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1. INTRODUCTION

This is a research study of vocabulary. Vocabulary is a part of human language. One can say that there is no spoken or written language without words. A long-term view by Wilkins points out that without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed (Carter & McCarthy 1988: 42).

This practically oriented language research reviews approaches to second language vocabulary acquisition of young, non-native language learners. The research problem can be examined at two levels: 1. Investigating suitability of word lists for educational purposes. 2. Testing empirically young, non-native vocabulary learners. Learning vocabulary and foreign word identification will be objects of this research study.

Chapters 2-4 form the theoretical basis of this research. In chapter 2 I will introduce the Basic English word list compiled by Charles Ogden and Ivor Richards. The interest focuses on the educational significance of Basic English (which words, how many words to teach). In chapter 2 I will introduce word list inventions after Basic English: A General Service List of English Words compiled by Michael West and the University Word List compiled by Averil Coxhead. A precise survey of lexicology and lexicography will be in this chapter. There is also some discussion about dictionaries which are word lists in practice.

In chapter 3, general linguistics provides readers with other approaches to vocabulary. Word itself is described as belonging to categories and types. Applied linguistics examines associations between words. The concept of corpus, both written and spoken, is introduced. A future vocabulary trend, Internet vocabulary, is also briefly discussed.

In chapter 4 I will move to the educational environment itself, school. Conditions of language learning will be explored. Chapter 3 will search for possible explanations how to teach vocabulary (how to teach). The chapter orientates towards quantitative aspects of vocabulary
Chapters 5 and 6 form the empirical part of the research. The validity and reliability of the theoretical basis will be tested with an empirical experiment in chapters 5 and 6. In the experiment a test group answered chosen vocabulary tasks. The test group consists of 77 11-year-old non-native school children learning English as a foreign language. The parts of test, called tasks, are explained one by one. In chapter 5 I will introduce methodology: counting word frequencies on learners’ answer sheets and comparing them with Basic English word list. Results of the experiment will be described in tables and explained verbally in chapters 5 and 6.
Chapter 1 consists of introducing the Basic English word list. A General Service List of English words follows, while A University Word List maintains the tradition of word lists. A dictionary-oriented survey supports the presentation of word lists.

Learning a second language vocabulary is a lifelong process. Vocabulary was felt to be a less important element, a neglected aspect in linguistics (Singleton 1999: 8). Particularly grammar was emphasized but there was little or no emphasis on vocabulary (Allen 1983: 1). What it means to “know” a word is an immense question. Knowledge of a word consists of several features. A meaningful word is defined in the following way. Comprehensive word knowledge includes semantic, phonological, morphological, orthographic, syntactic, collocational and pragmatic characteristics as Bogaards and Laufer (2004: 211) claim.

Nation (2001: 1) defines list in the following way:

L denotes language including vocabulary. I denotes ideas which consists of content and subject matter and cultural knowledge. S denotes skills. T denotes text which describes the way how sentences fit together to form larger units of a language.

Control of vocabulary is a question of time. Vocabularies continue to grow throughout the learners’ lifetimes and they tend to vary individually. Learning of vocabulary happens slowly and vocabulary gradually becomes a part of learner’s personal stock of words (Meara 1982). Exposure to multiple choice of words must be available to learners throughout their lives. Beheydt (1987: 5) remarks that learning words is a continuing process of getting acquainted with verbal forms (in their polysemous diversity) within varying contexts.

Studying vocabulary raises a question of quantity. One must know a certain amount of words to be able to communicate by any means. This means an endeavor to collect important or critical words in word lists. Constructing dictionaries in the area of
linguistics belongs to the domain of lexicology and lexicography. They are discussed at the end of this chapter.

A successful dictionary project means collecting lexical items systematically in word lists. A pioneering and perhaps the most prominent study in the field of linguistics facing this background is Basic English by Charles Kay Ogden and Ivor Armstrong Richards.

2.1. Basic English

Basic English was a project designed to provide a basic minimum vocabulary for the learning of English. Many trademarks for the system were suggested, but BASIC – British American Scientific International Commercial – was finally taken into use. The design of Basic English has been outlined as follows:

Basic English is English made simply by limiting the number of words to 850 and by cutting down the rules to using them to the smallest number necessary for the clear statement of ideas. This is done without change in the normal order and behaviour of these words in everyday English. It is limited in its words and its rules but it keeps to the regular forms of English. Although it is designed to give the learner as little trouble as possible, it is no more strange to the eyes of my readers than these lines which are, in fact, in Basic English.

(Richards 1943: 20 as cited in Carter & McCarthy 1988: 2)

Count Basie, a leading music figure, gave an impetus to the establishment of Basic English in the 1930’s. At this stage it is worth telling my readers who were the agents behind this linguistic invention.

Charles Kay Ogden (1889–1957) was a British writer and linguist. Ogden did his main scientific work for Cambridge University. Ogden’s literary interest orientated towards linguistics, psychology and philosophy. Ogden’s most important linguistic books can be mentioned: The Foundation of The Meaning of Meaning (1923; co-written with I.A. Richards), Basic English (1930) and Basic Words (1932). Ogden started and wrote Basic English between the years 1926 and 1930. A scientific
journal was Ogden’s remarkable merit. He founded the weekly *Cambridge Magazine*, which included international comments on politics and had a great circulation. In the 1920s Ogden took over the editorship of the psychological journal *Psyche*. Ogden was also an ambitious collector of books. His extended collections included printed books, manuscripts and papers. Ogden has a remarkable collection of the works of Jeremy Bentham, a philosopher and a social reformer. It is generally known that Ogden was impressed by Bentham’s thinking.

Ivor Armstrong Richards (1893-1979) an English critic, an advocate of Basic English co-wrote *the Meaning of Meaning* in 1923 with C.K. Ogden. He set forth principles for understanding the function of language. In 1939 Harvard University invited Richards to direct Commission of English language studies and to produce Basic English textbooks and to train teachers in the method of Basic English.

Ogden and Richards followed the principle that although their scheme did not cover full English, it was not un-English. An adult’s linguistic needs could still be communicated. The words are easy and fast to learn. Ogden and Richards confined their list to 18 main verbs or ‘operations’, as they preferred to call them. These verbs are SEND, SAY, DO, COME, GET, GIVE, GO, KEEP, LET, MAKE, PUT, SEEM, TAKE, SEE plus the modal verbs MAY and WILL and the auxiliary verbs BE and HAVE. The only inflections to be learned (on nouns and verbs) are –ING, -ER and –ED.

Ogden (1968: 56) points out that of the 850 Basic words, 600 are names of things. 150 are names of qualities. The last 100 are the words which have an operative function. According to Ogden (1968: 19) Basic English in which 600 out of the 850 words are noun forms, is a language model, in which the noun plays a predominant role. Basic English is a language model. The learning of the model may best be done in three stages:

1) The 850 words and their order
2) Expansions of the words in form and sense
3) Special uses of the words and their use for special purposes
   (Ogden 1968: 119)
Ogden points out that learning a short list of Basic words might happen at each individual’s home by going through it in fifteen minutes every day before any other work is done, until their sounds are quite clear and their simple senses are fixed in memory. Ogden’s opinion is that a quick learner, with special training, might learn 100 words in an hour. A normal learner whose natural language is not English, will learn 30 words in hour.

Viewing of Basic English word list occurs in terms of word classes (A-E). See appendix 1.

A) NOUNS

Nouns cover a very wide range. The list of 200 pictured things refers to objects which can be touched, seen and isolated from other things. The list of the 400 general things is of a similar character but much less suitable for pictorial presentation (Ogden 1968: 19-20). There are two main ways (Ogden 1968: 20) in which the scope of a noun or any other word in the vocabulary, may be expanded: extension and specialization. Extension is the use of a symbol, devised for one thing or a group of things. The relation may be that of part to a whole. Extension can be applied like this: the use of bite for the act of biting; of performer for performance. For the derivation of lift (elevator) from the act of lifting and so on. Specialization is the differentiated use of an undifferentiated word. Specialization is in one sense a limiting factor, but it enlarges the scope of a general vocabulary by enabling to work with words having only a very particularized usage. Endings for the nouns are –ER and –ING builder, building as examples.

B) ADJECTIVES

Ogden (1968: 23) writes that adjectives are of two kinds: 100 general and 50 opposites. Qualifiers ascribe qualities to objects and quantities of objects. These are never preceded by A or THE. There are 50 qualifiers which may form negatives, coinciding in many cases with the opposites, by adding the
prefix –un. A few of these formations, such as unnormal, are departures from standard English. However all can readily be avoided by the use of NOT.

C) VERBS
An effort to simplify clauses in Ogden’s theory is the use of ‘operation words’ combined with prepositions (directions) in their adverbial form to take the place of verbs. There are 100 operation words altogether. In his philosophy Ogden set forth the notion of a communicative adequacy: adult’s linguistic needs can be communicated with a minimal vocabulary size. The omission of the verb conveys the idea that many notions can be re-expressed using more basic language. For example, a verb ask can be paraphrased as put a question. Another example might be the verb walk. It can be paraphrased as have a walk. The idea is to make the language easy and fast to learn. The less words are used, the better. The method described is called verb-elimination. The ending for verbs is –ED (e.g. talked).

D) PRONOUNS
Pronoun I in the task 1 in chapter 5 belongs to the Basic English word list.

Nouns, adjectives, and verbs belong to content words. They concentrate on vocabulary of language, Content words are discussed in chapter 2.

E) PREPOSITIONS
Prepositions AT, IN, UNDER, TO and FROM occur in the Basic English list. Prepositions WITH, BEHIND, IN FRONT OF, do not occur in the list. Prepositions AFTER, BEFORE, OF, BETWEEN and OUT OF occur in the Basic English list. The preposition INTO does not occur in the list.

In the vocabulary task 4 in chapter 4 the preposition AT indicates place. The preposition BEFORE indicates time.
The operation words can be grouped because they are opposite in sense: COME – GO, PUT – TAKE, GIVE – GET, KEEP – LET, BE – SEEM. The same is true of prepositions BEFORE – AFTER (Ogden 1968: 18, 135).

Prepositions and pronouns belong to function words. They concentrate more on grammar than on vocabulary of language. Function words are discussed in chapter 3.

2.1.1. Meaning

The “Theory of Meaning” is a concept that has been present in communication since the first human learned to communicate. As Richards puts the idea: “Everything could be said with 1,000 words by substituting descriptive phrases for specific words.”

We are aware that nearly everything we say has meaning at some level. When a person speaks, the words he or she chooses mean different things to different people. A term best suited to describe this condition is ambiguity. According to Ogden and Richards, the best way to solve the ambiguity problem is to provide a definition of various terms or concepts. For example, if a speaker states that another person is cold, two inferences can be drawn. Firstly, we assume that the person is physically or temperately cold. Similarly we can infer that the person has projected an attitude that he or she is undesirable.

Which meanings should be learned first? Are there basic meanings which are more easily retained or which are more important? Ogden and Richards seem to suggest that there are. This applies to both lexical and grammatical words as well as to words which can have either primarily lexical or grammatical functions (Riding & Grimley 1999: 46). Learning 850 words is not the same thing as learning 850 single senses. One calculation is that 850 words of Basic English have 12,425 meanings (Carter 1987: 22-26). This fact raises a question of whether the senses of single word forms (however polysemous) are easier to retain than the same number of monosemous words with different word forms. Ogden and Richards offer no guidance here.
Besides, there is little guidance as to how Basic English might be extended and thus how this list and any additions to it might be graded for relative difficulty or usefulness.

Indeed how much further, if at all, would a learner need to go to get a “working vocabulary” (Carter 1987: 27). The question arises to what extent a foreign learner is able to produce understandable texts that have a great information value. As far as language learning is concerned, better methods to reach this goal are reached for.

Originally it was a general thought that to memorize a series of word forms that had fixed meanings was enough for language learning. Later it was understood that to compile different various nuclear Englishes was a main trend. Basic English as it is described earlier as far as the division into main word classes – nouns, adjectives and verbs – is concerned strives for international interaction between people in the different fields of human communication: the common interests of men and women, general talk, news, trade and science.

Basic English got publicity after it was compiled. The British politicians showed interest in Basic English. Winston Churchill set up a cabinet committee on Basic English in 1943. The House of Commons outlined steps which the government would take to develop Basic English as an auxiliary international and administrative language throughout the British Council Government. Basic English was published as White Paper in 1944. Ogden sold the rights and assigned his copyright to the Crown in 1946. The Basic English foundation was founded in 1947 with a grant of the Ministry of Education. Its main activity was to translate and publish books in Basic English. University College London had papers of Ogden relating to the Basic English Foundation.

K.E. Garay wrote in Canadian Historical Association Historical Papers in 1988 in Finest Hour 68 under the title “Empires of the Mind? C.K. Ogden, Winston Churchill and Basic English”. Winston Churchill delivered an ambitious speech where he recognized the utility of Basic English as an international language. It had some competitors such as Esperanto. In that speech the empires of the mind were established. The speech emphasized Anglo-American unity through language throughout the globe.
In spite of the public measures mentioned Basic English was not in a position as a rational instrument for especially educational purposes. Although Basic English is not widely used or referred to today, the underlying impulse to provide systematically graded instructions to language, to specify lexical syllabuses and to construct nuclear Englishes for language learning purposes, is still an active one (Stein 1978, Stubbs 1986b). In spite of its fading, Basic English concept is still popular today, noticeably in the media. A conception of the present state of Basic English can be got by visiting, e.g. Internet websites of Ogden’s Basic English (www.ogden.basic-english) and Aim 25 of University College London (www.aim25.ac.uk).

The Basic English word list is presented in appendix 1.

The famous English author George Orwell wrote a book called Nineteen Eighty Four, published in 1949. Two films have been made of it: one in 1956, the other in 1984. The place in the book is London and the theme in the book is totalitarian rule where lives of people are controlled. They have no freedom. Even their official language, Newspeak, is under control. Newspeak has a reduced vocabulary and grammar. Newspeak hides and changes meanings of words in order to achieve an ulterior motive.

The idea that everything in life, including language, could be controlled seemed to be ridiculous. This was the state of things before digital time. These days information about you may immediately become registered into the memory of a computer: where you are driving your car, where you are going. Mobile phones can locate you. Even your telephone calls can be followed. Cars offer information about their drivers and their location. It is tempting to avail oneself of this information. Author George Orwell’s vision is becoming true.
2.2. Other approaches: A General Service List of English Words (GSL)

As opposed to Basic English the endeavor to solve the needs of professional and economic life and science was discovered. A General Service List of English Words (GSL) was compiled by Dr. Michael West and published in 1953. GSL consists of frequently used English words available to everyone. It presented 2,000 “general service” words considered suitable as the basis of vocabulary for learning English as a foreign language (West 1953: 11,12,13). This list grew from the studies in the 1930s on the vocabulary selection for teaching purposes.

In the selection of vocabulary for learning in the early stages of acquisition West and Palmer as his advisor followed two criteria. One of them is that the frequency of each word in written English should be indicated. The other is that information should be provided about the relative prominences of the various meanings and the uses of a word form. Both these criteria give useful guidance for teachers deciding which words and which meanings should be taught first. These criteria paid attention to universality, utility and usefulness (Carter & McCarthy 1988: 6-7).

‘The List’ was based on printed and on written material, and it therefore rather tends to undervalue those items more common in speech than in writing e.g., the direct interrogative WHO, names of foods, greetings and colloquialism (West 1953: 7-8). GSL includes scientific words that are often needed like ATOM, ELECTROLYSIS and PROTEIN. It includes scientific words of moderate necessity but avoidable when required, for example NEUTRON and VIOLET. The list compiled by West includes also words of technology like CYLINDER, FORMULA, POLE, NEGATIVE, POSITIVE and SPRAY. Various meanings and uses of words have semantic tones specifying certain topics. Words that are accepted as international are included in the list, e.g. BEER and CIGARETTE.

As the examples mentioned above show, words on West’s list are scientific, technical and colloquial. West’s list was published after the second world war. That fact had an impact on the list (e.g. words with military meaning NUCLEAR and ATOM). As far as meanings are concerned it can be said that the more frequent the
word is, the greater is the variety in which it is used. The main point of the list of 2,000 words is that major and minor words are compared, that is to say, how heavy the learning burden of the words is. The purpose is to cut off all words that are not essential. Anything that is unusual or doubtful can be excluded from the teaching course.

Efforts in vocabulary limitation led to West’s General Service List of English Words. These word lists were early precursors of the monolingual learner’s dictionaries of English. West realized that a random selection is a wasteful approach. Only a complete system capable of continuous enlargement (2,000 words) can form a sufficient basis. To find the minimum number of words has therefore been the chief aim in trying to simplify English for the learner (West 1953: 5). West’s approach has been criticized. An object for criticism is that the list is to some extent outdated. It contains words from counts made in the 1930s and even earlier. A number of common modern words do not appear. Another disadvantage is that the corpus on which the lists are based is a written corpus. As a result a number of the words appear distinctly literary; but data about spoken usage are not available for contrastive purposes. This fact reflects one of West’s main aims, which was to provide a list for pre-reading or simplified reading materials. The absence of information on collocations and collocational frequencies is a disadvantage as well. Certain words seem to keep company with certain other words. As an example, the adjective GOOD can collocate with almost any noun, e.g. GOOD FRIEND. Also the notion of defining words which have ‘coverage’ because they are common or central enough in the lexicon to stand in for other words is insufficiently developed (Carter & McCarthy 1988: 6-9). Meara (1984) has criticized the use of frequency counts on their own. Instead of a carefully chosen vocabulary lists, more attention should be laid on the usefulness of words.

A General Service List of English Words is introduced in Appendix 2.
2.2.1. The University Word List (UWL)

If the learner intends to go on to academic study in upper high school or at university, there is clear need for an academic vocabulary. This list is called the University Word List (UWL). The list is compiled by Averil Coxhead. UWL consists of words that are not in the 2,000 words of GSL but which are frequent and of wide range in academic texts. Wide range means that the words occur not just in one or two disciplines like economics or mathematics but occur across a wide range of disciplines. The purpose behind the setting up of the UWL is to create a list of high-frequency words for learners with academic purposes. So these words can be taught and directly studied in the same way as the words from GSL can.

The University Word List is composed of 808 words divided into 11 levels. Level 1 has the greatest frequency and range, level 2 next, etc. The occurrence of the words of the first three levels is about half of the total occurrences of the entire list. Nation (2001: 12) estimates that the words on this list account for 9 per cent of the words in a typical academic text. The UWL was first published in 1984. A new version has been published and is called the Academic Word List (AWL). The Academic Word List was developed from a corpus of approximately 3,500,000 running words. This corpus contains four disciplines (arts, commerce, law and science) and each discipline is made up of seven subject areas. A word family consists of a headword its inflicted forms and its closely related derived forms (Nation 2001: 8) The list covers only 1.4 per cent of the total words in an equally sized collection of fiction. The list also provides a useful basis for further research into the nature of academic vocabulary. This division of this word list into smaller, frequency-based sublists helps in the sequencing of teaching materials. So a systematic approach to vocabulary learning can be taken. Interest in word lists has continued as the University / Academic Word List clearly shows.

The University Word List is introduced in Appendix 3.
One feature to be observed is the size of the lists (see table 1).

Table 1. Size of word lists. Total amount of words on word lists.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the List</th>
<th>Amount of Words</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic English</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Service List</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Word List</td>
<td>808</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The size of the lists tends to grow as time goes by. The Basic English corpus responds to everyday communication situations. GSL and UWL/AWL respond to specified or professional purposes. The question of size is significant when communicative efficiency is examined.

2.2.2. Vocabulary control movement

The question of size or quantity takes us to a crucial point. In the 20th century wide and systematic vocabulary research was started. This high-profile strand of lexical research made selection of vocabulary possible. It also included an attempt to make vocabulary easier by limiting it to some degree. Research became collectively known as the Vocabulary Control Movement.

The movement has two competitive approaches as precursors discussed before in this study. One is Basic English by Ogden and Richards. It aimed at limiting vocabulary for the clear statement of ideas in the 1920s and in the 1930s. The other was General Service List by Michael West. He aimed at finding systematic criteria to select most useful words for language learning frequency-based method in the 1930s.

There were other persons as well who were interested in controlling vocabulary. They were Hornby in the 1940s to the 1960s, Carter and Meara in the 1980s, Schmitt in 2000, Nation in the 2000s and Laufer from 2000 onwards. Typical of vocabulary controllers was to emphasize a minimal amount of vocabulary items and move to
effective communication by controlling quantity of words. Peculiar to vocabulary controllers was trying to make the learning burden of the learners easier. Another feature was to use a frequency-based method. Particularly the tradition began by West’s quantity-based approach. The two approaches partly overlap. One could suppose that many Basic words in Ogden’s list have turned out to be high-ranking words in various frequency studies.

Among other things, the vocabulary control movement compiled specific word lists. According to Cowie (2001: 210-212) their research project concentrated on the use of collocations. Many collocations are from the word classes of nouns and verbs. These multi-word units (MWUs) consist of groups of words that appear together.

Cowie (2001: 210-211) argues that emphasis was put on learning difficulties. The purpose was to identify a minimum core vocabulary which would facilitate learning efforts of foreign language learners.

Because some of the researchers of the movement actively took part in compiling dictionary projects, one could infer that the Vocabulary Control Movement has had an impact on the development of the modern dictionary.

2.3. The role of dictionaries

Word lists get their practical form in dictionaries. A dictionary itself is a stock of words, a kind of word list. People need help of dictionaries in various situations: a tourist on a trip in a foreign country, or a school child learning a foreign language needs a dictionary, at least the vocabulary of the textbook. In this part I will discuss some essential concepts of the theoretical background of dictionaries and quantitative aspects of vocabulary. They belong to the field of lexicology and lexicography.

Firstly, it is useful to survey methods upon which compiling dictionaries are based. A dictionary aims to list the lexical items (words, idioms, other fixed expressions) in a language and give a description of their meaning and usage. Rare words with their
meanings have been omitted in favour of numerous recent coinages with their new meanings. A dictionary has a specific function: to facilitate communication.

A definition of a dictionary by Berg (as cited in Miettinen 1999: 10) is a following one:

A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech habits of a given speech-community and commented on by the author in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate form, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community.

Traditionally lexical information is presented in printed dictionaries in an alphabetically, or in some other way, organized list of word articles, called entries. Articles consist of headword (target word) and its description or treatment.

From a geographical viewpoint dictionaries are of immense cultural importance because they convey peculiar characteristics from one country to another. There are words and their meanings and also their etymologies in dictionaries. Latin seemed to be a pattern to other languages. The focus is on rule-oriented inflected and derived forms.

2.3.1. Lexicology and lexicography

Whereas lexicology concentrates on general properties and features, systematic lexicography typically concentrates on individuality of each lexical unit in the focus of interest. (Zgusta 1971: 14 as cited in Miettinen 1999). Lexicology is closely related to phonetics and grammar.

General lexicology deals with universal features of the words of language. In this sense lexicology is not language specific, whereas lexicography is more or less language specific in spite of its universal theoretical background.
Whereas lexicology is more theory-oriented, lexicography is more concerned with concrete application. In a certain sense lexicography may be considered as a superior discipline to lexicology. The value of theoretical principles must be estimated according to results (Doroszewski 1974: 36 as cited in Mettinen 1999).

Lexicology is closely related to phonetics and grammar.

The word vocabulary is used interchangeably with lexis. The term lexicon is a more technical version of lexis. People use it synonymously with dictionary.

**2.3.2. Historical review**

I start my historical review by Samuel Johnson, who wrote his dictionary in 1755. He hardly realized that his dictionary would serve for almost a century as a Bible of the English language.

Noah Webster published *An American Dictionary of the English Language* in 1828. This work was the foundation of American lexicography. It was similarly esteemed as Johnson’s dictionary in England.

I go on to a historical review decade by decade.

The 1920s and the 1930s witnessed the beginning of the Vocabulary Control Movement. The movement believed that those words that had the highest frequencies ought to be learnt. In the area of vocabulary limitation efforts led to A General Service List of English Words, West’s *New Method English Dictionary* in 1935, and *Thousand Word English* by Harold Palmer and Albert Sydney Hornby in 1937.

The analytical approach pioneered by Palmer and later joined by Hornby had an impact on the use of dictionaries in the 1930s and in the 1940s. Hornby is best known for his *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English* that was first published in 1948 and published again in 1974. One of Hornby’s essential suggestions was that each lexical item should be introduced in real life situations.
where meaning of each word would be established. In the 1930s and the 1940s, the focus on monolingual learner’s dictionary (MLD) English was constantly expanding. Worldwide demand for English occupied a special place. The 1940s, the 1950s and the 1960s witnessed the period when lexis was somewhat peripheral. The main idea was to push vocabulary into the background. From the mid-1970s onwards the focus was put on dictionary users. Learners took a prominent part. The 1980s focused on dictionary-related research. What to teach, how much to teach and how teach are the main issues. Pedagogical history concentrates on these questions. The purpose is to facilitate writing and translation.

The 1980s and the 1990s witnessed a strong growth in phraseology. With some basic phrasal words one could get along in daily life. Particularly in Western Europe and Northern America linguistic phraseology has become an important field of research. It concentrated on lexicography, especially on current, idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs of English language mainly in written form and in some cases spoken form. The dictionary is a record of phraseological norms as an aid to language learning and teaching (Cowie 2001: 3, 220).

Using dictionaries is a valid activity in studying foreign languages, both as an aid to comprehension and to production. A dictionary should be written so that it is easy to infer or guess the most likely meaning of the word. A dictionary is a learning device on the condition that it consists of definitions and examples. Lexical items must be available for productive and receptive uses.

Word lists and quantity-oriented research give information of the frequencies of words that imply exactness. They represent quantitative thinking. They get their justification from the fact that numerical information or quantity mean exactness, which must be kept in mind. Basic English or dictionaries do not answer the question why some words are more usual than others. Finding the answer to this particular question presupposes more qualitative approaches towards lexis.
Chapter 3 consists of classifying words into smaller categories and types. Associations that may come into being between words are indicated. Furthermore a description of a written and a spoken corpus is included in this chapter. Some glimpses of Internet vocabulary are given at the end of the chapter.

When hearing or seeing a great bulk of words one wonders whether they are selected for permanent use for ever or will they vanish from language.

### 3.1. The notion of word

Now we might focus on a smaller unit: word. We will begin with a discussion of some views of the word. Word is an immense phenomenon in language. Loanwords, words that have been borrowed from other languages, are typical of English. An estimation is that over two-thirds of the English vocabulary have been borrowed from Latin and French. In chapter 1 word was tentatively explained in connection with word lists. Further analysis of word will follow next.

#### 3.1.1. Two categories

There is a relation between words in the lexicon. Lexicon-based vocabulary can be divided into content and function words. Stubbs (2002: 39) and Read (2000: 18) define them as follows:

Words like nouns, adjectives, full verbs, adverbs, numerals, interjections, YES/NO answers are content words. Generally speaking when we test vocabulary we focus on
knowledge of content words. Content words are open-class words. New words are being added in every language.

Words like prepositions, pronouns, determiners, conjunctions, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs and particles are function words. They belong more to the grammar of the language than to its vocabulary. Function words are closed-class words. There are only about 300 function words in English. In these two categories word classes are clearly noticed. A critical look at content and function words reveals that vocabulary is closely related to grammar. Words can be further studied and main types of them can be discovered. Let us look at them next.

3.1.2. Four types

Nation (2001, 2008) has explained them in his two books. Investigation of words reveals four principal word types.

1) High-frequency words.

Nation (2008: 13) mentions that high-frequency words occur very often. They are useful when reading newspapers, writing letters, taking part in conversation and giving talks. They cover 80 per cent of words in texts and language use.

High-frequency words of language are so important that anything that teachers and learners can do to make sure they are learnt is worth doing.

2) Academic words.

Nation (2001:12) claims that academic words contain words that are common in academic texts like POLICY, PHASE, ADJUSTED, SUSTAINED. These words cover 9 per cent of words in texts and language use.
According to Nation (2001:13) Averil Coxhead used an academic corpus made up of scientific, artistic, commercial and legal words. These words form the Academic University Word list.

3) Technical words.
Furthermore, Nation (2001: 12) claims that examples of technical words are INDIGENOUS, REGENERATION, PODOCARP, BEECH and RIMU. Technical words cover 5 per cent of words in texts and language use.

4) Low-frequency words.
According to Nation (2001: 12) low-frequency words make up 5 per cent of the words in texts and language use.

The teacher should not waste valuable time teaching them.

Table 2. Various word types with their percentage dispersion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Type</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High-frequency words</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic words</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical words</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-frequency words</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2 Word associations

Nyyssönen (1990) mentions that linguistic skills are in a constant state of change. Language change is nowhere so evident as in lexis. New words are coined. Old words drop out of use. Some words in English are results of innovations in society like TIETOKONEVIRUS and KULUTUSJUHLA.

Words are in a certain relation to each other. Words do not appear in unorganized lists. Word lists are not randomly built. Applied linguistics tries to solve how these lexical items are related to each other (Carter & McCarthy 1988: 22). There have been debates about how lexis might be organized and defined (Meara 1984). Applied linguistics attempts to identify lexical items, which are the most central ‘nuclear’ in the lexicon. (e.g. Stubbs 1986b, Carter McCarthy 1988).

Word association arises when learners write down the first word that comes to mind when they read or hear a stimulus word. They react with a response word. For example, we may find a stimulus word “bread”. A response word for it maybe “food” or “loaf”.

Aitchison (1987) and Stubbs (1986b) point out that learners at early stages supply their learning with syntactic and semantic links. Associative word relations are learnt if they occur in paired associations e.g. GREEN / GRASS, THUNDER / LIGHTNING.

There are links between words. Sometimes links are vague. Within a topic area or a semantic field one conventionally groups things e.g. HORSE, SADDLE and RIDE. One could say words belong together like things belong together. There is a tendency to group words with the same meaning together. It is called synonymy grouping, e.g. HUGE-VAST-IMMENSE-TREMENDOUS. A practical application is that if words become integrated into the learner’s semantic field, learning will happen. They become part of active vocabulary use if words do not become integrated into
learner’s semantic field, learning will not happen. They become part of passive vocabulary use (Nation 2001: 24).

Active and passive vocabularies are described more precisely in section 4.1.

Efforts of working with words during the following decades led to a revolutionary achievement: computer technology in linguistics. The creation of immensely large corpora was possible. Next I will explain what corpora are.

3.3. The concept of corpus

A significant development in vocabulary studies is the use of corpora during the recent decades. Vocabulary studies are associated with the use of corpora or corpuses (singular: corpus). A corpus is a collection of texts, written or spoken, which is stored on a computer.

Carter, McCarthy and O’Keeffe (2007: 27) point out that many teachers are nowadays using the biggest corpus in the world, the Internet. Information can be searched considerably quickly. We find a corpus a powerful educational tool. Corpus is a resource of real communication, of situations that happen in a real world. Certain words and phrases can be searched. Word lists can be generated. A factor that explains the development of corpora is modern computer technology. Texts that earlier had to be typed manually can nowadays be scanned into computers in a moment.

Earliest corpora began appearing in the first third of the 1900s. Extracts from books, magazines, newspapers and other written sources were assimilated into corpora. Two examples of corpora are the Brown University Corpus focusing on American English and its counterpart in Europe, the Lancaster – Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB) focusing on British English. Now we have “third-generation” corpora that contain hundreds of millions of words. Three examples are: the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus (CIC) and the British National Corpus (BNC). The
Bank of English Corpus has more than 300 million words and the CIC and BNC each have more than 100 million words (Schmitt 2000: 68-69).

Schmitt (2000: 70) concluded that a worldwide language such as English must consider various international varieties of English (North American, British, Australian, Indian etc.).

3.3.1. Corpus of written and spoken language

Vocabulary investigation has further extended into an area where attention is paid to word items that are most common within written and spoken vocabulary. Michael McCarthy and Norbert Schmitt (1997) have examined this division. Description of the most common words in written and spoken corpora follows.

Table 3. Written corpus: Ten most frequent words in written corpora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>THE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>TO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>OF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>WAS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>FOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>THAT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Spoken corpus: Ten most frequent words in spoken corpora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>THE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>YOU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>AND</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>TO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>IT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>YEAH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>THAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>OF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistics register frequency of occurrence. Frequency is a clear proof of commonness. Usefulness correlates weakly with frequency. Words on lists are “general” in the sense that they are not designed for any particular subject, topic or purpose. However word length and frequency correlate: long words tend to be less frequent. A large amount of words, both written and spoken, have been calculated for corpora.

It is clear that quantitative methods and principles are used in vocabulary learning. According to Leech, Rayson and Wilson (2001: 121) the American philologist George Kinsley Zipf (1902 - 1950) proposed Zipf’s law “the principle of least effort” for human language use. This means that words that people use most often will also prove to be the shortest and simplest. Zipf’s law characterizes the frequency of English words.
Leech, Rayson and Wilson (2001:121) continue with this principle by looking at the lengths of words in terms of how many syllables they contain: the most common 1-syllable word is THE, the most common 2-syllable word is INTO, the most common 3-syllable word is GOVERNMENT, the most common 4-syllable word is INFORMATION and the most common 5-syllable word is INTERNATIONAL.

When we try to link corpus linguistics and language teaching we find that a connection between these two can be made. New media such as the Internet enrich traditional textbook-dominated and teacher-centered practices to learn and use language. In the 2000s word technology is so developed that electric dictionaries are at disposal of language teaching professionals. In the Internet era of today words can be searched within seconds.

Next I will review recent trends and future directions of words in the new millennium.

3.4. Internet vocabulary

Modern technology has brought about a change in the communication culture. Computers help language learners to cope with the requirements of information society. The term ‘netspeak’ is peculiar to an era of computer technology. A special kind of language, netspeak, is available on the net and in networks. Netspeak can be called the third means of communicating in addition to speech and writing. Speech and writing have approached each other during the recent years. The phenomenon is noticeable in almost all media.

Cultural and linguistic innovations in language will unavoidably create new coinages. Much of the new vocabulary in the 21st–century English reflects the major social changes and events that have taken place in the real world. By the turn of the new millennium word has travelled beyond books and films. Films introduce hundreds of catch-phrases into English such as Make my day! Television advertising has also been a rich source of catch-phrases (Crystal 2012: 248-250).
The American Dialect Society tried to foretell what future words might be. The members of the society chose the word WEB. It became a success story. It produced such phrases as WEB DESIGN and WEB PAGE. These internet compounds proliferated soon after the world wide web (W.W.W) became public knowledge.

_The New Oxford American Dictionary_ chose UNFRIEND as the word of the year. It means removing someone from a list of contacts. A noun, an unfriend, describes a non-member of a group. The use of prefix –un becomes popular in coinages of the new millennium. The members of the _New Oxford American Dictionary_ chose the word GOOGLE as the word of the decade. GOOGLE means searching for information on the Internet. The question that inevitably comes to our minds is: What will be the word of the century? The members of the _New Oxford American Dictionary_ chose the word JAZZ as the word of the century. A commentator described jazz as “a futurist word which has just joined the language”. It became to describe hundreds of notions associated with types of music (jazz guitar, jazz vocalist, jazz quartet). The word acquired more applications as the century progressed (jazz era, jazz age) (Crystal D 2012: 245, 253).

Words can be shortened. Time, energy and money can be saved if the cost of a message depends on the number of letters it contains. INFO is a shortened form of the word INFORMATION.

About the little word OK _Oxford English Dictionary_ declares “origin unknown.” It is not from French or Latin roots. Why did it not disappear as the other abbreviations did? The rapid use of OK resulted in meaning “all right, good”. Today it is the basic OK form that is encountered on computer screens. Press OK and something will happen! OK is indeed the name of the English textbook that was used in the sample school. Express yourself economically with only a couple of letters! Appearance of many new word forms is due to increased tourism and international business. Whether these words are recalled actively or recognized passively remains to be seen. It seems to be difficult to foretell how long linguistic lives the words mentioned earlier will have.
4. VOCABULARY AND PEDAGOGY

However, we will begin by introducing the concept of personal lexicon and language skills associated with it. After that, I will give a general survey of learning languages. I will also explore the quantitative aspect of it. I will briefly describe how vocabulary competence is measured at school in the form of vocabulary test. There are various factors that have an influence on learning, which will be discussed.

4.1. Personal lexicons and language skills

A person’s vocabulary is expected to grow throughout his/her whole life. Thus, the competence of vocabulary never reaches completeness. The main store for human speech is potential vocabulary. Potential vocabulary consists of such words in the foreign language that learners have not come across before, either in speech or in writing, but which they can nevertheless understand when encountered.

Because of our interest in words in language teaching we meet the area of real vocabulary. It can be divided into two different parts. Firstly, there is active real vocabulary that includes all words that pupils can both understand and use. Secondly, there is passive real vocabulary that includes the foreign language words that the pupils have learned at some stage in the learning process. Pupils can only understand those words (Faerch, Haastrup & Philipson 1984: 96-97).

Heaton (1975: 5) states that from the point of view of pedagogical orientation we can also talk about learner’s active vocabulary and learner’s passive vocabulary. Active vocabulary comprises words that the learner should be able to use in speaking and in writing. Passive vocabulary consists of the words that the learner should be able to recognize and understand when listening to someone or when reading.
The aim is to teach language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing in that order. Language skills are learnt more effectively if items of the foreign language are presented in the spoken form before the written form. The term active for speaking and writing is a synonymous word for productive. The term passive for listening and reading is a synonymous word for receptive. The terms are abundantly used in teaching and psychology.

The distinction between active and passive knowledge of vocabulary leads to the assumption that mental lexicons come in two parts: one part is a phonological orthographical section that identifies the basic form of the word. The other part is a semantic level that specifies its meaning. Foreign words are often stored in learners’ mental lexicons in incomplete ways (Meara 1984: 231).

When we measure the knowledge of children’s English vocabulary we must step into the world of a foreign language learner. There is probably a need to pay attention to such elements as word association and the learner’s personal mental lexicon. What does the learner’s mental lexicon look like is an interesting question. The mental lexicon of a language learner is discussed in detail in the empirical part in chapter 4. Task 5 is an example of mental lexicon analysis in this study. Meara sees the distinction between active and passive vocabulary as being the result of different types of associations between words. Vocabulary can be activated by stimuli, e.g., by hearing or seeing. Schmitt (2000: 57) points out that words are remembered visually: the beginnings of words are remembered best. Their endings and the middles of words are remembered least.

There are writers who think that differences in personal lexicons and language skills depend on the learner’s social, economic and ethnic background. Corson is a representative of this scholarship (Nation 2001: 25-26). He raised the concept of lexical barrier. Lexical barrier explains differences between speakers who come from different social classes. Corson thinks that school has a fundamental role in narrowing or increasing these gaps between learners.
4.2. General on language learning

Learning is not as straightforward as it may look like. While writing a general survey of vocabulary learning several external and internal factors of the learner himself or herself are relevant. On the internal side the learners’ own health, potential mental skills and other personal conditions are important. On the external side many social, economic and environmental factors vary. The more practical things in the close environment are the educational system, the school organization and the classroom environment. Both internal and external factors explain and forecast the personal learning process as a whole. Learning is an active, creative and socially interactive process. The main focus is on the language learner himself/herself. The language learner who is capable of acquiring language is influenced by genetic and environmental factors. The language learner is in interaction with both home and school.

Early language acquisition is based on the theories of Chomsky and Piaget. Chomsky believes that human beings have an inborn ability to learn language. Piaget suggests that children learn language by acting upon their environment. Both Chomsky and Piaget see that children somehow internalize a set of grammatical rules that enable them to produce words in a given language. Children are influenced by rule-governed behavior (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 57).

Children live in a concrete environment. They react to what they see, hear or can touch around them. Concreteness is a characteristic feature. Children’s talk is bound with the dimension “here and now”. Topics concern the immediate environment (here) and current events (now). Children tend to name things around them. Children tend to describe objects around them. Children tend to notice what somebody does or is doing. Word classes – nouns, adjectives, verbs – emerge. Vocabulary increases quickly.

As pupils start studying English as their second language there are a few points that have an impact on a learning process. Let us see what they are and how they affect.
4.2.1. Age

There is a lot of controversy whether the age at which someone is exposed to second language affects acquisition. Some writers claim that second language acquisition (SLA) is the same process and just as successful whether the learner begins as a child or as an adult. Others think adults have disadvantages because of their age. That is really noticed especially in phonology. Others are convinced that young learners have advantages. Young learners are able to achieve native-like performance in SL. A native speaker is a person who has acquired language in infancy. The conclusion is that older learners are faster, but young learners are better (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 154-155).

When learning words is concerned some researchers hypothesize the existence of a “critical period” after which a complete mastery of a language is impossible. Researchers also hypothesize a “sensitive period” during which language acquisition is most efficient (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 156). Attitudinal and motivational aspects have significance. They have an influence on language proficiency. If the attitude is negative, learners may abandon language study completely. If the attitude is positive, learners obtain better results. Motivation is high if learners aim at something worth esteeming like social approval or membership within a group.
4.2.2. Learning difficulties

Dufva (2004: 28-32) argues that among pupils there may be difficulties in listening, thinking, speaking, reading, writing, spelling or in doing mathematical calculations.

Often learning disabilities continue throughout an individual’s life. Pupils who suffer from learning difficulties require constant help with how to adopt to learning situations. Pupils may have ADHD problems. They have a hard time paying attention and concentrating, sitting still and controlling impulsive behavior. Pupils require special education services. Pupils who have problems with acquiring basic skills and with behaviour may have difficulties with social relations, too. Understanding learning difficulties may be useful, even necessary with regard to a learning process. Early foreign language learning foretells future progress. When learning difficulties are concerned, they may be a hindrance to the advancement of language studies. Overcoming them might have an influence on the pupils’ future language studies. How to succeed in overcoming them has an influence on the learners’ motivation and attitude to study foreign languages.

4.2.3. Memory

If one intends to recall words, one has to use memory. That is why it is worth knowing how memory works.

Learnt material is stored in memory. Memory comes in two basic types: short-term memory (also known as working memory) and long-term memory. Long-term memory retains information for use. Short-term memory stores or holds information while it is being processed. It can hold information only for some seconds. Short-term memory is fast, long-term memory is slow. In vocabulary learning the purpose is to transfer the lexical information from the short-term memory to the more permanent long-term memory. New lexical information is linked with previously
acquired, old information. Memory is studied in psychology to a great extent (Schmitt 2001: 131).

4.2.4. Culture

Words and phrases have particular cultural significance. Several scholars, e.g. Stubbs (2002: 145), have proposed that it is possible to identify, in different languages, a relatively small number of words whose meanings give insight into the culture of speakers of those languages. It is argued that the lexicon of a language can be regarded as a key to history, culture and society and that cultures can be understood through their keywords (Stubbs 2002: 145).

Many words and their meanings have changed considerably in the course of time. The early meaning of the word culture referred to agriculture. Later the range of meanings has extended. For etymological reasons several meanings are distinguished. One way is incorporating music, literature and art with culture. The word culture is likely to acquire a social class connotation (Stubbs 1996: 190).

Expanding cultural image happens through culturally-oriented foreign language teaching. Both knowledge of L1 and of L2 increases.

While discussing vocabulary I am interested in the number of words in relation to learning. Next I am going to handle the quantitative aspect of language.
4.3. Quantitative aspects of language learning

A major question is: how many words are there in English? The question of quantity is an essential one. Paul Nation has estimated that the size of the English lexicon is 54,000 word families. Nation (2001: 8) defined word family as consisting of a headword, its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms. This is a large number. It is beyond the goals of most first and second language learners. A vocabulary size of 2,000 words as in the General Service List would account for 80-90 per cent of texts. University graduates possess a vocabulary of 20,000 word families (Nation 2001: 6). Ogden decided that all communication would principally function with 850 words. That number of words would make speaking and writing possible in different communicative situations.

Concerning pedagogy one goal of learning languages is the learning of vocabulary. One wonders whether there is some kind of threshold in language learning between comprehension and non-comprehension. Next I am going to examine this question.

4.3.1. On language learning threshold

During the first two school years the focus is on reading and writing skills. Finnish pupils learn how to read and write, in other words, literacy. When pupils start studying English in the third grade as their foreign language they are skilled in Finnish word recognition and spelling. According to Dufva (2004: 97) the roles of L1 and L2 have not always been self-evident. Today it is widely accepted that L1 has an influence on L2. Good literacy foretells good foreign language learning.

The fact that some universal laws concern all children must not be ignored whatever their L1 is. The question is whether all children learn all words in a language course. Stubbs (1986a: 100) denies the view that everyone would learn all words in a language course. A further question is whether there is some kind of average level
that can be reached by most learners. The answer is that there is an assumption that there exists some kind of average level to be reached by most learners. This view might be noticed in evaluation.

In vocabulary learning such linguistic input where words are abundantly offered to learners is favourable. Pupils learn a new language best when they receive comprehensive input that is a little bit more difficult than what they can easily understand. Beck & McKeown (2007: 262) emphasize that an aspect worth taking into consideration as a young learners are concerned is that the earlier word meanings are learned, the more easily they are accessed later in life.

As Finnish children start learning second language, like English, they confront many difficulties. One reason is that Finnish is not related to English. English is a language that has multiple meanings. Children tend to find one meaning to a word, an exact one. New meanings ought to be explained to the pupils at once. Use of L1 is recommended.

According to Nation (2001: 23) “learning burden” of a word is the amount of effort required to learn it. The general principle is that the more learners know about patterns and have knowledge of vocabulary, the lighter the learning burden will be. For learners whose language is closely related to the second language, the learning burden of words will be light. For learners whose language is not related to the second language, the learning burden will be heavy (Nation 2001: 23, 24).

There has been continuing interest in whether there is a language knowledge threshold which marks the boundary between not having and having enough language knowledge for successful use. The critical level of learned information, e.g. words, to be crossed is called threshold. The threshold level is “the lowest level of foreign-language ability to be recognized.” There are two more ways of defining what a threshold is. One way is to see a threshold as an all-or-nothing phenomenon. If a learner has not crossed the threshold, then adequate comprehension is not possible. If the learner has crossed the threshold, comprehension is possible for the learner (Nation 2001: 144).
The observed fact is that the most frequent words are learnt without much effort. If some words are encountered often the threshold to remember them becomes lower. Laufer (as cited in Nation 2001) has tried to solve a heavy load of unknown vocabulary that makes learning process a troublesome one. If there exists a high density of unknown words, successful guessing of word meanings is unlikely. Laufer stated that if 55 per cent of words in a text are understood, “reasonable” reading comprehension is likely to occur. Moreover Laufer stated that 3,000-5,000 words are needed for sufficient comprehension. It means 95 per cent of the words encountered (Nation 2001: 233-235).

The position of the English language is so solid and the quantity of its speakers so abundant all over the world that English will survive, not vanish. We might ask what is the basic lexis of L2 like? Numbers from 1 to 10 and WH-question words (WHAT, WHERE, WHEN, WHY) and HOW prevail. A survival list of vocabulary would include 120 items associated with buying, reading signs and ordering food (Schmitt 2000: 142).

Stubbs (1986: 112) illustrates that there is a significant correlation between vocabulary size and both reading comprehension and overall verbal intelligence. However, there is no real agreement whether vocabulary influences verbal intelligence and reading comprehension or whether the relation is indirect. There are major uncertainties involved in how to teach vocabulary and one major problem is: where to start?
4.3.2. A learning goal at school: vocabulary test

In practice an example of a quantity-oriented approach in a pedagogical environment is a vocabulary test at school. Which words to teach? What is a suitable amount of words to teach? How to teach? When I come to the door of a classroom I ask pedagogy these questions. I organize the vocabulary test in this way:

Five words in L1 are presented by the teacher and the pupils have to write equivalents of those words in L2. This manner of proceeding measures active mastery of words. Five words in L2 are presented by teacher and pupils have to write equivalents of those words in L1. This manner of proceeding measures passive mastery of words. Pupils have to know the meaning of words in both directions: from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1. Word identification is more efficient if it happens in both directions. Recalling from memory must be instantaneous. Spelling errors are not ignored. When division of words into word classes is concerned, it might be worth mentioning that correct use of articles and correct use of singular and plural forms are paid attention to when nouns and adjectives are concerned. Correct use of tenses is paid attention to when verbs are concerned. Correct orthographic form is demanded from the pupils.

The number of words known can be calculated precisely and the amount of words not-known, too. Results obtained from the vocabulary test are clearly a quantity-based indication. Numerical information obtained in the test is exact and objective. Average value of the vocabulary test informs us of learning and is a basis for evaluation. Good learning results may be due to remembering appropriate word associations. Words and expressions in the test are taken from word lists in the textbook, which is a primary source.

Too low requirements in setting goals for learning discourage learners. Too low requirements seem to be a mistake both on linguistic and on psychological grounds. Meara (1995) proposes that a basic vocabulary should be taught relatively quickly. 50 words in an hour is quite common. At that rate the learner would learn 2,000 words in 40 hours. In fact as Meara’s opinion about learning rate is compared with that of
Ogden’s there exists a certain resemblance. Both Meara and Ogden claim that learning 50 words in an hour is peculiar to a good learner.

In spite of difficulties I am enthusiastic to teach words. Interest in learning words only grows when new word items are added to earlier acquired vocabulary. What means are available among other things as words are learned is paid attention to next

4.4. Vocabulary learning strategies

As helpful mind tools I will here suggest some vocabulary learning strategies. Frequency is not the only criterion for choosing words to teach. Firstly, vocabulary must be learned in context. The meanings of words are better remembered if words are encountered in a meaningful context. Nation (2008: 75) claims that learning from context is the most important vocabulary learning strategy and an essential part of any vocabulary learning programme. Secondly, in a learner-centered curriculum learners focus on words that they want to learn. It can be highly motivating if learners have a personal need to “know” a word (Schmitt 2000: 144).

Thirdly, I introduce a mnemonic device: the mind map technique that may help learning. The English educationalist Tony Buzan is the originator of the mind map technique. He is the creator of mental literacy. Task 5 in chapter 5 is an example of mind map. Buzan claims that a range of images enter your head when you read or hear words. The mind map resembles a network. Close to a centre there are the most significant words, keywords. The keyword is generally a noun or a verb, sometimes an interrogative e.g. WHO, WHAT, HOW, WHEN and so on (Buzan 1995: 49).

From the centre many lines derive. On them there are the most essential words. You can make your network larger by adding words that occur to you. Words on lines can be written with different colours. Colours can emphasize the hierarchical order of words. Some words are more important than others. Mind map is a way of filling up space. You start from a keyword and other words follow. Through the mind map technique you are able to imagine more alternatives. You are more creative. The
functioning of the brains, processes in them, make associative links between words. Mind map is a mnemonic device that helps learning. The mind map technique is not utilized alone but it is used as a complementary device. Time is saved when noting and reading only relevant words.

Fourthly, according to Beheydt (1987: 60) pictures can serve as an aid to learners especially at the elementary school. Visual stimulus can evoke verbal production that may be hidden in memory.

Fifthly, I will continue with a way of making comprehension of vocabulary easier: key word technique. Pupils learn a word in the target language by associating it with its translation in the native language (Nation 2001: 311) (Carter McCarthy 1987: 66). There is an equivalence between a word in L1 and L2.

In second language acquisition, a road from form to meaning leads to use. Briefly it is uttered:

\[ \text{FORM} \rightarrow \text{MEANING} \rightarrow \text{USE} \]

Nation (2001: 300) emphasizes that the three specific dimensions have an impact on each other, in other words, there is a strong link between them.

Sixthly, there has been discussion about the strategy of teaching and learning. By strategy we mean techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire language (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 199).

Strategy is abundantly used in linguistics, especially in language teaching. Originally strategy was a military term. Nowadays it is applied to many branches of social life. Strategy in waging war is primarily a doctrine of how to win war. One of the most famous books that deals with the topic is the *Art of War*. It is compiled by the Chinese general Sun Tzu who lived 2500 years ago.

The following two tenets are mentioned in the book.

1. What is essential in war is victory not prolonged operations (Griffith 2011: 113).
While studying languages that might mean reaching the final outcome: learning itself not troublesome ventures lasting forever and leading nowhere.

2. War is the road to survival or ruin (Griffith 2011: 91).

While studying languages that might mean that by means of language competence you are able to save yourself, not end up destroying your life.

Vocabulary could be acquired with flexible learning dynamics where learners themselves are actively involved. Pedagogy should be able to offer many alternatives for learners in the future. New curricula that are introduced should follow prevailing trends in society. Topical areas interest pupils, e.g. pets and vehicles (in task 2 a and b). New curricula achieve their pedagogical application in textbooks.

Word lists as described in chapter 1 are the nucleus of frequency-based vocabulary: supporter of this methodological approach emphasize objectiveness of lists compared to personal intuitions. Schmitt (2000), for example, argues that advantages of using word lists are remarkable particularly in the age of computational science and technology. Byrne, Ferguson and Miller (2000) have quite an opposite view. They emphasize in their criticism that pupils can neither improve their reading comprehension, nor do word lists serve as an adequate basis for future word learning. Meara (1995) is also against using word lists. He says that they are an unnatural way of acquiring vocabulary items.
5. THE EXPERIMENT

5.1. Setting

In this chapter I will test theory with empirical data. The main basis of the theoretical framework is presented in chapter 1. The research test group consists of 11-year-old Finnish school children learning English as a second language. Theory and practice are linked together through vocabulary tasks answered by a test group. To test empirically the young, non-native learners’ vocabulary against the theoretical framework is one object of the present paper.

Word lists presented in chapter 1 give quantitative information of more essential or usually used vocabulary. The compilers of the lists have chosen the words on their lists based on their own consideration. A young, foreign language learner learns the items of a lexical corpus in some systematic or other way. So our job is to find out what is the connection between his/her lexicon and the setting. I have chosen the Basic English word list as a research focus to be tested with young learners’ vocabulary. Basic English was chosen for the following reasons:

Firstly, Ogden and Richards tried to collect such words on their list as everyone could use in everyday situations. Words are easy enough to be learned by everyone. The use of GSL and that of UWL are for the needs of economic life and scientists, hence for the use of adults. Vocabulary of Basic English list seems to consist of simple and easy words and therefore I have made an assumption that the vocabulary of Basic English represents more the language of children than the other word lists do.

Secondly, the total frequency of words on the Basic English list (850 items) is small. This is important when we think about several thresholds in learning words. Learning can be thought to happen gradually: essential “basic” words before others.
Thirdly, in combination with previously presented facts, the ability to learn during a short period of time is limited.

The main purpose is to find answers to two following questions:

a) Does a word known or used belong to the Basic English list?
b) If not, are there other explanations for knowing or using that word?

The method that was used was counting the frequencies of words which were on learners’ answer sheets and comparing them with the Basic English word list. Frequencies were written on tables and were interpreted verbally.

The frequencies counted in the tasks are declared by division into word classes.

NOUNS: Task 1 and Task 5

ADJECTIVES: Task 2a and b

VERBS: Task 1

EXPRESSIONS OF TIME AND PLACE: Task 4

Tasks 2c, 4, 6 and 7 were left outside the study. The reason is that they do not fit into the specified research problem.

The experiment was taken at Rajakylä school in Oulu. The duration of the experiment was one hour. The experiment was carried out during the English lesson in May 1990. Supervision was arranged by the English teacher herself. Finnish school children learning English as a second language formed a test group. The age of learners was 11. The number of learners was 77, of whom 42 were girls and 35 were boys. Pupils had two English lessons a week. They had studied English for 3 years.

Pupils took part in the experiment that consisted of seven tasks (see Appendices 4-8). Tasks in the research were limited to four because all of them did not suit the research problem.
Parts of tests, called tasks, examined whether pupils’ answers to vocabulary tasks contained items that belonged to Basic English word list. Spelling mistakes were ignored. If the intended meaning of the word could be interpreted, the word was taken into analysis as an accepted observation.

When data from experiment was collected some clear results were observed. Results were then explained verbally and in the form of tables. The main results were analysed and written down. The following is the situation at the lower levels of the Finnish comprehensive school. It remains to be seen how this situation changes at the upper levels of the Finnish comprehensive school and later or, whether it changes at all. If the tasks were too difficult the answer sheets would have been empty. No tables could have been drawn, and no results would have been got. The question is whether the tasks were too easy or the level of difficulty, after all, an appropriate one? Another question is whether the quality of the selected tasks was an even one.

5.2. Empirical data

The empirical part is begun by introducing the tasks one by one.

In task 1 pupils were asked to complete a conversation. The dialogue maintained between two persons is a basis. It starts with a question: “Do you like…?” Ordinary people talk about everyday events. The topics are part of their daily lives. There are persons, in relation to sex or family (mother, brother). In the dialogue, frequent items of everyday vocabulary are used. Many nouns familiar to us like ANIMAL, MOTHER, BROTHER, FOOD and DRINK belong to the Basic English list (see Table 5).

The highest frequency has the lexical item MOTHER that can be found on every pupil’s (77) answer sheet. Nearly the same is true of the lexical item BROTHER. 74 pupils knew the meaning of the lexical item BROTHER. Item FOOD appears on 60 answer sheets. Item DRINK appears on 69 answer sheets. 63 pupils knew the meaning of the lexical item PET. 45 pupils knew the meaning of the lexical item
ANIMAL. The nouns belong to learners’ active vocabulary. They can both understand and use them.

It is worth mentioning that pronoun I was known by 39 learners. It is astonishing on the grounds that children at this age (11) are said to be self-centered. It is assumed that they learn at once precisely the word that means directly each individual himself/herself. However, all of them do not learn the pronoun I in this way.

Table 5. Frequency of some nouns in Task 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOUN</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>BASIC ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOTHER</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BROTHER</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRINK</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PET</td>
<td>63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANIMAL</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In task 1 there are verbs in conversation such as LOOK AFTER, EAT, DRINK and LIKE. The most frequently appearing verbs are EAT and DRINK (see Table 6). 70 pupils out of 77 guessed the right answer. 69 knew the meaning of the verb LIKE. 41 could translate LOOK AFTER correctly. LOOK and DRINK belong to the Basic English word list. The preposition AFTER is combined with the verb LOOK. Together they form a phrasal verb. The preposition AFTER is found on the Basic English word list. The verbs belong to pupils’ active vocabulary. They can both understand and use them.
Table 6. Frequency of some verbs in Task 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>BASIC ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DRINK</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAT</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIKE</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOOK AFTER</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second section of the experiment measured pupil’s command of English adjectives. Children were asked to describe a pet and a vehicle with as many words as they possibly could. The amount of adjectives included all correctly spelled English words but also any misspelled words that could be easily recognized as English words either in writing or when pronounced. The adjective that is met most often is BIG (see Table 7). BIG does not belong to the Basic English list. The adjective LOVELY tends to appear often in children’s productions. LOVELY does not turn up on the Basic English word list. SCARY differs from the group of other known words. It does not appear on the Basic English word list. The reason for this may be that it is a rather new invention in vocabulary and it has no Anglo-Saxon roots. SCARY has been in fashion and human talk tends to follow trends that dominate.

The pupils described a vehicle with various adjectives. The adjectives that the children produced most often were EXPENSIVE and FAST. Neither EXPENSIVE nor FAST belong to the Basic English word list.

The adjectives written down by pupils belong to their active vocabulary. They can both understand and use them. Vocabulary can be investigated from the point of view whether it belongs to a semantic or lexical field or not. This point of view provides a pattern based on a general-particular relationship. Task 2b provides an example of a general-particular pattern. Vehicle is a general term. A sports car is a particular term.

Colour terms form a semantic or lexical field. The most popular of them is RED. RED is a short word written and pronounced in an identical way. BLACK appears on
children’s productions frequently, too. RED and BLACK belong to the Basic English word list. They are also an example of a general-particular pattern. Colour is a general term, while RED and BLACK are particular terms. 35 pupils knew the meaning of the lexical item RED. 25 pupils knew the meaning of the lexical item BLACK.

Table 7. Frequency of some adjectives in Task 2a and b

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>BASIC ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BIG</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPENSIVE</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOVELY</td>
<td>46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RED</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLACK</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAST</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCARY</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the fourth task pupils were asked to read through a passage carefully and then translate some words into Finnish.

Some lexical items seem to have a higher priority than others. Such a feature is time. One time reference is the set YESTERDAY-TODAY-TOMORROW. YESTERDAY can be paraphrased as THE DAY BEFORE TODAY. TODAY can very clumsily be paraphrased: THIS VERY DAY. TOMORROW can be paraphrased as the DAY AFTER TODAY. TODAY is a lexicalized combination of TO and DAY.

On Ogden’s list of 850 words TODAY is missing. Its component parts TO and DAY are among the 850 words. The lexical items YESTERDAY, NIGHT, THEN and NEAR can be found on Ogden’s Basic English list (see Table 8). The lexical items SOON, OUTSIDE and ONCE do not occur on the Basic English list. The meaning of the lexical item TODAY was correctly inferred by 70 pupils. The time expressions THE DAY BEFORE YESTERDAY was correctly guessed by 25 pupils. It belongs to Basic English word list, all three components of it.
The time expression NIGHT was correctly inferred by 72 pupils. In the textbook for the forms 4 and 5 the translation equivalent for THEN is SILLOIN, SITTEN. This item was correctly translated by 47 pupils. Place is indicated by the Basic item NEAR. The correct answer was produced by 33 pupils. The right meaning of the item SOON was found on the answer sheets of 48 pupils. Likewise place is focused on by the lexical item OUTSIDE. The translation equivalent for it according to the textbook is ULKOPUOLELLA. It was correctly inferred by 64 pupils. The time expression ONCE was correctly guessed by 67 pupils.

The number of expressions of time and place was small. Only 8 items were included in the task. That is why very far-reaching conclusions cannot be drawn. The diversity of items does not exist. Solely expressions of time and place occurred. These facts contribute to a scanty number of results. All expressions of time and place do not belong to the Basic English word list but nevertheless they are used. There are possibly some other ways of examining them.

*Table 8. Frequency of some expressions of time and place in Task 4*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME AND PLACE EXPRESSIONS</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>BASIC ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NIGHT</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TODAY</td>
<td>70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONCE</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUTSIDE</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOON</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THEN</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEAR</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THE DAY BEFORE YESTERDAY</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously the picture on the sheet stimulates learners to write some key words. The picture gives a clue of what the key words might be. HOUSE, TREE, BIRDS are
keywords in task 5. As far as the mind map technique is concerned it must be pointed out that the words that are met on children’s answer sheets are not those that are on Ogden’s list. Pupils wrote 324 words altogether.

How the mental lexicon is built for an individual learner gives clues about the learner’s potential vocabulary. There are a lot of differences between pupils. Yet there are not remarkable differences between the sexes. Both girls and boys possess language skills. Different things come to our minds through associations. Memory is the result of personal experiences of life and that is why memory is different for different persons. Motivation and repetition are of essential importance in memory. As you speak, an active process to choose words is going on all the time. As the mind map technique is developed, the abilities to remember and learn grow. Creativity and imagination increase, because you can use various abilities, see connections and develop ideas.

The picture on the sheet (Task 5) stimulates learners to write some key words according to their personal interests. After that their answers are guided by their personal associations. The nouns that most frequently turn up are HOUSE (71), TREE (55), BIRD (47), TABLE (25) and WINDOW (24). They belong to the Basic English word list. The noun GHOST (20) cannot be found on Basic English word list. The noun CHAIR (17) cannot be found there, either. CAT (19), DOG (16) and NIGHT (14) turn up. These three lexical items mentioned last belong to the Basic English word list.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOUN</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>BASIC ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HOUSE</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TREE</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIRD</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WINDOW</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Words or phrases that had a rare appearance in children’s writings were MADE IN JAPAN, FOR SALE, IN LOVE, EASY DRIVE, BOMB JACK, GANGAROO and TOP GUN. Some pupils used these expressions. They do not turn up in the OK English textbook.

5.3. Evaluation of word knowledge: comparison between girls and boys

A comparative study reveals differences in vocabulary competence between girls (42) and boys (35). Criteria for evaluation consist of a four-scale dimension: excellent, very good, good and satisfactory. Evaluation is a kind of summary where selected tasks (1, 2a and b, 4 and 5) are described.

Excellent competence was shown by 14 girls. Excellent competence was shown by 6 boys. Excellent language use is accurate and fluent. Use of prepositions is exact. Remarkable language proficiency is possessed by only few learners.

Very good competence was shown by 12 girls. Very good competence was shown by 12 boys. Very good language use consists of a large variety of nouns. Girls and boys seem to be equally skilled in their language competence.

Good competence was shown by 8 girls. Good competence was shown by 9 boys. There is consistency in vocabulary choices between L1 and L2. There is not a noteworthy difference between boys and girls at a good level. Satisfactory competence was shown by 8 girls. Satisfactory competence was shown by 8 boys. Inadequate language use is noticed as a mixture of singular and plural forms of nouns: e.g. A PETS. Yet comprehension leads to production. Some synonymy pairs
appear e.g. SMALL / LITTLE, SLIM /THIN and still one with same meaning: TIDY. Some adjectives may be repeated (e.g. FAT) on an individual language learner’s answer sheet in task 2a and b. There are not significant differences between boys and girls at the satisfactory level.

Table 10. Evaluation of word knowledge, Comparison between boys and girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA OF EVALUATION</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXCELLENT</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VERY GOOD</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOOD</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATISFACTORY</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is doubtful if 11-year-old learners can regulate their learning. Their answering techniques are undeveloped. Their language learning efforts cannot be consciously linked with language skills. If good learners are compared with poor ones, some characteristic features can be mentioned. Good learners review and practice target words. They are aware of semantic relationships between new and previously learned L2 words. They are conscious of their learning and take steps to regulate it. Poor learners lack this awareness and control. Some kind of average level to be reached by most learners was briefly referred to in chapter 4. Perhaps we can call this level that pupils reached the Basic English level.
6. DISCUSSION

At the age of 10 and 11 pupils’ vocabulary still focuses mainly on content words. Under these circumstances it is natural to select word classes as a starting-point for classifying words in the research carried out at the elementary school where the test group consists of young learners. The Basic English word list concentrates on word classes.

Which word classes research findings belong to is a relevant question. Of three word classes (nouns, adjectives and verbs) nouns have most the relevance. Adjectives, verbs and prepositions have less relevance. Ogden’s idea of verb elimination seems to support this claim. Prepositions are added to verbs. They have a supplementary function. Adjectives if added, seem to weaken the message. A message is more properly conveyed by nouns alone. It must be pointed out that Ogden and Richards accepted only 18 verbs on their list. The idea of minimal adequate vocabulary is what is striven for. The vocabulary control movement is noticeable.

Tasks were of three kinds: completing (1, 2), translating (4) and visual (5). The best success was gained by task 1, where nouns turned out to be used most often by pupils. Nearly as successful was task 2 where adjectives were easily recognized by pupils. Task 4 measured equivalence between Finnish and English with a reasonable success. Visually the mind map technique gave the opportunity to see the mental lexicon of an individual learner in practice in task 5.

The tasks form a general survey of the first three years of language studies at the lower levels of the Finnish comprehensive school. Because the number of pupils is only 77, plenty of results cannot be obtained. Furthermore the age of learners (11 years) is a limiting factor. The size of vocabulary is small at this learning phase. The number of words known is larger later as vocabulary learning advances. Examining vocabulary items will be easier then.

The method used in the research work is simple and easy to carry out. Searching for correspondences between children’s answers and the Basic English word list is the
method adopted in this study. High-frequency words in tasks give information of acquisition of vocabulary. Easy and important words are known by learners.

Research seems to be feasible. There is demand for measuring vocabulary knowledge. A possibility of replicating the test would increase the reliability of the test. The learning results are a clear proof of the validity of the test. If the material were larger, the results of the project would be statistically more significant.

Application of frequency-based theory and word lists do not alone solve an immense problem of foreign language teaching. There will be no simple advice for rules or handy solution to the question of vocabulary acquisition. Usefulness of word lists as a practical tool in everyday classroom situations cannot be guaranteed. Furthermore physical, social and psychological factors have an impact on learning. In addition to the teacher a peaceful studying environment has an important role in the learning process.

Communication and information technologies in addition to electricity and traffic witnessed the beginning of a new era in the 20th century. In linguistics new words emerged into the vocabulary. The idea was that vocabulary would be a remarkable linguistic research area and a central factor in language teaching. Charles K. Ogden compiled the Basic English word list in the 1920s. An international universal language code which would have a lot of utility and usefulness was his endeavour. Basic English based on Anglo-American language code aimed at simplifying grammar and syntax. Economic thinking together with linguistic theories seemed to fit together. Basic English became popular and spread English widely to the surrounding world. As years passed Basic English faded. Its utility and usefulness was scarce in linguistics, as well as for teaching purposes. However, Basic is a computer language of today.

Further research could be carried out in the 8th grade at the upper levels of the Finnish comprehensive school. Still further research could be carried out when pupils take their matriculation examinations.

Finally I will write some arguments why I made certain decisions in my research study. My research is a survey of language learning, teaching and evaluation for
beginners. Methodological choices are done accordingly. All vocabulary tasks were written. Spoken language would have been another alternative. The same pupils would have been a target for spoken evaluation. Yet spoken evaluation has not been so developed in Finnish language classes so far. I as a researcher chose high-frequency words as an application area within the domain of vocabulary. This research offers results on high-frequency words identified in children’s language. A universal application can be incorporated into this research. Investigating word lists can be extended into other languages. In the multimedia society of today vocabulary research will concentrate on the possibilities that modern computer-based corpora can offer. The word technology of today has contributed to the appearance of electronic dictionaries. Prospects of English seem to be favourable because the position of English is BASIC in the era of computational technology where we are living.
REFERENCES


Garay, K.E. 1988 in Canadian historical association historical papers in finest hour 68.


## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Basic English word list

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLES OF WORD ORDER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### BASIC ENGLISH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THINGS</th>
<th>200 Pictured</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>400 General</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### OPERATIONS: 100 ETC.

### QUALITIES: 90 Opposites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>100 General</th>
</tr>
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</table>

### BASIC ENGLISH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUALITIES</th>
<th>90 Opposites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### EXAMPLES OF WORD ORDER

- Awake
- Able
- Acid
- Able
- Acid
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# Appendix 2: A General Service List of English Words

## A GENERAL SERVICE LIST OF ENGLISH WORDS

<p>| Abdomen* | Absorb | Accurate | Acid | Aerial | Affect | Alcohol | Alkaline | Alloy | Alternating Current | Ammonium | Ampere | Analyze | Anchor | Ant | Anthropoid | Axes | Axes | Apparatus | Area | Artery | Atom | Automatic | Axle | Axle | Bacteria | Balloon | Bank (of tree) | Barometer | Bat (animal) | Battery | Bear | Beetle | Benzene Ring | Bleach | Blood | Bolt (nut) | Bond (chemical) | Boot | Bounce | Bowel | Brake | Break | Bread | Bearing (of machine) | Bedfog | Bee |
|-----------|--------|----------|-----|--------|--------|---------|----------|--------|----------------------|-----------|---------|---------|--------|-----|-----------|-----|-----|----------|------|---------|------|---------|------|------|-----------|--------|---------|-------|--------|-------|------|-----------|------|-------|
| celluloid | current | centigrade | channel | charcoal | charge (electric) | clock | chemistry, Felix | chew | chin* | citrus* | diesel | chocolate | cigarette | drizzle | circuit (electric) | circumference | claw* | climate | coconut | cell | compass | compound (chemical) | compass | concentrated* | condenser (electric) | conductor (heat, electricity) | cure | consist of | contract, to | cord (string, spiral) | correspond to* | curd | crane (machine) | crank | cross-section* | crystal | cubic | cylinder (shape, engine) | duty | eternal | deck | decorate | dense | deposit | design |
| decor | developing (photography) | diagonal | diagram | disseminate | digest | dismiss | direct current | diameter | drain | drainage | dress (a wound) | drill (tool) | drug | dye | echo | eclipses | electrode | electrolysis | electron | element (chemical) | ionization | energy | equation | equator | equivalent* | evaporate* | expand | extract |
| Fahrenheit | ferment, to, a | ferro | fertilizer (seeds) | fertilize (chemical) | fiber | field (magnetic, electric) | file (tool), filings | filter* | filtrate* | flux | flux* | flux | focus | formula* | fossil | fraction | frequency (of waves and) | friction | (electric current) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>section, cross*</td>
<td>telescope</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEIZURE (= fit)</td>
<td>television</td>
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<tr>
<td>sensation</td>
<td>temporary*</td>
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<tr>
<td>sensitive/ory</td>
<td>thermometer</td>
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<tr>
<td>septic, antiseptic</td>
<td>theory</td>
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<tr>
<td>series</td>
<td>-tight (air-tight, etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>tib</td>
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<tr>
<td>sieve</td>
<td>tip (end)</td>
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<tr>
<td>similar</td>
<td>TISSUES (of living body)</td>
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<tr>
<td>skeleton*</td>
<td>tox</td>
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<tr>
<td>skull</td>
<td>torch (electric)</td>
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<td>slanting</td>
<td>transparent</td>
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<td>slate</td>
<td>triangle</td>
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<td>slit</td>
<td>truck*</td>
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<td>smallpox</td>
<td>trumpet</td>
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<td>snail</td>
<td>tuft</td>
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<td>soak</td>
<td>tunnel*</td>
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<td>soda</td>
<td>tyre</td>
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<td>soda-water</td>
<td>urine</td>
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<td>sole (foot, shoe)*</td>
<td>vacuum</td>
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<tr>
<td>SOLUBLE, SOLUTION</td>
<td>VALVE (machine, radio)</td>
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<tr>
<td>soot</td>
<td>vapour, evaporate</td>
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<td>source</td>
<td>varnish</td>
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<td>spark</td>
<td>vaty</td>
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<td>spear</td>
<td>vegetable</td>
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<td>SPECTRUM</td>
<td>vein</td>
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<td>spider</td>
<td>vibrate</td>
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<td>spine, spinal cord</td>
<td>vinegar</td>
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<td>spiral</td>
<td>violet (colour)</td>
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<td>spoke (of wheel)</td>
<td>vitamin</td>
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<td>sponge/y</td>
<td>vulcano</td>
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<td>SPORE</td>
<td>VOLT</td>
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<td>spray, to*</td>
<td>volat (bulk)</td>
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<td>squared, square root</td>
<td>vonit</td>
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<td>starch</td>
<td>wedge</td>
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<tr>
<td>stern (ship)*</td>
<td>whale</td>
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<td>STIMULUS*</td>
<td>wrinkle</td>
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<td>STORAGE BATTERY</td>
<td>X-rays</td>
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<td>structure*</td>
<td>yeast</td>
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<td>submarine</td>
<td>yofic</td>
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<td>surgical/ical</td>
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<td>switch</td>
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<td>tank (war)*</td>
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<td>tap (instrument)</td>
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Appendix 3: University Word List

University Word List

UWL Level 1

alternative analyze approach arbitrary assess assign assume compensate complex comply component concept conclude consist constant construct consult contact context criterion data define definite denote derive devise dimension distinct element environment equate equivalent establish evaluate evident formulate guarantee hypothesis identify ignore illustrate impact implicit imply indicate initial interpret involve magnitude method minimum modify negative obvious potential presume prime proceed publish pursue random range region require restrict reverse role similar specify status subsequent suffice sum summary technique tense ultimate usage valid vary vertical

UWL Level 2

accelerate achieve adjacent affect approximate assert authorize automatic aware chapter complicate comprehend conceive concentrate consequent contrast contribute convert create crucial decade demonstrate design devote distort emphasize empirical ensure entity equilibrium expand expose external feasible fluctuate focus function generate individual infer inhibit innovation intense intuitive isolate magnetic major manipulate mathematics mature notion obtain occur passive period perspective pertinent phase phenomena portion precede precise principle react respective section segment select sequence series shift signify simultaneous sophisticated species stable statistic structure technology theory trace tradition transmit undergo verbal verify

UWL Level 3

abandon accomplish adapt adequate adjust appreciate appropriate area attitude chemical circumstance classic commune conduct conflict consume convene coordinate correspond credible critique dedicated deficient deviate discrete disperse dispose drama dynamic economy estimate exclude exert explicit exploit factor feature final geography image intellect intelligent issue labor maintain manifestation maximum motive network norm rotate occupy orientate physical plot pole positive preposition prestige previous proprietor rational relevance rely reveal rotate satellite scheme seek source superficial task transition underlie visual

UWL Level 4

acquire administer aesthetic allege allocate alter analogy appraise assemble assure atmosphere atom attribute avail axis bomb capable cease constitute contaminate contract dissect culture dedicate denominator dense diagram discourse distribute diverse dominate elaborate eliminate embody emotion energy eventual forgo fragment goal hereditary impress incident incompatible induce integrate internal intervene investigate judicial justify litigate logic military mobile perpendicular persist philosophy predict project proportion psychology reject release research reservoir revolt speculate sphere spontaneous stipulate subsidize subsidize superimpose symbol tentative text theorem upsurge

UWL Level 5

absorb abstract accurate advocate aid biology category client code compound confront contract contrary crisis deny dictate diffuse dispute duration edit electron enlighten err execute expose fraud grant graph gravity homogeneous implement impose incorporate insist institute instruct interval job kindred label legitimate objective overlap parenthesis perpetuate preliminary radius respond restore retard rudimentary secure stimulate stress style subtle superior supplement
UWL Level 6

abnormal academic accompany adjective adult agitate appeal arouse aspect assist attain awe benefit civic clarify collide comment commit compute conform conjunction console contemplate contend contingent controversy converse cooperate cycle decline degenerate doctrine extract fertile found hemisphere hierarchy identical incline income instinct interact interlock interlude legal locate medium metabolism microscope minor nerve niche oblige participate planet propagate propensity prosper protest radical reign reinforce revise sanction scalar strata subjective sustain tangent terminology tone topic uniform urban virtual volume voluntary

UWL Level 7

adolescent affiliate affluence alcohol aristocrat astronomy cell collapse colloquial commodity competence concentric confer configuration congress conserve continent corporate creditor crystal cumbersome defer degrade democracy depress dissolve divine domestic ethics finance fraction friction fuse geometry horror incentive incessant intermediate invade inverse invoke migrate morphology muscle navy neutral nutrient obsolete odor parliament peasant plead policy pragmatic precipitate prevail prudence rectangle reform refute repudiate revive rhythm saint schedule score sibling sketch sociology spectrum stereotype terror texture thermal tissue transact x-ray

UWL Level 8

adhere aggregate aggression align allude ally bore bureaucracy cater circulate coincide consent correlate currency deprive detect detriment discern dissipate drug evolve fallacy finite fraternal frustrate imperial index invest launch legislate lens liable linguistic locomotion magic metaphor monarch nuclear oscillate oxygen partisan pendulum pervade postulate premise proclaim provoke rebel reluctance reproduce rigid secrete sex solar spatial subordinate supreme territory treaty trend utilize utter

UWL Level 9

acid ambiguity amorphous asset averse carbon complement condense confine construe displace diverge drastic efficient enumerate evaporate evoke exhaust faction federal frontier fund illuminate indigenous innate integer intrinsic liberate margin material matrix molecule momentum odd orbit residue reverberate rural stationary subdivide suspend unduly velocity vibrate violate vocabulary

UWL Level 10

access angular anomaly anonymous anthropology append appendix ascribe aspiration assent assimilate auspices clinic coefficient cogent comprise compulsion converge deflect deliberate dispense elevate elicit eloquent emancipate embrace emerge enrich episode equidistant exponent facilitate fluent fossil inconsistent inflation ingenious inherent interrelate interview intimacy maternal myth null option outcome perpetual priority procure prohibit province purport quote recur remove render repress resident rigor satellite skeleton surplus tangible tolerate triangle vague

UWL Level 11

accumulate annual apparatus arithmetic attach battery breed bubble bulk calendar cancel capture career catalogue challenge channel circuit column communicate compel cylinder debate decimal defect diameter digest drain enable equipment expert export fare fate fluid fuel fulfill fundamental
Appendix 4: Task 1

**SANASTOTENTTIA**

I

**Nimesi**

Tyytään Cillin ja Jarmoa keskustelu.

Cilli: Do you like _____ halkaisi?

Jarmo: Yes, I do. I have got ______, ______ and _______ at home.

Cilli: Who _____ heitaa _____ them?

Jarmo: My _____ Elini and _____ valjani _____ mind, usually.

Cilli: What do they _____ syövät ______ juovat ______?

Jarmo: Their favourite _____ ruoka ______ is ______. Their favourite _____ juoma ______ is ______.

Cilli: I _____ pickaa all my _____ teemakkilaisimistä very much.

Jarmo: How ______ ihansa!
Appendix 5: Tasks 2a, b, and c

IIa Kuvaile neiti Jacksonin kissaa niin monella sanalla kuin osat (issä, ihana, pelottava jne.).

1. Miss Jackson's cat is ____________________________.
2. Miss Jackson's cat is ____________________________.
3. Miss Jackson's cat is ____________________________.
4. Miss Jackson's cat is ____________________________.
5. Miss Jackson's cat is ____________________________.

IIb Kuvaile herran Cooperin urheiluautoa niin monella sanalla kuin osat (kallis, hopea jne.).

1. Mr Cooper's sports car is ____________________________.
2. Mr Cooper's sports car is ____________________________.
3. Mr Cooper's sports car is ____________________________.
4. Mr Cooper's sports car is ____________________________.
5. Mr Cooper's sports car is ____________________________.

IIc Kerro, millaisia vaatteita sinulla on ylläsi. Voit kertoa nyönsä luokatovereitasi vaatteista.

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Appendix 6: Task 3

III Steve sits down and writes a letter to his parents. He needs some stamps, so he goes to the post-office. When he has to pay for the stamps, he puts his hand in his pocket. **His wallet isn’t there!** All his money and cheques are in his wallet. What can he do? There is a man at the information desk. Steve goes to him.

Steve: Excuse me, have you found a wallet today?
Man: What is it like?
Steve: It’s a brown leather wallet.

Suddenly Steve’s friend Jason hurries to the post-office. He goes to Steve and laughs at him.

Jason: Do you need this?
Steve cannot believe his eyes. **His wallet is in Jason’s hand.**

1. Kenelle Steve kirjoittaa kirjaan?

2. Miksi hän menee postitoimistoon?

3. Mitä Steve huomaa laitteessaan hänen taskuunsa?

4. Mitä kadonneessa oisineeksi oli?

5. Millainen kadonnut esine oli?
Appendix 7: Tasks 4 and 5

IV  
Luo lauseet ja käänna tekstinsäポルネールの表現
sanat suomeksi.

It's Monday today. The day before yesterday I was not at school. At night I don't always sleep well. Then my Mum comes near me. Soon I am happy again.
There is a dark wood outside our house. I'm not sure, but I think once there was a ghost.

1. ___________________  5. ___________________
2. ___________________  6. ___________________
3. ___________________  7. ___________________
4. ___________________  8. ___________________

V  
Kirjoita kuvan ympärille sanoo, jotka tulovat kuvaasta mieleen.

[Image of a tree and a house]
Appendix 8: Tasks 6 and 7

Appendix 8

VI Kerro allaolevasta kuvasta kokonaisin lausein. Mitä muuta kuvassa voisi olla? Piirrä ja kirjoita lauseita englanniksi.

VII Kirjoita aina parhaasta lomapäivästäsi. Voit jatkaa ainettasi lähetystä Oyolle.

The best day of my holiday