

Jorunn Anita Jonli Mjønesaune

Vocabulary Learning in the EFL Classroom

An Analysis of the Words in the Marginal Glossary Lists in Three Textbooks

Master's thesis in Master i fag- og yrkesdidaktikk og lærerprofesjon, studieretning for engelsk og fremmedspråk
Supervisor: Inger Dagrun Langseth

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study has been on the words in the marginal glossary lists that accompanying texts in three English textbooks for 8th grade in Norway: *Crossroads*, *Searching* and *Enter*. Although the use of English language in everyday life has changes significant in society over the past 20-30 years, the English subject has pretty much stayed the same. Knowledge is more accessible than ever, though it is important to have formal education in the English subject, lots of information on how to best acquire a new language is available. Despite this, the teaching methods are the same as before. The glossary tests and textbook still dominate. Therefore, textbook analyses can contribute to knowledge of which words are covered in the marginal glossary lists and establish if they are of good quality. I have limited this study to these marginal glossaries since these are the words used in the glossary test.

I used a quantitative descriptive research method, using frequency analysis where I counted all the marginal glossaries in each textbook, and 1) compared the number of glossaries listed in each category of the textbook, 2) compared these numbers with the other textbooks. Furthermore I looked at the quality of the marginal glossaries according to a set of specific criteria, based on researchers recommendation on what words to teach. In order to carry out my analyzed, I designed a framework: one for the single word glossaries and one for the multi word glossaries (chunks). The framework consists of categories representing different types of words/vocabulary, both those that students should focus on and those that are not so important. Below we see the categories with a short explanation written in parenthesis.

The framework for analyzing the single word glossaries includes these categories: **Core vocabulary** (consists of the 3000 high-frequency words a EFL learner should acquire), **Non-core vocabulary** (in this category low-frequency words, *academic vocabulary* and technical vocabulary is listed), **Function word** (these words contribute to the grammatical structure of the sentence, it has little or no meaningful content) and **Content word** (words who carry a high information load. They give us content to our story and help us form a picture in our head).

The framework for analyzing the multi word glossaries includes these categories: **Other** (the multi word glossaries that cannot be placed in any of the other categories), **Phrase** (consist of one or more words that form a unit. Within these phrases, the noun, verb, adjective, adverb or preposition function as head), **Phrasal verb** (consists of two or more words, where its meaning is different from the original verb), **Idiom** (commonly used figurative phrases, often unique and cultural, where the meaning cannot be predicted from the individual meanings of the morphemes it comprises) and **Collocation** (two or more words that often go together)

The categories (plus one word) written in cursive are the vocabulary that researchers recommend students to focus on.

The results promote a desire for glossary lists with words that helps students to develop a fluent and natural language, which helps them express a wide variety of concepts. Because of these results, teachers need to look at the students proposed language when deciding what vocabulary that will be needed and not the words listed in the marginal glossary lists alone.

Sammendrag

Hovedmålet med denne oppgaven er å undersøke ordene brukt i gloselistene i marginen av hver tekst i tre lærebøker brukt i engelsk på åttende trinn i norsk skole: *Crossroads*, *Searching* og *Enter*. Selv om bruken av engelsk språk i dagliglivet har gjennomgått markante endringer i samfunnet de siste 20-30 årene, så har ikke faget gjennomgått like store forandringer. Kunnskap er mer tilgjengelig enn noen gang, selv om det er viktig å ha riktig utdanning så er mye informasjon om hvordan man best lærer språk tilgjengelig. Til tross for dette så er undervisningsmetodene de samme som før. Gloseprøvene og læreboka dominerer fortsatt. Derfor kan en lærebokanalyse bidra til å se hvorvidt ordene i gloselistene er av god kvalitet. Jeg har begrenset meg til ordene i gloselistene siden det er disse ordene som blir brukt på gloseprøvene.

Det er gjort en kvantitativ undersøkelse hvor jeg telte alle glosene i hver lærebok, og 1) sammenlignet antall gloser plassert i hver kategori i hver lærebok, 2) sammenlignet disse tallene med de andre to lærebøkene. Deretter er det utført en kvalitativ innholdsanalyse av glosene basert på hvilke typer ord forskere har funnet ut at elevene bør tilegne seg. For å gjennomføre analysene mine utformet jeg et rammeverk: et for enkelt ord gloser og et for gloser bestående av to eller flere ord. Rammeverket består av kategorier som representerer ulike typer ord/vokabular, både de som elevene bør fokusere på og de som ikke er så viktige. Nedenfor ser vi kategoriene, de har jeg valgt å skrive på engelsk slik at ikke viktig informasjon går tapt (i parentes forklarer jeg hva de betyr).

Rammeverket for enkel ord gloser inneholder disse kategoriene: **Core vocabulary** (dette er de 3000 mest hørfrekvente ordene i engelsk), **Non-core vocabulary** (dette er lavfrekvente ord, *akademiske ord* og teknologiske ord), **Function word** (ord som først og fremst har grammatiske funksjoner) og **Content word** (ord som viser til noe utenfor språket og har et eget, selvstendig betydningsinnhold).

Rammeverket for gloser bestående av to eller flere ord inneholder disse kategoriene: **Other** (her er glosene som ikke kunne plasseres i noen av de andre kategoriene), **Phrases** (grupper av ord som utgjør egne setningsledd eller deler av setningsledd. Innenfor disse frasene er det enten substantivet, verbet, adjektivet, adverbet eller preposisjonen som fungerer som kjerne), **Phrasal verb** (består av to eller flere ord, hvor meningen er forskjellig fra original verbet), **Idiom** (er et uttrykk eller en vending som ofte er særegen for et språk) og **Collocation** (to eller flere ord som ofte går sammen)

De kategoriene (pluss ett ord) som er skrevet i kursiv er det forskerne anbefaler å fokusere på.

Hovedtendensene i funnene fremmer et ønske om gloselister med ord som bidrar til å utvikle et språk som oppleves naturlig, med ord som hjelper elevene til å uttrykke seg i mange ulike settinger; i dagliglivet, under utdanning og på jobb. På bakgrunn av disse resultatene er det viktig at lærerne forstår hvilke ord elevene kan fra før, for deretter å bestemme hvilke ord som vil være nødvendig å jobbe med ut fra anbefalingene forskerne kommer med. Med andre ord så vil ikke elevene utvikle et bredt nok Engelsk vokabular kun ved å jobbe med ordene som står i gloselistene.

Preface

I started on my master degree at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU in the fall of 2012. I decided to study the words in the marginal glossary lists in EFL textbooks. My decision was based on experiences; both thru own schooling and while observing teachers when I was out in practice during my teacher's education. From compulsory school one thing got stuck, the English glossary tests. Surprised I found out that these still was used in the EFL classroom when I started my teacher's education in 2009. Therefore, there was no question in my mind what my master's thesis would be about. I have worked for seven years now in compulsory school, and I am sure that this thesis has formed my way of teaching a foreign language like English in a positive way.

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Jorunn Anita Jonli Mjølnesaune

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Abbreviations

EFL	English foreign language
L1	First language
L2	Second language
NGSL	New General Service List
NAWL	New Academic Word List

1 Introduction

A teacher once asked;

What does it mean to know a word?" He then wrote this: "A vocabulary test in which the students merely have to vomit the words onto the page, and once purged walk away fresh with no memory of the incident, is no good to anyone. How can we ensure our students LEARN words, rather than just REMEMBER them? (Elliott, 2009)

My goal is to acquire a deeper understanding of what vocabulary is taught by means of marginal glossary lists that accompany written texts in textbooks in English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Norwegian school system. In this thesis a glossary list is understood as the presumed difficult words that are sometimes glossed in texts for second language learners. A gloss is a brief definition or synonym, either in students first language (L1) or second language (L2), which is provided with the text (Nation, 2001).

Glossary lists are found in textbooks, and in the methodological approach glossaries are used to acquire new vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Although teaching English, as a foreign language does not require using a textbook, school textbooks have a prominent position in the classroom. Magne Angvik (1982) argues for the textbooks place in schooling, teacher education and research in his article "Skolebokanalyse som tema i lærerutdanning og forskning ". This article was published in 1982 and already then we could see several strong competitors to the textbook. There have been some technical resources like multimedia programs and learning packages that has challenged the textbooks; still we can see the strong position textbooks have among teachers and students. The textbooks were seen as the main communication and information source in the classroom and consolidated its position. The textbooks were associated with increased knowledge, development and progress, and that the institution school could hardly be thought to exist without. In 1984, Jacqueline Benevento stated that whenever foreign language teachers meet each other, the first words after "How do you do?" are usually "What coursebooks do you use?" (p. 2). According to Tom Hutchinson (1987), the role of the EFL textbook in education cannot be ignored because they make the lives of teachers and learners easier, more secure, and fruitful. In other words, the EFL textbook is an important means of satisfying a wide range of needs that come out from the classroom. This is if the EFL textbook is acceptable, and properly used.

Newer research can back this up. An article written by Anna Birketveit and Kåre Nitter Rugesæter (2014), claims that although knowledge on how to teach a new language is easily available, and that new curriculums has been made several times over the last 30 years, the methodological methods used in the classroom has stayed pretty much the same. The textbooks and the glossary tests still domain the EFL classroom. In the FIVIS report 2 the same founding's was discussed, that school textbooks are the basis for planning and conducting the English lectures. It was also reveled that the learning process in English was strongly influenced by the national tests (which are based on vocabulary tests) and the examinations, besides the textbooks. In other words, the learning processes are less controlled by the competence aims (Buland, Engvik, Fjørtoft, Langsetg, & Sandvik, 2014). Further on, Inger Langseth one of the contributors in this report, also looked at to what extent the English textbook guided the learning- and assessment processes in the English subject. What she found was that the English

textbook is still very central in the second language classroom. And the most commonly used assessment tool was the traditional glossary test. The words used in these tests were found in the textbook, often the highlighted ones in the marginal glossary list (Buland et al., 2014). My claim is that there are glossary lists accompanying the written texts in most EFL textbooks in Norway (see figure 1.1), and that Norwegian teachers often use these glossary lists in the learning process to assess students' development of vocabulary from 1th grade to 10th grade in English.

A Spare Time and Friendship

Crossroads 8A

Life is More than School

spare time – fritid
PE – gym, kroppsøving
lawyer – advokat
such as – slik som
soccer – fotball
sick of – lei av
starving – som sulter
actually – faktisk
chubby – lubben, tjukk



Danny,
South Africa

School is really fun these days. We do a lot of fun stuff. I'm in Year 8 and my favourite subject is PE. When I grow up I want to go to university in America. I want to become a lawyer or a doctor. I have a lot of hobbies such as skating, surfing and playing soccer. I also play tennis and basketball. On the weekends I often go skating and surfing with my friends.



Louise,
New Zealand

I want to rule the world one day. I want to change things. The world right now is just not normal. I'm sick of seeing starving kids on TV. My favourite subject is music and I'm a guitar player in a band. It's a bizarre funk metal band. We write our own songs and stuff, but our bass player can't actually play bass! She's Japanese with natural red hair, you don't see that often. There's also a drummer. He's a blond, chubby guy in Year 10.

Figure 1.1 an example of marginal glossaries from the textbook Crossroads 8A

When teachers let the textbooks determine the activities in the English lessons and not the competence aims, the lessons often will consist of a review of finished homework and new one, a review of textbooks texts and assignments, and a glossary test at the end of each week or every other week (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014). It is a challenge, both academically and methodologically to develop a valid plan for local learning goals, tasks and assessment forms from the competence aims in the curriculum, something that also involves choosing the vocabulary that need to be developed. Teachers with a degree in English manage to do better and they plan their lessons more independently (Buland et al., 2014). Unfortunately, the majority of those who teach English in elementary and middle school do not have formal education in the subject (English is still an elective subject in teacher education). The lack of formal competence among English teachers are probably one of the reasons the methods used still are the same as before (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014).

Because textbooks are the most used didactic material in teaching it is important to illuminate the content of the textbooks, the value and the goals. Magne Angvik (1982) believes that schoolbook analysis has significance of purely academic nature and will also help to provide knowledge of the development of the school and community. Considering all the changes and reforms in school over the years, it will therefore be crucial to analyze the textbooks to say something about how they have adapted the changes and how these changes has led to adjustments of the subject. When the public textbook approval was abolished, it got particularly important to conduct research related to the textbooks used in schools. An analysis will provide insight into the subject's own development in school and society. The justification for a theoretical textbook analysis, according to Theresa Summer (2011), is that it is important that teachers and learners are provided with an excellent textbook to have the best quality of teaching and for successful learning. The aim of a textbook analysis is not to criticize the material designers or publishers, but to illustrate current trends in textbooks and suggest improvements. The results of a textbook analysis might help teachers to choose the right teaching material.

In this thesis, I would like to narrow my research to study the nature of glossary lists that accompany written texts in books in English as a foreign language in middle school in Norway. As far as I know, there are no other textbook investigations neither Norwegian or of foreign origin which investigates the theme glossaries. Further on I will base my study on three textbooks for middle schools in Norway, Crossroads 8A (Hegner & Wroldsen, 2013), Enter 8 (Diskin, Winsvold, & Kasbo, 2015) and Searching 8 (Fenner & Nordal-Pedersen, 2011). My research tends to answer the following question:

What types of words are covered in the marginal glossary lists in English textbooks used in the Norwegian EFL classroom in middle school?

- Does the words reflect the research done in the field of vocabulary development?
- Are the words of high quality? Do they contribute to vocabulary growth among students?
- Are there large differences in the results of each textbook?

1.1 Learning English in the knowledge promotion, LK06

In the knowledge promotion, learners in Norway begin their formal education at the age of six, learning English is compulsory from the first grade. English has become an international language, and students, parents and teachers as well as the government see the benefits of learning English from an early age. The Directorate of Education describes English as a universal language, a language we need to communicate with people from other countries, people that speak another language. In other words, English is a lingua franca (UDIR, 2006a). This term refers to teaching, learning and use of the English language as a common means of communication for speakers of different native languages (Seidlhofer, 2005).

In addition to being an important language in Norwegian schools, English is also a working language in many companies and in our private lives. Although English is a world language and a vital language to learn for communicative purposes, it is also essential for students to gain knowledge of the different cultures where English is the primary or the official language. Because of its wide use, it is important for students to learn how to use the English language and have knowledge of how it is used in different contexts (UDIR, 2006a). In order to do so, they need a large vocabulary that covers many

domains. To sum up, English shall provide insight into how it is used as an international means of communication.

1.2 The history of vocabulary learning in English in Norway

I find it relevant to look at the progression of vocabulary learning in the curricula in Norwegian policy documents, more specifically the various curricula from 1939-2006.

When it comes to the description of vocabulary learning, the curricula in English is mainly unchanged in policy documents from 1939 to 2006. Vocabulary learning is seen as an additional aim, not as a vital part on its own. The importance of learning new words and acquiring a larger vocabulary has, to some extent, not been seen as important to develop as the other areas in the curricula.

English in Normalplanen of 1939 for 6th and 7th graders emphasized the importance of receiving an active, specific vocabulary, as well as learning grammar along with the other skills. Having a correct and accurate pronunciation of words was most important when students was going to learn the language (Ion Drew & Sørheim, 2009; NOU 2014:7, 2014).

About a decade later, with M74, knowledge of the history in Great Britain and USA was a central part in the English subject. Developing a vocabulary in these fields became very important. In addition the understanding of the means of English as a lingua Franca, a communicative tool to understand and speak English in all areas, was essential. The biggest difference from earlier plans was the weight of practical language skills (NOU 2014:7, 2014). Nevertheless, the dominant method, especially in middle school was grammar-translation, with many new items of vocabulary being introduced in each new paragraph of a text, followed by vocabulary tests. The 1974 curriculum was clearly based on the audio-lingual approach. There was vocabulary lists at the end of eight-page guidelines and grammatical items to be introduced at certain levels. No new vocabulary was to be introduced without practicing it in familiar structures. This led to unnatural language in the textbooks, which were full of constructed texts, whose only purpose was to illustrate specific grammatical items (Ion Drew & Sørheim, 2009).

English as a second language was confirmed as a communicational, proficiency, an adventures, and a knowledgeable subject by M87. From Normalplan of 1939 to M89 the focus was no longer on grammatical features and correct pronunciation. The curriculum stressed the importance of learning vocabulary in various domains: for work, education and spare time (NOU 2014:7, 2014). For students to manage to communicate in a second language, learning new words and adapting a broader vocabulary was vital. The teaching was to revolve around a theme and a list of themes was provided for the different levels. Although the focus no longer was on grammar and correct speech, M87 clarified that the students could learn to use correct English without having to know all the language rules and conditions (Ion Drew & Sørheim, 2009).

In the late 1990s there were L97 and their weight on language skills as a form of connection with the world, not just England and America. The need of communicating in English increased in several aspects of our lives, like in our private life, educational life, and work life (NOU 2014:7, 2014). This led to a greater need for a wider vocabulary. At the same time the cultural aspects was maintained, both for promoting cultural belonging and to understand others. L97 did not just see proficiency training as the only important thing in English language learning. L97 also saw cultivation, socialization and the development of language and cultural awareness as something equally important. In

addition, it stressed that students should learn how to learn a language. The L97 curriculum also encouraged students to meet and produce language in a way that reflected the diversity of language in the real world (Ion Drew & Sørheim, 2009).

Then, nine years later we got a new curriculum, LK06. Here, English is a tool and a cultivation subject. In addition English is seen as a working language. The aim is to use the language in different communicational situations. With this, the importance of learning new words and expressions became essential. Learning strategies and self-assessment is adapted to make the subject meaningful. This also includes vocabulary learning. Still, with all these changes and new knowledge the glossary tests are a vital part of teaching students new words. Personal development is the same as before. The cultural aspect and English as an international communication language shall inspire self-expression and creativity. Language skills and cultural skills is a part of a general education and are to strengthen democratic engagement and citizenship. The LK06 is divided into three main components: Language learning, communication and culture, society and literature (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014; Ion Drew & Sørheim, 2009; NOU 2014:7, 2014).

Even though the main reasons for learning a second language like English has changed over the years, the total number of hours the English subject have in school has been relatively stable over the period the subject has existed. Elementary school has had a percentage of five, while middle school has been around teen percent (of the total amount of hours per year learners has in school). This is presented in table 1.1.

English	N39	L1960	M74	M87	L97	LK06
Hours at elementary school	285	-	199	199	271	366
Percentage of total numbers of lessons in elementary school	5,2	-	5,7	5,1	5,9	7
Hours at middle school	-	370	256	256	256	222
Percentage of total numbers of lessons in middle school	-	12	10	10	10	8,5

Table 1.1 hours spent on English in Norway from 1939 till present day, adapted from the government (NOU 2014:7, 2014).

All the hours in the table is converted to hours per year of 60 minutes. In M74 and M87 the student had six years in elementary school, while in N39, L97 and LK06 the elementary school is seven years. Middle schools have had three years in every curriculum since L1960. In N39 English was an optional subject in the 6th and 7th grade, in M74 and M87 English was a subject only in grades 4-6th (NOU 2014:7, 2014).

From this table we can count that during the ten years with English as a subject in the Norwegian school (LK06), learners have had 3228 hours of English learning (2562 hours at elementary school and 666 hours at middle school). The number of hours in middle school has decreased in recent years. English is one of three subject with a written exam after completing middle school, still it have less than half of the hours spent on the subject mathematics and less than one third spent on the subject Norwegian from 1st to 10th grade. In fact, English belongs to the three subjects with fewest teaching hours in primary school and middle school (UDIR, 2006b). English, as a subject is obligatory only the first eleven years of school and the learners need approximately 18 years of studying

to be able to receive the same amount of vocabulary that a native speaker absorbs only in one year (Thornbury, 2002).

1.3 Why study textbooks?

There is little research to find on English textbooks in Norwegian schools, but there is an agreement on the role of English EFL textbooks in the classroom. The textbook remains, even with other tools available, important in the teaching of English. Theresa Summer says "the textbook is a traditional instructional medium that has, despite the development of electronic media and the Internet, remained a significant and influential tool in the EFL classroom today" (2011, p. 79).

One researcher that has studied some EFL textbooks is Ragnhild Lund. In her article, *A Hundred Years of English Teaching: A View of Some Textbooks* (2002), she found that the textbook has always played a central role, especially for English, in determining the content and the methods worked with in Norwegian compulsory school. In her research she looked at three textbooks in detail: these were the most used textbooks in middle school at the time (*Lærebog i engelsk for begyndere*, *This Way* and *People and Places*). From the aspect of vocabulary she found that all three textbooks aimed at providing the pupils with skills related to "everyday English". But as to how their presentation of the linguistic material and the underlying ideas of how foreign language ought to be acquired differed a lot. In the following, I will sum up some of Lund`s findings that are relevant to my study:

- 1) In *Lærebog i engelsk for begyndere* some knowledge of English vocabulary is provided, however, grammar holds the strongest position. The impression given is that learning English is only a matter of learning grammatical structures and new words, and that items of English vocabulary and situations of language use correspond to their Norwegian equivalents on a one-to-one basis.
- 2) The audio-lingual method is well seen in *This Way*, the focus on useful structures in the learning of a foreign language was important. The texts in the book were made to demonstrate particular language items, whereas the workbook provided lots of structure drills for language practice. The main focus was set on the practice of grammatical structures and vocabulary, and the superior goal of all activities was to speak and write grammatically correct English.
- 3) The textbook *People and Places* emphasized on vocabulary and grammar training. The importance of the language functions was presented and practiced in sections called "How to say it". Language functions were explained as "words and expressions to be used when talking". The table of contents lists the linguistic content of each chapter, where language functions, grammar points and areas of vocabulary were presented. The last two were clearly more important as they had way more grammatical and vocabulary tasks in the textbook than practical language functions tasks.

Ian Drew (2006) is another researcher that found that the English textbook still has a strong position in the classroom. In a survey conducted in 2003, he found that 70 per cent of the participating elementary school teachers only used or frequently used the textbook. In 2005 Drew found the percentage to rise from 70 per cent to 80 per cent. Furthermore, Glenn Ole Hellekjær (2007) states that the main problem in Norwegian EFL classrooms are the heavy reliance on the textbook and intensive reading, focusing on form rather than content. He argues for the importance of introducing extensive reading and incidental learning of vocabulary in Norwegian EFL classrooms as a way of promoting reading and language development.

Because of these findings I find it interesting to examine textbooks for middle school. Although the textbook has been the dominant teaching tool for so long, textbook study as a field of research is relatively new. In Norway, a few master`s theses have been written on textbook materials. In English in the recent years, these are Askeland 2013, Austad (2009) and Balsnes (2009). Askeland did a comparative analysis of grammar tasks in three textbooks, Austad compared the grammar tasks in textbooks previous to and after the introduction of the national guidelines of 2006, i.e. *The Knowledge Promotion*, and Balsnes analyzed the oral activities in textbooks for the subject International English. An analysis of what types of vocabulary is covered in Norwegian textbooks, on the other hand, has not yet been conducted.

This study is important because there is not yet sufficient research in the area of vocabulary learning in textbooks. Although vocabulary in textbooks has been studied in other countries (e.g. Pavlû, 2009), this has not been done with Norwegian textbooks. There is also insufficient research on how teaching materials on vocabulary is used in the classroom. This study will not uncover how the glossary lists are used in the textbooks in practice, but it can serve as a theoretical basis for further research into how to select and develop students` vocabulary in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, a study like this, which aims to reveal what types of vocabulary is used in the marginal glossary lists of three EFL textbooks, can hopefully be useful for the users and authors of the textbooks, in order to carefully choose words in these lists.

1.4 The structure of this thesis

To give the reader an overview of what to expect from reading this thesis, a description of the structure will be made. Following the introduction, a theoretical background will be presented in chapter two. This background aims to give the reader knowledge of the theory in the research field that I am looking into. The chapter contains the basic aspects of second language acquisition, and an explanation of the difference between vocabulary and words. I also discuss how we learn new words from a glossary, while the last section consists of the goals of vocabulary learning, selection and size of vocabulary, and examples of ways that we can learn vocabulary.

In chapter three the materials and methods used will be described. A brief outline of quantitative and qualitative methods will first be presented, before I argue for the selection of textbooks included in my thesis (Crossroads 8A: 2013, Searching 8: 2011 and Enter 8: 2015). Here there will also be a presentation of the three textbooks. Then, the methods chosen for this analysis will be described more thoroughly. For my analysis I made use of a quantitative descriptive research method, with a qualitative content analysis. The quality of the words in the glossary lists in the three textbooks has been examined, by using a framework comprising certain criteria. These criteria can be quantified and serve as a basis for the analysis. Finally the framework used for this analysis will be explained in great detail, where examples are included in order to make the thesis applicable for the wider audience. To round off the chapter, comments on possible limitations of this thesis are discussed.

In chapter four the results of the analysis will be presented along with a discussion. The results will be shown through diagrams and supplementary tables. The structure of this chapter will follow the categories in the framework. First, the results of the single word glossaries are discussed, before the results and discussion of the multi word glossaries is presented. The discussion of the results will be done in the light of the theoretical background presented in chapter two.

The fifth and last chapter of this thesis is the conclusion, where a summary of my findings will be presented along with comments on further research.

2 Theoretical background

In this chapter I will present theory that is relevant for my study, mainly the basic aspects of vocabulary learning. Two terms are vital here, i.e. *words* and *vocabulary*. A word is the smallest element that may be uttered in isolation with semantic or pragmatic content, in short, with literal or practical meaning (Jackson & Amvela, 2007). The noun vocabulary refers to the words used in a language (Thornbury, 2002).

2.1 Words, how do we define them?

All languages have words, lots of them, and new words are added all the time. We never stop learning new words, they always appear around us. We can learn new words going to the supermarket, or while visiting someone. The learning process never stops, not even in our first language. The Norwegian dictionary contains about 300 000 words. Even though the dictionary contains a set number of words, it is impossible to say for sure how many words the Norwegian language has. One reason has to do with the way we put together different words and make new ones. Like, *kjøttkake* (*kjøtt and kake*), *skolebøker* (*skole and bøker*) and *billettluke* (*billett and luke*) (Vikør, 2005). There is no set number of how many words there is in English, this depends on how we define a word. Is *pillow* and *pillows* one or two words? What about *pink* as in the color or *pink* as in the flower? Everyone has a name, should these names be counted as a word? And then there is the name of productions such as Coca-Cola, BMW, and McDonalds etc. There are several ways of deciding what words to count. One can count every word in a spoken or written text, even if there is a word that already has been counted. This way of counting words are called **running words** or **tokens** (Nation, 2001). So the sentence "As we walked down the street we saw a street artist painting the walls" would contain 14 words, even though several of them are the same word form: *we*, *the*, and *street*. Another way of counting words in a spoken or written text is to count the same word once. If we use the same example sentence as above we will count eleven different words or **types** instead of 14 tokens (Nation, 2001). Counting tokens can be used to find out how long a certain book is or how fast you can read it, whereas counting types of words can be used to find out how many words you need to know to read a certain book. A third way of counting words can be done by counting **lemmas** (Nation, 2001). A lemma consists of a headword and some of its inflected and reduced forms. The English inflections consists of

- Noun plural (*clothes*)
- Past tense (*I walked, I ran*)
- Objective pronoun (I/we/he/she/they (subjective) saw *me/us/him/her/them* (objective))
- *-ing* participle (*visiting*)
- *-er* comparison (*taller, quieter*)
- Contracted forms of verbs (*'re, 'll, etc.*)
- Genitive *'s* (*a summer's day*)
- Third person (*he/she/it/they*)

- Negative *n't* (*can't, won't, etc.*)
- *-ed* participle (*Daniel kicked the ball*)
- *-est* comparison (*thinnest, eldest*)

(Crystal, 2004)

The thought behind the use of lemmas as the unit of counting is the idea of the learning burden. The learning burden of an item is the amount of effort required to learn it. Once a learner can use the inflectional system, the learning burden of for example *books* is minor if the learner already knows *book*. One problem in forming lemmas is to decide what will be done with irregular forms such as *men, feet, mice* and *teeth* etc. The learning burden of these is clearly heavier than the learning burden of regular forms like *dogs, flutes, eggs* and *dictionaries*. The problems with lemmas does not stop here, is the base form or the most frequent form the headword? One thing is certain, using the lemma as the unit of counting reduces the number of units in a corpus significantly. Take for example the *Brown Corpus*; it contains 61 805 tagged types, that is 37 617 lemmas, which is a reduction of almost 40%. **Word families** are another way of counting words. A problem with counting word families are the different opinions of what should be included in a word family. The learner's knowledge of prefixes and suffixes develops as they gain more experience of the language. This means that a sensible word family for one learner might be beyond another learner's level of proficiency (Nation, 2001).

2.1.1 Words in the English language

So, how many words are there in the English language? Golden, Nation and Reed (1990) cited in *Learning vocabulary in Another Language* by Paul Nation (2001) says that there have been attempts to find out this by counting the words in very large dictionaries. The largest non-historical dictionary of English is *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*. It contains around 114 000 word families excluding proper names. Another large dictionary is the *Oxford English Dictionary*, which contains of 171 476 words in current use. The most ambitious goal is to know all of the English language. However, even native speakers do not know all the vocabulary of the English language. If we look at the Norwegian language and its main dictionary (*Bokmålsordboka*), we see that it contains 60 000 words. Even though we have this number, it is difficult to decide how many words the Norwegian language have, or any language for that matter, because words come and go (Paulsen, 2005). This implies that students learning English has to put a great amount of work learning English, and still not be able to know every word there is. This is one consequence for the students, and for the textbooks there are no way to cover all the words in English, therefore a selection of words must be done. Jeremy Harmer (1991) states that there are two criteria to consider: frequency and coverage. The first term means that we should teach words according to their frequency of usage. For example, the word *people* is more frequent than a word like *folk*. The latter term means that we should prefer teaching words that stand for more than one thing; for example, the word *book* has broader meaning than the word *bookcase*. In addition it is said to teach concrete words before abstract ones. Concrete words refer to things that exist in reality, like food, animals etc. and that are experienced through our five senses (taste, sight, touch, smell and sound). Abstract words tend to be more emotionally charged, not experienced through the five senses, but are defined through other associated words rather than physical features (Crystal, 2004). Teachers should start with teaching concrete words and slowly move on to the abstract ones. Concrete words are more learnable. This does not mean that abstract words not are important. This is

seen through the ladder of abstraction. To make language more interesting and native like, one should go up and down the ladder of abstraction. If we want our message to stick, we have to mix abstract advice with concrete imagery (Hart, 2007). The distinction between concrete and abstract words may seem clear at first, but is it? Think about animals. You might think of cows, sheep and pigs out on the field, or maybe a delicious steak, or you might think of a commercial on TV including animals. When a word conjures up different images like this, then a word is not as concrete as we first thought. Hence the ladder of abstraction, it gets easier to visualize a word, to imagine a specific scene the further down the ladder you are (Hart, 2007).

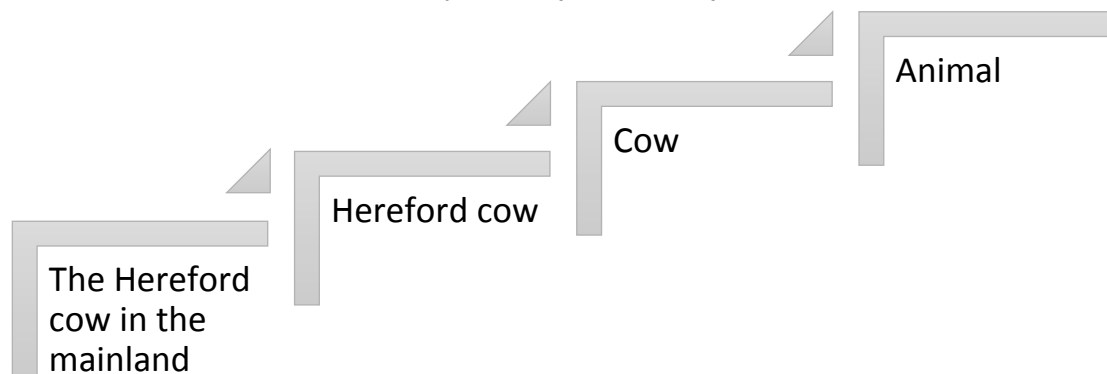


Figure 2.1 the ladder of abstraction, a gliding scale

2.1.2 What does it mean to know a word?

In my introduction I wrote that teachers in Norwegian schools often use glossary test as a tool to learn new vocabulary, and the statement from Darren Elliott in the beginning of this thesis sums up how inefficient a test like this is. Learning vocabulary is so much more than just remembering a word; according to Norbert Schmitt (2008) learners also need to know more about lexical item as well. A word is not learned only by knowing of its spoken and written form or its meaning. To explain this I want to use Nation`s table, describing what aspects of a word we need to know (Nation, 2001).

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

Table 2.1 what is involved in knowing a word? Note: R=receptive knowledge, P=productive knowledge

Reading the table we see three main levels of knowing a word: the form, the meaning and the usage of the word. The terms receptive and productive occur on every level, these terms cover all of the aspects in knowing a word. The receptive term is the skills of listening and speaking, whereas the productive term is the skills of reading and writing. The ideas behind these two terms are that we either receive language input from other people by listening and speaking to them (receptive) or produce language forms so that we can convey a message to others either by speaking or writing it down (productive). The first term means we have to perceive the form of the word and retrieve its meaning, while the latter term means we want to express a meaning, and at the same time produce the appropriate word form. Passive and active are other terms that can be used instead of receptive and productive vocabularies (Nation, 2001).

Let me explain table 2.1 with an example. If we take the word *understandable* or any other word for that matter, we can see what it involves from the view of the two terms. Receptive knowledge and use:

- Being able to recognize the word when you hear it.
- Knowing its written form so you can recognize it when you are reading.

- Look at the word and see that it is made up by parts, like *under*, *-stand*, and *-able*. You need to see how these parts relate to its meaning.
- Understand that *understandable* has a particular meaning.
- You have to know what *understandable* means in the context it is given.
- Make yourself aware of the concept behind the word; this will give you understanding in a variety of context.
- Knowing the related words such as *acceptable*, *reasonable* and *justifiable*.
- You have to be able to recognize if the word is used right in the sentence that it occurs.
- Knowing the typical collocations of *understandable*, like *seem* and *trying*.
- Knowing that *understandable* is a common word and is not a derogatory word.

Productive knowledge and use:

- You have to say *understandable* with accurate pronunciation including stress.
- You have to write/spell *understandable* right.
- You have to construct the word using the correct word parts in their proper forms.
- You have to produce the word to express the meaning *understandable*.
- You have to know how to use the word in different context to express the range of meanings of *understandable*.
- You have to produce synonyms and antonyms for *understandable*.
- You need to know how to use the word correctly in a sentence.
- You need to produce words that frequently occur with it.
- You need to be able to decide when to use the word or not to suit the degree of formality of the situation

(Nation, 2001, pp. 26-28).

Norbert Schmitt (2008) adds that knowing a word on several levels is important when we think about acquisition and pedagogy. Like word meaning and word form that are quite receptive to intentional learning, while collocation and intuitions of frequency (contextualized aspects), are not easy to teach explicitly. The teacher has to teach the learners this through great exposure to the foreign language. Schmitt recommend that an explicit approach where the focus lie on determining the form-meaning link can be most successful, and when this is established the exposure approach starts, an approach that enhances contextual knowledge. From table 2.1 we can see that meeting the words in different context, will expose us to the different word knowledge types. In other words, vocabulary learning is an on going learning process. The more you know about a word, the more likely it is that you use it right. Nation adds that it looks like "receptive learning and use is easier than productive learning and use, but it is not clear *why* receptive use should be less difficult than productive use" (Nation, 2001, p. 28).

What we have seen so far is that learning vocabulary is a complex issue. A vocabulary does not only contain single words, it goes much deeper and this is where the challenge of learning a second language lies. Knowing a word is not merely as straightforward as

most people think. Is it enough to translate a word, or to know its synonyms? Remember, knowing a word is a multipart task (Folse, 2013).

2.2 What is vocabulary?

Vocabulary has to do with how words form clusters of words and become more subject specific: Take, for example this description of a rose flower, where familiar words are being used and adapted to express very specialized meanings:

Rose flowers belong to the genus *Rosa*, a member of the family Rosacea. To date, botanists have identified and classified over 100 species of roses flowers. Numerous cultivars, hybrids and varieties have been produced over the last two centuries. Rose flowers from shrubs or vines. All of them have thorny stems, innately compound leaves, and variously colored, often strongly scented flowers. The rose flower is a delicate flower with bright colorful petals. Before blooming rose flowers are held protected by leaves known as sepals. As rose flowers open, sepals spread apart (Allroses, 2014).

If rose flowers are unfamiliar to you, this text could be a bit difficult, due to both the density and specialized nature of its vocabulary. Words like *shrubs* and *vines* may be familiar to you, but in this context you may be uncertain as to what they mean, or how they differ in meaning. While these are familiar words, you can stumble upon some entirely new words, like *cultivars* and *sepals*.

2.2.1 Types of vocabulary

Vocabulary can be distinguished into several types. Research on learning a second language operates with a vast of types. Paul Nation (2001) for example distinguishes between four kinds of vocabulary: High-frequency words, academic words, technical words and low-frequency words. High-frequency words include both function and content words. These words cover a large proportion of the running words (almost 80%) in spoken and written text and occur in all kinds of uses of the language. Academic words are the many words that are common in different kinds of academic text. About 9% of the running words in the text are academic words. Technical words are words closely related to the topic and subject of the text. These words covers about 5% of the running words of the text. Nation also uses the term specialized vocabulary of academic and technical vocabulary. Low-frequency words include all the words that cannot go into any of the other three categories. Words in this category are technical words for other subject areas, proper nouns, and words that we rarely meet in our use of the language. They make up over 5% of the running words in a text. Michael McCarthy and Norbert Schmitt (1998) operate with two terms: core and non-core vocabulary. In their definitions, core vocabulary is the words that are more central to the English language, further they are the words that appear more frequent. On the other side, non- core vocabulary is the words that are more subject- specific. In my study I will use the to latter terms, *core vocabulary* and *non-core vocabulary* (I will give an explanation on my decision of using these to terms in chapter 3, Materials and methods).

Although I am not using Nations' four categories, it does not mean that they're not essential to my thesis. They have been important building blocks and have helped me to decide which categories best suit my research question. Further more, Nation has helped me gain better insight into the large spider web of what vocabulary learning is. Therefore I find it essential to include these terms in this chapter. Beneath you will find a deeper explanation of the terms above.

Core vocabulary is the words that are likely to be more useful than non-core vocabulary. Core vocabulary refers to a relatively small set of words that we use on a

daily basis, they tend to be the most frequent occurring ones in oral and written language. These are powerful words as they can be used to express a wide variety of concepts with a very small number of words. They are relevant across context and are usable in a wide variety of situations. Core vocabulary makes up about 80% of all running words in a text. Further on, core vocabulary can be used to paraphrase or give definitions of other words. For example, the definition of both giggle and guffaw involves using the word laugh: A giggle is a kind of laugh, etc. But the opposite is not true: we do not use giggle or guffaw to define laugh. Laugh, therefore is more of a core word than giggle (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1998; Thornbury, 2002).

Looking at Nations (2001) definition of **high- frequency words** it is nearly the same as the definition of core vocabulary. He describes high- frequency words as the most commonly used words in spoken and written text; in other words, they are the words that occur more frequently. Words in this group has been noted in the classic list of high-frequency words, called the *General Service List* by Michael West. This list contains 2000 word families, where 165 of these word families are function words such as "the", "be", "and", "of" and "to". These words convey little meaning on their own, but they do contribute a great deal to the meaning of a sentence. The rest are content words, that is nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Very few nouns are included. High- frequency words are important building blocks in the construction of learning to read. Mastering a large number of high- frequency words enables students to read fluently and focus their attention on making sense of what they are reading. Recognizing these words will help better learners chance to cope with more difficult and infrequent words without losing the sense of what is being read. In order to read and write, children must learn to quickly and automatically recognize and spell the most commonly occurring words. Some of the high- frequency words often present a special difficulty to second language learners. First of, some of these words are phonetically irregular. A word like "was" does not follow a usual spelling pattern. The "a" makes an /ɒ~ʌ/ sound and the "s" makes a /z/ sound. As we can see, sounding them out often doesn't work either. Another example is the words we slur together in speech, like: "What" and "do", which are pronounced "wudoo". Since these types of words occur so often, learners who read and write will encounter them in their reading and need to spell them as they write. Second, most of the high-frequency words have a rather abstract meaning and have no visual correspondence, they don't even have a easily understood definition, unlike "dog", "book" or "pillow" which are words that easily can be related to a real object or a picture. Still, these high- frequency words are essential to reading, if students aim to be a quick and fluent reader. To accomplish this, one must memorize these high- frequency words. If these words are not memorized, time and effort will be spent decoding instead of enjoy the text and learn from it (Thornbury, 2002).

Non-core vocabulary is the words that are more subject-specific, it is not neutral in field and it is associated with a specialized topic. Learners with specific or academic purposes may need to acquire these kinds of words. Nevertheless, this kind of vocabulary is also important. Further on, non-core vocabulary is words that are not often used. Whereas these words may appear a number of times within one text and be important for an understanding of that text, readers are not likely to meet them again for a long time (Thornbury, 2002). In my thesis the three sections below are included here.

Academic vocabulary is defined as words that are traditionally used in academic dialogue and text. Specifically, our academic vocabulary consists of words that are quite different from those words we learn from our everyday interactions through recreational

reading, watching movies and television. These are words that are not necessarily common or that children would encounter in conversation. Academic words often relate to other more familiar words that students use. For example, rather than using the word watch, they can use observe. They are also words that help students understand oral directions and classroom instructional dialog. They also help students to comprehend text across different content areas, including math, science, and social studies/history. Academic vocabulary refers to the words associated with the content knowledge. Within every discipline there is a specific set of words to represent its concepts and processes. These words are theoretically more complex than everyday language; therefore, they are more difficult to learn. A student's depth of word knowledge within a discipline, or academic vocabulary, relates to success in that subject (Buckmaster, 2006). Nation claims that for second language learners, the *Academic Word List* is very important, especially if the learners intend to do academic study in English. This word list consists of 570 word families that occur reasonably frequently over a wide range of academic text. These words are not in the most frequent 2000 words of English. This meaning that the importance of academic vocabulary is the coverage it provides for various kinds of texts. The percentage of coverage of academic text changes from 78,1% to 86,6%. If you have a vocabulary of 2000 words, one word in five will be unknown. But if you add the Academic Word List on top of these 2000 words, roughly one word in every ten will be unknown (Nation, 2001).

Technical vocabulary is words that are particular to your field of study. Expressed another way, technical vocabulary is words or phrases that are used primarily in a specific line of work or profession. For example, people who work in the building line often use words like "foam insulation", "plaster", "metal lath", and "ceiling tile". These words have special meaning relating to what kind of building material they use. Similarly, a dentist needs to know technical words such as "molar", "root canal", and "filling". These are words that most people outside of that profession never use. Having a good understanding of technical vocabulary is a requirement of many academic disciplines. Often there will be a need to manipulate technical language with ease and fluency, like in the fields of Science, Engineering and Medicine, amongst others. When it comes to technical vocabulary there is much research to be done, little is known about such vocabulary. There are no well-established approaches for deciding which words are technical and not. But there are some guidelines of how we can distinguish technical vocabulary from other vocabulary. Nation claims that for a word to be technical it need to belong to a specific topic, field, or discipline (Nation, 2001; Sagepub, 2010).

Low-frequency words are a group of words that occur very infrequently and cover only a small proportion of any text. There are about 125 000 low- frequency words in English. In an average text, circa 13% of the words will be of this kind (Dr.G.P.Ragini, 2013). The group of infrequent words is very large and this group contains of different kinds of words. So, what kinds of words are there in this group? First off we have the words that simply did not manage to get into the high- frequency list. The boundary between these to list is vague. Some low- frequency words are words of moderate frequency. Second are the words that are proper names, these types of words are often to se under the low-frequency list. Third has to do with people and how their vocabulary, after their first 2000 words (the high-frequency words) grows partly as a result of their jobs, interests and specializations. One person's technical vocabulary can be another person's low-frequency vocabulary. Fourth we find the words that simply are low- frequent words. Every language has words that rarely are in use. Further on Nation explains that these low-frequency words are not time well spend on learning; instead a teachers should help

students develop strategies to cope with these words on their own (Chung & Nation, 2003).

2.3 The goals of vocabulary learning

Jeremy Harmer once said, "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (1991, p. 153). Without the knowledge of vocabulary, your understanding of grammar does not count because words are the basic that create the speech. When a student say Yesterday. Go Disco. And friends. Dancing. Even though the grammar is non-existent, the message is still understandable. In other words, the meaning is conveyed by the vocabulary alone (Scrivener, 1998). Scott Thornbury supports this when he states, "If you spend most of your time studying grammar, you're English will not improve very much. You will see most improvement if you learn more words and expressions. You can say very little with grammar, but you can say almost anything with words" (2002, p. 13).

Further on Harmer (1991) claims that vocabulary was underestimated in the past, that it was just used as a medium needed for teaching grammar. Over the years this has changed and vocabulary has now become more acknowledged by methodologists. To know a word is a broad term because we need to know several aspects of it, as explained in section 2.1.2 with a presentation of Nations table showing the receptive and productive knowledge of a word. Another researcher, Ur describes the individual aspects in this order: *form, pronunciation, grammar, collocation, meaning, and word formation*. To know the form of the word means to know the pronunciation and spelling of it. To know how to pronounce a word includes being able to recognize the word when it is heard and being able to produce the spoken form in order to express a meaning. In other words, the students need to become aware of sounds and sound features (Ur, 1991). For Norwegian pupils many English sounds are relatively easy to produce, this has to do with their Germanic origins. English is based on the West Germanic language, whereas the Norwegian is based on the North Germanic one (Ion Drew & Sørheim, 2009; Nation, 2001). Research states that words that are difficult to pronounce are more difficult to learn. This has to do with sounds that are unfamiliar to the learner (Thornbury, 2002). Drew and Sørheim (2009) suggests that the best way for learners to acquire a good pronunciation of English is through exposure of as much authentic spoken language as possible, both inside and outside the classroom. At the same time they mention practicing pronunciation explicitly. Two things are here important, perception and production. Learners must be taught to listen to the new sounds and they must be given the opportunity of producing the right sound. Spelling is an aspect of gaining familiarity with the written form of a word. The ability to spell is most strongly influenced by the way learners represent the phonological structure of the language. The learning burden of the written form of a word is strongly affected by the parallels in the first and second language, like if the first language and second language share the same writing system. It is also affected by the learner's knowledge of the spoken form of the second language vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Spelling in English is problematic because there is often more than one way of spelling a sound, and more than one way of pronouncing a letter (or combination of letters). Take for example the vowel /i:/ sound, it can be spelled in several different ways, like:

- <e>, in various combinations, such as *we, legal, obscene, comedian*.
- <ea> (except when followed by <r>), as in *tease*. However, there are many exceptions here, e.g. *breast (/e/), break (/eɪ/), idea (AE/i:ə/, RP /ɪə/)*.

- <cei>, is pronounced /si:/, e.g. *ceiling*.
- <i>, followed by a single consonant and <a>, <i>, or <o>, e.g. *marina*. Note the pronunciation /aɪ/ in *China*, *saliva*, and a few others;
- <ie>, followed by a consonant word-finally, as in *shriek*. There are a few exceptions, e.g. *friend* (/e/), *view* (/ju:/).

Poor spelling can affect learners writing in that they use strategies to hide their poor spelling. These include using limited vocabularies, favoring regularly spelled words and avoiding words that are hard to spell. To better students self-esteem the teacher need to give them rules on how to spell right and work with reading. Research has stated that spelling and reading is tied together, skill at reading can influence skill at spelling and there is evidence that literacy can affect phonological representations. When it comes to rules of spelling, researchers have found that four highly productive rules must be learned. They are:

- Use *i* before *e* except after *c* or when pronounced like the *e* in *bed*.
- If the word ends in a consonant + *y*, then you change the *y* to *i* when adding a suffix.
- If the word ends in a syllable formed by a combination of a single consonant, a single vowel and a single consonant, you double the final consonant when adding an ending that begins with a vowel.
- If there is an unpronounced *e* at the end of the word, and if the suffix begins with a vowel, then you drop the *e*.

These rules must be taught and practiced deductively, where the rule is given and then it is applied to examples. Or the rules can be discovered inductively, where the learners study examples and work out the rules for themselves (Nilsen, 2010; Thornbury, 2002).

The other aspects are grammar if it is necessary, for example, when teaching irregular verbs we should present the other word forms as well. Similarly, when teaching a noun with irregular plural form such as a *woman*, we should teach the plural form straightaway. Another important thing is teaching collocations, that way students know in what context to use the word, for instance, verbs such as *do* and *make* can be used with different situations, we can say *do the shopping* but not *make the shopping*. The next aspect is meaning, meaning can be divided into several categories. The most used ones are: synonyms (*glitter-sparkle*), antonyms (*fast-slow*) and hyponyms (*dog, horse, cat-animals*). More advanced learners will probably deal with word formation in which we create new words by modification of the old ones. There are several ways to form a new word: compounding (*sea-sick*), adding a prefix (*in/decisive*) or a suffix (*fright/en*) etc. (Ur, 1991).

Words are divided into word classes; we usually distinguish between eight.

1. Nouns (*bits, pieces, record, player*)
2. Pronouns (*I, them*)
3. Verbs (*like, looking, doing*)
4. Adjectives (*old, second-hand, new*)
5. Adverbs (*up*)
6. Preposition (*for, like*)

7. Conjunctions (*or, and*)
8. Determiner (*a, all, many*)

(Thornbury, 2002, p. 3)

Ur has cut the determiner on his list and put numerals (*first, two*) on it instead (Ur, 1991).

2.4 How do you learn new words from a glossary?

As mentioned at the beginning of this thesis (*Previous research on vocabulary teaching in Norway*), the main methodological approaches for learning new words in the EFL classroom were the use of vocabulary lists and the glossary tests, where the new vocabulary was found in the marginal glossaries in the textbooks used (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014; Buland et al., 2014). What do you learn from these lists and glossary tests, what is it good for? If we look at theory on vocabulary learning, these kinds of lists are barely mentioned. Nation (2001) is the only one that mentions this, well he talks more about glossing and the impact different types of glosses has on the understanding of a text. But when he talks about translation, it is quite the same as the Norwegian way of learning new vocabulary. He says that unknown words are sometimes glossed in text for second language learners. A gloss is a brief definition or synonym, either in the students L1 or L2. There is not found any difference between L1 and L2 glosses in their effect on comprehension and vocabulary learning. It is therefore important that they are easily understood. Glosses can occur in different places in a text. They can occur directly after the glossed word. Watanabe found that this was not a good way of learning and understanding a new word because the learners have to realize that the following definition is in fact a definition and not new information (Nation, 2001). Other choices include having the gloss in the margin on the same line as the glossed word, at the bottom of the page containing the glossed word or at the end of the whole text. There were not found any difference with the last three choices. With that said, Jackobs, Dufon and Fong in Nation found that learners preferred marginal glossary (Nation, 2001).

Whichever type of gloss the students meet, it has to draw their attention to the word and encourage them to see the word as an item to learn and not just as a part of the message. This can only happen if they meet the word form and its definition. There has been done some research of the effect of glossing and most of the study done has found that glossing has a positive effect on vocabulary learning. Hulstijn in Nation found that if the glosses not were represented in a text the students often guessed wrong. Another thing he found was the importance of frequency the gloss occurred in a text. This was especially important for the learner with marginal glosses. When summing up, Nation states that learning from glosses is not great, because it is largely incidental since the main focus is on the comprehension of the text. However, glossing is a useful tool in the gradual process of strengthening and enriching student's knowledge of particular words (Nation, 2001).

In his book *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*, Paul Nation (2001) gives us other ways of acquiring vocabulary both thru oral and written skills. These are two important steps towards vocabulary growth. Talking about oral skills means talking about listening and speaking. For students to learn vocabulary by listening they would need at least 95% coverage of the running words in the input or else their chance of gaining a reasonable comprehension and success at guessing from context would be minor. If we look at spoken languages, to gain the same percent (95%) the learners need a vocabulary of

about 2000 word families; this is when spoken languages are used in informal situations. For a L2 learner it takes approximately two years to gain control of the 2000 high-frequency words, and three to five years more to gain control of the academic vocabulary and other relevant low-frequency and technical words. Because of this, the teachers need to look at the students proposed language when deciding what vocabulary that will be needed. Reading and writing comes under written skills and they are just as important as oral skills. In fact it is said that controlling your reading skills can be a major factor to developing your vocabulary. Nation quotes Chall (1987) when stating that "vocabulary learning can help reading, and reading can contribute to vocabulary growth" (2001, p. 144). In other words, this relationship is not one directional. Several researchers have studied what a good threshold store is. The conclusion, made by Hirsh and Nation (1992) and Hu and Nation (in press) was that if reading should be a pleasurable activity the learners have to cover 98-99% of the running words in the text. This means that there is one unknown word in every 50-100 running words (Nation, 2001, p. 147). Over to the quality of writing, research indicate that the lack of vocabulary knowledge is the main reason affecting the quality of L2 writers (Nation, 2001). Some research suggests that under certain circumstances single episodes of instruction may actually be counterproductive. To give your students vocabulary instructions before a listening comprehension task does not help them as much as we want it to. It is better to hear the input twice or read the text and discuss what the topic is before listening to it. In this research done by Chang and Read (2006) the students reported that they did not learn the target vocabulary well enough to apply it. They also found that focusing on this ineffectively learned vocabulary seemed to distract the student's attention away from a more general understanding of the listening passages (Schmitt, 2008).

Annamaria Pinter (2006) is another vocabulary researcher, she states that it is important to make deliberate presentation of words as varied as possible. Further on she explains that meaning can be made apparent without the use of the first language, instead toys can be used. An example is the use of dolls to present parts of the body. Other concretes we can use are pictures, posters, classroom objects, etc. To learn words where concretes cannot be used, like with actions and movements (get up, turn around, pick something up), Pinter mentions the Total Physical Response approach (TPR). TPR links learning new words to physical action and ensures that learners will hear a lot of natural English in meaningful contexts without having to respond verbally. Besides this she points out rhyme, mime, rhythm and repetition as important parts of learning new words.

Scott Thornbury state that a learner not only need to learn a lot of words to master English, but he also needs to remember them. In other words, it is a question of memory. He distinguishes between the **short-term store, working memory** and **long-term store** (2002). Short-term store is the brains capacity to hold a limited number of items of information for periods of time up to a few seconds. An example here is remembering a telephone number for as long as it takes to be able to dial it. But successful vocabulary learning clearly involves more than simply holding words in your mind for a few seconds. Further on, focusing on words long enough to perform operations of them is the function of working memory. Cognitive tasks such as reasoning, learning and understanding depend on working memory. You can compare it with a work bench, where information is first placed, studied, moved about before being filed away for later retrieval. The lateral one, the long-term memory can be thought of as a kind of filing system, this system has an enormous capacity and its contents are durable over time. The problem with the long-term memory is that students, who learn new vocabulary items during a lesson, have forgotten them by the next lesson. Research

into memory suggests that, in order to ensure that material moves into permanent long-term memory, a number of principles need to be observed. Here are some of them; *repetition* of material that is still in working memory. If this material is not organized at the same time, repetition seems to have little long-term effect. With that said, when reading, words that have been met at least seven times over spaced intervals are more likely to stick to your long-term memory. *Spacing*, it is better to distribute memory work across a period of time than to mass it together in a single block. In other words, when teaching students a new set of words, for example, it is best to present the first two or three items, then go back and test these, then present some more, then backtrack again, and so on. As each word becomes better learned, the testing interval can gradually be extended. *Use* is simply about putting words to use, preferably in some interesting way. Words can be put to work with decision-making tasks (identifying, selecting, matching, sorting, ranking and sequencing), with production tasks (gap-fills, multiple choice) or games (word clap, noughts and crosses). *Imagine*, is a good way of learning a new word. In other words you visualize a mental picture to go with the new word. This is not exactly easy to do with abstract words, but it does not matter if the image is highly imaginative or very vivid as long as it is self-generated (Thornbury, 2002).

Nation talks about something he calls the **learning burden** of a word. It has to do with the amount of effort a student has to put down to learn the words. "The general principle of the learning burden is that the more a word represent patterns and knowledge that learners are already familiar with, the lighter its learning burden" (2001, pp. 23-24). The learners language background plays an important role here, the learning burden will be lighter the closer related the students first language is to the second language. To lighten this learning burden teachers can concentrate on systematic patterns and analogies of the L2. Similarities between the first language and the second language should also be focused on (Nation, 2001). Thornbury (2002) adds a couple of other terms that are of interest here. First off he talks about **labeling** and **categorizing**, these two terms are closely related to each other. Labeling is the first thing a child learn to do when it comes to learning new words, it's about mapping words onto concepts. In other words, for example, the concept of animal includes several kinds of animals, like dog, cat, sheep, cow etc. When the student know this he also need to know how far to extend the concept of sheep, to know that dogs are not included here, but the neighbors sheep's, toy sheep's and pictures of sheep's fits right in. From this example we can see that it takes much more than just labeling to acquire a vocabulary, it also requires categorizing skills. But, there is more. Learning a new vocabulary also involves the process of **network building**. By this Thornbury means learners need to understand that common words like *apple* and *dog* can be replaced by superordinate terms like *fruit* and *animal*. Building a network will help students link all the labels and packages of their new acquired language (L2).

When students learn a second language they're already made a conceptual system. This means that when learning a new word, the possibility of mapping the word directly onto their first language instead of constructing a new network of association is more tempting. However, this is not a good way of learning a word (Thornbury, 2002).

Thornbury (2002) also mention the terms **false friends** and **real friends**. False friends are word that seems equivalent, but is in fact not because they're meaning is not the same. Examples of false English friends for speakers of Norwegian are:

Actually (akkurat in Norwegian means "exactly", "just now")

Chef` (sjef in Norwegian means "chief" or "boss")

Dress (dress in Norwegian means "suit")

Pupil (*Pupil* in Norwegian means "the black opening in the center of the eye")

This here is the reason why we can't base our vocabulary learning of a second language on translation to L1.

Again, over to the languages that share words with similar forms, so called **cognates** (Thornbury, 2002). Such languages have more real friends than languages who differ from the target language. Norway is a language with several real friends, like *problem*, *finger*, *ski*, *under*, *over*, *data* and *person*. All these words are spelled the same way, but pronounced slightly different.

Some times when you learn a new language you can meet words that Thornbury (2002) calls **strangers**. These are words that have no equivalent in your mother tongue. An example from the Norwegian language is the word *pålegg*. This word has no direct translation to English. To explain this word the students need to give a detailed description of what the word means. *Pålegg* is a word that describes what is on top of a slice of bread; it is a generic term for what we have on our slice of bread, whether it is yam, cheese, ham etc. Finally he mention **acquaintances**, which is the words you know and understand, but still they will not be as familiar to you as the "same" word in your mother tongue. This has to do with your associative links; which is not as established in your second language as in your first language.

The Norwegian Directorate for Education (UDIR) has made a common European framework for languages. In this framework they mention something they call *domains*. They state that whatever language act we do, this act takes place in a context. A context is a specific situation within one of the domains that our social life can be divided into. When deciding which domains to teach, this will have a major impact on what situations, objectives, tasks, topics and texts the teacher should use in the classroom and be the basis for future tests. When deciding what domain to focus on, the teacher must look at the learner's motivation and what benefits the learner gets from it. The number of possible domains is virtually infinite. But, within language learning we can distinguish between the following domains:

- The *personal domain*, which particularly includes life at home, with family and friends where you live as a private person and is concerned with personal chores like reading, hobbies etc.
- The *public domain*, where you act as a common citizen or a member of an organization, and are concerned with various tasks within this connection.
- *Work domain*, where you perform your job (exerts your profession).
- *Educational domain*, in which one participates in organized learning and teaching, especially (but not necessarily) at school or other educational institutions.

In many situations more than one domain can be involved. For a teacher the work domain and educational domain will in most situations coincide (UDIR, 2011).

To sum up, a second language learner meets several challenges along the way of learning a new language. They have to make the right connections between form and meaning, both in speaking and writing. If the students are to do this they have to acquire a critical mass of words, remember them over time, and be able to recall them when needed.

2.5 Selection and size of vocabulary

To teach learners a second language like English, teachers need to know the vocabulary challenges their students will face. The English language contains so many words. It is one of the major languages and for a student to meet and learn this sufficient amount of vocabulary can be breathtaking. Both the learner and the teacher have a huge task ahead of them (Schmitt, 2007).

There is a challenge with teaching vocabulary because there are hardly any rules on which vocabulary to teach, but it is said to teach concrete words before abstract ones. Teachers should start with teaching concrete words and slowly move on to the abstract ones. Concrete words are more learnable, these are words that we can learn through our five senses, words we can create a picture of in our mind. This does not mean that abstract words not are important. This is seen through the ladder of abstraction (section 2.1.1). To make language more interesting and native like, one should go up and down the ladder of abstraction. If we want our message to stick, we have to mix abstract advice with concrete imagery (Hart, 2007).

The first thing students are taught is words that they can use immediately, this way they can practice and use them in lectures through easy speaking activities, like, asking about their names, ages, hobbies, etc. You can compare learning vocabulary of English as a foreign language to vocabulary of a baby learning its mother tongue. First the baby learn words which it can come across, such as members of family, things at home, some food and drink etc. This is the way most textbooks precede; at least in the first few units the vocabulary is roughly the same in every textbook. However, later on vocabulary differs according to the subject of each unit (Scrivener, 1998).

So, what vocabulary is important to our students? According to Jeremy Harmer (1991) there are two criteria to consider: frequency and coverage. The first term means that we should teach words according to their frequency of usage. For example, the word *people* is more frequent than a word like *folk*. The latter term means that we should prefer teaching words that stand for more than one thing; for example, the word *book* has broader meaning than the word *bookcase*. Further he emphasizes that it is important to remember that we cannot always follow the principal of frequency, because the most frequent words in English may not automatically be the most useful ones. Teachers have a difficult task trying to influence what vocabulary the students should learn. The rule of thumb is that the more students work with words the better they remember them. Scott Thornbury adds that the teacher should transmit the enthusiasm from vocabulary learning onto her learners and show them different ways on how they can acquire new vocabulary through self-study (2002).

And, how much vocabulary do learners need to know? A native speaker has a vocabulary that contains around 20,000 words, while a learner that has studied English for several years only knows about 5,000 words. Thornbury (2002) explains that a student of English would need approximately 18 years of studying to be able to receive the same amount of vocabulary that a native speaker absorbs only in one year. If students are going to make themselves understood they would need to know about 2000-3000 words, this is called core vocabulary. If a learner knows these high-frequency words, that learner will know a very large proportion of the running words in a written or spoken text. Most of these words are content words and knowing enough of them allows a good degree of comprehension of a text. Here is a table presenting what proportion of a text is covered by certain numbers of high- frequency word (Nation, 2001).

1000 word (lemma) level	% coverage of text (tokens)
1000	72
2000	79,7
3000	84
4000	86,7
5000	88,6
6000	89,9

Table 2.2 the percentage of text coverage of each successive 1000 lemmas in the Brown Corpus of Standard American English, adapted from Paul Nation (2001, p. 15)

After 2000 lemmas the percentage of coverage of successive 1000 lemmas decreases significantly. The first 2000 lemmas cover 80% of texts while the subsequent 4000 lemmas only cover 10% more text. Researchers have set the 2000 word level as the minimum for L2 learners to learn. According to Zimmerman (1997) the first 1000 to 2000 words are the ones that make up a "beginners vocabulary". Knowing these 2000 high-frequency words means that one word in every five is unknown. This ratio of unknown words to known words does help students to guess the right meaning of the unknown words, but unfortunately not as much as we want it to (Jingwen & Binbin, 2007). For a learner to read with minimal disturbance from unknown vocabulary, they'd probably need a vocabulary of 15,000 to 20,000 words. However, the first 3000 high-frequency words is the best starting point for a L2 learner. These should be prioritized, because there is no point in focusing on other vocabulary until these are well learned. Which vocabulary to focus on next depends on what the L2 learner intends to use English for. Is it for academic purpose, then the student should focus on the New Academic Word List (NAWL, developed by Dr. Charles Browne, Dr. Brent Culligan and Joseph Pillips in 2013), if not the teacher can help the students to acquire low-frequency words (Nation, 2001). Since most students at middle schools in Norway will attend high schools they have a clear need for acquiring general academic vocabulary. Therefore, should the focus be on teaching both low-frequency and academic vocabulary. Nation adds that the research done on measuring vocabulary size has not been very well done and is often incorrect. The research stretches back to the late nineteenth century (2001).

Besides learning core vocabulary, the student's language development will increase by focusing on multi word units as well; these are often called chunks. Chunks are compact packages of information that our mind can easily access. In other words, chunks are pieces of information that are bound together through meaning or use. Chunks help students to produce language faster because they do not have to think of the individual words. The new logical whole makes the chunk easier to remember and it also makes it easier to fit the chunk into the larger picture of what you are learning. Just memorizing a fact without understanding of context doesn't help you understand what's really going on or to see how the concept fits together with other concepts you are learning (Oakley, 2017). They are very frequent and cover approximately 30-50% of a text (Schmitt, 2008). Further more, there are many concepts and ideas students won't be able to express right translating them from their L1. Mastering these multi word glossaries makes the students language sound more natural, as it encourage connected speech. Since these glossaries consists of several items, one can teach more words in one go as

working memory can process about seven items (plus or minus two) (Lewandowski, 2018).

Chunks appear in all sorts of ways: as idioms ("takes one to know one"), collocations ("set the table"), in phrases ("It's amazing how") and phrasal verbs ("get up"). If a student learns chunks both accurately and appropriately this is probably what most distinguishes advanced learners from intermediate ones. The teacher needs to help her students deploy a wide range of chunks, through frequent exposure and consciousness-raising. Classroom language provides important opportunities; the repetitive nature of classroom activity ensures plentiful exposure to these chunks. Materials used for exposure can be authentic texts, songs, rhymes, chants, stories and dialogues (Nation, 2001; Pinter, 2006; Thornbury, 2002).

Phrases consist of one or more words that form a unit. Within these phrases, the noun ("an interesting book"), verb ("has been eating"), adjective (more interesting than anyone else"), adverb ("very carefully") or preposition ("at work") function as head, which is the most important word in the phrase (Kolln & Gray, 2010). Learning the most commonly used phrases of the L2 will increase the students ability to communicate more correctly and fluently, in addition, it is easier to memorize and recall phrases rather than single words (Dypedahl, Hasselgård, & Løken, 2011).

Collocations are two or more words that often go together. A good way to think of collocation is to look at the word it self. *Co* meaning together, *location* meaning place. Collocations are words that are located together. This meaning that collocates may not even occur next to each other, they may be separated by one or more words (Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002). If a teacher focuses on learning student collocations there are several advantages for them learning a second language. First, their language will be more natural and more easily understood. Second, they will have alternative and richer ways of expressing themselves. Third, it is easier for our brains to remember and use language in chunks rather than as single words. For a student to learn collocations they must learn to be aware of them, and try to recognize them when they see or hear them. They should also learn how to treat collocations as chunks of language, for example to learn *hard work* and not *hard + work* as single words when they collocate. Make it a habit of writing down other words that collocate with the new word they are learning (receptive knowledge of a word, section 2.1.2) (Jackson & Amvela, 2007; Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002). This is just one example on how to learn a collocation, there are plenty more. But there is no mentioning of using vocabulary lists to do so.

Idiom may be defined as a phrase, the meaning of which cannot be predicted from the individual meanings of the morphemes it comprises. They are commonly used figurative phrases, often unique and cultural. For example, when we say that someone `kicked a bucket`, we do not imply that they necessarily hit a certain type of container for liquids with their foot; what we mean is that they died. One can distinguish to types of idioms; `full` idioms, like the definition and example above and `partial` idioms where some of the words have their usual meaning whereas the others have meanings that are particular to that specific structure. `To make a bed` is an example of a `partial` idiom. *A bed* is not idiomatic because it does refer to the piece of furniture used to sleep on; however, *to make* is not used in the usual sense of `to manufacture` (Jackson & Amvela, 2007). Idioms are a common part of speech. Getting your students familiar with them early on can help them communicate more naturally and give them a deeper understanding of the English language. Looking at how to teach idioms, these are the main tips; 1) only introduce a few idioms at a time, 2) introduce idioms in context, 3)

never in isolation, 4) use stories, 5) use visuals, 6) use conversations and 7) repeat (Jackson & Amvela, 2007; Thornbury, 2002). These are just a few examples on how to teach idioms, and as for the collocations above there is no mention of vocabulary lists.

Phrasal verb is a phrase with two or more words, usually with the combination of a verb + preposition, a verb + adverb, or a verb with both a preposition and an adverb. Phrasal verb has a meaning that is different from the original verb (Jackson & Amvela, 2007). Phrasal verbs are everywhere in the English language. Phrasal verbs are commonly used at the office, in the household and in everyday conversation. They can make or break your students ability to understand something during conversation or while reading. They can initially seem deceptively easy, as students might be familiar with both the verb and the particle, but may find that they don't understand the meaning of the combination, as it can be very different to the meaning of the two words when they are used independently of each other. Since phrasal verbs are very common, it is essential for student to learn them. Using phrasal verbs correctly makes the students sound natural and fluent (Heywood, 2015). Teaching phrasal verbs can be done in the same way as teaching idioms, and again, there is no mentioning of vocabulary lists.

3 Materials and Methods

Both research and student projects start with some kind of reality that one wants more knowledge about. Curiosity is the starting point for any research. We want answers to one or more questions (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christofferse, 2010). I was curious about the words used in glossary tests in the English classrooms at Norwegian schools. I was amazed when I started on my education to become a teacher and went into practice for the first time. Shocked I found out that glossary test still was a part of students' everyday life. I remembered it like it was yesterday that I sat every Friday with a glossary test in front of me. Translating from Norwegian to English. What did I learn? Most of the words were forgotten the second I put my pen down. According to Ion Drew and Bjørn Sørheim (2009) these tests will probably not help students to remember the meaning of the word when they appear in context, let alone help them to produce the words. So, when I started my master's degree, I knew that I wanted my research to be about the words used in glossary tests. I began to familiarize myself with relevant theory, which is a central part of finding out your research question (Johannessen et al., 2010). The preparatory phase also includes assessing the purpose of the investigation. What should the survey contribute? In my case, I wanted to help shed light on what types of words that are highlighted in the margin of each text (since these words are often the ones used in a glossary test).

Conducting Social science studies is about collecting, analyzing and interpreting data. Research methodology can be defined as the methods or techniques used to answer or elucidate the research question (Johannessen et al., 2010). A distinction that quickly emerges in the Social science methodology is the one between quantitative and qualitative methods. The main difference has to do with they way data is recorded and analyzed. Quantitative methods use numbers, while qualitative methods operate with texts. The choice of method depends on the research question and what kind of survey the design is (Johannessen et al., 2010). In this study, *a quantitative descriptive method, with a qualitative content analysis* is used to elucidate and find answers to my research question:

What types of words are covered in the marginal glossary lists in English textbooks used in the Norwegian EFL classroom in middle school?

- Does the words reflect the research done in the field of vocabulary development?
- Are the words of high quality? Do they contribute to vocabulary growth among students?
- Are there large differences in the results of each textbook?

The aim with this chapter is to explain the methodological choices made and to give a presentation of the materials used to answer my research question. In addition, an explanation of the framework, which I have devised and used for analyzing the marginal glossary lists, will be given. Finally, possible limitations will be discussed.

3.1 Textbook analysis

Since the field of textbook research is relatively new. It is difficult to find uniform guidelines for the analysis or evaluation. A distinction is sometimes made between these

two terms: textbook analysis and textbook evaluation. Textbook *analysis* can be used to refer to a descriptive analysis, whereas the term textbook *evaluation* can be used to refer to a more critical evaluation. In general, however, the two terms are often used interchangeably (Summer, 2011). In my thesis the term relevant is *textbook analysis*, since I am primarily concerned with a description of the words in the marginal glossaries lists accompanying each text in the three textbooks.

A textbook analysis emphasizes textbooks as a teaching tool and a form of communication. This type of textbook research can also be called "product orientated schoolbook research" and it is one of three directions in Europe when it comes to schoolbook research (Johnsen, 1993). This method can be divided into several sub disciplines: primarily a horizontal and a vertical analysis. To make a comparison of the three textbooks used in my analysis I have used a horizontal analysis method where several textbooks (in my case) or a historical theme from the same time are analyzed to find any similarities or differences about the representations (marginal glossary lists). While, with a vertical analysis the aim is to find different presentations of the books or if a historical theme has changed over time (Angvik, 1982). The other two directions "Process oriented schoolbook research" and "reception-oriented schoolbook research" have to do with the term textbook evaluation. The first direction focus on the process a schoolbook undergoes from being developed until it is destroyed. In the latter one the textbook analysis is seen as a part when analyzing school and learning (Bourdillon (1992) cited in (Kim, 2013)). As the name implies, this is a direction that focuses on how textbooks are received. These three directions tell us that there are many aspects of a textbook that can be studied more thoroughly. One can for example analyze the textbooks language, one can analyze the images and graphic material, and one can analyze the textbooks material selection. The most common is probably where you analyze a particular topic (Lorentzen (2005) cited in (Sagen, 2011)). My analysis focuses on the words in the marginal glossary lists of each text.

3.1.1 Analysis in practice

One limitation with textbook analyses is how the findings can be verified. It must be possible for the reader to verify the findings using the same method. Then it is important to include quotes and statements that support the findings, these must be representative and not give a distorted or misleading impression (Angvik, 1982).

When analyzing textbooks two types of options can be distinguished: a theoretical and an experimental textbook analysis (Summer, 2011). In the theoretical textbook analysis the textbook itself is analyzed through a specific evaluative framework. The experimental textbook analysis, on the other hand, is an empirical examination that looks at how the textbooks are used in practice by a teacher in a contextual setting (e.g. the classroom). An empirical examination would give interesting insight into classroom practice, but would be limited to the particular situational context in which the study was conducted. Hence, I did a theoretical textbook analysis. Although it will not give insight into classroom practice, it will provide other valuable information, as the textbooks are likely to influence the teaching. This claim is discussed several times before in my thesis, and it is an important fact regarding my research question that the teachers uses the textbook as a primary source, and that the words used in a glossary test are the glossed words in the margin of the texts.

The contents of a text can be analyzed qualitatively or quantitatively (Johannessen et al., 2010). In my thesis I analyzed the words in the marginal glossary lists quantitatively to

determine how these words could be categorized according to my framework of analysis, which was based on what types of words students should focus on learning. I read the textbooks and studied the marginal glossaries closely according to the framework made. I used a sheet with the framework for each textbook. One textbook, two sheets: one for the single word glossaries and one for the multi word glossaries. As mentioned above all words have been examined according to each category, and placed in only one category. This means that each word was described according to the four criteria used for the single word glossaries, i.e. *core vocabulary*, *non-core vocabulary*, *function words* and *content words*, and the five criteria used for the multi word glossaries, i.e. *other*, *phrase*, *phrasal verb*, *idiom* and *collocation*. Additionally, I did a frequency analysis where I counted all the marginal glossaries in each textbook, and 1) compared the number of glossaries listed in each category of the textbook, 2) compared these numbers with the other textbooks. Furthermore I looked at the quality of the marginal glossaries according to a set of specific criteria (see sections 3.4.1 and 3.4.2) and according to theory on which types of vocabulary are preferred to learn. To check this I used the method of qualitative content analysis. As a tool for presenting the statistics resulting from the study of the words, I have made diagrams in Microsoft excel and some supplementary tables. The results will be presented and discussed in chapter five. The basis of an analysis is to give a good description of the text. What is a good description is not unique, but the problems should be central for the analysis, and the focus should be paid to the characteristics of the text. When analyzing and interpreting one must illuminate theories, concepts and models that are used. Theories and concepts are a part of your pre-knowledge, and are thus part of the analytical tools (Brekke, 2006). In the previous chapter I presented theory and concepts that I found relevant for my thesis.

3.2 The selection of textbooks

I choose to analyze textbooks for middle school, because my goal is to eventually teach at this level. There are several textbooks on the market for this level to choose from: *Searching* (Gyldendal), *Crossroads* (Fagbokforlaget), *Stages* (Aschehoug), *Key English* (Aschehoug), *New Flight* (Cappelen), *Voices in Time* (Cappelen), *Connect* (Cappelen) and *Enter* (Gyldendal). Consequently, I had to make a selection. Østbye et al (sited in (Bruun, 2011, p. 38) state that: "Whether we choose a total survey or make a selection, it is important both to explain how the device(s) is selected, and to justify the choice (my translation)". There is no overview of which textbooks are most vividly used in English for middle school. An alternative had been to investigate sales figures for the textbooks. I have contacted several publishers, but some of them would not provide this information, except from Gyldendal Undervisning (personal communication, 22.08.16) and Fagbokforlaget (personal communication, 26.08.2016). The two textbooks that were most vividly used were *Crossroads* (Fagbokforlaget) and *Searching* (Gyldendal). Both publishers actually mentioned the other textbook as the main competitor on the market. Sales figures can be an indication, but according to (Johnsen, Lorentzen, Selander, & Skyum-Nielsen, 1997) one must remember that there is no automatic connection between large sales and quality. That's why I also contacted other middle schools in the area to see which textbooks they used, and my impression was actually that these two textbooks were preferred. Therefore these two became a part of my analysis material. After a meeting with my supervisor in the fall of 2018 I decided to include *Enter* (Gyldendal) as well. The reason for this was that *Enter* is a brand new textbook made for LK06, whereas the other two textbooks had been on the market for a while and had been updated when new curriculums came along. Therefor I had two of the assumed most

used textbooks and one brand new textbook, which have gained a lot of positive attention since entering the market.

Befring means that one should find typical examples of the phenomenon studying. The aim of the analysis is to describe all of the data material in depth (Befring, 2007 cited in (Bruun, 2011, p. 38). Both *Crossroads 8A*, *Searching 8* and *Enter 8* operate with glossary lists in the margin of the texts. Where the English word is translated to the Norwegian word. Furthermore, all textbooks are based on the national curriculum *The Knowledge Promotion*, which has been the educational guideline since 2006.

Crossroads 8A (Fagbokforlaget), *Searching 8* (Gyldendal) and *Enter 8* (Gyldendal) became three analysis units in my study. The main research material in this thesis are the 99 main texts in *Crossroads 8A*, the 70 main texts in *Searching 8* and 52 main texts in *Enter 8*.

	Texts	Single word glossaries	Multi word glossaries	Total amount of glossaries
Crossroads 8A	99	659	253	912
Searching 8	70	741	66	807
Enter 8	52	723	371	1094
Total	221	2123	690	2813

Table 3.1 an overview of the number of texts and marginal glossaries included in this thesis.

Some glossaries operated with English to English explanations, these were excluded from my research for the simple reason that teachers in Norway often operate with glossary tests with translation from the students' first language to their second language. Other glossed words excluded were numbers, because they could not be listed in any of my categories and I did not find it necessary to include one more category for a couple of glossaries found in one textbook. Finally, glossaries with hyphens could be placed both in the table of the single word glossaries and the multi word glossaries. Again, it was not a lot of glossaries in this category in each textbook, because of this and the fact that I had a lot of glossaries to base my research on I decided to exclude them. Beneath, a brief presentation of the textbooks will be given.

3.2.1 Crossroads 8A

Crossroads 8A is written by Halvor Heger and Nina Wroldsen: published by Fagbokforlaget in 2013. The Crossroads series consists of *Crossroads 8A*, which has many authentic texts and interviews about various topics distributed in six chapters. After each chapter there is a Language Corner (small reminders of important aspects of the English language and the language learning process), Task Bank (additional, varied tasks), Dig into it (resource-demanding tasks) and a Word quest (a collection of the most important words and phrases in the chapter). The main book also has a section called Getting Started, and at the end of the book there is a wordlist. It comprises 232 pages. This is the book included in my analysis, as this is the main book where the glossaries usually are. The glossaries are found in the margin on the same page as the text with the glossed word (not on the same line). *Crossroads 8A* also has a simplified version, where the texts are more easily read. In addition there is *Crossroads 8B*, which is divided into two parts: literature and grammar. Besides these three books, there are audio books, teacher recourses, smartbooks and an Internet site.

3.2.2 Searching 8

Searching 8 is written by Anne-Britt Fenner and Geir Nordal-Pedersen: published by Gyldendal in 2011. The Searching series consists of a textbook, *Searching 8* that is included in my analysis for the same reason as above. It comprises 312 pages. There are nine chapters, plus two additional parts called Individual Reading and Focus on Language, which includes grammar rules, phonetic symbols and a wordlist. Each of the nine chapters comprises texts, marginal glossaries, pictures and tasks related to the topic of the chapter (e.g. In and out of school, poems etc.). Although Focus on Language is a section of its own in the end of the textbook, it is also included at the end of each chapter with an additional part called Focus on Writing. In addition to the textbook, available materials are Read and Write (with facilitated tasks and texts), a resource book for teachers, smartbooks, audiobook for the students and an Internet site with additional tasks.

3.2.3 Enter 8

Enter 8 is written by Elizabeth Diskin, Kirsti Grana Winsvild and Knut Kasbo: published by Gyldendal in 2015. The Enter series consists of a textbook (Learner`s book, one for each year, 8, 9 and 10) and a grammar book (Basic skills, one for all three years, 8-10). *Enter 8* is included in my analysis for the same reason as the two other textbooks. It comprises 235 pages. There are seven chapters, with chapter activities at the end of each chapter. Each of the seven chapters comprises texts, marginal glossaries, pictures and tasks related to the topic of the chapter. In addition to these main books, there are also a cd for each textbook, a teacher`s book and a book called read and write. These four books also comes as smart books, along with a smart board and a resource bank.

3.3 A quantitative descriptive research method, with a qualitative content analysis

At the beginning of this chapter I said that I had used a quantitative descriptive method, with a qualitative content analysis. In this section an explanation on my choice of methods will be given in accordance with relevant theory. Key concepts are *descriptive research*, *quantitative research* and *qualitative research*.

In quantitative research the aim is to determine the relationship between one thing (an independent variable) and another (a dependent or outcome variable) in a population. Quantitative research can have a descriptive design (subjects usually measured once) or an experimental design (subject measured before and after a treatment) (Johannessen et al., 2010). I have chosen a descriptive design; which is a study that establishes associations between variables. Here the researcher has a basic understanding of the problem. With a descriptive design, the purpose is to describe the present situation. Which is the case for my thesis. In descriptive analyzes you start with a set of data and focuses on the distribution of units in selection or populations (Johannessen et al., 2010). The marginal glossary lists in the three textbooks included in this thesis are my data, these glossaries are distributed into categories for me to analyze. Quantitative research "involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods" (Johannessen et al., 2010, p. 415). The use of numbers is one of the main characteristics of quantitative analysis. In order to use numbers the researcher must devise categories and values that are precise and unambiguous prior to the research. Unlike qualitative research, quantitative research is interested in common features among groups, not individuals, and it needs variables that

capture these features. This approach typically makes use of statistics, where frequency analysis is essential which deals with the number of occurrences and analyzes the measurements of central tendencies (Johannessen et al., 2010). The method has several advantages: it is systematic, the measurement is precise, and the data is reliable and can be generalized, although this depends on how they are collected. The research process is relatively quick and the quantitative method tends to have a universally high reputation. On the other hand, this method can average out responses of the whole group and it might not give justice to the subjective variety. Also it does not necessarily uncover the reasons for particular observations (Dörnyei, 2007).

Qualitative research is a general term that includes a variety of ways and traditions of conducting research (Dörnyei, 2007). Despite its variety, qualitative methods involve "data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods" (Lichtman, 2010, p. 13). Whereas quantitative research tends to test hypotheses and perform statistical analyzes, qualitative research is formed to ask in-depth questions, such as "why" and "how", in order to generate meaning, understanding and description that is interpreted by the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007). While qualitative methods are typically concerned with individuals' subjective opinions and experiences. The research is typically conducted in a natural setting. The sample size is often relatively small. In qualitative research some data can be quantified, similar to quantitative research. As stated at the beginning of this unit there are several ways of conducting qualitative research, the most commonly used ones are; phenomenological analysis, grounded theory, ethnographical analysis, case study and content analysis. Besides using a quantitative descriptive method, I also conducted a qualitative content analysis. The content analysis can be divided into three techniques, conventional, directed and summative. In this study I have used a summative technique, which involves counting and comparison, followed by an interpretation of the underlying context (Lichtman, 2010). There are several advantages of qualitative methods: sense can be made of complex situations, although there is a danger that the researcher makes too simple interpretations of the findings. However, qualitative methods can broaden the understanding of a phenomenon with its in-depth analysis. Also, this method is flexible when things go wrong in the research, which can lead to exiting results. Some weaknesses attached to qualitative research approaches are the following: emphasis has been given to the fact that the sample size is typically small in these studies. This means that generalizations cannot be made to the same extent as in quantitative research. Another possible disadvantage is the role of the researcher in analyzing the data and the possible influence this may have on the results. One more possible limitation is that theories can be either too complex or too narrow due to the difficulty in knowing whether the results are of general importance. Also, this type of research is typically more time-consuming and labor-intensive than quantitative research (Lichtman, 2010).

The most common way of conducting analysis is according to Johannessen et al. (2010) to use qualitative techniques to analyze qualitative data and to use quantitative techniques to analyze quantitative data. However, the data analysis does not necessarily have to be conducted this way: "Qualitative data may be analyzed by using quantitative techniques, by e.g. counting how often certain words or concepts occur (translated by me)" (Dörnyei, 2007). This is called triangulation of methods: to see a phenomenon from multiple perspectives, i.e. using different methods, to collect and analyze data. There are several benefits of triangulation: one can test whether different approaches lead to the same general conclusions, if so, the confidence of the results will strengthen. That results

from different methods may differ from one another, do not have to be a problem. It can stimulate new interpretations, a more nuanced description and a more comprehensive explanation of the relevant issues (Johannessen et al., 2010).

Qualitative and quantitative methods can be combined in three different ways. Firstly, one can use qualitative methods by monitoring quantitative data collection. Quantitative surveys may leave issues that must be addressed more thoroughly. Second, qualitative methods can be used in preparation for a quantitative data collection. The qualitative data provide knowledge that you can use when designing the quantitative survey. Thirdly, qualitative and quantitative techniques can be used parallel. Then your quantitative data illustrate the numerical results, while the numbers may indicate something about the prevalence of the findings of the qualitative surveys (Johannessen et al., 2010). It is the last two combinations that are relevant for my thesis. I read theory on what words students should learn and then used the information I gathered to make my framework for analysis to see which words are used in the marginal glossary lists. Moreover, I have used these techniques in parallel to look at the quality of the words collected in the framework for this analysis.

To sum up, in this present study the methods used is a quantitative descriptive method, with a qualitative content analysis. The quantitative analysis count occurrences, while the qualitative analysis categorizes the extent of the words. Let me explain further. The analysis I have conducted comprises a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. The aim is to describe the quality of the marginal glossaries in each textbook according to specific criteria. I made one set of criteria for the single word glossaries (*core vocabulary, non-core vocabulary, function words and content words*) and one set of criteria for the multi word glossaries (*Other, phrase, phrasal verb, idiom and collocation*). A more detailed description of the framework comprising these criteria will be made in section 3.4 The Framework for the Analysis. This framework made it possible to systematically analyze all the glossed words. The results are quantifiable data that serves as a basis for the descriptive analysis.

3.4 The framework for the analysis

In order to collect data for the analysis a descriptive framework was devised. I wanted to organize the data by using categories to make the data easily comparable. When the researcher has collected data from interviews, observations or documents (words in the marginal glossary lists from three textbooks in my case) the analysis includes finding a meaningful division of the material. The categories must be made on the basis of data and theory, not from other studies. The idea behind the categorization is that the researcher uses a set of categories systematically and consistently throughout the data. The categories work the same way as the headings in a book. They provide a description of what each piece of text is about, and is useful for guiding the reader through the text. A category is first developed in terms of the category's features. Features are characteristic qualities of a category. These categories must be exhaustive so that all data can be placed in only one of the categories (Johannessen et al., 2010). In accordance with these researchers criteria for developing categories to organize the data by, I have devised a descriptive framework as a tool for analyzing the words in the marginal glossary lists. The categories are based on theory and categories used in the work of other scholars. However, the categories are adapted from their work rather than superimposed on the data, in order to suit the aim of this thesis, which is to examine what types of words are presented in the marginal glossary lists in the selected

textbooks. The categories are exhaustive in the way that all the data, i.e. all words, can be analyzed according to all categories. The four main categories used in my analysis of the single word glossaries are: *core vocabulary*, *non-core vocabulary*, *function words* and *content words*. I also had several sub categories; these will be addressed in the next section (3.4.1). When I started my analysis work this was the only framework I had, however, as time went by I stumbled upon a problem with the glossaries consisting of more than one word. Therefore I had to make another framework for these words as well, which I have called multi word glossaries. The categories used for the multi word glossaries are: *other*, *phrase*, *phrasal verb*, *idiom* and *collocation*. There were many opportunities for the selection of categories, therefore it was important for me to choose categories that would give the best possible overview and serve me the right information to answer my research question. In addition, I wanted just a few categories to relate to; this way it would be easier to understand for other readers.

In the two next sections the framework for the single word glossaries and the multi word glossaries are presented. These two frameworks has been changed a numerous of times, but the core has stayed the same. I quickly saw that I started of with a framework that was way to complex, with all to many categories and codes. I knew I had some decisions to make on what to include and not, depending on my research question and theory on the subject (the most essential theory). So, here is what I ended up with.

3.4.1 Single word glossaries

First, let me explain the framework for the single word glossaries. As mentioned above I had four main categories, where three of them were given sub categories: *Core vocabulary* had three sub categories (1st 1000, 2nd 1000, 3rd 1000), *function words* had four (prepositions, conjunction, determiner, pronoun), and so did the *content words* (noun, verb, adjective, adverb). The fourth main category is called *Non-core vocabulary*.

To help me place the single word glossaries in the right categories, I used three of the largest English dictionaries according to (Johannessen et al., 2010; Postholm, 2011): the Cambridge English Dictionary ("Cambridge Dictionary," 2016) , made from the same corpus used when creating the NGSL (New General Service List), The Oxford Learner`s Dictionaries ("Oxford Learner`s Dictionaries," 2017) and Collins English Dictionary ("Collins Dictionary," 2017). These dictionaries were used for the categories function words and content word. Furthermore, I used the New General Service List (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2013b), the most important words for second language learners to acquire. The NGSL I used to find out what words from the marginal glossary lists belonged in the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary. If the word was in this list, it belonged to the core-vocabulary category, if not I placed the word into the non-core vocabulary category. Further, the NGSL divided the words into three groups, the 1st 1000 most frequent words, the 2nd 1000 most frequent words and the 3rd 1000 most frequent words. Since I used this list to place the words in my two main categories, I also made a choice to use the three sub categories as in the NGSL, this way I could see how many words there were in each of the three sub categories of core vocabulary. In addition to the NGSL I also used the New Academic Word List (NAWL) to find out if some of the glossaries was listed in this list. These are the most common academic words for EFL learners to learn (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2013a).

I also decided to use different signs after some of the words in the framework. These signs cannot be understood without an example sheet presenting the meaning of each sign.

Alphabetical order	Core vocabulary			Non-core vocabulary	Prepositions	Function word
	1 st 1000	2 nd 1000	3 rd 1000			
	Beyond (adv.)					
	But (prep., adv.)				Conjunction	
					Determiner	
					Pronouns	
	Bear (v) 2 Board (v)	Bike (v) Bone (v)	Bin (v) Boot (v) Bowl (v)	Badge Barbarian Barrel (v) Basket Beam (v) Billabong Blanket (v, adj.) 2 Blur (v) 3! (2) Boil (n) 2! Bowstring Brotherhood Bucket Bullet	Noun	Content word
			Behave 2 Breeding Bury	Banish Blur (n) 3! (1) Boil (n) 2! Budge	Verb	
		Bright (n, v)		Bald Blunt (v)	Adjective	
					Adverb	

Table 3.2 the framework used to analyze the single word glossaries. Note: all the single word glossaries are not presented here; this is just an example to show all the signs used and the placements of the single word glossaries.

As we can see from the example sheet above, I also found it necessary to mark the words that occurred more than once in the marginal glossary lists in the textbooks; these are marked with the number of occurrence written in bold, ex. Bear **2**. Some of the bolded numbers has an exclamation mark behind them, ex. Boil **2!** This means that the glossed word is in one text for example used as a noun and in another text used as a verb. When a number in addition is written in parenthesis behind the exclamation mark it give us further information on how many words that has this word class out of the total number of words, ex. Blur **3! (2)**. All the words are placed in the word class that is used

in the textbooks. In parenthesis the other word classes the gloss fits into is written, ex. (v). Some of the words are written in blue, ex. *Beyond*, this means that it is an abstract word. While the rest of the words, written in black are concrete words. Words marked with a line through it, means that it is listed in the New Academic Word List, ex. ~~Barrel~~. In addition I wanted the words to be sorted alphabetical to get a better overview of the words; organized is the key here. The framework made it possible to give a description of the words according to the criteria specified within the four main categories. Before moving on to the framework for the multi word glossaries, I will give a brief description of each category in this framework.

Core vocabulary describes whether a glossed word is listed in the New General Service List (NGSL) of core high-frequency vocabulary words for students of English as a second language. Dr. Charles Browne, Dr. Brent Culligan and Joseph Phillips created this list, with approved use of the two billion word Cambridge English Corpus (CEC). This list was published in 2013 and is based on the General Service List (GSL) from 1953, created by Michael West. The GSL was designed to be more than simply a list of high-frequency words; its primary purpose was to combine both objective and subjective criteria to come up with a list of words that would be of "general service" to learners of English as a foreign language. The NGSL provides over 92,34% coverage for most general English texts (the highest of any corpus-derived general English word list to date). It consists of 2800 words (Browne et al., 2013b). A passive knowledge of the 2000 most frequent words in English would provide a reader with familiarity with nearly nine out of ten words in most written texts. These 2000 high-frequency words is the minimum, or the threshold level. There is recommended a basic vocabulary of at least 3000 word families (Thornbury, 2002).

Non-core vocabulary are the words that is not listed in the NGSL, meaning, they are not mentioned as one of the 2800 most vital words to know for a second language learner. These words are more subject specific, it is not neutral in field and is associated with a specialized topic. Words in this category are often academic vocabulary, technical vocabulary and low-frequency words (Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002).

Function words give us an indication if the glossed word falls into one of these word classes: prepositions, conjunction, determiner or pronouns. Words in this category are words that mainly contribute to the grammatical structure of the sentence. A function word has little or no meaningful content. If our function words are missing or used incorrectly, we are probably considered poor speakers of English, but listeners may still get the main idea of what we are saying (Jackson & Amvela, 2007).

Content words on the other hand give us information of whether the glossed word belongs to one of these word classes: noun, verb, adjective or adverb. These words carry a high information load. Content words help us to form a picture in our head; they give us content of our story and tell our listener where to focus his or her attention (Jackson & Amvela, 2007).

3.4.2 Multi word glossaries

Moving on to the framework for the multi word glossaries (chunks), we will see that it looks a bit different. In this framework there are five main categories with no sub categories: other, phrase, phrasal verb, idiom and collocation. Like the framework for the single word glossaries I used the three largest dictionaries Cambridge English Dictionary ("Cambridge Dictionary," 2016), The Oxford Learner`s Dictionaries ("Oxford Learner`s Dictionaries," 2017) and Collins English Dictionary ("Collins Dictionary," 2017; "Oxford

Learner`s Dictionaries," 2017). The dictionaries were used to see if the multi word glossaries were a phrase, phrasal verb or an idiom. If I could not find the multi word glossaries in any of these dictionaries, I placed them beneath the category called *other*. In addition I used the Online OXFORD Collocation Dictionary ("Online OXFORD Collocation Dictionary of English," 2016) to find out if the glossaries were a collocation or not. A glossary that has a bold number behind them tell us how many times the glossary is listed in the textbook, ex. Related to **2**. Glossaries marked with turquoise are listed as the most common phrases, idioms and phrasal verbs for students to learn, ex. **Carry on**. A network called STANDS4 is a leading provider of online reference and educational resources. This network has made a collection of the most common phrases, idioms and phrasal verbs in the English language. This collection is just a little part of what the network has to offer (STANDS4, 2001). Moving on, the glossed word that has a number behind them tells us how many times it is represented in the textbook. To make it more understandable I have included an example sheet below.

Multi word glossaries (Chunks)	
A host of Arm themselves Gain on someone Badge scheme Be heartbroken Consider as	Other
Acacia tree Apart from Back rub Backing track Blue book Day centre	Phrase
Bear down on Carry on 2 Cut off 2 Depend on Hand in Mix up Narrow down Related to 2 Rely on	Phrasal verb
Be in for Cup of tea End of Gift of the gab Hands down In addition In common	Idiom
A pair of Academic qualification Admission ticket On a regular basis 2 Peace of mind	Collocation

Table 3.3 the framework used to analyze the multi word glossaries. Note: all the multi word glossaries are not presented here; this is just an example to show all the signs used and the placements of the multi word glossaries.

Beneath there is a description of the categories used for the analysis of the multi word glossaries.

Other is the multi word glossary that I could not place in any of the other categories. Still, they were multi word glossaries since they consisted of two words or more.

Phrase refers to a group of words that work together as a clause element. In other words, it refers to any group of words that function as a unit within the sentence. Within these phrases, the noun, verb, adjective or adverb function as head (the most important word of the phrase). Hence noun phrase, verb phrase etc. (Dypedahl et al., 2011).

Phrasal verb are common verbs combined with one or more particles, the meaning of which is different from the meaning of its separate parts (Crystal, 2004).

Idiom is commonly used expression whose meaning does not relate to the literal meaning of its words. Well, there are also something called `partial idioms`, where some of the words have their usual meaning while the others have meanings that are peculiar to that particular structure (Jackson & Amvela, 2007).

Collocation tells us if the words in a chunk often co occur. Is that so, then it is a collocation. In other words, a collocation refers to a group of two or more words that usually go together. A good way to think of collocation is to look at the word it self. **Co** meaning together, *location* meaning place. Collocations are words that are located together. Although other word combinations are possible, understanding collocations help English learners improve their fluency because of their co occurrence (Jackson & Amvela, 2007).

3.5 Considerations regarding the study

I will now address some of the weaknesses of this study and the methods used. Possible limitations to my study are the following: first, I only chose to look at three textbooks (*Crossroads 8A*, *Searching 8* and *Enter 8*). Hence, the findings are not representative for all English textbooks series on the market. Other textbooks might have resulted in other findings, as the words used in the glossary list might be quite different in those textbooks. However, I have chosen textbooks for middle school in Norway in order to make the analysis applicable for a wider audience, i.e. the users of these textbooks (e.g. teachers). Second, this is a theoretical analysis, and thus the study will give no insight into real classroom practice. On the other hand, the results of a practical analysis would be limited to the context, in which the study was conducted, and its pedagogical implications.

In the next section the challenges of the validity and reliability of the methods used in this study are discussed.

3.5.1 Validity and reliability

There is of course a goal that your research and research report will be of high quality. Quality on a research design can be considered by certain criteria. Two concepts are frequent when considering the quality: **validity** and **reliability**. Validity is often divided into conceptual validity, internal validity and external validity (Browne et al., 2013b).

The validity of a research should say something about how well the data is consistent with the purpose of the study and data collection, if one actually measures what you want to measure. If the survey gives us data that is not relevant to the issue, the validity is low. High validity means that the survey and data collection provides data that is relevant to the research question (Johannessen et al., 2010).

Conceptual validity has to do with the correspondence between theoretical concepts and the operationalization of them (Postholm, 2011). To ensure that the requirements for validity is taken care of there are two points that must be covered:

1. Select the specific types of changes that are to be studied (and link these to the surveys original goal).
2. Show that the selected dimensions of these changes truly reflect the specific nature of the change that has been selected (Johannessen et al., 2010).

Internal validity is about the ability to decide something about causalities, about the relationship between variables. External validity is about being able to generalize results from a study beyond the current case study. Critics often claim that only one case is a weak basis to make a generalization (Yin, 2007).

Reliability has to do with the credibility of the measurement. If data are not heavily affected by random errors, it has good reliability. The results are reliable if others might get the same results on the basis of the same terms used. Data cannot be recreated with new research; changes may have occurred from one survey to another, one can get different results. One can assess the degree of reliability, but not really measure it, since it is a theoretical concept (Johannessen et al., 2010).

A high level of reliability is a requirement for high validity. Is the researcher able to remain as objective as possible, the challenge for the researcher is to look at and find exactly what's being investigated, and not letting the material speak for itself. In order to make the research as valid and credible as possible the study has to be able to be conducted by another impartial researcher, and the outcome should be almost identical. As mention above, changes may have occurred from one survey to another, one can get different results. The researcher can enhance the reliability by providing the reader with a thorough description of the context, often in the form of a case description, and an open and detailed presentation of the procedure for the entire research process. The researcher prepares a revision procedure that makes it possible to trace his documentation of data, methods and decisions throughout the project, including the final result. Emphasizing appropriate criteria for evaluation can also strengthen the reliability. Then it has to do with validity (Johannessen et al., 2010; Postholm, 2011). Next I will go through and consider the validity and reliability of the methods used in this study. In other words, what are the advantages and disadvantages of the chosen methods?

A descriptive quantitative analysis is a well-known method in schoolbook and textbook research, especially for textbook analysis. Besides using this method I also conducted a qualitative content analysis.

The problem using this method in analyzing schoolbooks is the verification of the results. It must be possible for the reader to verify the findings using the same method. Since I made use of the frequency analysis, it should be possible for another researcher to conduct the same study and get the same results, as long as the framework of the analysis criteria are clear and cannot be mistaken (Angvik, 1982; Johnsen, 2001). I have tried to provide the reader with a thorough description of the context and an open and

detailed presentation of the procedure for the entire research process. Because of this, the credibility and the reliability of the research can be considered as valid research. Another disadvantage using the quantitative descriptive research method has to do with the fact that it does not delve into the "why or how", in other words it does not give insight into classroom practice. I only know what previous research states, that the words in the marginal glossary lists are used in the glossary test. Which of the words in the marginal glossary lists the teacher focuses on I don't know. Therefore I cannot know the quality of the exact words the teacher's uses for these glossary tests, from my analysis I can only get insight into the quality of the words listed in the marginal glossary lists in Crossroads 8A, Searching 8 and Enter 8.

Combining the quantitative descriptive research method with another method can reduce the weakness of this method. Besides using the quantitative descriptive method and the frequency analysis I found it necessary to use qualitative content analysis as well. The limitation of using this analysis method has to do with the fact that it relies heavily on the researchers reading and interpretation of the text (Lichtman, 2010). Although the results are backed up by theory on vocabulary learning, which presents what types of words are preferred to teach, it does not say anything about how many percentages of coverage a specific type of word should have in a textbook. Therefore it was up to me to conclude if there were enough of the preferred vocabulary covered in the textbooks. Because of this, the credibility and the reliability of the research may not be considered valid research.

4 Results and discussion

In this chapter, the results of the analysis will be presented. These results are structured by the categories made in the framework (section 3.4.1 and 3.4.2), and will be followed by a discussion, which addresses issues from the theoretical background presented in chapter two. The results will eventually give conclusions to the research question:

What types of words are covered in the marginal glossary lists in English textbooks used in the Norwegian EFL classroom in middle school?

- Does the words reflect the research done in the field of vocabulary development?
- Are the words of high quality? Do they contribute to vocabulary growth among students?
- Are there large differences in the results of each textbook?

4.1 Number of marginal glossaries

English textbooks has been central in the second language classroom for a very long time, so has the traditional glossary tests. The words used in these test are found in the textbook, often the highlighted ones in the marginal glossary list (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014; Buland et al., 2014). My analysis material is all the marginal glossaries that supported the main texts in *Crossroads*, *Enter* and *Searching*, the ones that were translated from English to Norwegian. I choose these because this is how the traditional glossary tests operate, primarily with L1 to L2 translation and because a majority of the glossaries in the textbooks were translated into the students L1. Such glossary tests do not help students to know a word or to use it well. To learn a new vocabulary is a complex task. Research states that learning new elements of a language increases when exposed to new words and expression more then ten times. This exposure must take place over a period of time in different settings/learning activities (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014). Norbert Schmitt (2008) adds that knowing a word on several levels is important when we think about acquisition and pedagogy. Like word meaning and word form that are quite receptive to intentional learning, while collocation and intuitions of frequency (contextualized aspects), are not easy to teach explicitly. The teacher has to teach the learners this through great exposure to the foreign language. Schmitt recommend that an explicit approach where the focus lie on determining the form-meaning link can be most successful, and when this is established the exposure approach starts, an approach that enhances contextual knowledge.

When it comes to glossaries effect on comprehension and vocabulary learning, there is not found any difference between L1 and L2 glosses. What's important is that they are easily understood. Another similarity was that all glossaries were placed in the margin of each text. Again, there is not found any difference on where best to place the glossaries in a text, but it is said that learners of L2 preferred marginal glossaries (Nation, 2001).

First, let us look at the included and the excluded marginal glossaries in *Crossroads*, *Enter* and *Searching*. Besides presenting the number of marginal glossaries, table 4.1 below also displays the percentage of included and excluded marginal glossaries.

Textbook	Included marginal glossaries	Excluded marginal glossaries	All marginal glossaries
Crossroads	912 (94,12%)	57 (5,88%)	969 (100%)
Enter	1094 (97,24%)	31 (2,76%)	1125 (100%)
Searching	807 (95,62%)	37 (4,38%)	844 (100%)

Table 4.1 the number of included and excluded marginal glossaries

Enter has the largest percentage of included glossaries (97,24%) out of all the marginal glossaries listed in the textbook, the other two textbooks are right behind with respectively 95,62% (*Searching*) and 94,12% (*Crossroads*). All three textbooks have a large percentage, meaning there were not many glossaries excluded. Beneath is a figure presenting the included marginal glossaries in each textbook. The number of included marginal glossaries *Enter* provides is 1094 glosses, while *Crossroads* provides 912 glosses and *Searching* provides the lowest number with 807 marginal glossaries. Summarizing all the included marginal glossaries, the analysis material comprises 2813 marginal glossaries. Hence, there is lots of material to analyze.

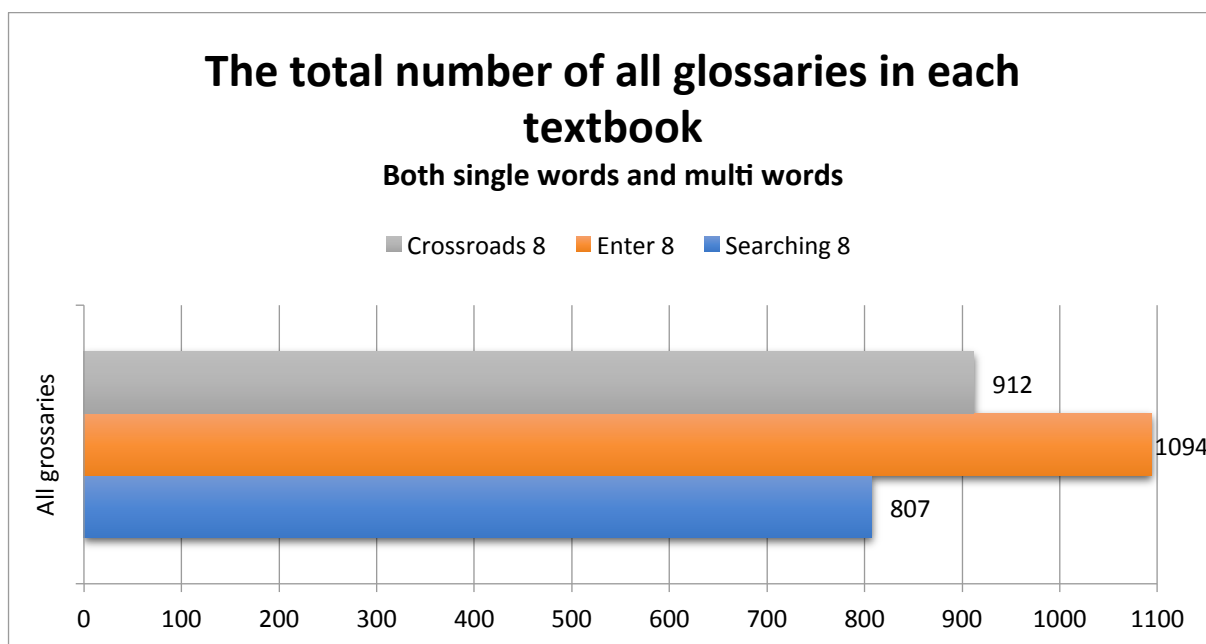


Figure 4.1 all the marginal glossaries analyzed in this thesis

Although *Enter* contributes with most marginal glossaries, it is important to remember that the quantity of marginal glossaries does not say anything about the quality of these glossed words, which is a critical factor to consider. While finding theory for this thesis I have come across many forums, blogs and websites stating that we should teach 8-10 words per contact hour. This I found really interesting, where did those numbers come from. I have read my share of theory, and there is no consensus amongst researchers as to what the ideal number of new words to teach per lesson is. But what they recommend is to distribute memory work across a period of time rather than massing it together in a single block. In other words, when teaching students a new set of words, for example, it

is best to present the first two or three items, then go back and test these, then present some more, then backtrack again, and so on. As each word becomes better learned, the testing interval can gradually be extended (Thornbury, 2002). These recommendations are not followed in the EFL classroom, where there are a new set of glossaries to learn each week with a glossary test at the end of that week to find out if the students has learned to translate the glossaries from their L1 to their L2. Unfortunately, these glossaries are seldom worked with again (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014). Research states that learning new elements of a language increases when exposed to new words and expression more then ten times. This exposure must take place over a period of time in different settings/learning activities (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014), not only through a set of glossaries tested based on the students capability to translate the Norwegian word to the English one.

Researchers also states that if learners are going to make themselves understood they would need to acquire a core vocabulary consisting of at least 2000 of the 3000 high-frequency words (Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002). When these are learned the teacher can move on to the academic word list and the low-frequency words (in this thesis these two terms are placed under the category non-core vocabulary along with technical vocabulary). If we only see the quantity of the marginal glossaries in each textbook, one could state that EFL learners can acquire these 2000 words before graduating from 10th grade. Provided that the 9th and 10th grade textbooks also have about the same amount of marginal glossaries, we actually would land in between 2000-3000 words, which is the amount of words a core vocabulary covers. Except, it is not that black and white. We don't know how many of these marginal glossaries students learn in a year, previous research have only found out that these marginal glossaries often are used when learning new vocabulary. The teacher has to make a decision on which glossaries to focus on and it is not given that these glossaries belong to the first 2000 high-frequency core vocabulary that the students should learn. One also must remember that the quality of a gloss has to do with much more than just if it is a high-frequency word. What type of word is it? Is it a content word or a function word? Concrete or abstract? Maybe a chunk? What type of chunk then? And if the gloss is of good quality, it does not mean that it is more learnable. Learning a new word is a complex task; it takes time and effort both from the student and the teacher. There are a number of contextual factors to consider besides the quality when learning a new word. One must consider the depth of knowledge for instance (we have to know the form, the meaning and the usage of the word, as well as its derivations, collocations, etc.). All these factors of learning a new word is not taken into consideration in this analysis, since my focus was on the types of marginal glossaries in each textbook.

In the framework of this analysis (section. 3.4) I made it clear that I had to use two sheets, one for the single word glossaries and one for the multi word glossaries. Beneath, there are two figures displaying the number of single word glossaries and multi word glossaries in each textbook used for this analysis. The first figure presents the total number of single word glossaries and multi word glossaries, all textbooks combined. The second figure presents how many single word glossaries and multi word glossaries there are in each textbook.

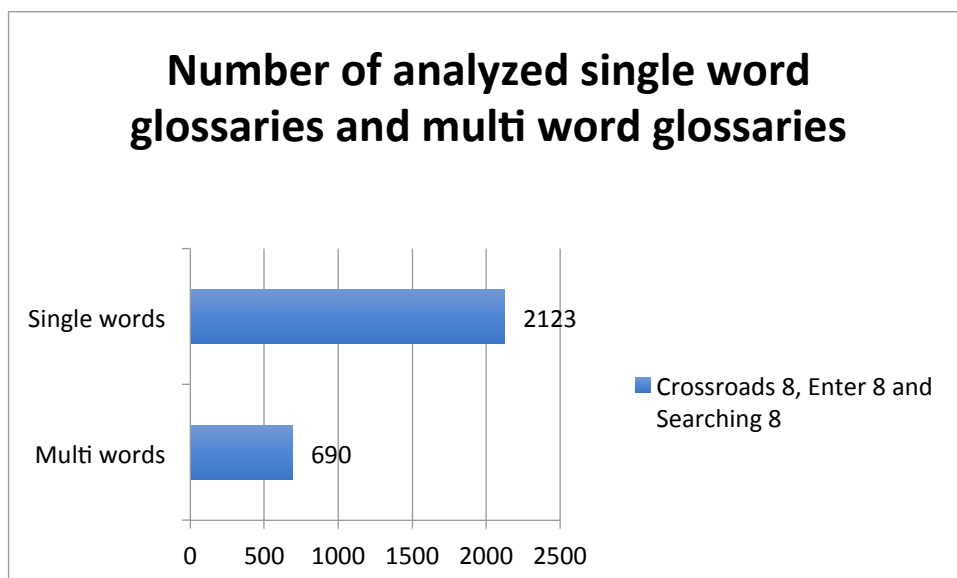


Figure 4.2 the single word and multi word glossaries analyzed from the three textbooks combined.

It is no doubt that there are a higher number of single word glossaries in this analysis, there are 1433 more single word glossaries than multi word glossaries. When learning single word glossaries one should focus on learning the first 2000 of the 3000 high-frequency words which makes up a students core vocabulary. These are the most useful words in the L2, words we use on a daily basis. They occur more often in oral and written language than other words. These 2000 high-frequency words can be used to express a wide variety of concepts. Core vocabulary makes up about 80% of all running words in a text. The opposite of core vocabulary is non-core vocabulary, these words are more subject specific, it is not neutral in field and it is associated with specialized topics (Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002). Although the main focus for the students should be on acquiring a core vocabulary, non-core vocabulary is also important. Nevertheless, to master a core vocabulary is a necessary prerequisite to develop a non-core vocabulary (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014). What category of these two the single word glossaries belong to will be analyzed later on in section 4.2 Single word glossaries. Along with acquiring a core vocabulary, chunks should also be focused on. In my thesis, these are called multi word glossaries and are all the glossaries consisting of two words or more. These glossaries are compact packages of information that our minds can easily access. They are very frequent; they cover approximately 30-50% of a text (Schmitt, 2008). In fact, there are many concepts and ideas students won't be able to express right translating them from their L1. Mastering these multi word glossaries makes the students language sound more natural, as it encourage connected speech. Since these glossaries consists of several items, one can teach more words in one go as working memory can process about seven items (plus or minus two) (Lewandowski, 2018).

To summarize, we see that researchers recommended studying both single word glossaries and multi word glossaries. It does not seem like one is more important than the other, although it is preferred to adapt a core vocabulary first since these words can be used to express a wide variety of concepts. But, this does not mean that learning chunks should be set on hold until these are learned, because both help students to create a more natural language, and to express concepts and ideas right. Looking at figure 4.3 it seems like the coverage of single word glossaries in each textbook is ok, but that there is a lack of multi word glossaries seen in the light of its importance. This will

be discussed more thoroughly in section 4.2 Single word glossaries and in section 4.3 Multi word glossaries.

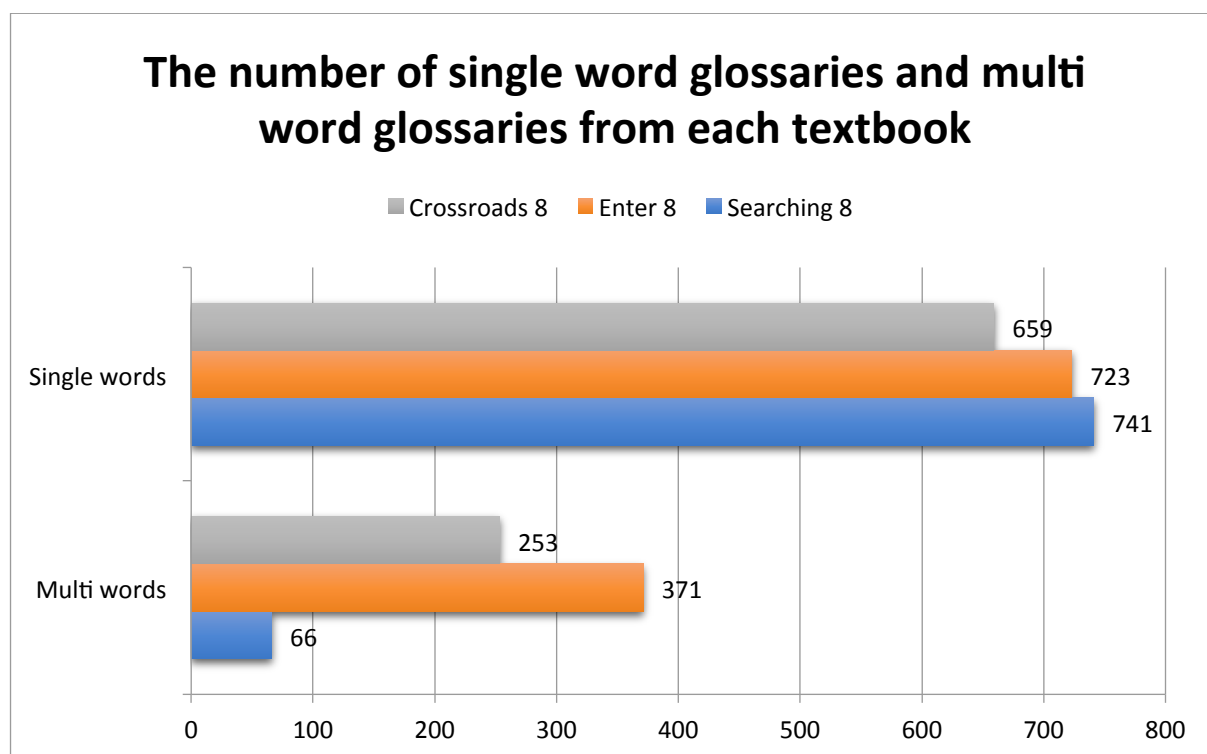


Figure 4.3 the number of single word and multi word glossaries from each textbook.

Searching has the largest amount of single word glossaries (741 glosses) and the lowest amount of multi word glossaries with only 66 glosses. *Enter* is right behind with 723 single word glossaries, but unlike *Searching* it has a high amount of multi word glossaries (371 glosses). *Crossroads* on the other hand has 659 single word glossaries and 253 multi word glossaries.

Analyzing the single word glossaries first, here we find that it is not that big of a difference between *Crossroads*, with the smallest number of marginal glossaries and *Searching* with the largest amount. It is just 82 glossaries. As mentioned above the students learning a second language like English should have a core vocabulary consisting of at least 2000 high-frequency words. In the theory chapter I presented a table displaying the percentage of text coverage of each successive 1000 lemmas. This table showed that 1000 words covered 72% of a text, 2000 words 79,7 % of a text, while 3000 words covered 84% of a text. After the 3000 word (lemma) level, the percentages decreased significantly. If the textbooks only had single word glossaries of high quality, meaning that they were a part of the 2000 core vocabulary a learner should adapt, it would mean that after 8th grade the students would cover 32,95% of the first 2000 high-frequency words with *Crossroads*, 36,15% with *Enter* and 37,05% with *Searching*. If we take into consideration the textbooks for 9th and 10th grade, and assume that they have approximately the same number of single word glossaries then students would have learned 98,76% of the first 2000 high-frequency words with *Crossroads*, while with *Enter* and *Searching* they would have learned a little over 2000 of these high-frequency words, respectively 108,45% and 111,15%. Then they would have learned enough words to cover 75% of a text, which are the 2000 word (lemma) level. Again, this is just if the single word glossaries are of high quality, which will be discussed later on in section 4.2 Single word glossaries. For a L2 learner it takes approximately two

years to gain control of the 2000 high- frequency words, and three to five years more to gain control of the academic vocabulary and other relevant low- frequency and technical words (Nation, 2001). Knowing these 2000 high-frequency words means that one word in every five is unknown. For a learner to read with minimal disturbance from unknown vocabulary, they'd probably need a vocabulary of 15,000 to 20,000 words. Although, the first 2000 high-frequency words is the best starting point for a L2 learner, knowledge of general academic vocabulary as well as chunks will help students to acquire this amount of vocabulary. Especially chunks as one can teach more words in one go (Lewandowski, 2018; Nation, 2001).

Analyzing the multi word glossaries, we find that the difference between the lowest number of glossaries (*Searching*) and the largest number of glossaries (*Enter*) is strikingly 305 glosses. This is interesting since it is said to teach, besides the 2000 high-frequency words in English, multi word glossaries. These chunks appear in all sorts of ways: as idioms and collocations, in phrases such as "It's amazing how" and as phrasal verbs (Jackson & Amvela, 2007; Thornbury, 2002). Chunks are compact packages of information that our minds can easily access. In other words, chunks are pieces of information that are bound together through meaning or use. Chunking is the mental lead that helps you unite bits of information and give it true meaning. The new logical whole makes the chunk easier to remember and it also makes it easier to fit the chunk into the larger picture of what you are learning. Just memorizing a fact without understanding of context doesn't help you understand what's really going on or how the concept fits together with other concepts you are learning (Oakley, 2017). With this knowledge of the importance of multi word glossaries, I find it alarming that *Searching* only has 66 of them. That is just 8.18% of the total amount of marginal glossaries in this textbook. Unlike *Searching*, *Crossroads* and *Enter* has a larger amount of multi word glossaries in their textbooks, with 27,74% and 33,91% respectively. Since these multi word glossaries are said to be almost as vital as a core vocabulary the coverage of them is low even for the to latter textbooks.

4.2 Single word glossaries

Single word glossaries are all the glossaries consisting of only one word. Before analyzing the single word glossaries I want to remind you of the overall number of single word glossaries in each textbook used in this thesis. I will not elaborate any more since I discussed this in the previous section (4.1).

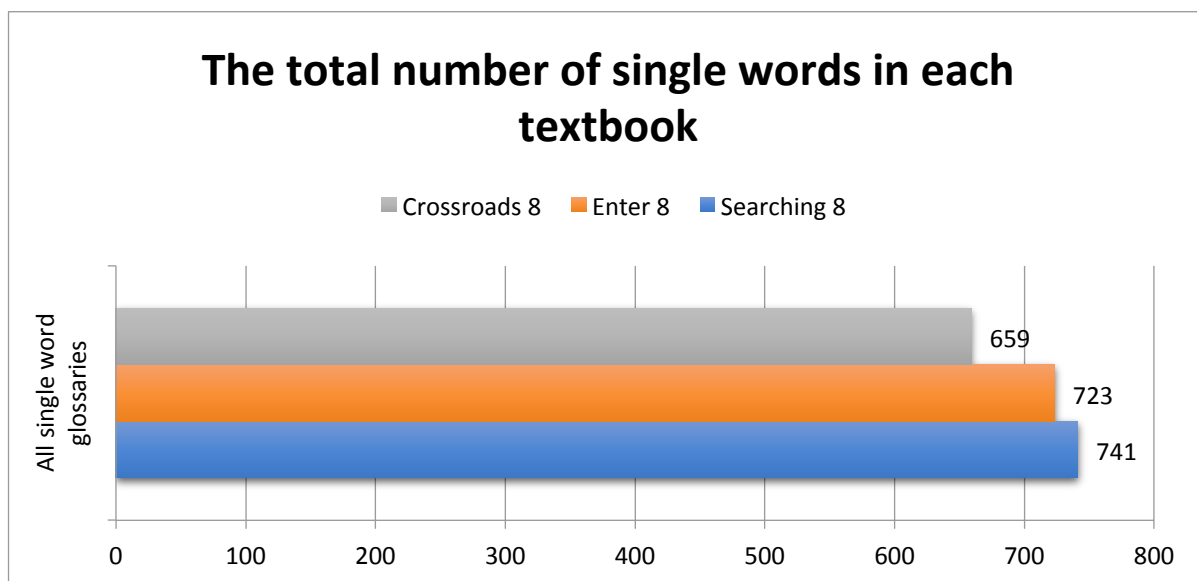


Figure 4.4 the total number of single word glossaries.

As the figure displays, *Searching* has most single word glossaries (741), with *Enter* right behind with 723 glossaries, while *Crossroads* has the lowest number of single word glossaries (659). 82 glossaries separate *Searching* with the highest number and *Crossroads* with the lowest.

In the framework of this analysis (3.4.1 Single word glossaries) I presented four main categories, with eleven sub categories. While making these diagrams I found it necessary to only use the main categories core vocabulary, plus the sub categories here, non-core vocabulary, function words and content words, but without their sub categories (preposition, conjunction, determiner, pronoun, noun, verb, adjective and adverb). Although it was interesting to see which of these sub categories had the most glosses, material wise it would be too much to analyze. Besides, theory on this subject focuses on the overall knowledge of function words and content words.

To give the reader a better overview of my analysis work, I will divide the analysis material for the single word glossaries into three parts; core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary, function words and content words, abstract words and concrete words. Before moving on to these three parts a remark is in order. The categories in this framework cannot be analyzed alone; they depend on each other. In other words, I cannot answer my research question by looking only at one category at a time. The focus in this thesis is the marginal glossaries from each textbook and how they are distributed among the different categories. To see the similarities and inequalities of the three textbooks more clear, I have (where necessary) made a supplementary table along with the diagrams, where I calculated the percentage of single word glossaries in each category (later on you will see that the same goes for the multi word glossaries). This will become more apparent as we move on to the three parts I have divided the analysis of single word glossaries in.

4.2.1 Core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary

Figure 4.5 below presents how many single word glossaries there are in the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary in *Crossroads*, *Enter* and *Searching*. To explain the results in this diagram I have made a supplementary table showing the percentage of coverage of core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary in the three textbooks.

The teacher should expose her students for as much high-frequency words as possible. This core vocabulary cover a large proportion of the running words (almost 80%) in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of the language, while the rest (about 20%) belongs in the category non-core vocabulary (Nation, 2001). As mentioned before, except from mastering a core vocabulary is it also necessary to acquire a non-core vocabulary (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014). In this category several types of vocabulary is listed, these are more subject specific, like technical vocabulary, academic vocabulary, and low-frequency words. For middle school students, learning an academic vocabulary would be smart since they are attending high school afterwards. Therefore I have also looked at how many of the glossaries listed in the non-core vocabulary category are academic ones. These are marked with grey and written in bold/cursive in the supplementary table.

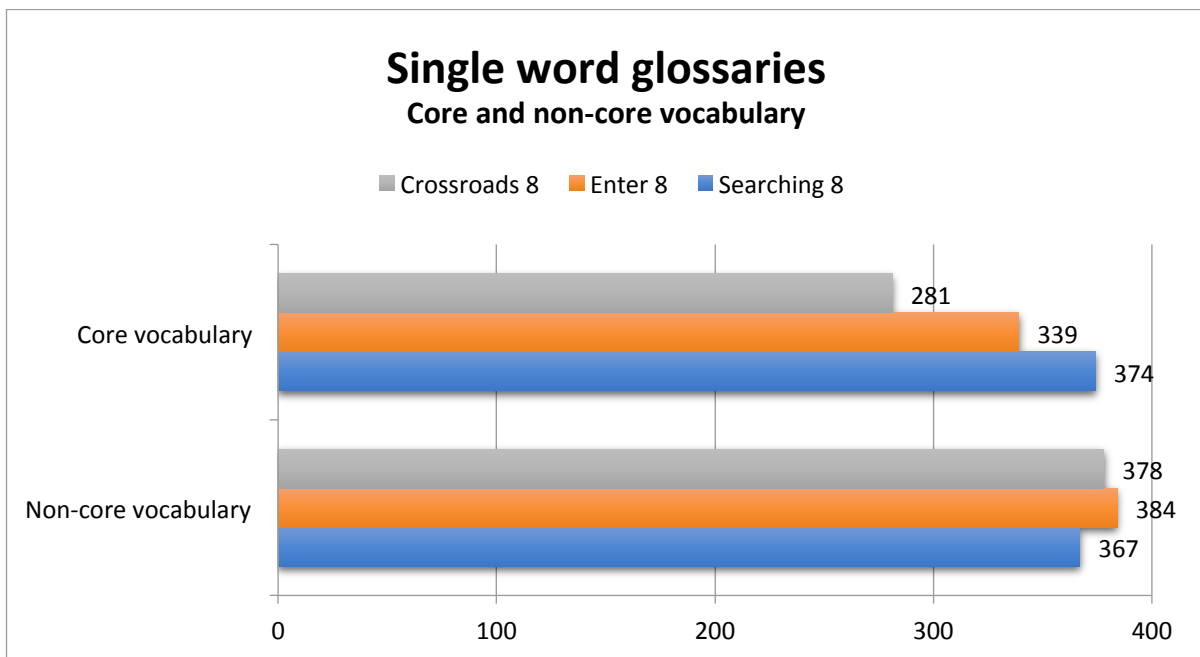


Figure 4.5 the number of single word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

From figure 4.5 above and table 4.2 below we see that *Crossroads* and *Enter* are textbooks where most of their single word glossaries are listed in the non-core vocabulary category, with respectively 378 (57,36%) and 384 (53,11%) single word glossaries. The difference between core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary glossaries is highest in *Crossroads* though, where the distinction is 97 single word glossaries (14,72%). In *Enter* the distinction is about half, 45 single word glossaries (6,22%). *Searching* on the other hand has most of its single word glossaries (374; 49,87%) listed in the core vocabulary category, but there is merely any difference between the two categories, just 7 single word glossaries (1,2%). What`s worth noticing here is that *Searching* has the largest number of single word glossaries listed in the category core vocabulary and the lowest number listed in the category non-core vocabulary compared to the other two textbooks. In addition, *Searching* has 18 more single word glossaries than *Enter* and 82 more single word glossaries than *Crossroads* in its textbook.

Textbook	% of Core vocabulary	% of Non-core vocabulary	Total amount of core and non-core vocabulary
Crossroads 8	281 (42,64%)	378 (57,36%) 31 (4,70%)	659 (100%)
Enter 8	339 (46,89%)	384 (53,11%) 24 (3,32%)	723 (100%)
Searching 8	374 (49,87%)	367 (48,93%) 34 (4,53%)	750 (100%)

Table 4.2 the percentage of single word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

Considering all the research available on what kind of words to teach it is a low percentage of single word glossaries listed in the category core vocabulary in all three textbooks. However, there are other factors to consider besides if a gloss is of the 3000 high- frequency words a student should learn, which constitutes our core vocabulary. This will be elaborated in section 4.2.2 Function words and content words, and in section 4.2.3 Concrete words and abstract words. When this core vocabulary is learned, researchers recommend spending time on academic vocabulary as well. These are words that can help students understand oral directions and classroom instructional dialog. They also help students to comprehend text across different content areas. This word list consists of 570 word families that occur reasonably frequently over a wide range of academic text. These words are not in the most frequent 2000 words of English. This meaning that the importance of academic vocabulary is the coverage it provides for various kinds of texts. The percentage of coverage of academic text changes from 78,1% to 86,6%. If you have a vocabulary of 2000 words, one word in five will be unknown. But if you add the Academic Word List on top of these 2000 words, roughly one word in every ten will be unknown (Nation, 2001). What's interesting here is that, even with all these recommendations neither of the textbooks give their audience the chance to achieve such a vocabulary through their marginal glossaries. Out of all the single word glossaries in the textbooks, the academic glossaries in *Crossroads* cover 4,70% (31 glosses), while in *Enter* the coverage is 3,32% (24 glosses) and in *Searching* the coverage is 4,53% (34 glosses).

Although a core vocabulary consists of the 3000 most used words in the English language for students to learn, it is also said that the first 2000 are the most important ones. This is argued for in table 2.2 presented in the theory chapter. This table presented the percentage of text coverage of each successive 1000 word lemmas in the Brown Corpus of Standard American English. We saw that the percentage of coverage declined severely after the 3000 word (lemma) level. This decline started already at the 2000 word (lemma) level. Because of this knowledge I will analyze how many single word glossaries there are in the three sub categories of core vocabulary from each textbook, especially the first two sub categories. However, since the diagram above includes all single word glossaries and the category function words only have 16 glosses included in this analysis (section 4.2.2 below), which only makes out 0,75% of all the single word glossaries in my analysis material, I find it more essential to make such an analysis of just the content words.

4.2.2 Function words and content words

First, a reminder of the difference between a function word and a content word; A function word has little or no meaningful content, ex. "be", "such" and "for". Words in

this category are words that mainly contribute to the grammatical structure of the sentence. Content words carry a high information load. They give us content to our story and help us form a picture in our head (Jackson & Amvela, 2007). The function words make up the skeleton of a language, while the content words provide vital organs and flesh. Using only content words the message will still be understandable, we would just be considered poor speakers of English (Thornbury, 2002). Beneath, I have made one presentation of the function word glossaries and one presentation of the content word glossaries. The first diagram presents the number of function word glossaries listed in the categories; 1st 1000 core vocabulary, 2nd 1000 core vocabulary, 3rd 1000 core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary from each textbook.

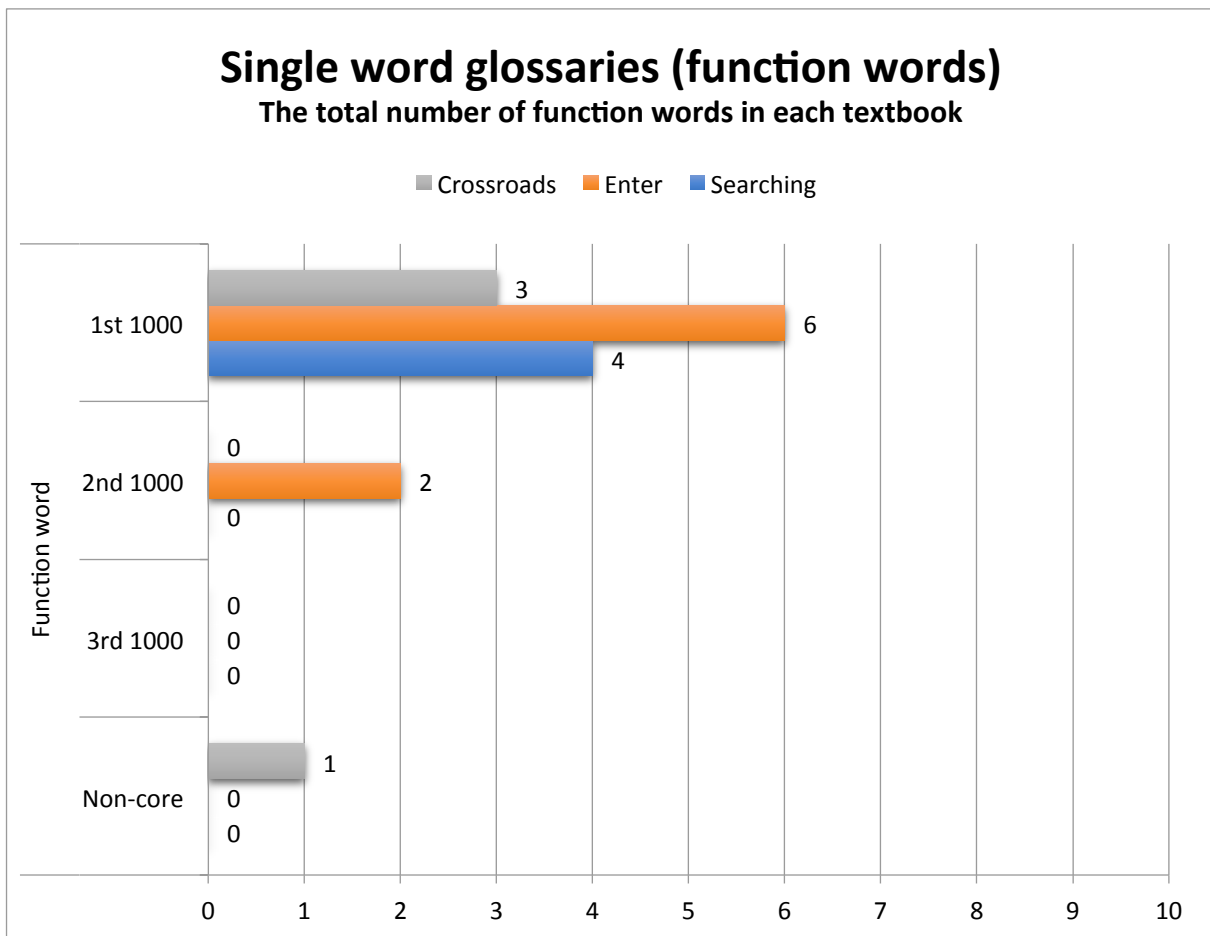


Figure 4.6 the total number of function word glossaries listed in the categories core vocabulary (1st 1000, 2nd 1000 and 3rd 1000) and non-core vocabulary.

The classic list of high-frequency words (core vocabulary), called the New General Service list contains 2368 word families, where 174 of these word families are function words such as “the”, “be”, “and”, “of” and “to”. In other words, only 7,35% in this list is function words. These words convey little meaning on their own, but they do contribute a great deal to the meaning of a sentence (Browne et al., 2013b; Nation, 2001). So, there are not many function words an EFL student has to learn, still, these words are essential. Taking a look at figure 4.6 above, there are only 16 function word glossaries (0,75% of all single word glossaries) to analyze in this thesis. *Enter* comprises half of them and *Crossroads* is the only one that has one function word glossary placed in the non-core vocabulary section. Except for two glosses in *Enter*, the rest of them (13 function word glossaries) are listed in the 1st 1000 core vocabulary sub category. Where *Searching* has

the largest number with six function word glossaries. All textbooks have a low number of function words, which is a good thing according to theory. Because the function words has more of a grammatical function, they are necessary, but we can make ourselves understood without them and this is the goal when learning a L2. Another essential note here is that these words are often learned through reading and conducting grammar tasks, not by listing them in a vocabulary list like marginal glossaries are (Thornbury, 2002). Despite the low number of function word glossaries, they are listed in the category core vocabulary (except one), where we want them to be, especially in the two first categories of core vocabulary. Here almost every one of them is listed in the first sub category (1st 1000 core vocabulary).

The opposite of function words are content words, they make up the rest (2194) of the word families in the New General Service List (Browne et al., 2013b). These content words consist mostly of verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Very few nouns are included here (Nation, 2001). In this thesis, the content word glossaries make up 99,25% of all the single word glossaries analyzed; these will now be addressed.

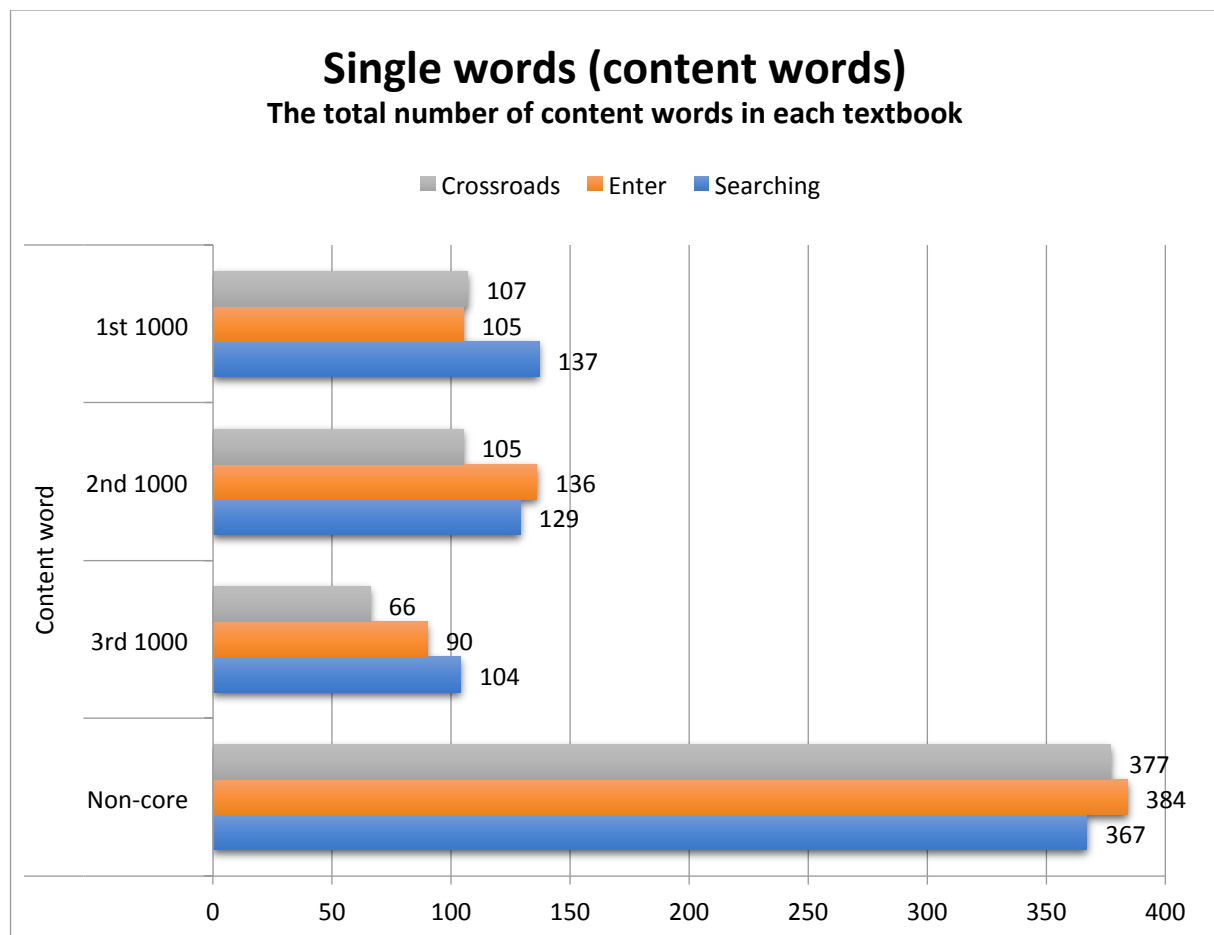


Figure 4.7 the total number of content word glossaries listed in the categories core vocabulary (1st 1000, 2nd 1000 and 3rd 1000) and non-core vocabulary.

Unlike the previous figure on function words, it looks like a large amount of content word glossaries are listed in the non-core vocabulary category and this goes for all three textbooks. To see this more clearly I have made a supplementary table showing the percentage of content words in the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary, where the first 2000 high-frequency words are written in cursive.

Textbook	% of core vocabulary	% of non-core vocabulary	% of the total amount of content words
Crossroads 8	277 (42,35%) <i>211 (32,26%)</i>	377 (57,65%)	654 (100%)
Enter 8	331 (46,29%) <i>141 (19,72%)</i>	384 (53,71%)	715 (100%)
Searching 8	370 (50,20%) <i>266 (36,09%)</i>	367 (49,80%)	737 (100%)

Table 4.3 the percentage of content word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

Searching is the only textbook where the content word glossaries are evenly distributed between the two categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary, with three content word glossaries (0,40%) more in the core vocabulary category. While *Crossroads* and *Enter* have a larger proportion of content word glossaries listed in the non-core vocabulary category, with respectively 377 glossaries (57,65%) and 384 glossaries (53,71%). In *Crossroads* the difference is 100 content word glossaries (15,3%), while in *Enter* the difference is 53 content word glossaries (7,42%). In the light of theory, one can say that there should have been an overweight of content word glossaries in the category core vocabulary; instead most of them are listed in the non-core vocabulary category except for *Searching's* content word glossaries. However, as I stated above, they are evenly distributed, with only three content word glossaries separating them.

The recommendation is to teach the first 2000 high-frequency words (core vocabulary), mastering these words enables students to read fluently and focus their attention on making sense of what they are reading. Recognizing these words will help better learners chance to cope with more difficult and infrequent words without losing the sense of what is being read (Thornbury, 2002). Knowing enough of these content words allows a good degree of comprehension of a text, after the 2000 word (lemma) level the students will be able to cover 79,7% of a text. This included the function words, but these only make up a small percentage of a core vocabulary (Nation, 2001). It is the content words that helps us express the message we what to share (Jackson & Amvela, 2007).

Since the first 2000 high-frequency words are so essential I wanted to highlight these, which are the numbers written in cursive. *Searching* has the highest coverage of the first 2000 high-frequency words with 36,09% (266 glosses) out of all the content word glossaries in the textbook, then there is *Crossroads* with a coverage of 32,26% (211 glosses) and *Enter* with lowest coverage with 19,72% (141 glosses). What's interesting here is that these are the glossaries a EFL learner should focus on, and if we look at the assumption I made in section 4.1 Number of marginal glossaries, where I said that if the single word glossaries all were of high quality, they would almost cover 35% of the 2000 high-frequency words and have them all covered at the end of 10th grade. If we look at the content word glossaries that actually are of high quality (listed in the first 2000 core vocabulary sub category) in this analysis we see that *Enter* cover 7,05% of the first 2000 high-frequency words, *Crossroads* cover 10,55% and *Searching* cover 13,30%. There is not possible to reach researchers requirements of a core vocabulary in any of these textbooks (especially for *Enter*) only by focusing on the marginal glossary lists. If we assume that the textbooks for 9th and 10th grade has the same amount of single word glossaries of high quality, *Enter* would cover 21,15% of the first 2000 high-frequency words, while *Crossroads* would cover 31,65% and *Searching* 39,90%. Even after three years of schooling, students are not nearly close to learn the first 2000 high-frequency

words. In other words, students are unlikely to meet researchers requirements very well; especially since the marginal glossary list and glossary tests are used to acquire new vocabulary in Norwegian compulsory school. It is said that for a L2 learner it takes approximately two years to gain control of the 2000 high- frequency words, and three to five years more to gain control of the academic vocabulary and other relevant low- frequency and technical words. Because of this, the teachers need to look at the students proposed language when deciding what vocabulary that will be needed (Nation, 2001, pp. 114-116) and not the words listed in the marginal glossary lists (Birketveit & Rugesæter, 2014).

4.2.3 Concrete words and abstract words

It is said to teach concrete words before abstract ones as concrete words refer to things that exist in reality and students can use their five senses to experience these words. Because these terms are mentioned a vast of times in the research material I have used in my theoretical background, a analysis of the single word glossaries according to these two terms will be conducted as well. Are they concrete words or abstract words?

For this analysis I have made two diagrams, one for the function word glossaries and one for the content word glossaries. Where I will analyze the amount of abstract words and concrete words in each of the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary.

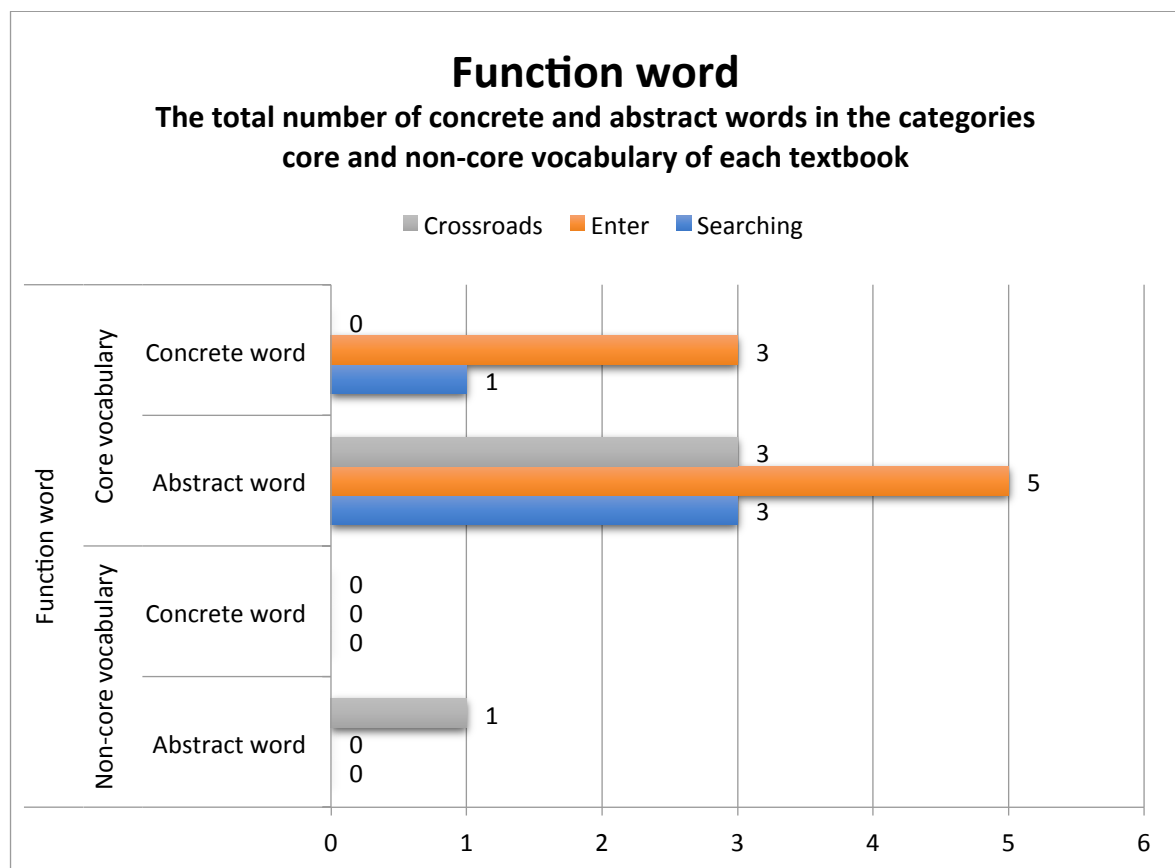


Figure 4.8 the total number of concrete and abstract function words in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

As presented before, *Enter* has half of the function word glossaries analyzed in this thesis and they are all listed in the category core vocabulary, further on we see that three out of eight function word glossaries are concrete ones. *Crossroads* has four function word glossaries, three are listed in the core vocabulary category and one in the non-core

vocabulary category, but all these function word glossaries are abstract ones. *Searching* also has four function word glossaries, all in the category core vocabulary, where one is concrete and three are abstract ones. Previously I said that the function words are words with little or no meaningful content. If these words are missing or used incorrectly in a sentence, the main idea of what we are saying will probably still come thru. Examples of function words are "at", "it", "that" and "when". Function words are often abstract; therefor one can't expect to have a large amount of concrete words in this category.

Again, since the content word glossaries covers 99,25% of all single word glossaries included in this analysis, I find it necessary to make supplementary tables with the diagram to analyze these glossaries.

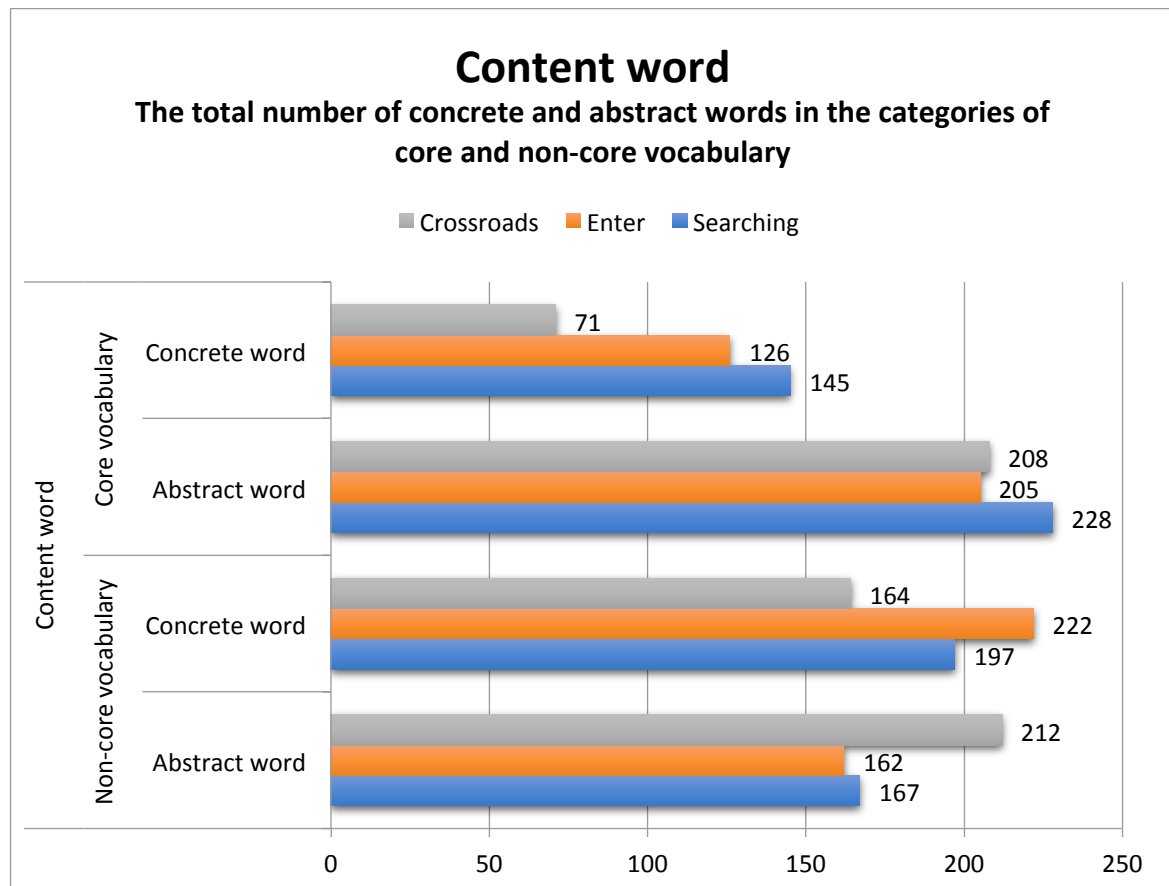


Figure 4.9 the total number of concrete and abstract content word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

At first sight we see that there are more abstract words than concrete words in the category core vocabulary, this goes for all three textbooks. In the non-core vocabulary category, *Crossroads* is the only textbook with less concrete words than abstract ones, meaning that both *Enter* and *Searching* has more concrete words than abstract words here.

The diagram give us a quick overview of how the content word glossaries are conducted in the categories used, adding supplementary tables help us to see the results more clear. I have made three supplementary tables, this way I can work my way into the findings of abstract words and concrete words. The first one displays the percentage of all concrete and abstract content word glossaries in the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary. The last two tables show the percentage of core vocabulary and

non-core vocabulary, where the first is for the abstract words and the second for the concrete words.

Textbook	% of concrete content word glossaries in the categories core and non-core vocabulary	% of abstract content word glossaries in the categories core and non-core vocabulary	% of all content word glossaries
Crossroads	235 (35,88%)	420 (64,12%)	655 (100%)
Enter	348 (48,67%)	367 (51,33%)	715 (100%)
Searching	342 (46,40%)	395 (53,60%)	737 (100%)

Table 4.4 the percentage of concrete and abstract content word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary combined.

Enter has the largest number (48,67%) of concrete content word glossaries covered out of the three textbooks analyzed. *Searching* is right behind with 46,40%, while *Crossroads* only have a coverage of 35,88% of concrete content word glossaries in its textbook. From table 4.4 we see that all three textbooks have more abstract content word glossaries than concrete content word glossaries. This is the opposite of what researchers argue for: to teach concrete words before abstract ones (Hart, 2007; Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002). Teachers should start with teaching concrete words and slowly move on to the abstract ones. Concrete words are more learnable, these are words that we can learn through our five senses, words we can create a picture of in our mind. This does not mean that abstract words not are important. This is seen through the ladder of abstraction. To make language more interesting and native like, one should go up and down the ladder of abstraction. If we want our message to stick, we have to mix abstract advice with concrete imagery (Hart, 2007). If we dig deeper into the concepts abstract words and concrete words we can see from the two tables below how these glossaries are distributed between the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary. Table 4.5 is for the abstract content word glossaries, while table 4.6 is for the concrete content word glossaries. First, let us take a look at the abstract content word glossaries listed in the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary.

Textbook	Core vocabulary (abstract word)	Non-core vocabulary (abstract word)	Abstract content word glossaries summarized
Crossroads 655 content words	208 (49,52%)	212 (50,48%)	420 (100%)
Enter 715 content words	205 (55,86%)	162 (44,14%)	367 (100%)
Searching 737 content words	228 (57,72%)	167 (42,28%)	395 (100%)

Table 4.5 the percentage of abstract content word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

Starting at the top with *Crossroads*, which is the only textbook that has a lower percentage of abstract content word glossary coverage in the category core vocabulary vs. the non-core vocabulary category, with 49,52% vs. 50,48%. However the difference is only four abstract content word glossaries (0,96%). In the other two textbooks many of the abstract content word glossaries are placed in the category core vocabulary, *Enter* with 205 glossaries (55,86%) and *Searching* with 228 glossaries (57,72%). Although it is said to teach concrete words before abstract ones, we still need to learn abstract words as well and it would be preferable if they were words listed in the core vocabulary category. *Searching* is the textbook with the highest difference between the two categories, with 61 abstract content word glossaries separating them (15,44%). For *Enter* the difference is 43 abstract content word glossaries (11,72%).

Textbook	Core vocabulary (concrete word)	Non-core vocabulary (concrete word)	Concrete content word glossaries summarized
Crossroads 655 content words	71 (30,21%)	164 (69,79%)	235 (100%)
Enter 715 content words	126 (36,21%)	222 (63,79%)	348 (100%)
Searching 737 content words	145 (42,40%)	197 (57,60%)	342 (100%)

Table 4.6 the percentage of concrete content word glossaries listed in the categories core and non-core vocabulary.

Here we have a table presenting the concrete content word glossaries listed in the categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary. Again, starting at the top with *Crossroads* where 30,21% (71 glosses) of the concrete content word glossaries are listed in the category core vocabulary and 69,79% (164 glosses) of them are listed in the non-core vocabulary category. *Crossroads* has the largest difference between the two categories core vocabulary and non-core vocabulary with 93 concrete content word

glossaries (39,58%). Next we have *Enter*, which had the largest amount of concrete content word glossaries covered (48,67%) out of all three textbooks. 36,21% (126 glosses) of the concrete content word glossaries in *Enter* are listed in the category core vocabulary, the rest, with 63,79% (222 glosses) are listed in the category non-core vocabulary. The third textbook used for this analysis is *Searching*, and like the other two textbook it also has the smallest percentage of concrete content word glossaries in the category core vocabulary (42,40%; 145 glosses). But the distinction is not as big here as with the other two textbooks. In the category of non-core vocabulary there is a coverage of 57,60% (197 glosses) concrete content word glossaries. The distinction between the categories core and non-core vocabulary is 52 concrete content word glossaries (15,20%). Again, researchers state that the students should acquire a core vocabulary and that the words should be both concrete and content words. The results here do not correspond with this. All three textbooks have more concrete content word glossaries listed in the category non-core vocabulary. The coverage of concrete content word glossaries in the category non-core vocabulary vs. the category core vocabulary is strikingly 39,58% (93 glosses) more in *Crossroads*, 27,58% (96 glosses) more in *Enter* and 15,2% (52 glosses) more in *Searching*.

4.3 Multi word glossaries

Multi word glossaries (chunks) are all the glossaries consisting of two or more words. Before analyzing the categories of the multi word glossaries I want to remind you of the overall number of multi word glossaries in each textbook used in this thesis. I will not elaborate any more since I discussed this at the beginning of this chapter (see figure 4.3).

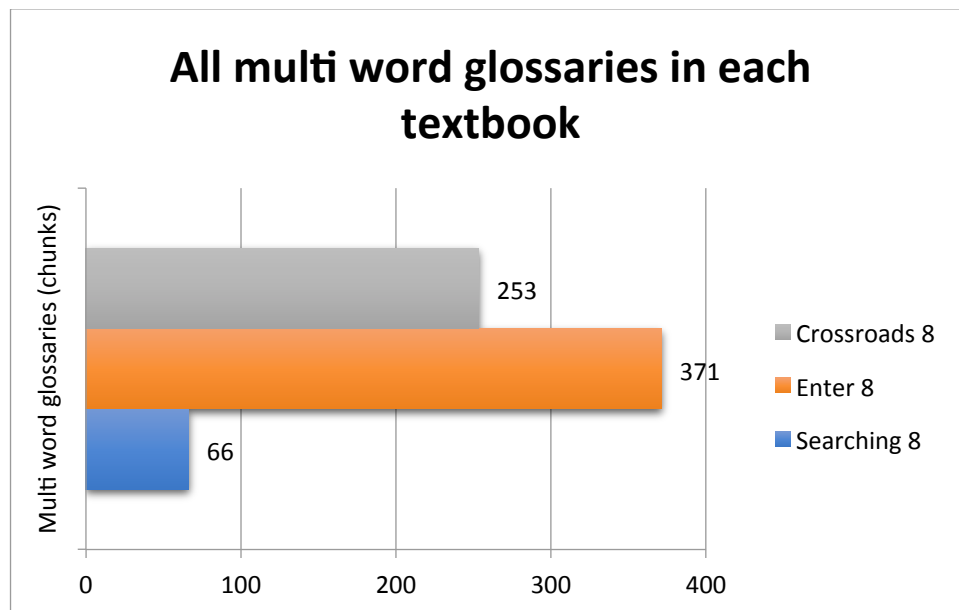


Figure 4.10 all multi word glossaries included in this analysis.

As the figure displays, *Enter* has the highest number of multi word glossaries, while *Searching* has the lowest number. There is a large gap between the amounts of multi word glossaries in each textbook, so I find it extra interesting to see how these multi word glossaries are distributed in the different categories used. For the analysis of the multi word glossaries I have made one diagram with a supplementary table.

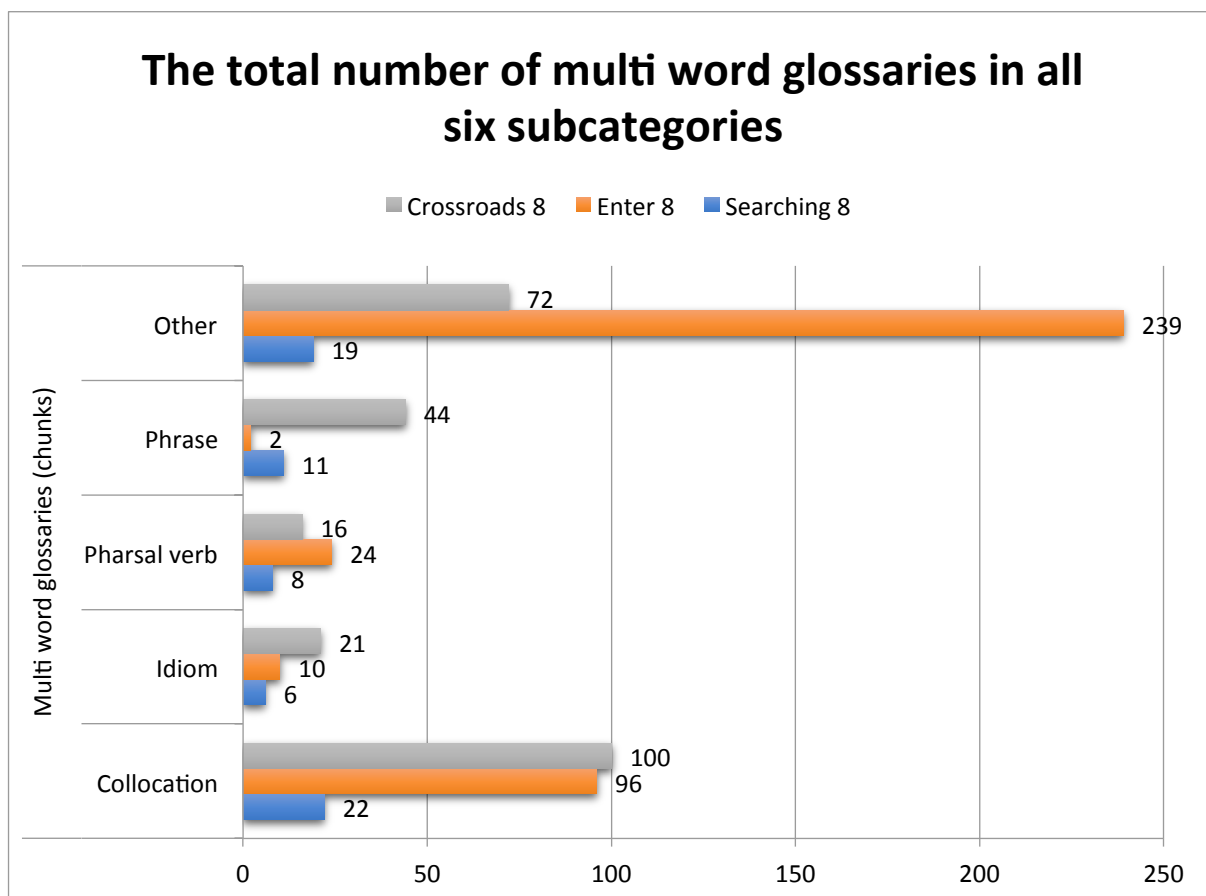


Figure 4.11 the number of multi word glossaries listed in the six categories used for the analysis.

At first glance, it is easy to see that *Enter* provides most of the multi word glossaries in this analysis. Furthermore, we see that a large amount of multi word glossaries fall into two categories, respectively, the Other category and the Collocation category. To make the analysis clearer, I have created a supplementary table to show the number of multi word glossaries in percentage as well, in all categories for each textbook.

Textbook	% of Other	% of Phrase	% of Phrasal verb	% of Idiom	% of Collocation	% of all multi word glossaries (chunk)
Crossroads	72 (28,46%)	44 (7) (17,39%)	16 (2) (6,32%)	21 (13) (8,30%)	100 (39,53%)	253 (100%)
Enter	239 (64,42%)	2 (1) (0,54%)	24 (11) (6,47%)	10 (3) (2,70%)	96 (25,88%)	371 (100%)
Searching	19 (28,79%)	11 (3) (16,67%)	8 (7) (12,12%)	6 (1) (9,09%)	22 (33,33%)	66 (100%)

Table 4.7 the percentage of multi word glossaries listed in the six analysis categories.

Note: the numbers in parenthesis represent the most frequent used glossaries of English of that category.

In contrary to the single word glossaries, I will here make one section for each category. Starting with the categories that comprise most multi word glossaries, respectively Other and Collocation.

In all textbooks the category **Other** has most multi word glossaries listed. In *Crossroads* 28,46% (72 glosses) of all multi word glossaries are listed in this category, while in *Enter* the percentage of coverage is 64,42% (239 glosses) and in *Searching* 28,79% (19 glosses). Although it is said to teach chunks as well as single word glossaries, especially those that appear as phrasal verbs, phrases, idioms and collocations we see that these textbooks have not taken this into consideration. In *Enter* over half of the multi word glossaries are listed in this category.

There is a considerable number of **Collocations** in each textbook, which is a good thing since it is preferred to learn these multi word glossaries. *Crossroads* has the largest percentage of coverage out of all three textbook, with 39,53% (100 glosses), second we have *Searching* with 33,33% (22) and finally we have *Enter* with 25,88% (96). I have written the number of glossaries in parenthesis because then we can see that although *Searching* has high percentage coverage of collocation glossaries (which is great) it is only 22 multi word glossaries, this has to do with the total number of multi word glossaries, which is very low (66 glosses). Learning collocations has several advantages for L2 learners. First, their language will be more natural and more easily understood. Second, they will have alternative and richer ways of expressing themselves. Third, it is easier for our brains to remember and use language in chunks rather than as single words. So, it is positive that over a quarter of the multi word glossaries in the three textbooks are collocations. For a student to learn collocations they must learn to be aware of them, and try to recognize them when they see or hear them. They should also learn how to treat collocations as chunks of language, for example to learn *hard work* and not *hard + work* as single words when they collocate. Make it a habit of writing down other words that collocate with the new word they are learning.

Phrases are easier to memorize and recall than single words, therefore it is essential for students to learn these, especially the most commonly ones of the L2 (Dypedahl et al., 2011). For *Crossroads* and *Searching* there are a considerable amount of phrases, *Crossroads* has the largest percentage of coverage out of the two textbooks, with 17,39% (44 glosses), *Searching* on the other hand has 16,67% (11 glosses). The percentage of coverage in *Enter* is only 0,54% (2 glosses). This is quite a surprise since *Enter* comprises 371 multi word glossaries. Again, the percentage of coverage in *Searching* is high compared to *Enter*, but it has only 9 multi word glossaries more. Although the percentage of coverage is ok in *Crossroads* and *Searching*, they do not have many commonly used phrases. In *Crossroads*, seven out of 44 multi word glossaries in this category are of the most commonly used ones. *Searching* only has three out of 11 and *Enter* one out of two. As we can see, neither of the textbooks gives the students an opportunity to learn the most commonly used phrases, not through the marginal glossaries anyhow. This is sad, because if a student learns these, the student's ability to communicate more correctly and fluently will increase (Dypedahl et al., 2011).

Phrasal verb is one of the two categories (Idiom) comprising the lowest amount of multi word glossaries, strange since researchers recommend teaching such chunks. *Searching* has the highest percentage of coverage out of all the multi word glossaries in the textbook, with 12,12% (still, there is only 8 glosses). Then we have *Enter* with 24 glosses (6,47%) and *Crossroads* with 16 glosses (6,32%). Phrasal verbs are everywhere in the English language. Phrasal verbs are commonly used at the office, in the household and in everyday conversation. They can make or break your students ability to understand something during conversation or while reading. Since phrasal verbs are very common, it is essential for student to learn them; especially the most frequent ones. In these three textbooks the most frequent phrasal verbs of English are almost not covered at all. *Enter* has the highest number of commonly used phrasal verbs, eleven out of 24 glosses. Then we have *Crossroads* with two out of 16 and *Searching* with seven out of eight (which is a good coverage out of the total amount of phrasal verbs, pity that there are only eight of them in total though). To sum up, neither of the textbooks lives up to the researchers findings on how beneficial it is to learn phrasal verbs, using phrasal verbs correctly makes the students sound natural and fluent.

Idioms are commonly used figurative phrases, often unique and cultural, therefore it is important to learn the most frequent ones to get a deeper understanding of the English language. Another benefit from learning idioms is that the student's communicative skills will become more natural. But, like the categories Phrasal verb and Phrases the coverage of the most commonly used idioms are low, this also has to do with the general coverage of idioms in each of the three textbooks. They all have under 10% of coverage. *Crossroads* has a coverage of 8,30%, where 13 out of 21 glosses are of the most frequent ones. *Searching* has a percentage of 9,09%, and only one out of six is frequently used in the English language. *Enter*'s category of Idioms covers 2,70%, which is ten glossaries, where three of them are of the most frequent ones. Native people often use idioms, they are mostly cultural and if the students don't learn how to use them there will be holes in their knowledge of the English language. None of the three textbooks, *Crossroads*, *Enter* or *Searching* help students close this hole with their marginal glossaries.

5 Conclusion

In this final chapter I will bring this thesis to a conclusion and round off this chapter by looking at possibilities for further research within this field.

The main purpose with this thesis was to examine the words in the marginal glossary lists accompanying texts in English textbooks for middle schools in Norway, more specific, textbooks used in 8th grade. This was my research question

What types of words are covered in the marginal glossary lists in English textbooks used in the Norwegian EFL classroom in middle school?

- Does the words reflect the research done in the field of vocabulary development?
- Are the words of high quality? Do they contribute to vocabulary growth among students?
- Are there large differences in the results of each textbook?

I used several methods to answer my research question. The study comprises first a quantitative part where I counted the number of marginal glossaries in each textbook, and 1) compared the number of glossaries listed in each category of the textbook, 2) compared these numbers with the other textbooks. Second, I studied the quality of the marginal glossaries according to a set of specific criteria (see sections 3.4.1 and 3.4.2) and according to theory on which types of vocabulary are preferred to learn. The results, along with discussions were presented in the previous chapter, now a summary with a conclusion will be made.

5.1 Summary and conclusions

It has been an interesting endeavor examining what types of words that was included in the marginal glossary lists of each text in the textbooks Crossroads 8A, Searching 8 and Enter 8. To give a conclusion to my research question I want to remind you of what types of vocabulary it is preferred that EFL students should learn. Researchers argues that the EFL learner first has to acquire a core vocabulary with at least 2000 high-frequency words, and at the same time, as focusing on these high-frequency words chunks should be learned as well. More so: collocations, and the most common phrases, phrasal verbs and idioms. When a core vocabulary was established one should move on to the academic words and the low-frequency words. Especially the academic words were of great importance. In addition it is said to teach concrete words before abstract ones, and that content words help students develop a vocabulary more than function words do (Jackson & Amvela, 2007; Jingwen & Binbin, 2007; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2007; Thornbury, 2002).

All three textbook had glossaries listed in all categories used, both for the single word glossaries and the multi word glossaries. The categories used to analyze the single word glossaries were; core vocabulary (1st 1000 high-frequency words, 2nd 1000 high-frequency words, 3rd 1000 high-frequency words), non-core vocabulary, function words and content words. While the categories used to analyze the multi word glossaries were: other, phrase, phrasal verb, idiom and collocation. These categories represent the different types of words; hence these were the types of words covered in the marginal

glossary lists in the three textbooks used for this analysis. However, it is how the words are distributed between the categories that are of interest.

Above I wrote about the researchers recommendations on which words to teach. These will now be relevant when I give a conclusion to the question of the quality of the words in the marginal glossary lists of each textbook.

In my thesis I made one framework for the analysis of the single word glossaries and one for the multi word glossaries (chunks). There is a considerable amount of single word glossaries compared to the multi word glossaries, in all three textbooks. *Searching* has the largest amount of single word glossaries (741 glosses) and the lowest amount of multi word glossaries with only 66 glosses. *Enter* is right behind with 723 single word glossaries, but unlike *Searching* it has the largest amount of multi word glossaries (371 glosses). *Crossroads* on the other hand has 659 single word glossaries and 253 multi word glossaries. The difference between the lowest number of multi word glossaries (*Searching*) and the largest number of multi word glossaries (*Enter*) is strikingly 305 glosses. With this knowledge of the importance of multi word glossaries, I find it alarming that *Searching* only has 66 of them. That is just 8.18% of the total amount of marginal glossaries in this textbook. Unlike *Searching*, *Crossroads* and *Enter* has a larger amount of multi word glossaries in their textbooks, with 27,74% and 33,91% respectively. Since these multi word glossaries are said to be almost as vital as a core vocabulary the coverage of them is low even for the to latter textbooks. But, it is important to remember that the quantity of marginal glossaries does not say anything about the quality of these glossed words, which is a critical factor to consider. Of the single word glossaries it would be ideal if most of them landed in the category core vocabulary, especially in the first to sub categories (1st 1000 and 2nd 1000), since these are the most useful words in the L2. They cover 79,7% of a text (Nation, 2001). It would also be preferred that most of them were concrete content words. While with the multi word glossaries the categories phrase, phrasal verb, idiom and collocation is preferred. These glossaries are very frequent; they cover approximately 30-50% of a text (Schmitt, 2008).

The conclusion above includes all single word glossaries, both the function word glossaries and content word glossaries. However, since the category function words only have 16 glosses included in this analysis (section 4.2.2), which only makes out 0,75% of all the single word glossaries in my analysis material, I find it more essential to only focus on the results of the content word glossaries. It follows, then that all three textbooks have taken into consideration the learnability of the content word glossaries.

As previous stated, quantity does not say anything about the quality of the marginal glossaries. Therefore a conclusion of the amount of the first 2000 core vocabulary that is covered in each textbook will be presented, followed by a conclusion of the preferred chunks.

Searching has the highest coverage of the first 2000 high-frequency words with 36,09% (266 glosses) out of all the content word glossaries in the textbook, then there is *Crossroads* with a coverage of 32,26% (211 glosses) and *Enter* with lowest coverage with 19,72% (141 glosses). Although we can assume that a core vocabulary has been worked on in elementary school, there is still a need for it in middle school as well. It is an agreement among researchers that these are the glossaries an EFL learner should focus on learning; however, looking at these number this will not happen if the vocabulary development are based on the marginal glossary lists in the textbooks. The percentages of coverage are so low, especially for *Enter*. Further on, it is said that a

student which has a core vocabulary consisting of the first 2000 high-frequency words will be able to understand 79,90% of a text. If we look at the content word glossaries that are of high quality (listed in the first 2000 core vocabulary sub categories) in this analysis we see that *Enter* cover 7,05% of the first 2000 high-frequency words, *Crossroads* cover 10,55% and *Searching* cover 13,30%. There is not possible to reach researchers requirements of a core vocabulary in any of these textbooks (especially for *Enter*) only by focusing on the marginal glossary lists in the textbooks. If we assume that the textbooks for 9th and 10th grade has the same amount of single word glossaries of high quality, *Enter* would cover 21,15% of the first 2000 high-frequency words, while *Crossroads* would cover 31,65% and *Searching* 39,90%. Even after three years of schooling, students are not nearly close to acquire a core vocabulary consisting of the first 2000 high-frequency words. In other words, students are unlikely to meet researchers requirements very well; especially since the marginal glossary list and glossary tests are used to acquire new vocabulary. It is said that for a L2 learner it takes approximately two years to gain control of the 2000 high- frequency words, which is not the case of either of the marginal glossary lists in these textbooks.

In the framework of the analysis for the multi word glossaries I had five categories, where four of them were recommended by researchers to focus on teaching. These were phrases, phrasal verbs, idiom and collocations, especially the most common ones of the three first categories mentioned in this sentence. A largest amount of multi word glossaries fall into two categories, respectively, the Other category and the Collocation category. In all textbooks the category **Other** has most multi word glossaries listed. In *Crossroads* 28,46% (72 glosses) of all multi word glossaries are listed in this category, while in *Enter* the percentage of coverage is 64,42% (239 glosses) and in *Searching* 28,79% (19 glosses). *Enter* is the textbooks with most included multi word glossaries, still, the percentage of chunks listed in this category is extremely high compared to the other two textbooks. Moving on, there is also a considerable number of **Collocations** in each textbook, which is a good thing since it is preferred to learn these multi word glossaries. *Crossroads* has the largest percentage of coverage out of all three textbook, with 39,53% (100 glosses), second we have *Searching* with 33,33% (22) and finally we have *Enter* with 25,88% (96). I have written the number of glossaries in parenthesis because then we can see that although *Searching* has a high percentage coverage of collocation glossaries (which is great) it is only 22 multi word glossaries, this has to do with the total number of multi word glossaries, which is very low (66 glosses). **Phrases** are another preferred category. For *Crossroads* and *Searching* there are a considerable amount of phrases, *Crossroads* has the largest percentage of coverage out of the two textbooks, with 17,39% (44 glosses), *Searching* on the other hand has 16,67% (11 glosses). The percentage of coverage in *Enter* is only 0,54% (2 glosses). This is quite a surprise since *Enter* comprises 371 multi word glossaries. Again, the percentage of coverage in *Searching* is high compared to *Enter*, but it has only 9 multi word glossaries more. Although the percentage of coverage is ok in *Crossroads* and *Searching*, they do not have many commonly used phrases. In *Crossroads*, seven out of 44 multi word glossaries in this category are of the most commonly used ones. *Searching* only has three out of 11 and *Enter* one out of two. **Phrasal verb** is one of the two categories (Idiom) comprising the lowest amount of multi word glossaries. *Searching* has the highest percentage of coverage out of all the multi word glossaries in the textbook, with 12,12% (still, there is only 8 glosses). Then we have *Enter* with 24 glosses (6,47%) and *Crossroads* with 16 glossaries (6,32%). In these three textbooks the most frequent phrasal verbs of English are almost not covered at all. *Enter* has the highest number of

commonly used phrasal verbs, eleven out of 24 glosses. Then we have *Crossroads* with two out of 16 and *Searching* with seven out of eight (which is a good coverage out of the total amount of phrasal verbs, pity that there are only eight of them in total though).

Idioms are commonly used figurative phrases, often unique and cultural, therefore it is important to learn the most frequent ones to get a deeper understanding of the English language. Like the categories Phrasal verb and Phrases the coverage of the most commonly used idioms are low, this also has to do with the general coverage of idioms in each of the three textbooks. They all have under 10% of coverage. *Crossroads* has a coverage of 8,30% (21 glosses), where 13 out of 21 glosses are of the most frequent ones. *Searching* has a percentage of 9,09% (6 glosses), where only one out of six is frequently used in the English language. *Enter*'s category of Idioms covers 2,70% (10 glosses), where three of them are of the most frequent ones.

When the first 2000 high-frequency words are acquired, it is said to move on to the academic word. It is said that for a L2 learner it takes approximately two years to gain control of the 2000 high-frequency words, and three to five years more to gain control of the academic vocabulary and other relevant low-frequency and technical words. If you have a vocabulary of 2000 words, one word in five will be unknown. But if you add the Academic Word List on top of these 2000 words, roughly one word in every ten will be unknown (Nation, 2001). What's interesting here is that, even with all these recommendations neither of the textbooks give their students the chance to achieve such a vocabulary through their marginal glossaries. Out of all the single word glossaries in the textbooks, the academic glossaries in *Crossroads* cover 4,70%, while in *Enter* the coverage is 3,32% and in *Searching* the coverage is 4,53%.

Since there is said to teach concrete words before abstract ones, a conclusion of the amount of concrete word glossaries listed in the category core vocabulary must be presented. Note, here all three sub categories of core vocabulary is included. 30,21% (71 glosses) of the concrete content word glossaries in *Crossroads* is listed in the category core vocabulary. Next we have *Enter*, which had the largest amount of concrete content word glossaries covered (48,67%) out of all three textbooks. Here 36,21% (126 glosses) of the concrete content word glossaries is listed in the category core vocabulary. The third textbook used for this analysis is *Searching*, and like the other two textbook it also has the smallest percentage of concrete content word glossaries in the category core vocabulary (42,40%; 145 glosses).

From the summary and the conclusions above we see that there are not large differences of each textbook in the results of the coverage of the first 2000 core vocabulary in each textbook. *Searching* has the highest coverage of the first 2000 high-frequency words with 36,09% (266 glosses) out of all the content word glossaries in the textbook. This makes out 13,30% of the first 2000 high-frequency words. There are though some differences with the coverage of concrete content word glossaries in the category core vocabulary. The textbook with the highest coverage is *Searching* with 42,40% (145 glosses). Further, we see that the results of the academic words covered in the textbooks were very low in all three textbooks. *Crossroads* covered the most were 4,70% of all the single word glossaries were academic ones.

However, in the coverage of the recommended chunks there is a large difference, especially concerning *Enter*. The difference between the lowest number of multi word glossaries (*Searching*: 66) and the largest number of multi word glossaries (*Enter*: 371) is strikingly 305 glosses. However, the distribution of the glossaries was almost the same across the five categories, most of the multi word glossaries were listed in the categories

in other and collocation, then phrases (the case for *Crossroads* and *Searching*), while the amount of multi word glossaries were almost the same in the categories phrasal verb and idiom. *Enter* had the largest percentage of coverage in the category **Other**, with 64,42% (239 glosses). *Crossroads* has the largest percentage of coverage in the category **collocation**, with 39,53% (100 glosses). *Crossroads* also has the largest percentage of coverage in the category **phrase**, with 17,39% (44 glosses). It also had most commonly used phrases listed, with seven out of 44 multi word glossaries. *Searching* has the highest percentage of coverage in the category **phrasal verb** with 12,12% (however, there is only 8 glosses). *Enter* has the highest number of commonly used phrasal verbs, eleven out of 24 glosses. *Searching* has a coverage of 9,09% (6 glosses) in the category **idiom**. While *Crossroads* has most commonly used idioms listed, with 13 out of 21 glosses.

In conclusion, the results reveal that the words in the marginal glossary lists do not correspond with the words researchers recommend for the EFL learner to focus on learning. This goes for all three textbooks. In other words, all three textbooks have glossaries listed in all the categories, however they should have been distributed more between the recommended categories of single word glossaries and multi word glossaries. There are only two categories in the three textbooks that the percentage of coverage is of good quality, respectively the content word category and the collocation category. I did not expect any other results for the content word category, since function words have more of a grammatical meaning. The textbook with the highest quality "score" of the single words listed in its marginal glossary list was *Searching*, while the textbook with the highest quality "score" of the multi word glossaries listed in its marginal glossary list was *Crossroads*. Nevertheless, the quality was generally low. Hence, if the students only learn new vocabulary just by working on the words listed in the marginal glossaries they will not have the opportunity to develop a fluent and natural language, with words that help them express a wide variety of concepts. Furthermore, these glossaries will not encourage connected speech. Knowing that the Norwegian way of learning new vocabulary through glossary lists and glossary tests is insufficient and at the same time considering the results made of the quality of the marginal glossaries, this is not the best way of acquiring new vocabulary. These marginal glossaries could have been much better, but if they were the students would not have the right competence to learn these glossaries anyways, since the Norwegian tradition consists of translation of the words and by drilling them. Because of these results, teachers need to look at the students proposed language when deciding what vocabulary that will be needed and not the words listed in the marginal glossary lists alone.

I have only analyzed a small part of the textbooks; the marginal glossary lists. Therefore I am not able to say anything about how vocabulary is presented and worked with in the rest of the textbook. One can only hope that this is done by the recommendations of other scholars and that teachers use these parts of the textbooks as well when working on vocabulary growth. The idea is to develop students' vocabulary, give them the knowledge to master this in a wide variety of settings, such as private life, educational life and work life.

5.2 Further research

There are several other approaches for further investigation in the field of vocabulary learning; here are some that I think would be of interest.

1. Perform the same study on English textbooks for elementary school. Hopefully they will cover more of the first 2000 high frequency words. A study of textbooks in one grade and one for ex. 1-4th grade or 5-7th grade.
2. Study the rest of the vocabulary content in each textbook, how each textbook presents and works with new vocabulary, and what types of vocabulary are covered.
3. Since there is a major problem with undereducated teachers in EFL classrooms in elementary compulsory school in Norway it would also be interesting to look at the differences of vocabulary teaching between educated English teachers and non-educated English teachers. What types of vocabulary are learned, how are they learned and how are they tested? In addition, what is the reason behind the choices the teachers make?
4. A totally different approach, since the prime resource in EFL classrooms are the textbooks, would be to investigate the choices the authors of the textbook make regarding vocabulary learning.

In conclusion, the current study has provided results, which could be further researched in a number of interesting ways.

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