

AN ANALYSIS OF VOCABULARY AND MORPHOLOGICAL ERRORS IN
COMPOSITIONS WRITTEN BY SECOND AND THIRD YEAR ENGLISH
MAJORS AT SRINAKHARINWIROT UNIVERSITY



Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Master of Arts Degree in English
at Srinakharinwirot University
October 2005

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Naiyana Tharvarayus. (2005). *An Analysis of Vocabulary and Morphological Errors in Compositions Written by Second and Third Year English Majors at Srinakharinwirot University*. Master thesis, M.A. (English). Bangkok: Graduate School, Srinakharinwirot University. Advisor Committee: Asst. Prof. Dr. Tipa Thep-Ackrapong, Dr. Nitaya Suksaeresup, Dr. Sinchai Jansem, Mr. Peter John Cadman.

The purposes of the study were to analyze the amount of vocabulary used as well as morphological errors found in second-year and third-year BA English major students' compositions. Forty second year English majors and another 40 third-year English majors at Srinakharinwirot University were asked to write a composition in a two-hour session. The software program VocabProfile grouped words into four word lists: Base List One including the first 1,000 most frequently-used words; Base List Two including the next 1,000 most frequently-used words; Base List Three including words which were frequently used in the upper secondary and university texts, and List Four composing of words which were not found in any of the three Base Lists. The vocabulary discrepancy between the two groups of informants was investigated. Statistically significant differences regarding the vocabulary size and morphological errors were calculated using the *t*-test. The results revealed that the third-year students' vocabulary was richer than the second-year students' vocabulary in Base Lists 2 and 3. 54.05% of the words in Base List One were used by both groups. 39.31% of all types of errors in incorrect derivational suffixes were found the most by both groups. The third-year students' morphological errors were a lower number than those found in the second year-students.

การวิเคราะห์คำศัพท์และข้อผิดพลาดในงานเขียนเรียงความภาษาอังกฤษของ
นิสิตวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษชั้นปีที่ 2 และ 3 มหาวิทยาลัยศรีนครินทรวิโรฒ



เสนอต่อบัณฑิตวิทยาลัยมหาวิทยาลัยศรีนครินทรวิโรฒ เพื่อเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษา
ตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

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การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อวิเคราะห์คำศัพท์และข้อผิดพลาดในงานเขียนเรียงความ
ภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิตเอกภาษาอังกฤษชั้นปีที่ 2 และ 3 ของมหาวิทยาลัยศรีนครินทรวิโรฒ ชั้นละ
40 คน เพื่อสืบค้นว่ามีความต่างกันด้านการใช้จำนวนคำศัพท์ และด้านการวิเคราะห์ข้อผิดพลาด
ในการใช้ศัพท์ วิธีวิจัยคือนิสิตทั้ง 2 ระดับเขียนเรียงความในหัวข้อที่กำหนดในเวลา 2 ชั่วโมง
จากนั้นใช้โปรแกรมคอมพิวเตอร์ VocabProfile ช่วยในการวิเคราะห์ โดยการแบ่งคำศัพท์ออกเป็น
4 กลุ่ม คือ 1. คำศัพท์ที่พบบ่อยใน 1,000 คำแรก 2. คำศัพท์ที่พบบ่อยใน 1,000 คำถัดไปจากกลุ่ม
แรก 3. คำศัพท์ที่พบบ่อยในหนังสือระดับชั้นมัธยมศึกษาและอุดมศึกษา 4. คำศัพท์ที่ไม่รวมอยู่ใน
3 กลุ่มดังกล่าว จากนั้นนำผลการวิเคราะห์มาเปรียบเทียบหาข้อแตกต่างด้านคำศัพท์ของนิสิตทั้ง
2 ชั้นปีโดยใช้สถิติการทดสอบแบบที (t-test) ผลการวิจัยพบว่า นิสิตชั้นปีที่ 3 ใช้คำศัพท์สูงกว่าชั้น
ปีที่ 2 ในกลุ่มคำศัพท์ที่ 2 และ 3 นิสิตทั้งสองชั้นปีใช้คำศัพท์กลุ่ม 1 มากที่สุด คิดเป็น 54.05% ใน
ด้านข้อผิดพลาดของการใช้คำศัพท์ที่พบบ่อยที่สุดคือ ข้อผิดพลาดในการเติมส่วนต่อท้ายคำ คิดเป็น
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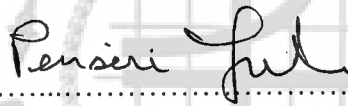
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by

Naiyana Tharvarayus

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for the Master of Arts degree in English of Srinakharinwirot University.



..... Dean of Graduate School

(Assistant Professor Dr. Pensiri Jeradechakul)

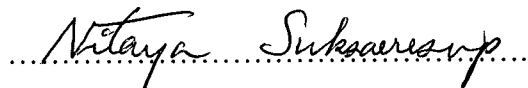
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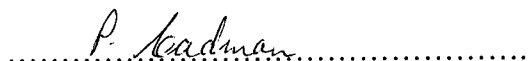
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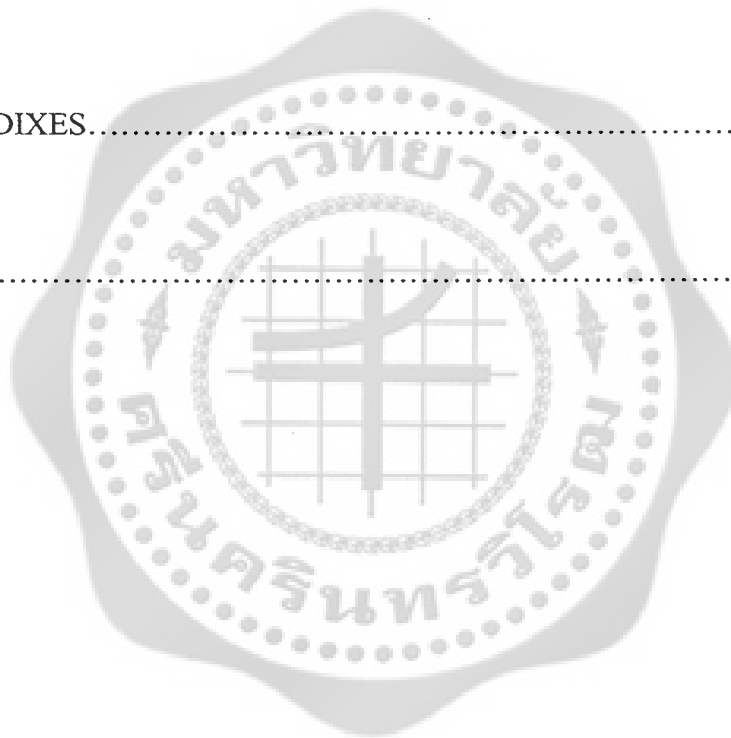
Naiyana Tharvarayus

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Background

Vocabulary and morphological errors play a significant role in the quality of EFL or ESL students' writing. A number of vocabulary items used in EFL/ESL students which can show the ability of EFL/ESL students' knowledge. Therefore, EFL/ESL students' vocabulary size analyzed by many methods has been studied (Nation, 2001; Coxhead, 2000; Sujana, 2000; Laufer & Nation, 1995). One of the methods for measuring vocabulary size is by using the VocabProfile program developed by Nation (1995). This program can count the number of types of words to account for the quality of essay writing.

Another major factor affecting the quality of EFL or ESL students' written work is morphological errors in EFL/ESL students' compositions. There are two classes of morphemes: "free morphemes and bound morphemes" such as *un*, *s*, *ed*, *able*, *anti*, and *ism* (Carter, 1987: 9). The main reason for studying morphological errors in EFL/ESL students' writing is that "Thai is an uninflected language, whereas English is an inflected one and therefore English morphemes do not have corresponding constructions in Thai" (Pongpaiboj, 2002: 83). Morphological errors can be divided into five types: "using an incorrect suffix, omitting grammatical morphemes, double marking, regularizing, and incorrect pronoun morphemes" (Pongpaiboj, 2002: 85). The results of morphological errors in 100 Thai undergraduate students revealed that there were a total of 87 errors of plural morphemes. Not only an inadequate knowledge of vocabulary use but also

morphological errors can cause writing difficulties for EFL and ESL students (Dawson, 1998; Rivers, 1968).

So far, no research has been done to analyze vocabulary use and morphological errors at Srinakharinwirot University (henceforth SWU). Therefore, the present study intended to investigate Thai students' vocabulary use and morphological errors among second and third-year English majors at SWU.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives were as follows:

1. to analyze the amount of vocabulary in the compositions written by second and third-year English majors at SWU. The study was conducted in the following regards:
 - 1.1 the size
 - 1.2 types
 - 1.3 frequency
2. to analyze morphological errors found in the compositions written by both groups of informants. The analysis covered the following:
 - 2.1 types of errors
 - 2.2 frequency
3. to investigate vocabulary development between both groups of informants (i.e., second and third-year English majors of SWU.)

Significance of the Study

The research results maybe beneficial in the following respects:

1. They will enable researchers and teachers of English to gain insights into Thai students' acquisition of English vocabulary and to enable them to give an explanatory account of Thai students' morphological errors.

2. They will be useful for researchers and teachers who would like to have a model to analyze students' texts to study vocabulary and errors.

3. The VocabProfile program measuring word tokens, word types, and word families can be used as a research tool as well as a teaching aid.

Scope of the Study

Eighty compositions written by the second and the third year SWU English majors of the academic year 2003 were analyzed in the following areas:

1. The software program VocabProfile (Nation, 1995) was used in this study to explore the amount of vocabulary in the compositions.

2. Morphological errors in terms of using incorrect suffixes, omission of grammatical morphemes, double marking, regularizing, and pronoun morphemes in 80 compositions were studied.

3. Spelling (e.g., necessary for necessary) and collocation errors (e.g. *enjoy with*) were not included in the study.

Definition of Terms

1. Word token

An occurrence of a word in a text is counted as one word token. For example, in the sentence, "We emerged on the other side of the field to find another red arrow guiding us deeper into the woods along what's known by country folk" (Blank, 1996). There are 27 word tokens.

2. Word type

The occurrence of a word in a text is counted as one word type no matter how many times it appears in the text. For instance, in the sample sentence given above, there are 24 words appearing once: *we, emerged, on, other, side, of, field, to, find, another, red, arrow, guiding, us, deeper, into, woods, along, what, is, known, by, country* and *folk*. One word: *the* appears three times. Thus, there are 25 word types in the text.

3. Word family

A word family is defined as a headword with its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms. For example, *sign, design, signature, assign,* and *designate* are counted as one word family with the headword *sign* (Nation, 2001; Nattinger, 1988; Bowen, Madsen, & Hilferty, 1985).

4. Vocabulary size

The vocabulary size in VocabProfile program is divided into two types. One is the number of words in word tokens, word types, and word families. The other is the number of words in Base List One, Two, Three, and Four. All of the words in the two types were found in each informant's composition.

5. VocabProfile program

A computer program developed by Nation (1995) was used in the study. Standard word families of different types included in the first, second, and third lists (henceforth Base Lists One, Two, and Three, respectively). There is a fourth set of terms containing words that appeared in the compositions, but they are not covered by the three VocabProfile lists. The three lists are further explained aforementioned lists as follows:

1.1 The first list includes the 1,000 most frequently used words of English such as *a*, *able*, *about*, *above*, and *accept* (see Appendix C).

1.2 The second list includes the next 1,000 most frequently used words such as *abroad*, *absence*, *absent*, *absolute*, and *absolutely* (see Appendix C).

1.3 The third list includes words which are not among the first 2,000 words of English but are frequently used in the upper secondary and university texts in a wide range of subjects such as *abandon*, *abnormal*, *absorb*, *abstract*, and *academic* (see Appendix C).

1.4 The fourth set of terms (not listed) includes word tokens and word types which are not in any of the three aforementioned lists. Words such as proper nouns and acronyms are categorized into this list. However, word families are not included in this list.

6. Morphological error

Morphological errors are classified into two categories: errors with derivational and inflectional morphemes. Derivational morphemes include both the prefix and suffix. They change the underlying form of a word to make it into an adjective, an adverb, or another part of speech. For example, *-ful* is a morpheme that changes nouns into adjectives (*beauty* becomes *beautiful*). Inflectional morphemes are suffixes only. They include “tense markers (such as *-ed*), plural markers, and the third-person singular present-tense verb ending *-s*” as in *she walks* (Owens & Bacon, 1992: 21). In addition, “the comparative morpheme *-er*” applies to many adjectives and adverbs (Hatch & Brown, 1995: 265). For instance, *He is taller than his brother*. Incorrect use of morphological errors are categorized into five types: 1) using an incorrect derivational suffix; 2) omission grammatical morphemes; 3) using double marking; 4) using over-generalized grammatical rule; and 5) using incorrect

pronominal case. The definitions and examples of each type of morphological errors in compositions written by second to the third-year SWU English majors of the academic year 2003 were presented as follows:

6.1 A word with an incorrect derivational suffix.

If a student misused a suffix by adding a wrong morpheme to a part of speech, it would be considered an incorrect suffix.

For example: * My home is my happily [happy] place.

6.2 A word without a grammatical morpheme

If a student did not add a required suffix to a part of speech, it would be considered an omission of grammatical morpheme.

For example: *She always give [gives] me encouragement.

6.3 A word with double marking

If a student used two inflected forms when only one was required, it would be considered double marking.

For example: *She is the most loveliest teacher.

Correction: She is the loveliest teacher.

6.4 A word with an over-generalized grammatical rule

If a student generalized one grammatical rule to a place which did not need it, it would be considered an over-generalized grammatical rule.

For example: *I wanted to pass this temple fastly [fast].

6.5 A word with an incorrect pronominal case

If a student used an incorrect pronoun, it would be considered an incorrect pronominal case.

For example: *The secret was between our [us].

6. Vocabulary development

In this study, vocabulary development is defined as the sequential increase of the vocabulary size and the sequential decrease of morphological errors found in the writing of the second and the third year English Majors at Srinakharinwirot University.

In brief, chapter one includes research objectives, significance and scope of the study, and definition of terms. In the objectives, the research aimed at analyzing the size, types and frequency of vocabulary as well as morphological errors used by second and third-year English majors at SWU. The research is significant in the sense that researchers and teachers of English will gain insights into Thai students' acquisition of English vocabulary and gain more understanding of morphological errors. In the scope of the study, the software program VocabProfile (Nation, 1995) to explore the amount of vocabulary was used and five types of morphological errors were studied. Finally, word tokens, word types, word families, vocabulary size, VocabProfile program, and morphological errors were defined in this chapter.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

The review of the related literature is divided into four main parts. The first part focuses on vocabulary learning, knowledge, size, and use. Second, characteristics of English vocabulary for EFL/ESL students are presented. Third, vocabulary strategies and techniques of teaching and learning ESL or EFL are discussed. Finally, some related research involving errors of EFL/ESL students in Thailand and foreign countries is reviewed in this chapter.

1. Vocabulary learning, knowledge, size, and use

A number of studies on vocabulary learning, knowledge, size, and use among EFL/ESL students have been discussed to determine the degree of students' vocabulary acquisition achievement in this section.

In vocabulary learning, there are different concepts of intentional and incidental learning. The intentional concept involves learning as being planned for, designed, or intended by teachers or students (Hatch & Brown, 1995). Incidental learning is a “by-product” of doing or learning something else that focuses on the use of language (Hulstijn, 2001: 266). Regarding vocabulary items, EFL/ESL students acquire them as a by-product while they are being engaged in a listening, reading, speaking, or writing activity (Hulstijn, 2001). Moreover, vocabulary with incidental learning is also acquired through reading. Distinctive definitions between “intensive and extensive reading” are classified (Nation, 2001: 149-150). Intensive reading involves “the close deliberate study of short texts, but usually around 300-500 words

long” (Nation, 2001: 149). Extensive reading involves “vocabulary growth” in which texts provide repetition of unknown vocabulary and “fluency development” in which texts contain little or no unknown vocabulary (Nation, 2001: 150). The vocabulary coverage in both types of reading shows the percentage of EFL or ESL students’ goals. In intensive reading, the percentage of EFL or ESL students’ goals is less than 95%. On the other hand, the percentage of EFL or ESL students’ goals of extensive reading is 99-100%. Three plausible reasons that EFL or ESL can perceive their vocabulary learning through extensive reading are 1) unlimited different levels of EFL or ESL students; 2) learning outside the classroom; and 3) motivation of learning (Nation, 2001). Therefore, extensive reading can yield a higher rate of achievement in terms of vocabulary acquisition.

After perceiving the learning of vocabulary in EFL or ESL students, vocabulary size is an essential indicator of their learning ability. To measure a vocabulary size, there are two major methods suggested by Nation (2001). One is based on “sampling from a dictionary” and the second is based on “a frequency list from a corpus” (Nation, 2001: 363). The dictionary method involves choosing a dictionary which is large enough to contain all the words. A representative sample of words is taken from the dictionary and the students are tested on those words. As a result, the proportion of words known in the sample is then converted to the proportion in the whole dictionary. Regarding a frequency list from a corpus, this method is preferable because the sampling involves arranging the vocabulary into frequency based groups such as West’s (1953) *General Service List*. In West’s (1953) *General Service List*, there are 2,000 word families. About 165 word families in this list are function words such as *a*, *some*, *two*, *because*, and *to*. The rest are content words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. In the Thai context, Sujana’s

(2000) study, the amount of vocabulary used by 146 Thai undergraduate individuals in the first-year English majors' writing in Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham was around 2,379 word tokens and 286 word families. In Yodnil's (1980) study, the amount of vocabulary used in the freshmen's writing at SWU was 1,700 word tokens which were less than Sujana's (2000) results.

After acquiring the vocabulary size, the use of vocabulary is divided into "productive and receptive vocabulary" (Nation, 1990: 24). Productive vocabulary use involves "wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written word form" (Nation, 1990: 25). Receptive vocabulary use involves "perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning" (Nation, 1990: 24-25). Nevertheless, the terminologies of productive and receptive are not completely suitable because there are productive features in the receptive skills (Nation, 1990). That is, the students produce meaning when listening and reading. Therefore, the terms of "active and passive" are sometimes used as synonyms for "productive" and "receptive" (Nation, 1990: 24). "Active vocabulary" can be activated by other words because it has many incoming and outgoing links with other words, while "passive vocabulary" consists of items which can only be activated by external stimuli (Meara, 1990: 151-154). That is, they are activated by hearing or seeing their forms, but not through associational links to other words. Furthermore, the terms active and passive are explained by Corson (1995). Passive vocabulary includes the active vocabulary and three other kinds of vocabulary: known words, low-frequency words, and avoided words (Corson, 1995: 44-45). Therefore, EFL or ESL students have a larger receptive than productive vocabulary because they cannot easily produce vocabulary in a speech or writing. Although producing new words seems difficult to these students, they can

receive new words from the receptive vocabulary by reading and then recognizing them in other contexts such as interacting with the teacher or reading a text.

In sum, the EFL/ESL students can apply vocabulary in intentional and incidental learning which consists of the size and the use of vocabulary to make their learning of English efficient.

2. Characteristics of English vocabulary for EFL/ESL students

The main characteristics of English vocabulary such as polysyms, homonyms, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, parts of speech, idiomatic expressions, and collocations are necessary for EFL/ESL students' learning (Navasumrit. 1989). Without proper understanding of these characteristics, EFL or ESL students tend to make more errors in their compositions.

1. Polysymy means several different words with closely related meanings such as *spend* and *use*. For example:

- I *spend* time.
- I *spend* money.
- I *use* money.

These three samples are commonly used; however, they have different meanings in different contexts. *Spend* can be used with both time and money, while *use* is frequently used with money but not with time.

2. Homonymy is a relationship between two or more words which have the same sound and/or spelling as another, but their meanings are different. For instance, the *bear* could not *bear* the hot weather. The first use of the word *bear* is a noun, while the second one is a verb.

3. Synonymy refers to words with the same meaning such as *frightened* and *afraid* (Macmillan, 2002: 1457). For example:

- I am *frightened* of spiders.

- He's *afraid* of flying.

Both the synonyms i.e., *frightened* and *afraid* can be used alternately.

4. Antonymy covers a number of relationships often thought of as opposites. For instance, *import-export* and *internal-external* are the converse of one term which implies the other.

5. Hyponymy means “a relationship of inclusion” (Wilkins, 1978: 124). For example,

Vehicle



Bus



Car

In the above example, bus and car are grouped in the word “vehicle.”

6. Parts of speech can be subdivided into variable parts (i.e., nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs) and invariable parts (i.e., adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections). Variable parts can change in many ways, including changing into other forms through prefixes and suffixes (Jackson, 2002). For example, three samples of the same head words are different from each other in terms of noun, verb, and adjective forms.

- She wrote a *note* to her teacher. (n.)

- The policeman *noted* the footprints in the kitchen. (v.)

- His father is a *noted* pianist. (adj.)

From the first sample, *note* is a noun which means *a short letter*. Next, *noted* is a verb which means *notice, observe, or pay more attention*. The last sample *noted* is an adjective which means *famous*.

7. Idiomatic expressions can cause a problem to EFL/ESL students because they do not understand connotative meaning or “an additional idea or emotion that is not part of its usual meaning” of idiomatic expressions (Macmillan, 2002: 293). Moreover, the meaning of idioms cannot be directly translated from one language to another such as *kick the bucket* means “to die” (Schmitt, 2000: 78).

8. Collocation is a group of words which naturally co-occur. For example, *do research* and *make a mistake* is a fixed collocation. Often, ESL/EFL students make errors such as *make research* or *do a mistake*.

In short, all of these characteristics of English vocabulary can often cause problems in EFL/ESL students’ compositions. Therefore, studying all of these characteristics leads to a better understanding of EFL/ESL students’ errors.

3. Techniques of teaching and learning vocabulary for EFL and ESL students

There are a number of techniques of teaching vocabulary for teachers such as planned and unplanned vocabulary teaching and learning vocabulary. These techniques involve using dictionaries, word parts, word cards, contexts, and vocabulary notebooks.

Vocabulary teaching is divided into planned and unplanned activities (Seal, 1991: 298-300). In planned vocabulary teaching, teachers go into the classroom with an item or a set of vocabulary items that they have decided beforehand during the course of the lesson. Unplanned vocabulary teaching happens when the student requests a meaning for a vocabulary item during a lesson, or when the teacher realizes

that a word that has just come up needs to be clarified. However, there are two great dangers in unplanned vocabulary teaching. That is, the teacher may not go far enough in dealing with the new word; therefore, the students still do not understand the meaning of the word. Also, the teacher may go too far and get carried away with the word the students do not know, and devote an excessive amount of time to the other related words (Seal, 1991). Therefore, to avoid these dangers of unplanned vocabulary teaching, the three C's techniques are used. The first one is "conveying the meaning" via mime, synonyms, or an anecdote. The second one is "checking the meaning" by a series of questions. The third one is "consolidation the information" is to make the students relate the word to another context or personal experience (Seal, 1991: 301-303). For example, role-play is one of the consolidation activities that the students often use in their learning. These techniques can certainly help teachers teach vocabulary to EFL/ESL students.

In addition, other techniques efficiently make EFL/ESL students learn more vocabulary including using dictionaries, word parts, word cards, contexts, and vocabulary notebooks (Evert, 2002; Fowle, 2002; Nation, 2002; Nation, 2001; Christianson, 1997; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Blanchowicz, 1986).

1. Using a dictionary is necessary for EFL/ESL students. It contains a great deal of information such as syllabification, meaning, grammar, collocations, register appropriateness, frequency, and advice on common errors (Nation, 1990). Several reasons to use a dictionary are divided into the percentage as described by Harvey and Yuill (1997). That is, the most common reasons, in order of frequency, for using a dictionary were: to find the correct spelling 24.4%, to check on a meaning 18.3%, to see if the word exists 12.8%, to find a synonym 10.6%, and to check on the grammar (10.5%). Thus, training in the use of dictionaries is essential to EFL/ESL students in

vocabulary learning. A wide range of purposes in using dictionaries involves comprehension (listening and reading) and production (speaking and writing). For example, in listening and reading, the students look up the meaning of a word. They are trained in the following steps. First, they get information from the context where the word occurs. Second, the students find the dictionary entry. Then, they choose the right sub-entry. Finally, they relate the meaning to the context and decide if it fits (Nation, 2001: 285-286). Additionally, in speaking and writing, the students should follow these steps. First, they find the wanted word form. Next, they check that there are no unwanted constraints on the use of the word. Then, they work out the grammar and collocations of the word. Lastly, they check the spelling or pronunciation of the word before using it (Nation, 2001: 287-288).

2. The knowledge of using “word parts (i.e., affixes and roots)” has two values for EFL or ESL students (Nation, 2001: 264). First, it can be used to help the learning of unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words or to known prefixes and suffixes. Second, it can be used as a way of checking whether an unfamiliar word has been successfully guessed from context. Thus, using word parts to help EFL or ESL students remember new words is a major vocabulary learning technique.

3. Using “word cards” is beneficial to EFL/ESL students’ vocabulary learning (Nation, 2001: 302). It allows the students, consciously, to focus on an aspect of word knowledge that is not easily gained from context or dictionary use. Also, when the students use word cards, they can save their time in searching for the meaning of words from dictionaries. Hence, this technique is a useful and effective part of vocabulary learning.

4. “Guessing from context” focuses on the particular reference of a word as determined by the context rather than on its underlying meaning (Nation, 2002: 271).

To understand more how to guess meaning from context, Clarke and Nation (1980) give five-steps in guessing meaning from context. First, when the students are not familiar with unknown words, the teacher should tell them to decide on their parts of speech. Second, they should look at the immediate context of the word and simplify it grammatically and then adjoining sentences or clauses. After that, they have to guess and look up the word in the dictionary to check the guess. This technique is still the most important way that the EFL or ESL students can increase their vocabulary.

5. Using vocabulary notebooks can be seen as a way of helping EFL/ESL students to engage more meaningfully with new words that they were being exposed to in their language learning experience (Fowle, 2002; Blanchowicz, 1986). They can jot down new words in their vocabulary notebooks in order to use them whenever they want. Furthermore, this technique enhances the students' independence. It could be implied that using vocabulary notebooks seem to assist in building the EFL or ESL students' confidence as language learners.

To sum up, techniques of planned/unplanned vocabulary teaching, dictionaries, word parts, word cards, context, and vocabulary notebooks are necessary to teachers and EFL/ESL students in both teaching and learning English vocabulary.

4. Previous studies on errors in EFL/ESL students' compositions

There are a variety of error analyses in EFL or ESL students' compositions which involve grammatical or structural and lexical errors. Many researchers have reviewed these errors' results in Thailand and other countries as follows.

Three researchers have analyzed errors in EFL students' essays in Thailand.

Pongpairoj (2002) conducted a study to analyze the syntactic and morphological errors, including problems of word usage, written by 100 first-year Faculty of Arts students at Chulalongkorn University. The principal method is contrastive analysis. The findings revealed that errors in inflectional morphemes: the present tense was found to be highest at 53.56%, while comparative/superlative and possessive morphemes were found to be lowest at 0.62%. The author does not state whether there were any significant differences among types of errors.

Sujan (2000) conducted research on lexical errors: subject-verb agreement, plural form, parts of speech, meaning, and collocations in essays written by English majors students. Forty papers from each level from the first- year to the fourth- year at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham were collected. The cross-sectional results indicated that tense errors were most frequent at 31.7%. Meaning errors were found at 21.4%, and parts of speech errors were found at 17.7%. Errors of extra/omitted words were found at 5.9% followed by collocation errors (5.8%). Based on the ANOVA, method of statistical analysis, there were significant differences in tense errors, extra/omitted words and meaning among the groups of informants.

Ubol (1981) conducted research on errors written by first versus third-year English majors at Prince of Songkhla University. The findings revealed that the third-year English majors had more errors in terms of parts of speech than did the first-year students because the third-year students often produced more complex sentences.

Apart from studies in Thailand, three studies conducted in other countries were reviewed.

Kroll (1990) examined difference between students' writing in class under time constraints and writing done at home without time constraints. Kroll gave accuracy scores on the basis of total words and total number of errors. The findings

revealed that there were no significant differences in terms of error ratios between the two tasks.

Scott and Tucker (1973) examined ten error types: finite verbs, prepositions, articles, relative clauses, nouns, pronouns, word order, quantifiers, adverbs, and adjectives in essays written by 22 non-native students, who studied in a low intermediate intensive English course at the American University of Beirut (AUB). The results showed that errors in finite verbs were found to be highest at 2.59%, while errors in adjectives were lowest at 0.16%.

Vann, Meyer, and Lorenz (1984) studied 10 types of errors: articles, comma splice, prepositions, pronoun agreement, subject-verb agreement, word choice, relative clauses, tense, *it*-deletion, and word order in essays written by 440 non-native students of English at Iowa State University. The results showed that article errors were found to be highest at 3.07 while word order errors were lowest at 1.84. Nevertheless, informants based on age and academic discipline vary predictably in their opinions on certain errors.

In summary, it can be concluded from error analyses in Thailand and in foreign countries that most EFL/ESL students at different levels still make a variety of errors in their compositions. In particular, tense, subject-verb agreement, and article are the errors mostly found in EFL/ESL students' compositions in Thailand and in other countries.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter consists of three main sections: 1) informants and data collection, 2) instrument, and 3) data analysis. In the informants and data collection, the numbers, levels, and writing courses of informants as well as the process of data collection are described. Then the instrument the VocabProfile program is presented, and the data analysis involving the vocabulary size as well as morphological errors is discussed.

1. Informants and data collection

1.1 Informants

There are two groups of informants in this study. The first group consisted of 40 second-year English majors studying a required writing course: Basic Writing (EN 231) in the first semester of the academic year 2003 at Srinakharinwirot University in Bangkok, Thailand. The second group included 40 third-year English majors studying a required writing course: Composition I (EN 331) in the first semester of the academic year 2003 at the same university. There are two main reasons for recruiting the two groups of informants in the study. First, both groups represented the English majors at their level. Normally, there are about 80 English majors admitted each year into SWU. These students are randomly classified into four groups. In this study, two groups of each level were included. Second, both were taking required writing courses. According to SWU English major curriculum, writing is not required in the first and fourth years. Rather it is taken as an elective,

on a voluntary basis. Volunteers are known to have different characteristics from non-volunteers (Borg & Gall, 1983: 205). At least, students who choose writing as an elective course should have a higher motivation level than do those taking writing as a requirement. As such, students taking writing as a required course should be studied against those in another required course. Therefore, only students in the two different levels of required courses were included in the research.

1.2 Data collection

The eighty informants were asked to write an essay on the topic “Is it better to enjoy your money when you earn it, or is it better to save your money for some time in the future?” in a two-hour session. A cross-sectional rather than a longitudinal method was selected mainly because of the time constraint. At SWU, after finishing basic writing, the second-year students in the study had to wait for another year to enroll in EN 331: Composition I, in the third year. In the mean time, some informants might drop out or transfer to other majors. Therefore, had the longitudinal study been adopted, the research study might have suffered from the loss of the informants, which, in turn, may bias the research results. Therefore, a cross-sectional method was adopted to avoid the potential problem concerning the time constraint.

2. Instrument

The main instrument of research applied in this study was the VocabProfile software package. The software program VocabProfile was developed by Nation (1995). The program groups words into four frequency levels as previously discussed in Chapter One.

All of the base lists include the base forms of words. The word forms in the base lists can originate word families under a headword. For example, the word

stimulate (Base List Three) has the following family members *stimulated*, *stimulates*, *stimulating*, *stimulation*, *stimulant*, and *stimulative* (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). The words in Base Lists One, Two, and Three are taken from *A General Service List of English Words* (West, 1953) and *The University Word List* (Xue & Nation, 1984). These word lists are included in Appendix C.

3. Data analysis

3.1 Analysis of vocabulary size

To analyze the amount of vocabulary used in the informants' compositions, the software program VocabProfile (Nation, 1995) was applied. The results revealed the number and percentage of frequency of occurrences of word tokens, word types, and word families based on each word list. These results were further used to investigate if there were differences or similarities in the number of word tokens, word types, and word families between the second and the third-year English majors.

3.1.1 The steps in the analysis of vocabulary size were as follows:

1. The 80 compositions were keyed into the computer.
2. The vocabulary in the compositions was grouped into four lists.
3. The numbers of words in each base list were calculated in percentage terms

using the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage of word tokens} = \frac{\text{Total number of word tokens in each Base List} \times 100}{\text{Total number of word tokens in all informants}}$$

$$\text{Percentage of word types} = \frac{\text{Total number of word types in each Base List} \times 100}{\text{Total number of word types in all informants}}$$

$$\text{Percentage of word families} = \frac{\text{Total number of word families in each Base List} \times 100}{\text{Total number of word families in all informants}}$$

3.2 Analysis of morphological errors

The steps of the analysis of morphological errors were as follows:

3.2.1 The errors analyzed by the researcher covered five categories: morphological errors such as 1) incorrect suffix, 2) omission grammatical morphemes, 3) double marking, 4) regularizing, and 5) pronoun morphemes (Pongpairroj, 2002).

3.2.2 The number of errors of each type was counted.

3.2.3 The frequency of occurrence of errors in each composition was calculated in percentage terms using the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage of each type of error} = \frac{\text{Total number of errors}}{\text{Total number of word tokens in each composition}} \times 100$$

3.3 Investigation of Vocabulary Development

In order to see whether there was vocabulary development of the second and the third-year students in terms of vocabulary use, a statistical analysis of vocabulary use and morphological errors were conducted.

3.3.1 To examine the amount of vocabulary in the writing of each group of informants, the means and standard deviation of the following data were calculated:

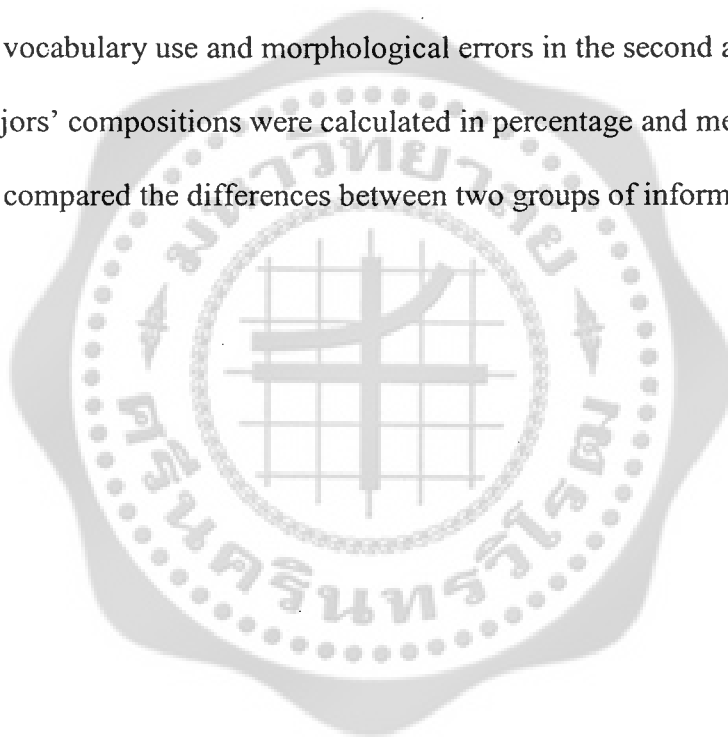
- Word tokens
- Word types
- Word families
- Word types found in Base List One
- Word types found in Base List Two
- Word types found in Base List Three
- Word types found in List Four
- Word families found in Base List One

- Word families found in Base List Two
- Word families found in Base List Three

3.3.2 To analyze the morphological errors in the informants' writing, the means and standard deviation of each error type were calculated.

3.3.3 The means of the above data were compared using the *t* test (the difference between two averages) to see whether the second and the third-year English majors would be significantly different from each other in terms of vocabulary use and morphological errors.

In short, vocabulary use and morphological errors in the second and the third-year English majors' compositions were calculated in percentage and means. Then, the *t* test, which compared the differences between two groups of informants, was used.



Chapter 4

Findings

This chapter presents the findings of the study, which are organized according to the following objectives stated in Chapter One.

1. The amount of vocabulary (i.e., word tokens, word types, and word families) in the compositions written by second and third-year English majors at SWU was analyzed.

2. Types and frequency of morphological errors found in both groups of informants' compositions were investigated.

3. Vocabulary development between both groups of informants was analyzed.

1. Vocabulary size

In order to study the amount of the vocabulary used by each level of students, word tokens in the informants' compositions were enumerated. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The Total Number of Word Tokens in All Informants' Compositions

Level	Number of word tokens
Second year	13,097
Third year	15,403

Table 1 displays the number of word tokens found in the compositions of the second and the third-year English majors. They were 13,097 and 15,403 word tokens respectively. It can be seen that the number of vocabulary items used in the third-year students' compositions was higher than that in the second-year students. On the whole, the third-year students could use about 2,000 word tokens more than the second-year students in their compositions.

To examine in detail what kinds of words were used by the informants, the word tokens used in the compositions were counted and then divided into four Base List groups. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Number of Word Tokens in Informants' Writing Grouped into Each Word List

Level	Base List One		Base List Two		Base List Three		List Four	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
2 nd year	12,230	93.4	484	3.7	140	1.1	243	1.9
3 rd year	14,322	93.0	565	3.7	237	1.5	279	1.8

It can be seen from Table 2 that the majority of the words in Base List One were produced by both groups of students. That is, the second-year students used 12,230 (93.4%) while the third-year students used 14,322 (93.0%) word tokens in Base List One. In Base List Two, both groups used 484 and 565 word tokens respectively which were of the same percentage at 3.7%. In Base List Three, the second-year students used 140 (1.1%) word tokens, whereas the third-year students used 237 (1.5%). In the fourth set of words, there were different word tokens between

both groups of informants. The second-year students used 243 (1.9%) word tokens, but the third-year students used 279 (1.8%) word tokens from the fourth set.

It can be said that both groups of students were rather familiar with basic and simple word tokens in Base List One. Words contained in Base List One are mostly elementary terms that allow a person to communicate at a basic level. In other words, by mastering Base List One, an individual can get along reasonably well in everyday life. However, with a level of vocabulary limited to Base List One, an individual will find it difficult to interact with English speakers in a professional context. Therefore, acquiring knowledge of English at a professional level would require mastering a large part of the items in Base List Two. Based on the evidence available, SWU English majors, even in their third year have a rather elementary level of English vocabulary. Compared vocabulary items between Base List One and Three, the third-year students could produce word tokens in Base List One fewer than the second-year students, but they could produce word tokens in Base List Three better than the second-year students. In other words, the third-year students were familiar with using academic words in Base List Three, whereas the second-year students were used to producing basic words in Base List One.

In order to examine further the number of the informants' vocabulary items, the vocabulary used in their compositions was categorized into word types. Table 3 shows the number of word types found in the informants' essays.

Table 3. The Total Number of Word Types in All Informants' Compositions

Level	Number of word types
Second year	5,002
Third year	6,001

As can be seen in Table 3, the number of word types (the occurrence of a word counted as only one word type although it appears twice in a text) used in the second and the third-year students' compositions were 5,002 and 6,001 respectively. While the level of vocabulary was largely elementary (mostly from Base List One) for both the second and the third-year students, Table 4 shows an improvement from one year to the next in vocabulary items used. This is shown by an increase of more than 1,000 word types between the two levels. Apparently, there is an improvement of vocabulary use by adding new vocabulary items.

To examine in detail what kinds of word types were used by both groups of informants, the researcher counted the number of word tokens used in the compositions in percentage, and then grouped the words into four base lists as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Number of Word Types in Informants' Compositions Grouped into Each

Level	Base List One		Base List Two		Base List Three		List Four	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
2 nd year	4,338	86.8	335	6.7	117	2.3	212	4.2
3 rd year	5,124	85.4	418	7.0	210	3.5	249	4.1

Table 4 shows that most of the word types used by both groups of informants contained in Base List One. That is, the second-year students used 4,338 (86.8%) word types, while the third-year students used 5,124 (85.4%) from this first list. In Base List Two, the second-year students used 335 (6.7%) word types, while the third-year students used 418 (7.0%). In Base List Three, the second-year students used 117

(2.3%) word types, whereas the third-year students used 210 (3.5%). In List Four, the second-year students used 212 (4.2%) word types, while the third-year students used 249 (4.1%). An interesting finding in Table 4 in percentage terms shows that the use of word types in Base List One decreases from 86.8% to 85.4% between second and third year levels. In contrast, the Table 4 also shows an increase from 2.3% to 3.5% between these two levels in the use of word types contained in Base List Three. It could be suggested that there was an improvement in vocabulary use from one year to the next.

Then, the vocabulary used in both groups of informants' compositions was classified into word families. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The Total Number of Word Families in All Informants' Compositions

Level	Number of word families
Second year	4,142
Third year	4,943

Table 5 displays that the number of word families found in the second and the third year's compositions were 4,142 and 4,943 respectively. Therefore, the third-year students could produce word families better than the second-year students. It could be concluded that the third-year students used more word families (about 800 words) than the second-year students.

To show what kinds of word families were used by both groups of informants, the researcher regrouped the word families used into four lists. The following table reveals the number of word families in each list.

Table 6. Number of Word Families in Informants' Compositions Grouped into Each Word List

Level	Base List One		Base List Two		Base List Three	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
2 nd year	3,708	89.5	323	7.8	111	2.7
3 rd year	4,346	87.9	411	8.3	200	4.0

Table 6 indicates that word families mostly found in both groups' compositions were those in Base List One because they were simple and basic words. That is, in Base List One the second-year students used 3,708 (89.5%) word families, while the third-year students used 4,346 (87.9%). Regarding Base List Two, the second-year students used 323 (7.8%) word families, while the third-year students used 411 (8.3%). In Base List Three, the second-year students used 111 (2.7%) word families, whereas the third-year students employed 200 (4.0%) word families. The results presented in Table 6 reveal findings similar to those from Table 4. The analysis of word families also shows a relative reduction (89.5% to 87.9%) in vocabulary items contained in Base List One from second to third-year students. Additionally, Table 6 shows a measurable relative increase (2.7% to 4.0%) in items from Base List Three. Thus, the analysis by word families tends to confirm the vocabulary improvement suggested in the analysis by word types.

The results presented in Tables 1 to 6 suggest that there is a measurable change in vocabulary use between second and third-year informants. This is indicated by clear increases in vocabulary items as measured by a total number of word tokens, types, and families. In addition, word type and word family analyses clearly show a relative decrease in vocabulary items from Base List One and a relative increase in

items from Base List Three. These two results suggest a richer vocabulary for third-year than for second-year informants. However, the improvement at the third-year students remains elementary as shown by very high percentage (in excess of 85%) of Base List One items, by any of the three measures (tokens, types, and families).

2. Morphological errors

Morphological errors were classified into five groups. They were using an incorrect derivational suffix, omitting grammatical morpheme, double marking, over-generalized grammatical rule, and incorrect pronominal case.

Examples of morphological errors are provided and discussed as follows:

1. A word with an incorrect derivational suffix:

- *There are many hospital [s].*
- *The bigger [biggest] amount of money may not mean the more [most] effective thing.*

2. A word without a grammatical morpheme:

- *Somebody like [s] to spend money.*
- *You will be very disappoint [disappointed].*

3. A word with double marking:

- *It can supports [support] my thinking about saving my money.*
- *It is depend [depends] on our lives.*

4. A word with an over generalized grammatical rule:

- *Don't attached [attach] to money.*
- *I didn't enjoyed [enjoy] my money.*

5. A word with an incorrect pronominal case

- *I can send they [them] to good schools.*

- They don't have money to raise themselves [themselves] when they are old.

One plausible explanation to account for the errors is that there is no inflectional system in Thai (Pongpaioj, 2002). For example, most students did not add -s after the plural noun such as *there are many hospital [s]* and -s or -es after the verb such as *somebody like [s] to spend money* because there is no such system (e.g., plurals and conjugations) in Thai.

In order to show the frequency of the informants' morphological errors in their compositions, the researcher analyzed and calculated the errors in percentage.

The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. The Total Number of Morphological Errors Found in All Informants'

Essays	Frequency of morphological errors	
	Level	No. %
Second-year	223	70.13
Third-year	95	29.87
Total	318	100.00

As can be seen in Table 7, the results indicate that the percentage of the overall morphological errors found in the second-year students' compositions was 70.13 % and the third-year students' compositions were 29.87% respectively. Based on the analysis of the data, the number of morphological errors found in the second year's compositions was higher than that of the third year's compositions. The results show that the second-year students' ability to use correct vocabulary is less than that of the third-year students.

To find the frequency of each type of errors in both groups of the informants, the researcher categorized the errors into five groups listed above. The frequency of each error type was counted as shown in Table 8.

Table 8. The Frequency of Morphological Errors Found in Both Groups of Informants' Compositions

Types of morphological errors	2 nd (%)		3 rd (%)		Frequency of occurrence	
	year		year		No.	%
Using an incorrect derivational suffix	88	39.46	37	38.95	125	* 39.31
Omitting grammatical morpheme	69	30.94	50	52.63	119	37.42
Double marking	18	8.07	1	1.05	19	5.97
Over-generalized grammatical rule	34	15.25	2	2.11	36	11.32
Incorrect pronominal case	14	6.28	5	5.26	19	5.97
Total	223	100.0	95	100.0	318	100.00

“*” indicates the highest percentage

The results in Table 8 indicate the total number of each type of morphological errors. Both the second and the third-year students produced 125 (39.31%) incorrect derivational suffixes, 119 (37.42%) omitting grammatical morphemes, 19 (5.97%) double markings, 36 (11.32%) over-generalized grammatical rules, and 19 (5.97%) incorrect pronominal cases. Therefore, it can be said that the incorrect derivational suffix was found to be the highest at 39.31% in both groups, followed by omitting grammatical morphemes (37.42%), over-generalized grammatical rules (11.32%), double marking and incorrect pronominal cases (5.97%). In addition, the number and the percentage of each type of morphological error

produced by both groups of the informants were classified as follows. First, an incorrect derivational suffix was the type of error with highest occurrence at 88 times (39.46%) by the second-year students and at 37 (38.95%) by the third-year students. Next, in terms of omitting grammatical morphemes, the second-year students made 69 (30.94%) errors, while the third-year students made 50 (52.63%). In double markings, the second-year students made 18 (8.07%) errors, while the third-year students did 1 (1.05%). Regarding the over-generalized grammatical rules, the second-year students made 34 (15.25%) errors, while the third-year students did 2 (2.11%). Finally, in terms of incorrect pronominal cases, the second-year students made 14 (6.28%) errors, while the third-year students made 5 (5.26%). Overall, the third-year students were better than the second-year students in terms of using correct vocabulary as indicated by clear improvement in incorrect derivational suffix, omitting grammatical morpheme, and over-generalized grammatical rule, whereas the total number of the double marking and the incorrect pronominal cases were equal.

3. Vocabulary development

In order to investigate the differences between vocabulary used by the second and the third-year SWU students, the researcher compared the vocabulary size and morphological errors in the essays by using an independent-sample *t* test. The means, standard deviations, and the degree of significance of the *p*-value were calculated. The means were considered significantly different between the two variables when the *p*-value, i.e. the significance of difference, was not higher than .05.

To find whether there was a difference in the vocabulary knowledge between the second and the third-year students, the researcher analyzed the total number of

word tokens and grouped the word tokens in each of the four lists. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics of Word Tokens in Each Base List of All Informants'

Writing

Level		Word tokens	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three	List Four
Second-year	Mean	327.43	305.75	12.10	3.50	6.08
	SD	62.48	57.54	4.43	2.51	4.94
Third-year	Mean	385.08	358.05	14.13	5.93	6.98
	SD	61.36	57.94	4.54	3.51	3.36
Sig.		0***	0***	0.047*	0.001***	0.344

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Table 9 shows the significant differences of the total word tokens and the number in each base list. Between the two groups of informants, significant differences were found in 1) total number of word tokens used ($p < .001$); 2) number of word tokens from Base List One ($p < .001$); 3) number of word tokens from Base List Two ($p < .05$); and 4) number of word tokens from Base List Three ($p = .001$). On the contrary, no significant differences between the two groups of informants were found in the fourth vocabulary set ($p = .344$). In addition to these results, Table 9 indicates that the third-year students could produce more word tokens in all regards, as shown by the mean statistics.

To find out if there was any development between the two groups of informants in their vocabulary knowledge, the total number of word types and the number of word types in the four word sets found in the compositions were compared. The results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics of Word Types in Each Base List of All Informants'

Writing

Level		Word types	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three	List Four
Second-year	Mean	125.05	108.45	8.38	2.93	5.30
	SD	21.70	17.10	3.13	2.04	4.13
Third-year	Mean	150.03	128.10	10.45	5.25	6.23
	SD	19.65	16.13	3.42	3.09	2.90
Sig.		0***	0***	0.006**	0***	0.25

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 10 summarizes means, standard deviations, and significant results of the words found in the second and the third-year students' compositions. A *t* test revealed significant differences between the two groups of informants at the $p < .001$ level for: 1) all word types used; 2) word types in Base List One; and 3) word types in Base List Three. Additionally, for word types in Base List Two, significant differences were found at the $p < .01$ level between the two groups of informants. However, the two groups of informants showed no significant differences regarding word types in the fourth vocabulary set ($p = .25$). In addition to these results, Table 10 indicates that third-year students could produce more word types in all regards as shown by the mean statistics.

Another comparison was conducted on the total number of word families and the number of word families in Base List One, Two, and Three contained in the informants' essays to determine the development of vocabulary knowledge between the two groups of informants. The fourth vocabulary set does not contain any word families. The results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Word Families in Each Base List of All

Informants' Writing

Level		Word families	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three	List Four
Second-year	Mean	103.55	92.70	8.08	2.78	0.00
	SD	15.96	14.21	2.86	1.85	0.00
Third-year	Mean	123.58	108.65	9.93	5.00	0.00
	SD	15.22	12.46	3.35	2.90	0.00
Sig.		0***	0***	0.01**	0***	0***

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Table 11 indicates that there was a significant difference between the two groups of informants in the total number of word families and the word families in Base List One and Three ($p<.001$). Also, there was a significant difference between the word families used by the two groups of informants in Base List Two ($p = .01$). As in the case of word tokens (Table 9) and types (Table 10), the results shown in Table 11 reveal that third-year students could produce a higher number of word families, both overall and under each of the three Base Lists of words. Therefore, the results in Tables 9 to 11 consistently show a strengthening of vocabulary use from the second to the third year of English majors at SWU based on the samples analyzed.

The development of the students' vocabulary was also considered from the standpoint of their morphological errors. The results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics of Morphological Errors Found in All Informants'

Writing

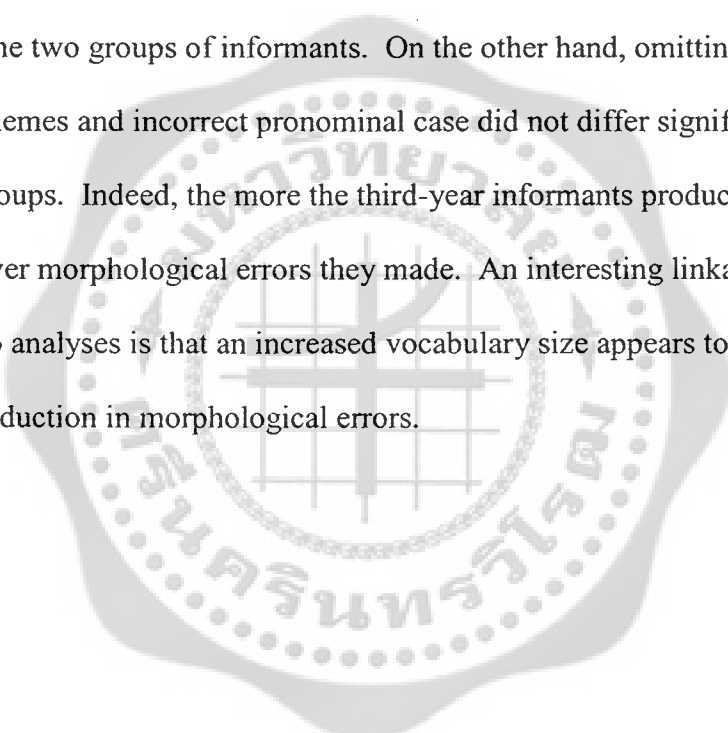
Types of errors		Second-year	Third-year	Sig.
Using an incorrect suffix	Mean	2.20	.93	** .005
	SD	2.27	1.44	
Omitting grammatical morphemes	Mean	1.73	1.25	.184
	SD	1.38	1.77	
Double marking	Mean	.45	.03	** .005
	SD	.90	.16	
Over-generalized grammatical rule	Mean	.85	.05	** .004
	SD	1.64	.22	
Incorrect pronominal case	Mean	.35	.13	.082
	SD	.74	.34	

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

The results in Table 12 indicate that morphological errors concerning using incorrect derivational suffixes, double marking, and over-generalized grammatical rules of the second-year students were statistically different from those of the third-year students at .01 levels. However, there was no significant difference between the two groups of informants in terms of omitting grammatical morphemes ($p = .184$) and incorrect pronominal case ($p = .082$). To illustrate, the mean of incorrect derivational suffixes in the second-year students was 2.20, while that in the third-year students was .93. Similarly, the mean of double marking errors made by the second-year students ($M = .45$) was higher than that of the third-year students ($M = .03$). In addition, the mean of over-generalized grammatical rules in the second-year students was .85, whereas that of the third-year students was .05.

In general, there was measurable development in terms of vocabulary size and morphological errors between the second and the third-year English majors at

Srinakharinwirot University. That is, the mean scores of word tokens, word types, and word families of students' vocabulary size sequentially increased from second to third-year informants. Nevertheless, when comparing word tokens and word types in the fourth vocabulary set, the results were non-significant. In other words, the word tokens and word types in List Four were not significantly different although the mean scores of word tokens and word types increased from second to third-year informants. Regarding the results of morphological errors, the use of incorrect derivational suffixes, double marking, and over-generalized grammatical rules were statistically different between the two groups of informants. On the other hand, omitting grammatical morphemes and incorrect pronominal case did not differ significantly between the two groups. Indeed, the more the third-year informants produced vocabulary, the fewer morphological errors they made. An interesting linkage revealed by the two analyses is that an increased vocabulary size appears to be consistent with a reduction in morphological errors.



Chapter 5

Conclusion and Discussion

Presented in this chapter are summary of the results, discussion, application, and suggestions for further studies. Compositions collected from the second and the third-year English majors were analyzed regarding their vocabulary use and morphological errors.

There were three objectives to investigate in this study. Based on the first objective, the amount of vocabulary (i.e., word tokens, word types, and word families) used in the informants' compositions was analyzed. There were 13,097 word tokens produced by the second-year students and 15,403 by those in the third-year. Regarding the total number of word types, 5,002 and 6,001 word types were produced by the second and third-year students respectively. Finally, the total number of word families found in the second and the third-year students' compositions were 4,142 and 4,943 respectively. From the analysis of the data, the third-year students could produce more word tokens, word types, and word families than the second-year students. However, the third-year students could produce fewer word tokens, types, and families than the second-year students in Base List One. In addition, when words in other base lists were compared, the highest numbers of word tokens, word types, and word families used by both groups of informants were highly concentrated on Base List One.

Regarding the second objective, the morphological errors found in both groups of informants' compositions were investigated in terms of types and frequency. The occurrences of using incorrect derivational suffixes were found in the second-year students at 39.46% and in the third-year students at 38.95%. The occurrences of

omission grammatical morphemes were found in the second-year students at 30.94% and in the third-year students at 52.63%. The second-year students made the errors of double marking at 8.07%, while the third-year students at 1.05%. Over-generalized grammatical rules found in the second-year students' compositions amounted to 15.25%, and to 2.11% in the third-year informants. Finally, the proportions of incorrect pronominal cases made by the second and the third-year informants were 6.28% and 5.26%, respectively. Therefore, the second-year students made more errors in all types than the third-year students. Additionally, the highest frequency of morphological errors made by both groups of informants as a whole was using incorrect derivational suffixes at 39.31%.

Finally, the third objective of this study was to find vocabulary development between the two groups of informants. The results showed that there were significant differences between both groups of informants in terms of word tokens, word types, and word families in Base List One, Two, and Three. Nevertheless, there was no significant difference between both groups in terms of word tokens and word types in the fourth vocabulary set. Regarding morphological errors, there were significant differences between second and third-year informants in terms of using incorrect derivational suffixes, double marking, and over-generalized grammatical rules. However, there were no significant differences in terms of omission grammatical morphemes and incorrect pronominal cases.

In brief, in regard to vocabulary use, the third-year students could produce more word tokens, word types, and word families than the second-year students. Additionally, there were significant differences between the two groups of informants in terms of all types of words in Base Lists One, Two, and Three. However, there were no significant differences in word tokens and word types in the fourth

vocabulary set. Regarding types of morphological errors, the second-year students made mostly errors in using incorrect derivational suffixes, whereas the third-year students made mostly errors of omission of grammatical morphemes. Moreover, for the second-year students errors of using incorrect pronominal cases were lowest, while for the third-year students errors of double marking were lowest. Thus, based on the statistical analysis of *t* test, there were significant differences between both groups of informants in terms of incorrect derivational suffixes, double marking, and over-generalized grammatical rules. Nevertheless, there were no significant differences between both groups of informants in terms of omission grammatical morphemes and incorrect pronominal cases.

Discussion

This section discusses the results of the study based on the three main objectives: 1) the amount of vocabulary; 2) morphological errors; and 3) vocabulary development.

Regarding the first objective, the results reveal that the third-year students could produce more word tokens, word types, and word families than the second-year students. When comparing words in each base list produced by both groups of informants in relative terms, the third-year students produced lower percentages of words in Base List One than second-year students (as measured by word tokens, types and families). However, words in Base List Two and Three revealed higher percentages for third-year students. These results support the idea that the third-year students are more able to use academic words, while the second-year students are more familiar with using basic and simple words. Nonetheless, word tokens, types,

and families found to be highly concentrated on Base List One were produced by both groups of informants.

To compare results with other studies, the present research results support Sujan's (2000) study which showed that word tokens, word types, and word families in Base List One were frequently produced by the four groups of informants. Moreover, the third-year students could produce an overall larger number of words than the second-year students. However, the present research results do not support Sujan's (2000) study in terms of the amount of words in Base List One, Two, and Three produced by the two groups of informants. If there is improvement of vocabulary use from the second to the third-year students, the proportion of words in Base List One produced by the third-year students should be fewer than that of the second-year students. Also, the proportion of words in Base Lists Two and Three should be used more by the third-year students. In contrast, Sujan's (2000) study there was a higher number of word tokens, types, and families produced by the third-year students in the three base lists. One plausible explanation is that the informants in Sujan's (2000) study did not possess the academic level needed for using words in Base List Two and Three fluently.

Next, according to the second objective, the descriptive statistics showed that the third-year students made fewer errors than the second-year students. To illustrate, incorrect derivational suffixes were most frequently found in the second-year students' compositions, while omission grammatical morphemes were most frequently found in the third-year students.

The results of the present study support the findings of a previous study conducted by Pongpairoj (2002), who analyzed morphological errors used in 100 English-major students' writing at Chulalongkorn University. The results of her study

revealed that using incorrect suffixes was most frequently found in the informants' compositions at 96.57%.

Finally, to address the third objective of this study, there were significant differences between the second and the third-year students in terms of vocabulary use and morphological errors. With respect to vocabulary use, both groups of informants can use more vocabulary, but the vocabulary used remains largely at an elementary level as shown by the high concentration on Base List One. Overall, there is an improvement in using vocabulary from the second-year students to the third-year students. Regarding morphological errors, the results revealed the ability to use correct vocabulary of the juniors' higher than the sophomores'. It might be implied that a lower level of morphological errors may be related to a higher level of vocabulary.

Application

To make students and teachers succeed in learning and teaching vocabulary, there are several possible methods suggested by the main outcomes of the study.

1. Students used a low number of words used in upper-secondary school and university texts (Base List Three) in the compositions. It is suggested that teachers should emphasize these words in teaching. For example, students should be asked to use these words in contexts in order that they can remember and write them automatically.

2. Using vocabulary notebooks may assist students to remember vocabulary in their writing. "Vocabulary notebooks were seen as one way of helping students to engage more meaningfully with the new words that they were being exposed to in their language learning experiences" (Fowle, 2002: 381). Thus, this method should

be taught to Thai students in order to make them able to recall and use new vocabulary later.

3. Insufficient continuous practice in English might cause Thai students to be less effective in writing. Therefore, teachers should stimulate students to have more practice in writing so that they will be able to develop new vocabulary in their writing.

4. The number of morphological errors has been found quite high in the junior students' compositions. It is recommended that students should read more textbooks, as well as a broader variety of articles in order to decrease their errors in compositions. Moreover, they should be encouraged to rewrite and figure out their own errors after they finish their compositions before submitting them to teachers (Suwattananand, Engchuan, & Soranastaporn, 2005).

5. Words applying incorrect derivational suffixes and omitting grammatical morphemes were largely written by both groups of students although these grammatical features have been taught extensively at every level of education. Therefore, to reduce these types of errors, vocabulary should be taught by giving teachers' feedback. For instance, teachers should give feedback to students' writing in order that students do not repeat the same errors.

6. Morphological errors were frequently made by both groups of informants. To reduce these errors, using correct suffixes and morphemes should be taught in contexts in order to make students observe the correct features of vocabulary.

Suggestions for Further Studies

1. In this study, the informants' vocabulary size in one short composition written by each informant was examined; therefore, the vocabulary knowledge of the

students found in the study may not be representative of the students' lexicon. In order to gain a more representative sample of students' vocabulary, studies should be conducted with a large number of students' compositions of different sizes or a wide variety of students' words from their portfolios.

2. In fact, Thai students have learned a relatively large number of English words in the classroom, but the results of this study showed that the students still had a lot of problems when using the language productively. Thus, studies of the relationship between receptive and productive vocabulary should be conducted to find if there is any discrepancy between the two.

3. To study vocabulary development, there should be a longitudinal study on students' vocabulary size and morphological errors after receiving systematic instructions of vocabulary and writing.

4. This study was conducted with only one same level group of informants, namely undergraduate students. Therefore, there should be similar research which uses students at other levels such as students in secondary schools or graduate schools.

5. In order to see a more effective method for helping students correctly use vocabulary, there should be a comparative study of "direct and indirect vocabulary" teaching of basic or general words (Lipson & Wixson, 1997: 554-555). Direct vocabulary involves activities in which teachers and students have a participation in learning in order to achieve a goal. Indirect vocabulary involves students' acquisition in contexts from outside class. The results will help teachers in terms of preparing materials, teaching techniques, and designing courses to suit the students' needs.

6. A comparative study of error analysis should be made in different majors, such as English majors and non-English majors. The results will be a guideline for

teachers enabling them to compare strategies in teaching between the students who are English and non-English majors' errors in compositions.

In short, the overall of conclusion, discussion, application, and suggestions for further studies are useful to both EFL/ESL students and teachers in vocabulary learning.





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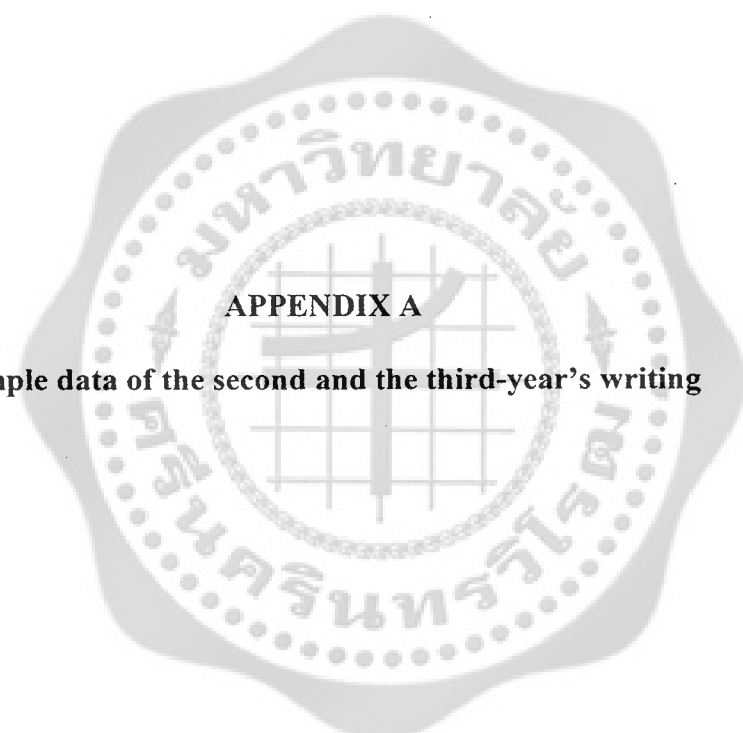
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APPENDIX A

Sample data of the second and the third-year's writing

The second year's compositions

1. In the daily life, money is a important thing for everyone. Money can exchange something that you want; including four necessary things in life- food, residents, clothes and medicines. Most of activities have to use money as well. Much or little money depends on each activities.

So I think that it is better to save our money for some time in the future. First, it's hard to earn money. In the society, people have the different way to living. Someone had to work hard for a whole month in order to earn money; these people will know the value of money and use it carefully. But some people get it easily; they will pay it easily, too. Second, we can use the money that we save when we have any problem. For example, we, our parents or our relatives are sick, we suffer from the disaster of natural, we are stolen something in the house by the thief. We can't know when they happen. And we don't have any money whenever we want if we don't save it. Finally, we will happy in our life because we have some money to use whenever we want or have some problems. So we don't need to borrow the other's money. It makes us sad when we can't find money to give back them. And we don't work hard when we are old.

These reasons may help you to know the value of money. We can see the important of money that we use everyday. It make use it more carefully. And we can say that money is the fifth necessary things in our life.

2. Nowadays, money is very important in our life. Everyone works to earn money for different proposes. Some are for enjoy their money and some are save their money for some time in the future. In my opinion if I earn money I will save my money for some time in my future because we couldn't know what will happen in our future. Sometimes if we have a problem we can use money to solve it. I know that money can't buy or do everything, but it is more and more important in our society because if you have money you will get many opportunity than the poor. For example, if you have money when you got, a serious sick the doctor can help you because you have money. Sometimes if you lost y our job you can continue your life without problem because you can use your money that you had saved before. I can see in our society that many people who earn money and save it for some time in the future. They will enjoy in their life because they don't have many problem. It is opposite from the one who enjoy their money they will have many problem. When they got in problem they usually solve their problem in the wrong way such as solve the problem by killing themselves, robbed, all of this will bring many problem into our society. This is why our society doesn't peaceful.

Money is very important in our life. We can't live without money. So, many people works for earn money to live. I think many people know how to earn money but this is not very important. The most important is how to use money because if you use it in the right way you will enjoy with you life.

3. "Money" is an important thing for me because it almost supports me everything. If I enjoy my money too much, I will not have much money to support me, and if I don't have money, I can't manage anything in my life anymore. So I think it is better to save my money for some time in the future, and I have many reasons that I think this.

First, if I get accident that I don't know when it happens, I can pay for save me, even though my family. But I can't do anything if I use money for my happiness and fun.

Second, I can keep my money for important chance, for example, my education, my family's birthday. These things make me happy in my bottom heart more than I will use money in wrong way.

Third, I will keep money for me when I'm old because I may not have anyone looks after me. I have to plan my future before it is too late. I'm sure that I'm not happy if I'm alone, and I don't want to live that is poor.

And last, if I have children, I would like to look after them well. I will give them education the most that I can. I will keep money and plan their future. They will become good adults in the future. I'm sure that they will look after me so, and I will be happy the most when that day arrives.

All things which I told, they are important things very much. If someone thinks same me, I believe that he will be happy in his life so much. If someone just thinks, but he doesn't do anything, there is not way that he will use his life happily. So I agree that it is better to save your money for some time in the future.

The third year's compositions

1. Nowadays money is the first thing that everyone would like to obsess it in every way. We can see many cases in the news that almost of people can rob, gamble, argue, kill, and compete because of money. It can make we easily understand that money is very essential in our world. In my opinion, if we save our money, we will gain four crucial advantages in our stable life, and why not we save our money for some time in the future.

First of all, I think that our life is uncertain, thus we will not know that what will happen in the future. What does the thing that we will confront it? For example, we may have an accident, or we may be sick. It is very important for planning our money to prepare the unexpected thing when it comes into our life. We will cope with it easily.

Next, saving money can increase our money when we deposit our money in the bank. We will get an interest from the bank. It is a benefit absolutely, and we have not to spend a lot time for earning it.

Then if we save our money, we will know a value of money more than the olden days. It is so difficult to save our money from a penny until much money. We dare not to buy a luxury thing which cannot develop our life. We will also understand our parent that they are very tired for saving money for their child.

Finally, we should save a great deal of money when we retire, or we are old. As we are old, we will not have a chance and ability for working like an adult. It is very good for saving money for some time in our future.

In conclusion, we can see obviously that money is very essential for our life as I have written for four benefits such as an uncertain thing, an interest, a value of money, and the old time. Now, it is a proper time for our to save our money for some time in the future, isn't it?

2. Many people can earn a lot of money for their living, but they never think about how they are going to spend it wisely much. They just enjoy spending it as much as they want. They buy many luxury things that are not necessary for their living. They

never think of the future. And they will find that their money magically disappears one day.

Is it better to save your money for some time in the future? No matter how much money you can earn, you better save some money for the rest of your life. Even though we don't know how long our lives will go on, we should arrange our present money for our future lives. The following are the reasons that support my opinion, and it might help you to decide that you will continue enjoying your money or you will begin to save your money.

First of all, you should save your money for some unexpected events in the future. Accidents are really unpredictable. You never know that there will be accidents in the future or not. If there are, and they are such terrible accidents, you must use a lot of money for treatment. You might have some money to pay for it for the first time, but how can you be sure that there won't be the second time or the third time? In addition, you should not think of accidents only but also your health. Every minute that pass quickly you are getting older and older. Your health in age of 60 can not be the same as your health when you were teenage. You are less strong and less healthy. You might get cancer or heart-attack disease. You will have to use much money for your operation. And you might have to take expensive imported medicines for long period.

Next, you might have to use a big amount of money for doing something important for your life. You might decide to do some small business. You might want to have your own business such as opening a small shop. You might invest to establish a company with your friends. In the future, you might need to buy a house for yourself or for your parents, and you have to use some money for your decoration. You might need to buy a car for your more comfortable life.

The last reason, but not least, is that you have to use much money for your family. Life after marriage isn't very easy. You will have a lot of expense. You have to spend your money to bring up your children. When they are in school age, you have to pay much money for their education. It takes many years to bring them up until they are adults and can earn money themselves.

Every reason I gave you is quite main and important. I hope that they might help you to consider spending money you earn. Even though it's not easy to change your habit, if you try, you will find it better to save your money for your future.

3. Nowadays, money has become an important factor in our daily lives. Many people work hard in order to earn more money, and each person spends money in different reason. Some uses money to afford their family. Some enjoys their money to some kinds of entertainment. Therefore, it depends on their conditions how to use money in the different way.

Whenever we earn money, we surely want to use them to buy the things that we want. However, we also want something to make sure that we will have a good life in the future. Therefore, we have to select whether we would enjoy our money as much as we want or collect them to use for some time in the future. You can choose the first one. That is to enjoy your money, buy everything you want, hang out with your friends, or have a party everynight. You can do all these things as long as you are sure that you can afford it and have strong financial condition. If so, just enjoy your money, but be careful with your spending that it will not damage anyone. For example, make sure that you will not spend your money in the wrong way. On the contrary, spending a lot of money without the advantage seems too extravagant and wasteful. Everyone will never know what would happen in the future, so it is better to

prepare yourself for it. Besides, saving your money for the future is one of important way because if there would be anything happen in the future, you may have to use your money in emergency. So be ready to face with the problem in the future.

In conclusion, we cannot point directly to enjoy your money or to collect it. As long as you always know how to cope with your money and think everytime before spending, you can not only enjoy your life with your money, but also you would have your spare money to use in the future at the same time.





APPENDIX B

Sample data of the second and the third-year's morphological errors

The second-year students' morphological errors

Incorrect derivational suffixes

Ex: *We suffer from the disaster of natural [e].

Ex: *Most people in the social [society] thought that money is god.

Ex: *I can spend my money to treat my healthy [health].

Omitting grammatical morphemes

Ex: *There are many hospital [hospitals].

Ex: *Everybody want [wants] to have a lot of money.

Ex: *The most important person [persons] are my parents.

Double marking

Ex: *It's can help my parents to reduce expense.

It can help my parents to reduce expense.

Ex: *They are always spend money.

They always spend money.

Over generalized grammatical rules

Ex: *You should to know our limit.

You should know our limit.

Ex: *It may make your dream comes true in some day.

It may make your dream come true in some day.

Incorrect pronominal cases

Ex: *They don't have money raise themselves when they are old.

They don't have money to raise themselves when they are old.

Ex: *I will buy things because it are useful for my life.

I will buy things because they are useful for my life.

The third-year students' morphological errors

Incorrect derivational suffixes

Ex: *We use to buy a things [thing].

Ex: *I need to save money for an accidently [accident] situation.

Ex: *Money is a part of importance [important] things.

Omitting grammatical morphemes

Ex: *You will be very disappoint [disappointed].

Ex: *Some people have never collect [collected] their money.

Ex: *Everybody accept [accepts] that money is important.

Double marking

Ex: *It is depend on our lives.

It depends on our lives.

Ex: *It's should be enough in sometime.

It should be enough in sometime.

Over generalized grammatical rules

Ex: *Everybody should to know that money is very important.

Everybody should know that money is very important.

Ex: *Money can make your life is happy.

Money can make your life happy.

Incorrect pronominal cases

Ex: It is proper time for our [us] to save our money.

Ex: They hardly think about the value of they [their] money they get.

Ex: You can help by using you [your] own money.



APPENDIX C

The VocabProfile Word Lists

Base List One

a	able	about	above	accept	accord
account	across	act	actual	add	address
admit	adopt	advance	advantage	affair	afford
after	again	against	age	ago	agree
air	all	allow	almost	alone	along
already	also	although	always	among	amount
ancient	and	animal	another	answer	any
appear	apply	appoint	April	arise	arm
army	around	arrive	article	as	ask
association	at	attack	attempt	August	average
away	back	bad	ball	bank	bar
base	battle	be	bear	beauty	because
become	bed	before	begin	behind	being
believe	belong	below	beneath	beside	best
better	between	beyond	big	bill	bird
bit	black	blood	blow	blue	board
boat	body	book	both	box	boy
branch	bread	break	bridge	bright	bring
brother	build	burn	business	but	buy
by	call	can	capital	car	care
carry	case	catch	cause	centre	certain
chance	change	character	charge	chief	child
choose	church	circle	city	claim	class
clean	clear	clock	close	club	coast
cold	color	come	command	common	company
compare	complete	concern	condition	connect	consider
contain	content	continue	control	corner	cost
could	council	count	country	course	count
cover	creature	cross	crowd	cry	current
custom	cut	dance	danger	dark	date
daughter	day	dead	deal	December	decide
declare	deep	degree	deliver	demand	describe
desert	desire	destroy	detail	determine	develop
die	difference	difficult	direct	discover	disease
distance	distinguish	district	divide	do	doctor
dog	door	double	doubt	down	draw
dream	dress	drive	drop	dry	due
during	each	ear	early	earth	east
easy	eat	edge	effect	effort	eight
either	eleven	else	employ	end	enemy
English	enjoy	enough	enter	entire	equal
escape	even	evening	event	ever	every
evil	example	excellent	except	exchange	exercise
exist	expect	expense	experience	experiment	explain
express	extend	eye	face	fact	factory
fail	fair	faith	fall	familiar	family

famous	farm	fashion	fast	favor	fear
February	feed	feel	fellow	few	field
figure	fill	find	fine	finger	finish
fire	first	fish	fit	five	fix
floor	flower	follow	food	for	force
forget	form	former	forth	fortune	four
free	Friday	friend	from	front	full
furniture	future	gain	game	garden	gate
gather	general	gentle	get	gift	give
glad	glass	go	god	gold	good
great	green	ground	grow	guard	habit
half	hall	hand	handle	hang	happen
happy	hard	hardly	have	he	head
health	hear	heat	heaven	heavy	hello
help	here	hide	high	hill	history
hold	home	honour	hope	horse	hot
hour	house	how	however	human	hundred
husband	idea	if	impossible	in	inch
include	increase	indeed	independent	influence	instead
intend	interest	into	introduce	iron	it
January	join	judge	July	June	just
justice	keep	kill	kind	know	lack
lady	land	language	large	last	late
law	lay	lead	learn	least	leave
left	length	less	letter	level	library
lie	life	lift	light	like	likely
limit	lime	listen	little	live	local
long	look	lose	lot	love	low
machine	main	make	man	manner	many
March	mark	market	marry	mass	material
matter	may	maybe	mean	measure	meet
member	memory	mention	mere	metal	middle
might	mile	million	mind	minister	minute
miss	modern	moment	Monday	money	month
more	moreover	morning	most	mother	motor
mountain	mouth	move	Mrs.	much	music
must	name	narrow	nation	native	nature
near	necessary	neck	need	neighbour	neither
never	next	night	nine	no	none
nor	north	not	note	November	now
number	object	observe	occasion	October	of
off	offer	office	often	oh	oil
old	on	once	one	only	open
operate	opinion	opportunity	or	order	ordinary
organize	other	other	otherwise	ought	out
over	owe	own	page	pain	paint
paper	part	partly	pass	past	pay
peace	people	perfect	perhaps	permanent	permit
person	picture	piece	place	plan	plant
play	please	point	political	poor	popular

population	position	possess	possible	post	power
practical	prepare	present	preserve	press	pressure
pretty	prevent	price	print	private	problem
produce	product	production	programme	progress	promise
proper	propose	protect	prove	provide	public
pull	purpose	put	quality	quarter	quiet
quite	race	raise	rank	rate	rather
reach	read	ready	real	reason	receive
recognize	record	red	reduce	refuse	regard
regular	relation	religion	remain	remark	remember
repeat	reply	report	represent	respect	rest
result	return	rich	ride	right	ring
rise	river	road	roll	room	rough
round	rule	run	rush	safe	sail
same	Saturday	save	say	scale	scarce
scene	school	science	sea	season	seat
second	secret	secretary	see	seem	seize
sell	send	sense	sensitive	September	serious
serve	service	set	settle	seven	several
shadow	shake	shall	shape	share	she
shine	shoe	shoot	shore	short	should
shoulder	show	side	sight	sign	silence
silver	simple	since	single	sit	situation
six	size	skill	sky	sleep	slight
slow	small	smile	so	social	society
soft	soil	some	son	soon	sort
sound	south	space	speak	special	speed
spend	spirit	spite	spot	spread	spring
square	stage	stand	standard	start	state
stay	steel	step	stick	still	stock
stone	stop	store	storm	story	straight
strange	stream	street	strength	strike	strong
struggle	study	subject	substance	succeed	such
sudden	suffer	suggest	summer	sun	Sunday
supply	support	suppose	sure	surface	surprise
surround	sweet	system	table	take	talk
taste	teach	tear	tell	ten	term
terrible	test	than	that	the	then
there	therefore	they	thing	think	thirteen
thirty	this	though	thousand	three	through
throw	Thursday	thus	to	today	together
too	top	total	touch	toward	town
trade	train	travel	tree	trouble	trust
try	Tuesday	turn	twelve	twenty	two
type	typical	under	understand	unfortunate	union
unite	university	unless	until	up	upon
use	usual	valley	value	variety	various
vary	view	village	visit	voice	vote
wait	walk	wall	want	war	warn
waste	watch	water	wave	way	we

weak	wear	Wednesday	week	welcome	well
west	western	what	when	whether	which
while	white	who	why	wide	wife
wild	will	willing	win	wind	window
wing	winter	wise	wish	with	within
without	wonder	wood	word	work	world
worse	worth	would	write	wrong	year
yellow	yes	yet	you	young	

Base List Two

abroad	absence	absent	absolute	absolutely	accident
accuse	accustom	ache	admire	advantage	advertise
advertisement	advice	aeroplane	afraid	afternoon	agent
agriculture	ahead	aim	airplane	alike	alive
aloud	altogether	ambition	amongst	amuse	anger
angle	angry	annoy	anxiety	anxious	apart
apology	apologize	applaud	applause	apple	approve
approval	arch	argue	argument	arrange	arrangement
arrest	arrow	artificial	ash	ashamed	aside
asleep	astonish	astonishment	attend	attentive	attention
attract	attractive	audience	aunt	autumn	avenue
avoid	avoidance	awake	axe	baby	bag
baggage	bake	balance	band	barrier	bare
bargain	barrel	basin	basket	bath	bathe
bay	beam	bean	beard	beast	beat
beg	behave	behaviour	bell	belt	bend
bicycle	billion	bird	birth	bite	bitter
blade	blame	bless	blind	block	boast
boil	bone	boarder	borrow	bottle	bottom
boundary	bow	bowl	brain	brass	brave
breakfast	breath	breathe	bribe	brick	broad
broadcast	brother-in-law	Christmas	civilize	classify	clay
cliff	climb	cloth	cloud	coal	coarse
coat	coffee	coin	collar	collect	colony
comb	combine	comfort	commerce	committee	companion
compete	complain	complicated	compose	confess	confidence
confuse	congratulate	conquer	conscience	conscious	convenience
conversation	cook	cool	copper	copy	cork
corn	correct	cottage	cotton	cough	courage
cousin	cow	coward	crack	crash	cream
creep	crime	critic	crop	crown	cruel
crush	cultivate	cup	cure	curious	curl
curse	curtain	curve	cushion	customer	dad
damage	damp	deaf	dear	debt	decay
deceive	decrease	deed	deer	defeat	defend
delay	delicate	delight	department	descend	deserve
desk	despair	devil	diamond	dictionary	dig
dinner	dip	dirt	disappoint	discipline	discuss

disgust	dish	dismiss	disturb	ditch	dine
dollar	donkey	dot	dozen	drag	drawer
drink	drown	drum	duck	dull	dust
duty	eager	earn	earnest	ease	educate
efficient	egg	elastic	elder	elect	electric
elephant	empire	empty	enclose	encourage	engine
entertain	envelope	envy	especial	essence	essential
exact	examination	excess	excite	excuse	explode
explore	explosion	extra	extraordinary	extreme	fade
faint	false	fan	fancy	far	farther
fasten	fat	fate	father	fault	feast
feather	female	fence	fever	fight	film
firm	flag	flame	flash	flat	flavor
flesh	float	flood	flour	flow	fly
fold	fond	fool	foot	forbid	forest
forgive	fork	formal	forward	frame	freeze
frequent	fresh	fright	fruit	fry	fun
funeral	fur	furnish	gallon	gap	garage
gas	gay	generous	girl	glory	goat
govern	grace	gradual	grain	gram	grammar
grand	grass	grateful	grave	grease	greed
greet	grey	grind	guess	guest	guide
guilty	gun	hair	hammer	handkerchief	harbor
harm	harvest	haste	hat	hate	hay
heal	heat	heart	height	hesitate	hinder
hire	hit	hole	holiday	hollow	holy
honest	hook	horizon	hospital	host	hotel
humble	hunger	hunt	hurry	hurt	hut
ice	ideal	idle	ill	imagine	imitate
immediate	immense	important	improve	industry	inform
ink	inn	inquire	insect	inside	instant
instrument	insult	insure	interfere	international	interrupt
invent	invite	inward	island	jaw	jealous
jewel	joint	joke	journey	joy	juice
jump	key	kick	kilogram	kilometre	king
kiss	kitchen	knee	kneel	knife	knock
knot	ladder	lake	lamp	landlady	landlord
latter	laugh	lazy	learn	leaf	leg
lend	lessen	lesson	liberty	lid	limb
lip	liquid	literature	litre	load	lord
loss	loan	lock	lodging	log	lone
loose	loud	loyal	luck	lump	lunch
lung	mad	mail	male	manage	manufacture
map	master	mat	match	meal	meantime
meanwhile	meat	mechanic	medicine	melt	mend
merchant	mercy	merry	message	metre	mild
milk	mill	millilitre	millimetre	miner	miserable
mistake	mix	model	modest	moon	moral
motion	mouse	mud	multiply	murder	mystery
nail	neat	needle	neglect	nephew	nest

net	nice	noble	noise	nonsense	noon
nose	noun	nuisance	nurse	nut	oar
obey	ocean	offend	official	omit	onto
onward	oppose	opposite	organ	origin	ornament
overcome	outline	overflow	pack	pad	pair
pale	pan	parcel	pardon	parent	park
particular	passage	passenger	paste	path	patient
pattern	pause	paw	pearl	peculiar	pen
pencil	penny	per	perform	pet	photograph
pig	pick	pigeon	pile	pinch	pint
pipe	pity	plain	plane	plaster	plough
plural	pocket	poem	poison	practice	president
probable	procession	profession	profit	prompt	pronounce
property	proud	pump	punctual	punish	pupil
pure	purple	push	puzzle	qualify	quantity
quarrel	quart	queen	question	quick	rabbit
radio	rail	rain	rake	rapid	rare
raw	ray	razor	realize	really	recommend
receipt	refer	reflect	refresh	regret	rejoice
relieve	remedy	remind	rent	repair	replace
reproduce	republic	reputation	request	reserve	resign
resist	responsible	restaurant	retire	revenge	review
reward	ribbon	rice	rid	ripe	risk
rival	roar	roast	rob	rock	rod
roof	root	rope	rot	row	royal
rub	rubber	rubbish	rude	rug	ruin
rust	sacred	sacrifice	sad	saddle	sake
salary	sale	salt	sample	sand	satisfy
sauce	saucer	saw	scatter	scent	scissors
scold	scorn	scrape	scratch	screen	screw
search	seed	self	sentence	serve	sew
shade	shallow	shame	sharp	sheep	sheet
shelf	shell	shelter	shield	shilling	ship
shirt	shock	shop	shout	shower	shut
sick	signal	silk	sincere	sing	sink
skin	skirt	slave	slide	slip	slope
smell	smoke	smooth	snake	snow	soap
sock	soldier	solemn	solid	solve	sore
sorry	soul	soup	sour	sow	spade
spake	spell	spill	spin	spit	splendid
split	spoil	spoon	sport	staff	stain
stairs	stamp	star	station	steady	steam
steap	steer	stem	stiff	sting	stir
stocking	stomach	stove	strap	straw	strict
string	strip	stripe	stroke	stuff	stupid
suck	sugar	suit	supper	suspect	swallow
swear	sweat	sweep	swell	swim	swing
sword	sympathy	tail	tall	tame	tap
tax	taxi	tea	telegraph	telephone	temper
temperature	temple	tempt	tend	tender	tent

thank	theatre	thick	thief	thin	thirst
thorn	thorough	thread	threat	throat	thumb
thunder	ticket	tide	tidy	tie	tight
till	tin	tip	tire	title	tobacco
toe	tomorrow	ton	tongue	tonight	tool
tooth	tough	tour	towel	tower	toy
track	translate	trap	tray	treasure	treat
tremble	trail	tribe	trick	trip	truck
true	trunk	tube	tune	twist	ugly
umbrella	uncle	unit	universe	upper	upright
upset	urge	vain	veil	verb	verse
vessel	victory	violent	virtue	vowel	voyage
wage	waist	wake	wander	warm	wash
wax	weapon	wealth	weather	weave	weed
weigh	wet	wheat	wheel	whip	whisper
whistle	whole	wicked	widow	wine	wipe
wire	witness	wool	worm	worry	wound
wreck	wrist	worship	wrap	yield	zero

Base List Three

abandon	abnormal	absorb	abstract	academic	accelerate
access	accompany	accomplish	accumulate	accurate	achieve
acid	acquire	adapt	adequate	adhere	adjacent
adjective	adjust	administer	adolescent	adult	advocate
affect	affiliate	affluence	aggregate	aggression	agitate
aid	alcohol	align	allege	alliance	allocate
allude	ally	alphabet	alter	alternative	ambiguity
amorphous	analogy	analyze	angular	anomaly	anonymous
apparatus	appeal	append	appendix	appreciate	approach
approximate	area	aristocrat	arithematic	arouse	ascribe
aspect	aspire	assemble	assent	assess	asset
assign	assimilate	assist	assume	assure	astronomy
atmosphere	atom	attach	attain	attitude	attribute
auspices	author	authorise	automatic	avail	available
averse	aware	awe	axis	battery	benefit
biology	bomb	bore	bread	bubble	bulk
bureaucracy	calendar	cancel	capable	capacity	capture
carbon	career	catalogue	category	cater	cease
cell	challenge	channel	charter	chemical	circuit
circumstance	civic	clarify	classic	client	clinic
code	coefficient	cogent	coincide	collapse	collide
colloquial	column	comment	commission	commit	commodity
commune	communicate	community	compel	compensate	competence
complement	complex	complicate	comply	component	compound
comprehend	comprise	compulsion	compute	conceive	concentrate
concept	conclude	condense	conduct	confer	configuration
confine	conflict	conform	confront	congress	conjunction
consent	consequent	conserve	consist	console	constant

constitute	construct	construe	consult	consume	contact
contaminate	contemplate	contend	context	contingent	contract
contradict	contrary	contrast	contribute	controversy	convene
converge	convert	cooperate	coordinate	correlate	correspond
create	credible	creditor	crisis	criterion	criticise
crucial	crystal	culture	cumbersome	currency	cycle
cylinder	data	debate	decade	decimal	decline
dedicate	deflect	defer	deficient	define	definite
deflect	degenerate	deliberate	democracy	demonstrate	denominator
denote	dense	deny	depress	deprive	derive
design	detect	detriment	deviate	device	devise
devote	diagram	diameter	dictate	diffuse	digest
dimension	discern	discourse	dispense	disperse	displace
dispose	dispute	dissipate	dissolve	distinct	distort
distribute	diverge	diverse	divine	doctrine	domestic
dominate	drain	drama	drastic	drug	durable
duration	dynamic	economy	edit	elaborate	electronic
element	elicit	eliminate	eloquent	emancipate	embody
emerge	emigrant	emotion	emphasize	empirical	enable
energy	enhance	enlighten	enrich	ensure	entity
enumerate	environment	episode	equate	equation	equidistant
equilibrium	equipment	err	establish	estate	estimate
ethics	evaluate	evaporate	eventual	evident	evoke
exclude	execute	exert	exhaust	expand	expel
expert	explicit	exploit	exponent	export	expose
external	extract	facilitate	faction	fallacy	fare
feasible	feature	federal	fertile	final	finance
finite	fluctuate	fluent	fluid	focus	forgo
formula	formulate	fossil	foundation	fraction	fragment
fraternal	fraud	friction	frontier	frustrate	fuel
fulfill	function	fund	fundamental	fuse	generate
genuine	geography	geometry	germ	goal	grant
graph	gravity	guarantee	hemisphere	heredity	hero
hierarchy	homogeneous	horror	hostile	huge	hypothesis
identical	identity	ignorant	ignore	illuminate	illustrate
image	immigrate	impact	imperial	implement	implication
implicit	imply	import	impost	impress	impressive
impulse	incentive	incessant	incident	incidental	incline
income	incompatible	inconsistent	incorporate	index	indicate
indigenous	individual	induce	infer	inferior	inflation
ingenious	inherent	inherit	inhibit	initial	initiate
injure	injustice	innate	innovation	insist	inspect
instance	instinct	instruct	integer	integrate	intellect
intelligent	intelligible	intense	interact	interlock	interlude
intermediate	internal	interpret	interrelate	intersect	interval
intervene	interview	intimacy	intrinsic	intuitive	invade
inverse	invest	investigate	invoke	involve	irrigate
isolate	issue	item	job	journal	judicial
justify	kindred	knight	label	laboratory	labour
launce	layer	lecture	legal	legislate	legitimate

leisure	lens	liberal	liberate	linguistic	litigate
locate	locomotion	logic	luxury	magic	magnetic
magnitude	maintain	major	majority	manifest	manipulate
margin	maternal	mathematics	matrix	mature	maximum
medium	mental	metabolism	metaphor	method	microscope
migrate	military	minimum	minor	mobile	modify
moist	molecule	momentum	monarch	morphology	motive
muscle	myth	navy	negative	negotiate	nerve
network	neutral	niche	norm	normal	notate
notion	novel	nuclear	null	nutrient	objective
oblige	obsolete	obtain	obvious	occupy	occur
odd	odour	option	orbit	orientate	oscillate
outcome	overlap	oxygen	parenthesis	parliament	participate
partisan	passive	peasant	pendulum	period	perpendicular
perpetrate	perpetual	persist	perspective	pertain	pertinent
pervade	pest	phase	phenomenon	philosophy	physical
planet	plead	plot	pole	policy	pollution
port	portion	positive	postulate	potential	pragmatic
precede	precipitate	precise	preliminary	premise	preposition
prestige	presume	prevail	previous	primary	prime
primitive	principle	prior	proceed	process	proclaim
procure	prohibit	project	propagate	propensity	proportion
proprietor	prosper	protest	province	provoke	prudence
psychology	publish	purport	pursue	quote	radiant
radical	radius	random	range	ratio	rational
react	rebel	rectangle	recur	reform	refute
region	reign	reinforce	reject	release	relevance
reluctant	rely	remove	render	repress	repudiate
require	research	reservoir	reside	residue	resource
respective	respond	restore	restrict	retain	retard
reveal	reverberate	reverse	revise	revive	revolt
rhythm	rigid	rigour	role	rotate	route
rudimentary	rural	saint	sanction	satellite	saturate
schedule	scheme	score	secret	section	secure
seek	segment	select	sequence	series	sex
shift	shrink	sibling	signify	similar	simultaneous
site	skeleton	sketch	sociology	solar	sophisticated
source	sovereign	spatial	specify	spectrum	speculate
sphere	spontaneous	stable	starve	stationary	statistic
status	stereotype	stimulate	stipulate	strata	stress
structure	style	subdivide	subjective	subordinate	subsequent
subside	subsidize	subtle	suburb	suffice	sum
summary	superficial	superimpose	superior	supplement	suppress
supreme	surplus	survey	suspend	sustain	switch
symbol	symptom	synthetic	tangent	tangible	tape
task	team	technique	technology	telescope	temporary
tense	tentative	terminology	territory	terror	text
texture	theft	theorem	theory	thermal	tiny
tissue	tolerate	tone	topic	trace	tractor
tradition	traffic	trait	transact	transfer	transform

transparent	transport	treaty	trend	triangle	trivial
tropical	tyre	ultimate	undergo	underlie	undertake
unduly	uniform	unify	upsurge	urban	usage
utility	utilize	utter	vague	valid	vary
vast	vein	velocity	verbal	verify	version
vertical	vibrate	violate	virtual	visible	vision
visual	vital	vocabulary	volume	voluntary	withdraw
x-ray					





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