Besides, this model is conceptualised based on eight pertinent principles of an effective direct vocabulary instruction. Theoretically, this model exhibits many positive characteristics of effective direct vocabulary instruction as found in the steps and models of direct instruction from past studies (Subon, 2017).

#### VI. THE CONTEXTUALISED WORD FAMILY MODEL

This model is called the Contextualised Word Family Model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction. It utilises context and word families for its direct vocabulary instruction. The most pertinent aspect of this model is the application of a theoretical perspective. A modification to Krashen's (1982) acquisition and learning hypothesis is made by claiming that language learning should take place first before any language acquisition can happen and it is proposed that the hypothesisis is set in the order of learning-retentionacquisition process (Subon, 2017). This process is imbedded in the present study's 7-step model. The model entails a lot of learning activities (identifying tier two word, giving definition, listing its word family members, writing sentences, writing a short paragraph) which involves a lot of repetition that is anticipated to lead to retention. Retention activity also involves drawing a non-linguistic representation of the word or symbol or picture to enable learners to remember and retain the words learnt. Finally, in the last step learners are required to talk to their friends about their completed entry of the contextualised word family as practice to boost their communicative skill. With continuous and consistent practice, it is anticipated that students would be able to acquire the word families that they have learnt. Therefore, this model aims to develop a balance between language learning and acquisition or a conscious and subconscious learning process with a fair attention to language aspects such as grammar rules, vocabulary and communicative skills which are essential for enhancing the learners' L2 acquisition and propelling their mastery of the English Language. The characteristics of the proposed CWF Model (2016) of direct vocabulary instruction are explained with more details below.

#### 6.1 The Specification of the Members of a Word Family of the CWF Model

In this present model, Bauer and Nation's (1993) level 2 (inflectional suffixes) words are adapted for its members of a word family. According to Bauer and Nation (1993), they are considered as members of the same word family which refers to words with the same base and inflections. The inflectional categories in this level include plural; third person singular present tense; past tense; past participle; -ing; comparative; superlative; possessive. For this study, seven categories or members of a word family are utilised for the direct vocabulary instruction namely the base form/plural verb, singular verb, past tense, past participle, noun, positive adjective and present participle (- ing). For example, the word family members of the word 'teach' are teach (plural), teaches (singular), taught (past tense), taught (past participle), teacher (noun), teachable (adjective) and teaching (present participle). Noun is included in this model because it plays an important function in a sentence as it can become a subject or an object in a sentence. Without a noun, a sentence will be meaningless. The specification of the members in a word family to be used in this study is described according to the parts of speech that they belong to as shown in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1**The Specification of the Word Family Members of the CWF Model (Subon. 2016)

Members in a word family	
(e.g. Family Word: teach)	
Members	Class of words

DOI: 10.9790/0837-2303035770 www.iosrjournals.org 62 | Page

a.	teach	base form/plural verb
b.	teaches	singular verb
c.	taught	past tense
d.	taught	past participle
e.	teacher	noun
f.	teachable	adjective
g.	teaching	present participle

### 6.2 The Seven Steps of the Contextualised Word Family Model

There are seven steps of teaching and learning word families using this Contextualised Word Family Model (Subon, 2016) of DVI. These seven steps are shown in Table 6.2. The seven steps must be followed closely for the direct vocabulary instruction of word families. They are outlined based on their roles and importance in vocabulary learning and acquisition as claimed by past vocabulary research scholars.

**Table 6.2** 

Seven Steps of the CWF Model Copyright © 2016 Frankie Subon,

- 1. Identifying a new tier two word in a reading text.
- 2. Giving a definition or meaning of the word.
- 3. Listing down the members of a word family.
- 4. Constructing meaningful sentences using the members of the word family to show contexts.
- 5. Writing a short paragraph using the members of the word family.
- 6. Drawing a picture or symbol (non-linguistic representation) of the word family based on its common meaning or base form.
- 7. Talking to friends about a completed entry of a word family.

The first step is identifying a new word i.e. tier two or academic word in a reading text. For this present study, tier two words are selected from a reading text. Tier two word refers to high-frequency word as described by Beck and Mckeown (2011) or academic vocabulary according to Nation (2001). Tier two words or academic words are selected for the word families. They are high utility general words for literate language user and consist of high frequency words that occur across a variety of domains.

The second step is giving definition or meaning of the new word. For this step, teachers are required to give definitions or meanings of a new word identified in step 1. Giving explanation or description of the new term has been the focus of some instruction strategies of past studies (e.g. Marzano & Pickering, 2001, 2005). Past studies also found that direct instruction using definitional and contextual strategies to be highly significant in increasing vocabulary learning (Tomeson & Aarnoutse, 1998; White, Graves, & Slater, 1990; Dole, Sloan, & Trathen, 1995; Rinaldi, Sells, & McLaughlin, 1997). Thus, it is important to give definition or meaning of a new word to boost vocabulary learning of the learners.

The third step is listing down the members of a word family. This step requires the teachers or learners to list down seven members of a word family as specified in Table 6.1. Most past studies have used individual word in their steps of direct instruction. Decarrico (2001), however, stated that teachers can maximize vocabulary learning by teaching word families instead of individual words. Decarrico's (2001) principle is supported by other researchers (e.g. Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002; Schmitt, 2008) who also claim that word families offer the opportunity for learners to maximise their vocabulary learning in comparison to the simple introduction of individual words and their meanings. This is because direct instruction using word families introduces the learners to other members of a word family that can boost vocabulary growth and develop a positive habit among learners to view the word's derivatives (Schmitt, 2000).

The next step is constructing meaningful sentences using the members of the word family to show contexts. Using the members of the word family listed in step three, learners are required to make sentences to demonstrate appropriate contexts of the words. The purpose of doing this is to enable learners to know the differences of the words based on their classes and contexts. Many past vocabulary scholars (e.g. Stahl, 1986; Nation & Waring, 1997; Mckeown & Beck, 2011) found that learning vocabulary from contexts is effective for vocabulary learning and acquisition.

The fifth step is writing a short paragraph using the members of the word family. After writing the sentences, students are required to form a short paragraph using these sentences by adding suitable discourse markers and meaningful phrases where necessary. They can also change the structure of the sentences but maintain the members of the word family and the meanings of the sentences. This step also aims to provide

contexts of the new words learnt to boost the learners' vocabulary learning and acquisition (e.g. Stahl, 1986; Nation & Waring, 1997; Mckeown & Beck, 2011).

The sixth step requires the learners to draw a picture or symbol or non-linguistic representation of the word family based on its common meaning or the base form. This is to enhance the learners' knowledge and understanding of the words they learnt. Besides, it will also enable the learners to remember and retain the word family that they have learnt. Drawing nonlinguistic representations can teach the learners to process the information in many different ways and the process challenges them to think hard and cooperate with one another to come up with a picture (Marzano & Pickering, 2005).

The final step requires the learners to talk to their friend(s) about their completed entry of a word family. The purpose of this step is to boost their learning and acquisition as they share the new word knowledge with one another. This will also help to provide contexts of the new family words learnt (e.g. Stahl, 1986; Nation & Waring, 1997; Mckeown & Beck, 2011). Hence, students are also learning to apply the newly learnt word family in their spoken language.

## 6.3 The Graphic Organiser of the CWF Model

The seven steps above are translated into a graphic organiser below (Figure 6.3) that figured and structured the proposed Contextualised Word Family Model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction as shown in the sample of a completed entry of Figure 6.4. This is displayed on an A4 paper that is segmented into seven parts based on the steps outlined in Table 6.2.

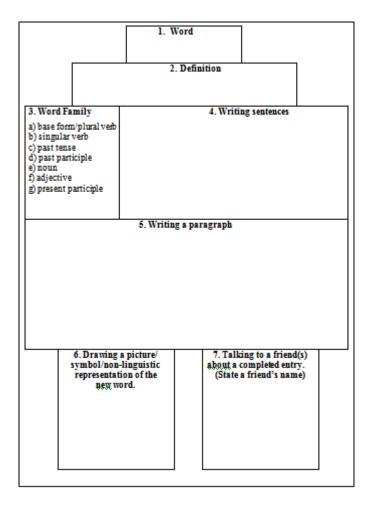


Figure 6.3: The Contextualised Word Family Model Copyright © 2016 Frankie Subon

DOI: 10.9790/0837-2303035770

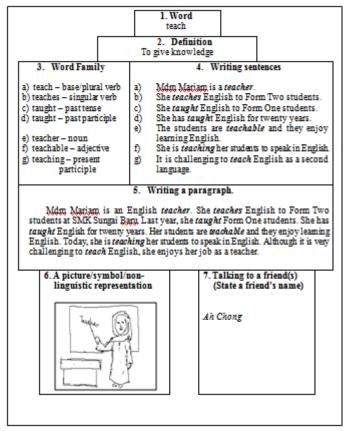


Figure 6.4: An Example of a Completed Entry of the Contextualised Word Family Copyright © 2016 Frankie Subon

## 6.4 The Principles Underpinning the CWF Model

The main rationale behind this proposed Contextualised Word Family Model is that it is conceptualised based on eight pertinent principles of an effective direct vocabulary instruction. As discussed earlier, these eight principles are generated from the analysis and synthesis obtained based on the strengths exhibited by the steps, principles and models of past studies related to direct vocabulary instruction.

The first principle is providing multiple exposures in a direct vocabulary instruction. Most of the past researchers such as Stahl (1986), Marzano, Pickering and Pullock (2001) and Marzano (2004) recommend in their vocabulary instruction principles and steps that teachers should provide multiple exposures when teaching new vocabulary. Researchers also believe that providing multiple exposures in vocabulary instruction can boost vocabulary learning. This is ascertained by Blachowicz et al. (2006) who claims that multiple exposures to target words can accelerate vocabulary learning. It is recommended that 5 to 16 exposures are required to enable the students to learn a new word from context (Nation, 1990). In addition, it is also important to ensure that these multiple encounters take place in a variety of contexts that require different learner tasks (Carlo, August, McLaughlin, Snow, Dressler, Lippman, Lively, & White, 2008). The principle of multiple exposures is applied in the model of the present study as it uses a lot of repetitions. By using this proposed model students are given at least seven exposures to the new vocabulary as they follow the seven steps of learning the new vocabulary. For example, the base/plural form of the word 'teach' will be used seven times following the seven steps in the proposed model. A lot of repetitions are used to enable students to remember the new words they learn using this proposed model. These seven steps were explained earlier and shown in Figure 6.3 and Figure 6.4.

The second principle is to teach vocabulary in context. Research claims that contextual word teaching is more effective than non-contextual word teaching (Biemiller & Boote, 2006). This is because students can understand the meanings of a new word by understanding the sentences where the word is used. This is revealed by Carey (1978) as cited in Chung (2012) who reiterates that children use syntactic information (i.e. sentence context or part of speech). This principle is incorporated into the present study whereby the students are able to learn vocabulary in contexts such as by making sentences, writing a short paragraph and talking about a completed entry of the contextualised word family.

The third pertinent principle is related to the type of words chosen for its direct vocabulary instruction. High-frequency words or tier two words as described by Beck and Mckeown (2011) or academic vocabulary by

Nation (2001) are selected for the word families. They are high utility general words for literate language user and consist of high frequency words that occur across a variety of domains. Beck and Mckeown (1985) argue that there are some advantages of learning and acquiring the tier two words. First, understanding the meanings of these words promotes everyday reading and listening comprehension as they are found across a variety of contexts and topics. Besides, they contend that tier two words can greatly influence reading and speaking. In addition, these high-frequency words are also likely to be conceptually familiar to the students and the words are more characteristic of written language since they are found across a variety of domains. Beck and Mckeown (2011) suggest that tier two words should be the major focus of vocabulary instruction. This is supported by Nation (2001) who claims that it is essential to teach academic words due to their range of coverage over various types of texts and the meanings they bring to a text. Ideally, they are suitable for upper elementary or higher level students (Chung, 2012). Coxhead (2000) also contends that these words are suitable for students of upper elementary or higher level and these academic words consist of 570 high-frequency word families found across a range of academic domains. Beck and her colleagues recommend that the instruction of tier two words can add productively to an individual's language ability. Some examples of tier two words are masterpiece, fortunate, industrious, measure, benevolent, etc. Therefore, tier two words are the most important and relevant words for direct instruction because they are good indicators of a student's progress through school (Beck & Mckeown, 2011).

The fourth principle is to give definitions of the new vocabulary learnt. In definitional method, students are taught to look up for words in a dictionary, write down and/or memorise definitions, use the words in sentences, find synonyms and then complete worksheets or do quizzes (Shostak, 2002). By using dictionary definitions students are able to learn a specific meaning of a word that they identify in their reading. This principle is included in the present model whereby students are required to give the definition of the new word (tier two or high frequency word) according to its contextual meaning.

The fifth principle is to teach vocabulary in word families. Decarrico (2001) in his principle states that teachers can maximize vocabulary learning by teaching word families instead of individual words. Besides, prominent researchers in vocabulary acquisition such as Nation (1999) and Schmitt (2008) have ascertained the need to teach vocabulary in word families to accelerate the learners' vocabulary growth. Hence, this principle is adopted in the present study's principle of direct vocabulary instruction whereby word families are utilised due to their importance in L2 acquisition. Its members of a word family are adapted from Bauer and Nation's (1993) level 2 (inflectional suffixes) words. According to Bauer and Nation (1993), this is level 2 (inflectional suffixes) in the level ordering within the Lexicalist Morphology and is considered as members of the same word family which refers to words with the same base and inflections. The inflectional categories in this level are plural; third person singular present tense; past tense; past participle; -ing; comparative; superlative; possessive. In this study, seven categories or members of a word family are utilised for the direct vocabulary instruction namely the base/plural, singular verb, past tense, past participle, noun, positive adjective and present participle (- ing). For example, the word family members of the word 'teach' are teach (plural), teaches (singular), taught (past tense), taught (past participle), teacher (noun), teachable (adjective) and teaching (present participle). Noun plays an important function in a sentence as it can become a subject or an object in a sentence, and therefore included in this CWF Model (Subon, 2016). Without a noun, a sentence will be meaningless.

The sixth principle is to use sentences that construct a story. It is claimed that using target words in sentences that construct a narrative is also an effective principle of direct vocabulary instruction. In a study by Vaughn-Shavuo as cited in August and Snow (2007), it is found that the students experienced an increase in vocabulary by incorporating words in sentences that construct a story than through incorporating words in sentences that do not construct a story. This is also incorporated in the present study whereby students are asked to write a short paragraph about a suitable topic using the sentences that they have formed earlier.

The seventh principle is to use non-linguistic representation, symbols or pictures to represent the new vocabulary learnt. This principle is employed by Marzano and Pickering (2005) in their six step process of direct instruction on words that are critical to new content for the most powerful learning. Using a non-linguistic representation or pictures can help students to remember well the words they learnt. Thus, it can enhance the students' retention when learning a new vocabulary. The use of symbols or pictures is employed in this CWF Model (Subon, 2016), whereby the students are required to draw a non-linguistic representation of the new word that has been selected for the direct instruction.

The eighth principle is it integrates vocabulary learning and acquisition of word families with contexts and a variety of language learning activities. All this is conceptualised and structured using a graphic organiser incorporating all the seven steps. Learners are required to give definition of the new words based on its contextual meaning. Then, they are required to identify the members of the word family. After that, they are required to show suitable contexts where these members of word family can be used by making sentences using them and this is followed by paragraph writing. In doing all this, learners are directly learning about grammar and applying it in their writing. This includes part of speech such as noun, verb and adjective, tenses such as the

simple present tense, the simple past tense, the present/past perfect tense, the type of verbs such as singular and plural verb, etc. Therefore, this integration process will help to enhance the learners' grammar knowledge. Nation (1990) and Oxford and Scarcella (1994) argue that knowing a word does not only involve the ability to know its form or its dictionary meaning but also includes knowing its grammatical aspects, collocations, functions and the ability to use the word correctly in conversation. This is supported by Nation (2001) who asserts that acquiring a word is a complex development involving the learning of its grammatical functions such as parts of speech, sociolinguistic aspects such as word connotations, frequency intuitions such as collocation, through multiple encounters of target words in diverse contexts. On the other hand, in order to enforce the retention of the word family, the learners are asked to draw a non-linguistic representation of the word in the form of a picture or a symbol. Apart from reading and writing skills, other language skills i.e. speaking and listening skills are also used because learners are required to talk about their completed entry of word family to their friends. Hence, this CWF model (Subon, 2016) of direct vocabulary instruction engages students in a variety of word learning activities and language skills to enhance their vocabulary acquisition.

In sum, this proposed CWF model (Subon, 2016) offers a rich, systematic, structured and principled process for vocabulary acquisition. It is claimed to be a 'rich' model as it integrates a variety of of language skills and vocabulary learning activities into one. The seven-step model is displayed using a graphic organiser making it a structured model of vocabulary learning and acquisition that is easy to understand. 'Systematic' as it is well-planned and the tasks or activities progress from one step to another to reinforce the learners' vocabulary learning and acquisition. Thus, it can be taught to students and can be used not only in the classroom but also outside at their own pace independently. Theoretically and practically, it is a principled approach as its contents are developed based on pertinent steps, models and principles of effective direct vocabulary instruction as revealed in literature of past studies (Subon, 2017).

## VII. Conclusion

In conclusion, from the analysis and synthesis of literature pertinent knowledge has been generated which has led to the formulation of a new theoretical perspective relating to vocabulary learning and acquisition and the creation of the Contextualised Word Family Model (Subon, 2016). Indeed, it is vital for learners to acquire and possess ample knowledge of vocabulary breadth and depth in order to become successful language learners. This also includes the ability to know and acquire word families which are vital prerequisites to function effectively in all the language skills as claimed by many past scholars. Besides, tier two or high frequency words are used to form the word families in this present model. It also integrates a contextualised approach and a word family to explicitly teach vocabulary to second language learners. Hence, the direct vocabulary instruction of word families is the main emphasis of this CWF model (Subon, 2016) to boost the students' vocabulary acquisition and writing skills. Future research is necessary to ascertain the effectiveness of this model in increasing learners' vocabulary size and guided writing test scores as claimed by Subon (2016).

# Refrences

- [1]. August, D., & Snow, C. (2007). Developing vocabulary in English language learners: A review of the experimental research. In B. Taylor & J. Ysseldyke (Eds.), Effective instruction for struggling readers, K-6(pp. 84-105). NY: Teachers College.
- [2]. Bauer, L., & Nation, I.S. P. (1993). Word families. International Journal of Lexicography, 6, 1–27.
- [3]. Baumann J., Kame'enui E.& Ash, G. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In Flood J., Lapp D., Squire J., Jensen J. (Eds.), Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts (2nd ed., pp. 752–785). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- [4]. Beck, I. L. & McKeown, M. G (1985). Teaching vocabulary: Making the instruction
- [5]. fit the goal. Educational Perspectives, 23(1), 11-15.
- [6]. Beck, I.L., McKeown, M.G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Bringing words to life; Robust vocabulary instruction. New York; NY: Guilford Press.
- [7]. Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2007). Increasing young low-income children's oral vocabulary repertoires through rich and focused instruction. *Elementary School Journal*, 107, 251-271.
- [8]. Beck, I. L. & McKeown, M. G. (1991). Conditions of vocabulary acquisition. InR. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), Handbook of reading research (pp. 789–814). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- [9]. Beck, I., McKeown, M. & McCaslin, E. (1983). All contexts are not created equal. *Elementary School Journal*, 83, 177-181.
- [10]. Biemiller, A. (1999). Language and reading success. Cambridge, Mass.: Brookline Books.
- [11]. Biemiller, A., & Boote, C. (2006) An effective method for building meaning vocabulary in primary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98(1), 44-62.

- [12]. Biemiller, A., & Slonim, N. (2001). Estimating root word vocabulary growth in normative and advantaged populations: Evidence for a common sequence of
- [13]. vocabulary acquisition. Journal of Educational Psychology, 93 (3), 498-520.
- [14]. Blachowicz, C. L. Z. (2005) Vocabulary essentials: From research to practice for improved instruction. Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman and Co.
- [15]. Blachowicz, C. L. Z. & Fisher, P. (2000). Vocabulary instruction. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), Handbook of reading research (pp. 503–523). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [16]. Blachowicz, C. L. Z., Fisher, P. J. L., Ogle, D., & Watts-Taffe, S. (2006). Vocabulary:
- [17]. Questions from the classroom. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41, 524–539.Blachowicz, C. L. Z., Fisher, P. J. & Watts-Taffe, S. (2005). Integrated vocabulary instruction: Meeting the needs of diverse learners in Grades K-5. *Learning Point Associates*, 1-28. Retrieved November 20, 2013, from <a href="https://education.illinoisstate.edu/downloads/casei/AV-5-4%20Learning%">https://education.illinoisstate.edu/downloads/casei/AV-5-4%20Learning%</a> 20 Point% 20Integrated%20Vocab%20Instruction.pdf
- [18]. Carlo, M. S., August, D., McLaughlin, B., Snow, C., Dressler, C., Lippman, D. Lively, T. J. & White, C. E. (2008). Closing the gap: Addressing the vocabulary needs of English-language learners in bilingual and mainstream classrooms. Journal of Education, 189(1/2), 57-76.
- [19]. Christen, W. L., and T. J. Murphy (1991). "Increasing Comprehension by Activating Prior Knowledge." ERIC Digest, Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication. [ED 328 885]
- [20]. Chung, S. F. (2012) Research-based vocabulary instruction for English language learners. *The Reading Matrix*, 12(2), 105-120.
- [21]. Cohen, L. & Byrnes, K. (2007). Engaging children with useful words: Vocabulary instruction in a third grade classroom. *Reading Horizons Journal*, 47, (4), 271-293.
- [22]. Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. TESOL Quarterly, 34(2), 213–238.doi:10.2307/3587951.
- [23]. Cronan, C. (2010). Determining best practice for vocabulary instruction in a middle school setting (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI No. 3427333)
- [24]. Decaricco, J. (2001). Vocabulary learning and teaching. In M. Celce- Murcia, (Ed), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, (pp.285-299), Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- [25]. Dole, J. A., Sloan, C., & Trathen, W. (1995). Teaching vocabulary within the context of literature. *Journal of Reading*, 38(6), 452–460.
- [26]. Eller, R., Pappas, C., & Brown, E. (1988). The lexical development of kindergartners:
- [27]. Learning from written context. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 20, 5–24.
- [28]. Elleman, A. M., Lindo, E. J., Morphy, P., & Compton, D. L. (2009). Instruction on passage-level comprehension of school-age children: A meta-analysis. *Journal*
- [29]. of Research on Educational Effectiveness, 2, 1-44.
- [30]. Frayer, D. A., W. C. Frederick & H. J. Kalausmeier (1969). A schema for testing the level of concept mastery. Technical Report No. 16. Madison: University of Winconsin Research and Development Centre for Cognitive Learning.
- [31]. Fisher, P.J. & Blachowicz, C. L. Z. (2005). Vocabulary instruction in a remedial setting. *Reading and Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, 21, 281-300.
- [32]. Ghapanchi, Z., Eskandari, Z. & Tabasi, E. (2012). The effect of text-based direct vocabulary instruction on vocabulary acquisition. *World Journal of English*
- [33]. Language. 2(1), 74-80.
- [34]. Graves, M. F. (1987). The roles of instruction in fostering vocabulary development. In M. G. McKoewn & M. E. Curtis (Eds.), *The nature of vocabulary*
- [35]. acquisition (pp. 165–184). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- [36]. Graves, M.F. (2000). A vocabulary programme to compliment and bolster a middle grade comprehension programme. In B.M. Taylor, M.F. Graves, and P.van den Broek (Eds.), *Reading for meaning: Fostering comprehension in the middle grades* (pp.116-135), Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- [37]. Gu, P. Y. (2003). Vocabulary Learning in a Second Language: Person, Task, Context and Strategies. *TESL-EJ journal*, 7, 1-25. Retrieved October 24, 2014, from http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESl-EJ/ej26/a4.html#top
- [38]. Frayer, D. A., W. C. Frederick & H. J. Kalausmeier (1969). A schema for testing the level of concept mastery. Technical Report No. 16. Madison: University of Winconsin Research and Development Centre for Cognitive Learning.
- [39]. Gu, P. Y. (2003). Vocabulary Learning in a Second Language: Person, Task, Context and Strategies. *TESL-EJ journal*, 7, 1-25. Retrieved October 24, 2014, from http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESl-EJ/ej26/a4.html#top

- [40]. Krashen, S. (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. New York: Pergamon Press.
- [41]. Lawson, J.M. and Hogben, D. (1996). The Vocabulary-learning strategies of foreign
- [42]. language students. Language Learning. 46 (1):101-135.
- [43]. Leech, G.N. (1981). Semantic: The study of meaning. London: Penguin
- [44]. Marzano, R. (2004). Building background knowledge for academic achievement: Research on what works in schools. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- [45]. Marzano, R. J. & Pickering, D. J. (2005). *Building Academic Vocabulary: Teacher's Manual*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD:
- [46]. Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D. J. & Pollock, J. E. (2001). Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement. Alexandria. Retrieved May 6, 2013, from
- [47]. https://katiedevine.files.wordpress.com/2011/12/classroom-instruction-that-works\_pdf.pdf.
- [48]. Mast, D. W. (2011) Using semantic maps and word families in the beginning-levelmiddle school foreign language classroom. Retrieved October 12, 2012 from http://nectfl.net/Reviewarticles/68Mast.pdf
- [49]. McKeown, M. G., Beck, I. L., Omanson, R. C. & Pople, M. T. (1985). Some effects of the nature and frequency of vocabulary instruction on the knowledge and use of words. *Reading research Quarterly*, 20, 522-535.
- [50]. Nadarajan, S. (2009). The effect of instruction and context on L2 learners' vocabulary development. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6 (2), 177-189.
- [51]. Nagy, W. E. (1988). *Teaching vocabulary to improve reading comprehension*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- [52]. Nation, P. (2001). Learning vocabulary in another language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [53]. National Reading Panel (2000). Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction, Bethesda, MD: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD).
- [54]. Nation, P. & Waring, R. (1997). Vocabulary size, text coverage and word lists. In Schmitt, N. & McCarthy, M. (Eds), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 6-9). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [55]. Oxford, R. L. & Scarcella, R. C. (1994). Second language vocabulary learning among
- [56]. adults: state of the art in vocabulary instruction. System, 22(2), 231-243.
- [57]. Prince, P. (1996). "Second language vocabulary learning: the role of context versus translations as a function of proficiency". The Modern Language Journal, 80, 478-493.
- [58]. Rinaldi, L., Sells, D., & McLaughlin, T. F. (1997). The effects of reading racetracks on the sight word acquisition and fluency of elementary students. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 7(2), 219–233.
- [59]. Robbins, C., & Ehri, L. C. (1994). Reading storybooks to kindergartners helps them learn new vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86, 54–64.
- [60]. Rupley, W.H., Logan, J.W., & Nichols, W.D. (1999). Vocabulary instruction in a balanced reading program. *The Reading Teacher*, 52(4), 338 347.
- [61]. Sedita, J. (2005) Effective Vocabulary Instruction. Retrieved October 10, 2012 from http://www.keystoliteracy.com/reading-comprehension/effective-vocabulary-nstruction.pdf
- [62]. Shany, M. & Biemiller, A. (2010). Individual differences in reading comprehension gains from assisted reading practice: Pre-existing conditions, vocabulary acquisition, and amounts of practice. *Reading and Writing*, 23, 1070-1083.
- [63]. Shostak, J. (2002) The value of direct and systematic vocabulary instruction. *Professional development series*, 7, 1-2.
- [64]. Schmitt, N. (2008). Teaching Vocabulary. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education. Schmitt, N. (2007). Current perspectives on vocabulary teaching and learning. In Cummins, J. & Davison, C. (2007). Springer International Handbooks of English Language Teaching. (Vol. 15. Pp 827-839). UK: Springer
- [65]. Schmitt, N. (2000). Vocabulary in language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [66]. Schmitt, N., & Zimmerman, C. B. (2002). Derivative word forms: What do learners know? TESOL Quarterly.
- [67]. Stahl, S.A. (1999). *Vocabulary development*. Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.Stahl, S.A. (1986). Three principles of effective vocabulary instruction. *Journal of*
- [68]. Reading, 29(7), 662-668.
- [69]. Stahl, S. A. & Fairbanks, M. (1986). The effects of vocabulary instruction: A model-based meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 56(1), 72-110.
- [70]. Stone, B. & Urquhart, V. (2008). Remove limits to learning with systematic vocabulary instruction. Retrieved November 5, 2014 from www.mcrel.org.

- [71]. Subon, F. (2016). Direct vocabulary instruction: The effects of contextualized word families on students' vocabulary acquisition. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Universiti Teknologi Mara. Shah Alam, Malaysia.
- [72]. Subon, F. (2016). Direct vocabulary instruction: The effects of contextualized word families on learners' vocabulary acquisition. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 224 (2016), 284 291.
- [73]. Soureshjani, K. H. (2011). The effects of contextualizing and decontextualizing techniques on lexical-oriented knowledge of Persian EFL language learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1 (5), 547-552.
- [74]. Tomesen, M., & Aarnoutse, C. (1998). Effects of an instructional programme for deriving word meanings. *Educational Studies*, 24(1), 107–128.
- [75]. Vitale, M. R. & Romance, N. R. (2006). Concept mapping as a means for binding
- [76]. knowledge to effective content-area instruction: An interdisciplinary perspective. In A. J. Cañas, J. D. Novak (Eds.). Concept Maps: Theory, Methodology, Technology. Proceedings of the Second Int. Conference on Concept Mapping. San José, Costa Rica.
- [77]. Vosniadou, S. & Ortony, A. (1983). The Emergence of the Literal-Metaphorical-Anomalous Distinction in Young Children. *Child Development*, 54(1), 154-161.
- [78]. White, T. G., Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (1990). Growth of reading vocabulary in diverse elementary schools: Decoding and word meaning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(2), 281–290.
- [79]. Xu, X. (2013). Research on the application of context theory in vocabulary. study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(6), 1059-1064.
- [80]. Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. COADY AND T. HUCKIN, eds. *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*. Cambridge University Press, 5-19.
- [81]. Zhang Yunfei. (1988). General Theory of Modern English Vocabulary. Beijing: Beijing Normal University Press.

IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS) is UGC approved Journal with Sl. No. 5070, Journal no. 49323.

-----

Frankie Subon." The Contextualised Word Family Model of Direct Vocabulary Instruction." IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS). vol. 23 no. 3, 2018, pp. 57-70.