Teaching English Vocabulary: From Conception to Instruction

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Abstract
Vocabulary is of prime importance to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary, students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. Wilkin's (1972) assertion that without grammar very little can be conveyed also supports the importance of vocabulary in learning language generally and especially L2 or FL. Considering the importance of English language as a world language, teaching its vocabulary becomes very important. Traditionally, vocabulary instruction was neglected and at best equated with just teaching word meaning with students learning a list of words, synonyms, and antonyms in the belief that by so doing, vocabulary will be adequately taught, but this does not give learners understanding of the kind of lexical choices available to proficient users of the language and why one alternative is preferred to another. To the contrary, the correct practice should be that lexis, grammar and discourse should not be taught as separate strands in the language syllabus but rather taught under an integrative, holistic approach. The focus of this paper is to examine the rudiments of vocabulary teaching by considering the concept of vocabulary, dimensions of the lexeme and stages of English vocabulary instruction within the whole language approach which would enhance learner's ability to proficiently communicate in English language.

Keywords: vocabulary, dimensions of the lexeme, vocabulary instruction, receptive and productive vocabulary.

Introduction
Vocabulary can be seen as the words of a language, including single items and phrases or chunks of several words which convey a particular meaning the way individual words do. This means that vocabulary involves single lexical items (words with specific meanings) and also lexical phrases or chunks. Previous studies have revealed that vocabulary is often called different terms. The most popular two among these terms are lexical knowledge and vocabulary knowledge. Its French origin is 'vocabulaire', meaning 'word for name (Emmanuel 2009). Qian (2002) and Salah (2008) view vocabulary as the knowledge of word meaning and the level of one's accessibility to this knowledge. It is pathetic, however, to note that this definition ignores other aspects of lexical knowledge such as spelling, pronunciation, and morpho-syntactic properties along two broad parameters of receptive and productive competence, as would be addressed in this paper.

Chall (1987), stahl (1990), Nation (2001), Salah (2008) and chall and stahl (2009) opine that vocabulary knowledge can help the learner to comprehend written texts, just in the same way reading can contribute to vocabulary growth. Some researchers noted that vocabulary is the crucial factor in reading comprehension (Graves,2001 and salah,2008).No text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary (Laufer 1997). Hirsh and nation (1992), Hu and Nation (2000), Laufer (1989, 1992, 1997) and salah (2008) maintain that when the percentage of unknown vocabulary in a given text increases the possibility of comprehending the text decreases.

Haung (1999) observes that when readers increase their vocabulary size, their use of language skills implicitly increases as their knowledge of the word also becomes broader. Salah (2008) advises readers to develop both their receptive and productive vocabulary, although, only the receptive knowledge is required in reading tasks. However, productive vocabulary knowledge assists the leaners to produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey ideas to others (Nation, 2001).

Developments in Vocabulary Instruction
Vocabulary instruction has been around for a very long time. The history and development of vocabulary revolve round a series of dominating ideologies that have succeeded one another and sometimes come in full circle [Cather & McCarty 1998]. However, there has been progress and much refinement over the years. Views from descriptive linguistics, psycholinguistics and computational linguistics have contributed to a large extent to the teaching of vocabulary.

The years between 1940-60 can be described as vocabulary-controlled years because of the influential tendency of American linguistics to push vocabulary into the background and to relegate its importance to a secondary level in the teaching of secondary language. Such notable linguists as Fries [1945] attributed language learners' concern with vocabulary to their native memories of their first language learning experience and that they were not to first learn its vocabulary but to master its sound system and its grammatical structure. All the learners need at first is enough basic vocabulary to practice the syntactic structures. Fries' views were in line with those of such other American structural Linguists as Lado (1955) and Rivers (1968) with their emphasis on phonology and syntactic pattering.

Between 1960 and 1978, contrary views started coming from such linguists as Wilkins (1972), Twadell (1973). Connolly (1973), Donley (1974), Lord (1976), Brown (1974), Anthony (1975), Nelson (1974). Wilkins (1972) asserted that the structuralist views would be useful only if the (target) intended language would not be used for immediate communication. He submitted that without grammar very little can be conveyed but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. What Wilkin's work is significant for is his desire to bring into vocabulary teaching the insights of lexical semantics. He believed that through the incorporation of insights from semantics, vocabulary teaching can be advanced.

The period between 1976 and 1980 can be regarded as consolidation years. It is the period that saw a combined interest in further studies of the lexicon itself and a more detailed look at the various needs of learners. Richard (1976), in his contribution to this concern, advised that materials should be prepared beginning with a rich concept of vocabulary and goals must be related to techniques

In the last decades however, attention was devoted to approaches to vocabulary expansion, development of lexically oriented materials such as realia, pictures, mime presentation and activating the learner's background knowledge. Investigation of a strategic and generalizable vocabulary for general and for academic purposes was also stressed at this period.
Finally, the discussion on the development of vocabulary instruction cannot be completed without mentioning the impact of the computer which gained premium beginning from the last two decades of the last century. John (1986) demonstrated how modest microcomputers could produce vocabulary concordances which engage learners actively in problem- solving activities related to meaning and usage of items.

This is an impressive development but more knowledge is needed about classroom activities, especially given the recent interest in vocabulary instruction and interaction in the ESL classroom. This is part of the gap this present study intends to fill with the examination of findings and perspectives on the approaches and techniques for teaching of vocabulary among students learning English as a second language.

Dimensions of the Lexeme and Pedagogical Implications for English as a Second Language (ESL).
Vocabulary cannot be understood on its own except in relation to other linguistic components. Hence Bardes (1999) asserts that one way to try to define vocabulary is in terms of other linguistic components or constructs such as phonology, syntax, morphology and semantics. It is when these criteria are developed for individual languages that their words can be fully understood. As such, all the linguistic dimensions mentioned above need to be thoroughly examined so as to understand fully the concept of English language vocabulary. The five components of vocabulary(dimensions of lexemes) would now be examined individually with their pedagogical implications.

Pronunciation
Redman (1990) asserts that it is not uncommon for L_2 learners to find that their lexical knowledge is rendered almost useless by their inability to make themselves intelligible when they speak. Such painful experiences are not confined to production only, for it is equally true that unfamiliarity with correct pronunciation can result in the learner failing to understand words in connected speech that he understands clearly in written English. Careful attention to pronunciation is therefore an essential part of vocabulary teaching, if new Lexis is to be used effectively or understood without difficulty in spoken English. Gibson & Knowles (1975)

observe that second language learners often avoid words that they find difficult to pronounce, and those words which they find easier to pronounce are accurately perceived and readily retained.

Laufer (1985) points out the danger in pseudo-familiar words (i.e. words that seem known to learners but not actually so e.g. "venerable" "vulnerable", "continuous"/"continual", "moral"/"morale" "agreeable"/"agreed", "adopt"/"adapt", "affluence"/"influence"," topical"/"typical", "effect"/affect", and "superficial"/"artificial". These confusing pairs of words have similar though not identical sounds and Laufer (1985) identifies them as synophones (word similar in sound but different in meaning). This is quite different from homophones which are those that are identical in sound but different in meaning, e.g. "war"/"wore", "blue"/"blew", "dyed"/"died", "cite"/"site"/"sight", etc. Even though there is confusion in pronunciation and spelling, learners should be taught not to tolerate confusion of meaning in context.

In the Nigerian educational system, some phonetic conflicts can be identified as the causes of student's difficulties in learning English vocabulary. One of such conflicts is often referred to as "mother tongue interference". A cursory examination of Hausa speakers of English in Nigeria could reveal that the average indigenous Hausa man has the problem of replacing English consonants /f/ with /p/ e.g four /f ɔ:(r)/ as /p ɔ: (r)/, plenty /plenti/ as /flenti/, phantom/fæntam/ as /fætɘm /. Also the typical Ibo man in Nigeria often experience the problem of replacing consonant /r/ with /l/, and substituting consonant /l/ for /r/ e.g carry /kæri/ as /kæ li/ and play/plei/ with /prei/. The Ebira are also known to have the same linguistic difficulties as the Ibos with reference to words containing consonants /r/ and /l/. The Yoruba are not left out of this "mother tongue interference" as some Yoruba students have difficulty in differentiating words with consonant /S/ and /ʃ/ e.g should /ʃud/, for /Sud /, action /akʃn/, for /akson/ and show / ʃ ou/ for /Sou/. Apart from mother tongue interference, it is observed that many English words pronounced by an average Nigerian are wrongly pronounced, e.g, father /fada/ instead of /fa:ðɘ(r) / culture /kɔltʃɘ / instead of /kʌltʃɘ(r) /, students /stju:dent/ instead of /stju:dint/ and so on. (Okel 2000).

Having discovered these structural defects in pronunciation and the issue of mother-tongue interference, there is therefore the need for ESL teachers to pay particular attention to these areas so as to adopt a meaningful and relevant teaching approach for this important dimension of vocabulary.

According to Redman (2000), the degree of attention paid to the pronunciation of lexical items will depend on the importance of the item in spoken English and the extent to which it poses problems for the learners. He however suggests that when new lexis is taught and written on the board, it is helpful to indicate the primary accent (assuming the item has more than one syllable) and follow the written form with a phonemic transcription, if the students had previously been taught phonemics.

Discussing the importance of phonemic transcription, Stuart (1999) asserts that one of the advantages of phonemic transcription is that it can act as a reminder to the students not to be misled by orthographic form. He also asserts that phonemic and stress markers provide valuable visual assistance. This is because not all language learners are blessed with a good ear for languages. Neither can they imitate or discriminate between English sounds orally from the model provided by their teacher or peer learners. For some students, it is easier to grasp patterns by seeing them represented graphically.

Morphology (Word Formation)

There are three main processes of word building or word formation in English. They are affixation, compounding and conversion. According to Redman (1990), affixation is the process of adding prefixes and suffixes to the base item. In this way, item can be modified in meaning and or change from one part of speech to another. To the base form 'man' for instance we can add prefixes and suffixes in the following ways.

  a) man + ly = manly.
  b) Un + man + ly + ness = Unmanliness
  c) God +ly = Godly
  d)Un + God +ly + ness = Ungodliness.

Sometimes, the process of affixation produces changes in stress and sound in an item. E.g. "democrat" /'demƏkræt/, "democratic" /demƏ'krætik/, "democracy" /di'mokrƏsi/. It may also cause spelling difficulties as in the examples 'b' and'd' above (i.e. manly-manliness, Godly-Godliness). Suffixes may indicate parts of speech and have little semantic value as in the noun ending-'tion', e.g, discrimination or may have and intrinsic meaning e.g "+ less" as in "hairless" and "childless" which signifies an adjective ending and also contains the idea of 'without'.

Typically, a morphologically complex (or polymorphic) word will contain a central morpheme, which contribute the basic meaning, and a collection of other morphemic serving to modify this meaning in various ways. For instance, from the word 'disagreements', we can dissect a base morpheme agree and three bound morphemes "dis-", "-ment", and "–s". we call 'agree' the root and the other (bound) morphemes, affixes. The morphemes "–ment", and "–s", which come to the right of the root, are suffixes, while "dis", which comes to the left, is a prefix. The word 'disagreement' is called the stem.

Pedagogically, Gains (1986) asserts that focus on word building is likely to pay dividends for the learner both receptively and productively. With the receptive skills, an understanding of all three aspects of word building is essential if the learner is to make informed guesses about the meaning of unknown items. In terms of productive skills, knowledge of some basic principles of word building and specific examples will serve to widen a learner's range of expressions.

Compounding is the formation of words with two or more separate words which can stand independently in other circumstances. Redman (2000) asserts that there are three different types of compounding, adjective compounding e.g. hardworking, time-consuming, Anglo-French, etc, verb compounds, e.g. "baby-sit", 'sight-see', etc., and noun compounds, (i.e. base noun + noun), e.g. coffee jar, table tennis, house race etc.

Conversion, according Brown (1974), is also known as zero affixation. It is the process by which an item may be used in different parts of speech, yet does not change its form, e.g we've just had a lovely swim (N). I can't swim very well (V). This process is similar to suffixation in that syntactic and semantic changes may be involved, the different being that no prefixes or suffixes is used. With certain examples of conversion, there may be phonological changes e.g he works in export market. He will export a lot of goods.

Gains and Redman (1999) conclude that the amount of classroom time to be devoted to association and the emphasis placed on it would be determined by the degree of similarity of English with the learner's mother tongue.

Spelling
Opinions about English orthography vary over the widest possible range. Pitman (1969) sees it as a burden to school children and their teachers, while for Dewey (1971), it is a block on the path of literacy, Follick (1995) considers it an obstacle to foreign learners of English and a persistent nuisance to writers, typists and printers. To Adeniyi (2015); it is however a very important area of vocabulary that needs the teacher's full attention.

Taylor (2001) totally disagrees that English spelling constitutes a severe obstacle to language learning. On the contrary, he argues that English has a very good writing system, which gives learners much valuable and essential information about such crucial matters as stress, morphology, Lexis and syntax. He identifies three basic English writing systems, the first system is ideographic (i.e. no unique correspondence between sound and symbols). The symbol/ideograph stands directly for a lexical or grammatical ideal, i.e. for a morpheme. It does not directly represent the phonological or phonetic shape of the morpheme, e.g when we pronounce 'i.e' (idest) as 'that is' or viz (videlicef) as 'namely', we are using ideograms.
The second type of English writing system is syllabic (i.e there is direct correspondence between sound and symbol). The symbol in this case represents a syllable. For example, the word ceremony has four syllables i.e ce/re/mo/ny.

The third system he identifies as alphabetic. Here, individual symbols or letters, represent individual sounds, but this does not necessarily mean that one individual letter corresponds directly or regularly to one individual sound. He further explains that the important thing about an alphabetic system is that it is based on separate and individual letters representing separate and individual sounds, regardless of whether the correspondence between sound and letter is simple and straight forward or not. In ideographic writing, we can say then that the symbols represent 'meaning' whereas in syllabic and alphabetic writing, the symbols represent sounds.

Taylor (1999), however, concludes that English cannot have a writing system that directly reflects speech because in any variety of English, words are not always pronounced in the same way. For instance, the word 'and' is commonly pronounced according to context, in any of the following ways: Ənd, Ən, ænd, n.

The influence of pronunciation on spelling as explained by Milton (1996), shows that learner's accents sometimes affect their spelling, e.g the typical Hausa learner pronounces 'Paul' as 'Faul' etc. Marcel (1980) asserts that some people have trouble spelling words with consonant clusters that contain /l/ such as split; the 'l' is either omitted or misplaced. Their hearing and pronunciation appear normal but when they are asked to analyse the sound structure of one of these clusters, they seem unable to identify the /l/ as a separate phoneme. Barons (1980) and Pevin (1983) believe those poor spellers generally are not good at analysing the pronunciation of a word into its constituent phonemes. Presumably, this partly accounts for their poor spelling.

All that has been explicated so far supports the fact that learners often use their knowledge of the pronunciation of a word when they are trying to spell it. They commit errors, because they have difficulty analysing the pronunciation or because the pronunciation is a poor guide.

However, not all misspellings come about because of pronunciation. Word frequency is an important factor. An unfamiliar word is more likely to be misspelled even though its spelling might be close to the pronunciation. Word knowledge is another factor of misspelling. Some learners use their knowledge of how a word should look, thereby commit errors because their knowledge is incomplete.

A major source of spelling errors as noted by Lawal (2015), is American English which is responsible for a lot of the errors relating to the replacement of "s" with "č" as in the case of 'practice' and 'device' used as verb; "s" and "z" as in several instances, including "analyze" for "analyse", "sensitize" for "sensitise", "prioritize" for "prioritise" etc, reduction of diagraph "ou" to "o" as in "favor" for "favour", "color" for "colour", etc. Another critical aspect of the negative influence of American English is the current pervasiveness of de-hyphenation errors (Lawal 2015) in both educated and student English, as in "self sufficient" (i.e. self-sufficient); "Learner friendly" (i.e. learner-friendly); "stress induced" (i.e. stress-Induced); "baby sitters" (i.e. baby-sitters) "view point" (i.e. view-point), there are examples of spelling errors due to the non-use of the hyphen. Learners need to be sanitized in the principle of variety consistency especially in writing.

L$_2$ learners need to be well informed that the alternations in pronunciation take place according to fairly straightforward and regular phonological rules (Adeniyi 2006). Also teachers need to be much aware of the true nature of English spelling; its regularities and principles, and the information which it can provide about morphology, vocabulary and pronunciation. Teachers need considerable awareness of the nature of the English writing system, what its functions are and how it fulfills these functions. They need to be able to provide explicit teaching of spelling rules and principles, and to demonstrate how English spelling gives the learner much valuable information about syntax, morphology, pronunciation.

Grammar (lexico-syntax)
Grammar in vocabulary implies information about the syntactic operation of a word. It is common to see grammar and vocabulary as separate areas of language teaching and learning. Many books have separate sections on grammar and vocabulary. Syllabi list grammatical structures and key vocabulary items separately. Students are described as being 'good at grammar' but having 'limited vocabulary' or vice versa, while grammar and vocabulary are often tested separately (Huston and Manning 1997).

One important distinction to draw when discussing lexico-syntactic issues is in relation to the distinction made by Sweet (1994) between full words and form words. He asserts that words such as 'tree', 'sing', 'blue', etc. are full words that seem to have the kind of meaning that one would expect to find in the dictionary. The form (or grammatical) words like: it, the, of, and, etc are form words which belong rather to the grammar and have only grammatical meaning. Such meaning cannot be stated in isolation but only in relation to other words and even sometimes to the whole sentence.

Lexical words (full words) make sentence grammatically complete and provide relation to other sentences within a text. They belong to classes of words, which are relatively large and open. They are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. There are some sub-classes of verbs, (e.g.' am' in I'm coming) and adverbs (e.g. now, then) which are more like grammatical words than lexical words. Grammatical words (form words), on the other hand, help to make the sentence meaning explicit. They include pronouns, determiners (words that accompany

nouns and determine their contextual status e.g. ('the', 'a', 'this', 'my'), prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, and some adverbs. The membership of these classes changes only very slowly over the time.

Moreover, Adeniyi (2015) asserts that knowing the word class or part of speech of a word is essential for working out the meaning and the correct inflections. This she infers could be a justification for including word class label in English dictionaries. Indicating that a word is a noun implies that it is likely to inflect for a plural number (unless it is uncountable) and in some instances for possessive (genitive) case (e.g. field/ field's). However, meaning and inflectional information is not the only kind that is implied by a word-class label. It also implies information about the grammatical operation of a word.

Grammatical operations of words

1) **Noun:** A noun may occur in certain positions, perform certain functions in the syntactic structure of a language. Being a noun determines the type of syntactic relations a word may enter into, e.g. modifier - head relation with an adjective (e.g. green fields'), subject-predicator relation with a verb (e.g. the man rejoices). Broad word class divisions are however a rather rough guide to syntactic operation. One sub-classification that is of some syntactic significance is that countable nouns can be made plural and be counted, (e.g. six boxes) and mass nouns are uncountable nouns, but both categories may function as adjectival modifiers of another noun, e.g, garden, as in 'garden party',' garden furniture' or furniture as in furniture store.

2) **Verb:** is another example of grammatical operation of a word. It is syntactically significant when it is classified into transitive and intransitive. Verb transitive (vt) tells us that the verb occurs with an object, e.g., the farmer is clearing his field. Verb intransitive (vi) says it does not, e.g. the man is sleeping. Another category is the verb absolute (VA) which refers to the use of transitive verb but without an object stated (e.g, they are reading) and where a verb can be used either transitively or intransitively.

Another classification of verbs is whether it is regular or irregular. Most irregular inflection of verbs in English is associated with the past tense and past particle forms. e.g 'run' forms past tense by means of inflectional vowel change (ran) while the past participle has the same form as the base (present tense).

3) **Adjective:** The significant sub classification here is into attributive adjectives (occurring before a noun e.g "big farm") and predicative adjective (occurring after a verb such as "be", e.g. "the farm is big"). Most adjectives belong to both subclasses, like big, but some are found in only one. "Asleep", for instance, functions predicatively and 'ill' (in the sense of sick) is usually used only predicatively.

4) **Adverb:** The class adverb contains a number of quite diverse subclasses, for instance words like' personally', 'possibly',' therefore', 'very', etc. are mere adverbs. However, personally and possibly belong in one of their senses to a sub class of 'view point' adverbs e.g. 'Personally, I think it's a good Idea'. This is called a sentence modifier (in this sense).

Pedagogically, Gains and Redman (1986) observe two issues here. One is the highlighting of regular and irregular forms; the other is the role of source books in aiding learners to be self-sufficient.

Close (1975) advises that in teaching the grammar of vocabulary to students, especially those with language difficulties, teachers need to adopt instructional resources with concrete basis for conceptual thinking that contributes to the growth of meaning and having a high degree of interest for pupils.

Lexico-semantics
Stressing the importance of lexico-semantics in vocabulary teaching, Adeniyi (2015) argues that lexico – semantics helps to elucidate the process of translation, and helps to organise the lexicon since words are not learnable in isolation. Also the study of sense relations enables us to bring out the full meanings of words and facilitates acquisition of vocabulary.

In discussing lexico-semantics, it is very important to understand the issue involved in sense relations. This is because to understand a word fully, learners must not know only what it refers to, but also where the boundaries are, that separate it from words of related meaning. In support of the importance of recognising the boundaries among related lexical items, Redman (1990) illustrates with different sense relations like polysemy, homonymy, synonymy, and antonymy.

Polysemy is a single word form with several different but closely related meanings, Palmer (1987) agrees that sameness of meaning is not very easy to deal with but there seems nothing inherently difficult about difference of meaning. He explains that we cannot clearly distinguish whether two meanings are the same or different and, therefore, determine exactly how many meanings a word has.

Homonymy is the second aspect of sense relation which means a single word with several different meanings, which are not closely related, e.g 'file' maybe used for keeping papers or a tool for cutting or smoothening hard substances. This absence of relatedness makes homonyms less of a problem.

Moreover, Palmer (1989) observes some complications in the fact that we do not make the same distinctions in writing and speech. Thus, 'lead', (metal) and 'lead' (to lead a group) are spelt in the same way but pronounced differently, while 'site' and 'sight', 'rite' and 'right' are spelt differently but pronounced same way. For the former, the term homography may be used, for the latter, homophony. Curiously, there are some homonyms and homophones that are also very nearly antonyms e.g 'cleave' (put asunder) and 'cleave' (unite), 'raise' and 'raze'.

Hyponymy is another part of sense relation which involves the notion of inclusion in the sense that "rose" is included in "flower" and "lion" is included in "animal". "Flower" and "animal" are regarded as super-ordinate while "rose" and "lion" are regarded as hyponyms.

Synonymy means sameness in meaning. Palmer (1989) asserts that even though synonymy is used to mean sameness in meaning, it can however be maintained that there are no real synonyms; that no two words have exactly the same meaning as there are some ways in which they can be seen to differ. Firstly, some sets of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language e.g. (fall) (USA) autumn (British). The implication of this for Nigerian ESL learners is the mixing together of the three varieties of Nigerian, American and British Englishes thereby causing inconsistency in the student's use of English. Secondly, some words may be said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meanings; their cognitive meaning remain the same, e.g. emotive language like 'politician'/'statesman',

'hide'/'conceal', 'liberty'/'freedom', each implying approval or disapproval. The implication of such words is to influence attitudes.Thirdly, some words are collocationally restricted (e.g. "bite" & "teeth", "bark" & "dog", "blond" & "hair"), they occur only in conjunction with other words. This does not seem to be a matter of their meaning but of the company they keep.

Antonymy: Another sense relation in connection with lexico-semantic is antonym – a term used for 'oppositeness'. Types of opposites include complimentaries, converses, multiple taxonomy and gradable antonym.

Concluding Remarks

Considering the above dimension of lexeme and the pedagogic activities, teaching vocabulary using integrative approach as earlier suggested is highly pertinent. In order to teach vocabulary components in an integrative way, this paper suggests the following order of vocabulary instruction.

A proposed model of patterns of integration in vocabulary instruction

Figure 1: An integrate continuum of vocabulary teaching
(Adapted from Lawal 1993)
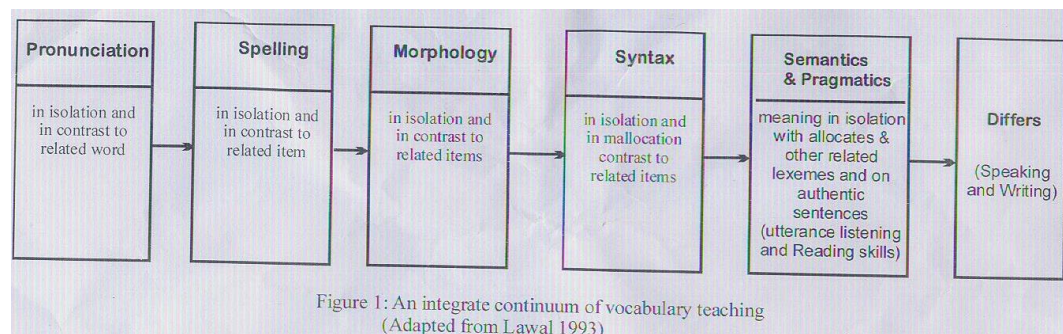
The order in Figure 1 indicates that vocabulary instruction should start with the teacher **pronouncing** the lexical item to be learnt to the students, the students are made to repeat the pronunciation first in isolation and later in contrast to similar words, until the accurate pronunciation is derived. After this, the teacher writes the word for students to learn the spelling again in isolation and in contrast. In the same way, this leads to the study of the structure of the word and how the word could be derived or generated. The teacher will then indicate the word class of the lexical item and its relationship with other lexical items in the sentence and finally, the meaning of the word can be derived from the relationship it has with other lexical items in the text or utterance. This process will help the learners to understand the meaning of words within the context of its usage and thereby reduce the learner's over-dependency on the dictionary. The teacher must show an awareness of the fact that learners naturally hear a particular piece of language before speaking or writing it. It is thus expected that the receptive skills of listening and reading must precede the productive ones of speaking and writing each time the teacher introduces to learners a new vocabulary items

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