

AN ANALYSIS OF VOCABULARY USED IN RAJABHAT INSTITUTE
MAHASARAKHAM ENGLISH MAJORS' WRITING

A THESIS

BY

PATTARAPORN SUJAN

Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
Master of Arts degree in English
at Srinakharinwirot University

March 2000

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AN ABSTRACT

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Dr. Sirinan Srinaowaratt, Dr. Sutassi Smuthkochorn.

The purposes of the study were to analyze the amount of vocabulary and lexical errors in the informants' writing and to investigate the informants' vocabulary development through the vocabulary size and errors found. One hundred and forty-six first to fourth-year English majors at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham were asked to write a two-hour essay. Eighty essays, twenty from each level, were randomly selected to analyze vocabulary size by using the software program, VocabProfile. This program groups words into four word lists: Base List One includes the first 1,000 most frequent words, Base List Two includes the next 1,000 most frequent words, Base List Three includes words which are frequently used in the upper secondary and university texts, and List Four are words which are not in the three lists. Forty essays, ten from each level, were randomly selected for analysis of lexical errors. Then the cross-sectional vocabulary development was investigated from the comparison of vocabulary size and lexical errors found, using the statistics ANOVA. The results revealed that most of the words used by all groups of students were words in Base List One whereas a much smaller number of words in Base List Two, Base List Three and List Four were used. Regarding lexical errors, tense errors were mostly found, followed by meaning errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors and errors of extra/omitted words respectively. However, even though the students used mostly the words in Base List One, which are basic, simple words, there was evidence that the

fourth-year students could produce a wider variety of difficult words in Base List Three, and the frequency of some types of their errors was lower than that of the students in the lower levels. Thus, the results indicated that there was some progress in the cross-sectional development of the informants' vocabulary.

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การวิเคราะห์คำศัพท์ที่ใช้ในงานเขียนเรียงความภาษาอังกฤษของ
นักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษสถาบันราชภัฏมหาสารคาม

บทคัดย่อ

ของ

ภัทราภรณ์ สุจันทร์

เสนอต่อบัณฑิตวิทยาลัยมหาวิทยาลัยศรีนครินทรวิโรฒ เพื่อเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษา
ตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต วิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ
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การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อวิเคราะห์จำนวนคำศัพท์และข้อผิดพลาดในการใช้คำศัพท์ในงานเขียนของนักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ สถาบันราชภัฏมหาสารคาม ชั้นปีที่ 1 ถึง 4 จำนวน 146 คน เพื่อสืบค้นว่ามีพัฒนาการด้านคำศัพท์หรือไม่

ในการวิจัยครั้งนี้ได้ให้นักศึกษาเขียนเรียงความตามหัวข้อที่กำหนด ภายในเวลา 2 ชั่วโมง จากงานเขียนทั้งหมดสุ่มคัดเลือกมาชั้นปีละ 20 คน รวมทั้งหมด 80 คน เพื่อนำมาวิเคราะห์จำนวนคำศัพท์ โดยใช้โปรแกรมคอมพิวเตอร์ VocabProfile ช่วยในการวิเคราะห์ โปรแกรมนี้จัดรวบรวมคำศัพท์ไว้ 4 กลุ่ม และจะแบ่งคำศัพท์ที่พบในงานเขียนเข้าตามกลุ่ม คือ กลุ่มที่ 1 (Base List One) เป็นคำศัพท์ที่ใช้ทั่วไปและมีความถี่ในการปรากฏสูง 1,000 คำแรก ในภาษาอังกฤษ กลุ่มที่ 2 (Base List Two) เป็นคำศัพท์ 1,000 คำ ที่มีความถี่สูงเป็นลำดับที่ 2 กลุ่มที่ 3 (Base List Three) คือคำศัพท์ที่ปรากฏในตำราระดับสูงคือ ระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอนปลายและมหาวิทยาลัย กลุ่มที่ 4 เป็นคำศัพท์ที่ไม่ปรากฏในกลุ่มใดที่กล่าวมา การวิเคราะห์ข้อผิดพลาดในการใช้คำศัพท์แบ่งข้อผิดพลาดในการใช้คำศัพท์เป็น 5 ประเภทคือ ข้อผิดพลาดในเรื่องกาลของกริยา (tense), ชนิดของคำ (part of speech), คำที่เกิดคู่กัน (collocation), คำที่เกินมาหรือขาดหายไป (extra/omitted words) และ ด้านความหมายของคำศัพท์ (meaning) โดยวิเคราะห์จากเรียงความทั้งหมด 40 เรื่อง ซึ่งสุ่มจากทุกชั้นปีละ 10 เรื่อง จากนั้นนำผลการวิเคราะห์จำนวนคำศัพท์และข้อผิดพลาดในการใช้คำศัพท์มาวิเคราะห์เปรียบเทียบพัฒนาการด้านคำศัพท์แบบภาคตัดขวางของนักศึกษาทั้ง 4 กลุ่มโดยใช้สถิติการวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวน (ANOVA)

ผลการวิจัยพบว่าคำศัพท์ที่ใช้มากที่สุดในทุกชั้นปีคือคำศัพท์ในกลุ่มที่ 1 ส่วนคำศัพท์ที่มีความถี่ในลำดับถัดมาในทั้ง 3 กลุ่มใช้เป็นจำนวนน้อยมาก ในด้านข้อผิดพลาดของการใช้คำศัพท์ปรากฏว่ามีการใช้คำศัพท์ผิดมากที่สุดในเรื่อง กาลของกริยา (tense) รองลงมาคือด้านความหมาย (meaning) การใช้ชนิดของคำ (part of speech) คำที่เกิดคู่กัน (collocation) และ คำที่เกินมาหรือขาดหายไป (extra/omitted words) ผลการวิจัยในเรื่องพัฒนาการด้านคำศัพท์แบบภาคตัดขวางของนักศึกษาอาจสรุปได้ว่ามีพัฒนาการทางด้านคำศัพท์เพิ่มขึ้นบ้างเล็กน้อย ทั้งนี้เนื่องจากยังพบข้อผิดพลาดในงานเขียนของนักศึกษามากทั้ง ๆ ที่คำศัพท์ที่ใช้ในส่วนใหญ่นั้นเป็นศัพท์ง่าย นอกจากนี้ยังมีข้อผิดพลาดบางประเภทของนักศึกษาชั้นปีที่สูงขึ้นสูงกว่าชั้นปีที่ต่ำกว่า

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Masarakham English Majors' Writing

By

Miss Pattaraporn Sujan

The Graduate School has approved this thesis as partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Master of Arts degree in English at Srinakharinwirot University.

..... *Sermsak Wisalaporn* Dean of the Graduate School

(Professor Dr. Sermsak Wisalaporn)

10 March 2000

Oral Defense Committee

..... *Sirinan Srinaowaratt* Chair

(Dr. Sirinan Srinaowaratt)

..... *Sutassi Smuthkochorn* Co-advisor

(Dr. Sutassi Smuthkochorn)

..... *Penny D.* Reader

(Assist. Prof. Penny Disakaprakai)

..... *Sirinna Boonyasaquan* Reader

(Mrs. Sirinna Boonyasaquan)

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background.....	1
Objectives of the Study.....	4
Significance of the Study.....	4
Scope of the Study.....	5
Definitions of Terms.....	5
2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	11
Vocabulary Acquisition and Development.....	11
Vocabulary Teaching.....	14
Characteristics of English Vocabulary which are Problematic for Thai Students.....	21
Research on Lexical Errors in ESL/EFL Students' Composition.....	23
3 METHODOLOGY.....	26
1. Accumulation of Data.....	26
2. Data Analysis.....	26
4 FINDINGS.....	34

Chapter	Page
4 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	54
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	63
APPENDIX.....	69
VITA.....	92

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 The amount of vocabulary used in the example paragraph.....	29
2 Lexical errors found in the informants' writing.....	32
3 The number of word tokens in the informants' writing.....	35
4 The number of word tokens in the informants' writing divided into word lists.....	36
5 The number of word types in the informants' writing.....	37
6 The number of word types in the informants' writing divided into word lists.....	38
7 The number of word families in the informants' writing.....	39
8 The number of word families in the informants' writing divided into word lists.....	40
9 Total number of lexical errors found in the informants' writing.....	46
10 Frequency of occurrence of each error type.....	47
11 Frequency of occurrence of lexical errors found in the informants' writing.....	48
12 Comparison of the total number of word tokens and word tokens in the informants' writing.....	49
13 Comparison of the total number of word types and word types in the informants' writing.....	50
14 Comparison of the total number of word families and word families in the informants' writing.....	51
15 Comparison of lexical errors found in the informants' writing.....	52

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1 The informants' vocabulary knowledge on the topic "Friendship Beyond Frontiers".....	45

Chapter 1

Introduction

Background

Vocabulary is considered the basic medium in communication by which humans use to express their ideas, emotions and experiences (Nault. 1982). Inadequate knowledge of vocabulary may cause reading difficulties and consequently render comprehension problems (Dawson. 1998: 1). Also, as Witte and Faigley (1980) point out, weak writers do not have “working vocabularies capable of extending, in ways prerequisite for good writing, the concepts and ideas they introduce in their essays.” As such, having a limited vocabulary also affects the student’s writing quality. Such conclusions correspond with Thai research by Nithipong (1973), Saptaweeponboon (1973) and Chotipong (1987) which revealed vocabulary as a major problem of Thai students’ English reading and writing skills. Moreover, personal experience as an English teacher has shown that when students read an English passage, most of them cannot understand the text well because they do not know the meaning of most of the vocabulary. When they write in English, they cannot use appropriate English words to express the meaning they want. Hence, many Thai students do not like reading and writing. However, they cannot avoid these two skills because they are important in the process of learning and using the English language.

From the above discussion, it would seem that the limited English vocabulary of Thai students is the culprit for the disappointing results in their study of English. This leads to another point of consideration: What size of vocabulary is considered

appropriate for English learners? Nagy and Anderson (1984) estimate that undergraduate native speakers should know approximately 20,000 words, and that their vocabulary should increase by 1,000-2,000 words per year or 3-7 words per day. For those who study English as a second or foreign language (henceforth ESL/EFL students or learners), several figures concerning vocabulary size have been proposed. For example, Laufer and Shmueli (1997) state that high school graduates in the English Western World should know around 3,000 - 3,500 word families, while word families are defined as the head words with their inflected and derived forms; for example, succeed, success, successful and successfully are counted as one word family with the head word succeed (Laufer and Nation. 1995). Moreover, O'Shea (1974) suggests that EFL/ ESL intermediate students should know 2,000 words and their vocabulary should increase by at least 3,000 words when they study in a university. Regarding Thai EFL learners, Durr (1977) proposes that intermediate Thai students should know 2,000 words. However, the result of Yodnil's (1980) study of vocabulary recognition of 279 first-year students at Srinakharinwirot University, Prasarnmit, revealed that the students knew an average of 1,700 words, which was 300 words fewer than the number recommended by Durr (1977), 1,000 - 1,500 words fewer than that suggested by Laufer and Shmueli (1997) for EFL/ESL students, and 18,000 words fewer than the number for native speakers as estimated by Nagy and Anderson (1984). Therefore, Thai students' vocabulary is much smaller than it should be.

It is quite obvious that EFL/ESL learners' limited vocabulary is a cause for difficulties students encounter in reading and writing. For example, because of the difference in vocabulary size between native and non-native speakers, a 10-to-20-

minute reading task for a native speaker becomes a 1- to-2 hour ordeal for the non-native speaker (Crow and Quigley. 1985). And also, when they have to write, particularly under time constraint, they can produce only short essays consisting mainly of basic, simple words.

Besides their having a limited number of English vocabulary, EFL/ESL learners also face problems with vocabulary usage. Teemant (1988) studied lexical errors in ESL compositions and concluded that students made three types of lexical errors: errors in distribution (e.g. extra and omitted words, tense, and collocation), errors in meaning, and orthography. Similarly, Navasumrit (1989) stated that the vocabulary problems observed by many Thai English teachers were errors related to syntactical structure, collocation, and meaning.

Apparently, it should be that along the process of language learning, one's vocabulary problems/errors should decrease through time while the number of words should increase. However, several research results involving Thai students show that the same vocabulary problems persist (e.g. Kerdpol. 1983; Chotipong. 1987).

Therefore, the researcher would like to study the size, errors, and development of the English vocabulary of English majors at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham (henceforth RIM). The RIM English majors were selected as the subjects in this study because there was little research of this type done with rural Rajabhat Institute students. Furthermore, the results may be applicable not only to RIM students but also to those of other Rajabhat Institutes in rural areas.

Objectives

There were three purposes for this study:

1. to analyze the amount of vocabulary used in the informants' written products.
2. to analyze the lexical errors in the informants' writing.
3. to investigate if there was a cross-sectional vocabulary development of the informants who were first, second, third, and fourth-year students during the academic year 1998.

Significance of the Study

The research results may:

1. help English teachers know the size and frequency of vocabulary used in the informants' writing, and thus an indicator of the students' vocabulary knowledge.
2. help English teachers know the informants' vocabulary problems as presented in the informants' writing.
3. help English teachers know if there is any vocabulary development of the informants.
4. provide guidelines for Thai English teachers for the teaching of vocabulary in reading and writing.

Scope of the Study

Eighty essays written by first to fourth-year RIM English majors in the second semester of the academic year 1998 were analyzed in the following areas:

1. the amount of vocabulary in the essays.
2. the lexical errors in 40 essays selected randomly from the 80 essays.

These errors were analyzed whether they are of which of the following five categories of errors: tense errors, collocation errors, part of speech errors, errors of extra/omitted words, and meaning errors.

3. students' vocabulary development based on their vocabulary size and lexical errors.

Definitions of Terms

1. Word family

A word family is defined as a headword with its inflected and derived forms. For example, happy, happiness, happily and unhappy are counted as one word family with the head word happy (Laufer and Nation, 1995). In this study, VocabProfile which is a computer program developed by Nation (1995), is used and the program groups words into four lists. Words are grouped into word families in the first three lists but not in the fourth list:

- a. the first list (henceforth Base List One) includes the 1,000 most frequently used words of English (see Appendix C).
- b. the second list (henceforth Base List Two) includes the next 1,000 most frequently used words (see Appendix C).
- c. the third list (henceforth Base List Three) 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 (see Appendix C).

d. the fourth list (henceforth List Four) includes words which are not in any of the three aforementioned lists. Words such as proper nouns and acronyms are categorized into this list; therefore, words in this list cannot be grouped into word families.

2. Word token

An occurrence of a word in a text is counted as one word token. For example, in the sentence, “ Some speech acts are ‘direct’ speech acts, in which the primary purpose is not really distinct from the literal meaning, and some are ‘indirect’ speech acts, which contrast sharply with direct speech acts in that the primary purpose is quite distinct from the literal meaning.” there are 45 word tokens.

3. Word type

The occurrence/s of a word in a text is counted as one word type no matter how many times it appears in the text. For example, in the sample sentence given above, there are nine words appearing one time: not, really, and, indirect, contrast, sharply, with, that, and quite. Twelve words appear two times: some, from, are, direct, in, which, primary, purpose, is, distinct, literal, and meaning. The word act occurs three times. The words the and speech appear four times. Therefore, there are 24 word types in the text.

4. Vocabulary size

Vocabulary size is defined as the overall number of word tokens, word types, and word families and the number of word tokens, word types, and word families in each list which were found in the informants' writing.

5. Lexical errors

Lexical errors are errors of vocabulary found in the writing of RIM English majors. These lexical errors are classified into one of the following types of errors: tense errors, collocation errors, part of speech errors, errors of extra/omitted words, and meaning errors. The terms and examples of each error type are presented as follows:

5.1 Tense errors

If a verb is used in the wrong tense or if there is no agreement between the subject and the verb, it will be considered a tense error.

Example: They go to see 'Episode I' last night.

The event in this sentence happened in the past (last night). The correct tense should be the past simple. Hence, the correct form of the verb go is went. Therefore, the correct sentence is They went to see 'Episode I' last night, and the verb "go" in the example above is a tense error.

5.2 Collocation errors

Collocation refers to words that co-occur in close proximity with a high degree of frequency greater than chance (Nattinger and Decarrico. 1992). Gough (1992) states that collocation tends to be:

- set idiomatic phrases (e.g. a tower of strength)
- expressions (e.g. I see what you mean)
- connectors (e.g. for example, as a result)
- phrasal verbs (e.g. put up a notice)
- sense collocations (e.g. decorate a house, work hard, romantic fiction)
- separated collocations (e.g. neither...nor, not only...but also)

- prepositional phrases (in the armchair, on Sunday)

Words or groups of words used by the informants which do not collocate will be considered collocation errors.

The following are examples of collocation errors:

- a. He is taking his shoes out.

Take ... off is used for the action of removing something from one's body, especially clothes. Therefore, in this case, the correct sentence should read He is taking his shoes off.

- b. In the other hand, you can go to see him in 24 hours.

The group of words in the other hand is considered a collocation error because the correct phrase is on the other hand.

- c. He sits on the armchair.

On the armchair is also considered a kind of collocation error since the correct prepositional phrase should be in the armchair.

- d. Daeng had green eyes after the fight.

In English if the skin around a person's eye is made black by a blow, the person can be described as having a black eye. Therefore, the example sentence should instead read Daeng had black eyes after the fight, and green eyes in Sentence d above is considered a collocation error.

5.3 Part of speech errors

If wrong parts of speech of words are used, the words are considered part of speech errors.

Example: She is beauty.

The adjective form, beautiful, should be used in the sentence instead of the noun form, beauty. Therefore, the word beauty in the example sentence is a part of speech error.

5.4 Errors of extra/omitted words

Unnecessary words which are included in a context are considered extra word errors.

Example: They know the friendship is more important than winning.

The article the is not necessary in this context because friendship is said generally.

Thus, the sentence contains one error of extra/omitted words

On the other hand, omitted word errors are necessary words which are left out of a context.

Example: The Eiffel Tower is tallest building in this city.

According to English grammar, the is required with an adjective in the superlative degree. In the example sentence, there is no article the in front of the word tallest; thus, there is one omitted word error in the sentence.

5.5 Meaning errors

Meaning errors are defined as the inappropriate or wrong use of words or the use of words which are similar or close in meaning to the correct ones.

Example: The Great Wall of China was built to prevent the country against attack.

To prevent is to stop or to hold back someone from doing something, but to protect is to keep someone safe from harm, loss, or something bad. Therefore, the suitable word in the context of the example sentence is to protect.

6. Vocabulary development

In this study, vocabulary development is defined as the sequential increase of the vocabulary size and the sequential decrease of lexical errors found in the writing of the first to fourth-year Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham English majors.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

In this chapter, four topics are discussed. First, vocabulary acquisition and development are reviewed. Second, some vocabulary teaching methods and related EFL/ESL research is reviewed as vocabulary instruction plays an important role in the vocabulary learning process of Thai students since most Thai students acquire English vocabulary in the classroom. Third, characteristics of English words that typically cause both Thai and other EFL/ESL students difficulties in learning English vocabulary are presented. Finally, to gain insights into vocabulary errors produced by EFL/ESL learners, research on lexical errors is reviewed.

1. Vocabulary acquisition and development

In this part, the definitions and the process of vocabulary acquisition and development are discussed both in general and for a second language learning.

Gass (1999) states that learning a second language means learning of its vocabulary. Gass also defines vocabulary acquisition as "an incremental and probably recursive process, involving the integration of different kinds of knowledge as well as the achievement of different levels of ability to use that knowledge" (p. 327). Verhallen and Schoonen (1998) state that words are like two sides of a coin: the apparent or overt side consisting of phonemes in oral or the graphemes in written text, and the covert side consisting of the word meaning. The acquisition of a word requires an appropriate connection between the form and the concept or meaning.

Nation (1990) suggests various kinds of word knowledge necessary to master a word completely, including knowledge of its orthographical and phonological form, meanings, grammatical behaviour, associations, collocations, frequency and register. Schmitt (1995) states that if EFL/ESL students aspire to native-like proficiency in the use of words, they have to acquire these kinds of word knowledge. Thus, it can be said that acquiring vocabulary is not just getting acquainted with word forms but also becoming familiar with these kinds of word knowledge.

Vocabulary acquisition is a process. Aitchison (1994) provides three tasks of acquiring the meanings of a word: labeling, packaging, and network-building. The labeling task refers to the process of discovering which sequence of sound can be used as a name for a thing entity (i.e. creating a link between concept, sign and referent). This process also involves mapping or acquiring referential meaning. The packaging task refers to the process of discovering which things can be packaged together under one label. The learner also learns to transfer or apply the same label to other instances. This means that the student learns to discover the range of meanings for the same word and use the same word for too many concepts in attempts to narrow down and expand the range of meaning or reference of a lexical item. The network-building task refers to the process of discovering the sense relations or intensional links between words. This means fitting the words together in semantic networks. In short, acquiring word meaning involves the interrelation of two processes of

- (a) adding to the lexical store through a process of labeling and packaging and
- (b) reordering or changing the lexical store through a process of network-building.

Regarding a learner's vocabulary development, Meara (1996) defines it in terms of breadth of word knowledge (sheer numbers or vocabulary size) and depth of

word knowledge (word meaning and association). Three dimensions of lexical competence, namely partial-precise knowledge, the depth of knowledge, and the receptive- productive dimension which reflect vocabulary development, are suggested by Henriksen (1999).

At the partial-precise knowledge stage, students can pronounce the word, explain the meaning, identify the domain, provide word associations, and suggest other forms of the word. At this stage, it has been stressed that the learner must be allowed to be vague about meaning at first. Precision will come later and lexical development can be characterized as a move or progression from rough categorization or vagueness to more precision and mastery of finer shades of meaning. The depth of knowledge dimension is defined as the quality of the learner's vocabulary knowledge. This means that students understand not only a word's referential meaning but also its different intensional links or sense relations to other words such as antonyms, synonyms, hyponyms, and syntagmatic relations. Students' vocabulary development along the depth of knowledge dimension is primarily associated with network-building (i.e. creating intensional links). The receptive and productive dimension implies students' ability to use words in comprehension and production.

As Klien (1986) has suggested, there are two types of second/foreign language learning: tutored and untutored learning. The tutored learning uses systematic learning with instruction supported by the presentation of materials and exercises such as dictation, essays etc. The untutored learning is free from systematic guidance, for example, everyday communication in a natural fashion. This type of learning will occur when EFL/ESL students stay in the second language environment. However, most EFL/ESL students' knowledge of vocabulary cannot be acquired in a natural

situation. Therefore, systematic vocabulary learning is important for EFL/ESL students, especially Thai students whose native environment does not include English.

2. Vocabulary Teaching

2.1 Instruction

Vocabulary instruction plays an important role in second/ foreign language acquisition since the language cannot be naturally learned by most EFL/ESL students as mentioned in the previous section. Therefore, some current trends in teaching second language vocabulary are discussed.

Nation (1990) suggests direct and indirect teaching methods. Direct or explicit teaching means learning of individual word forms and meaning. Nagy (1997) states that direct teaching plays an important role in vocabulary growth of second language learners. Sokmen (1997) concludes that explicit vocabulary teaching in the 21st century includes six themes: building a large sight vocabulary, integrating new words with the old, providing a number of encounters with words, promoting a deep level of processing, facilitating imaging and concreteness, and using a variety of techniques.

To build a large sight vocabulary, high frequency words, difficult words and self-selected words should be taught. After acquiring words, the mind is focused to set up a system, which words are well-organized. Then for the true acquiring of a word, a range of 5-16 encounters with the word is vital. Not only word forms are learned but also their deep meaning. Better learning will take place when a deeper semantic processing is required because the words are encoded with elaboration. Moreover, students can learn from images or concrete words better than verbal links. Finally, to be successful in teaching vocabulary, teachers should use a variety of

techniques. The techniques are dictionary work, word unit analysis, mnemonic devices, semantic mapping, collocations and lexical phrases and oral production.

a. Dictionary work

Dictionary use provides the word and its definition. Dictionaries are important tools especially for students in the higher levels. Students at these levels have almost reached the end of the language instruction program and their learning depend on their efforts and habits. Therefore, they are always assigned to read texts and use dictionary.

b. Word unit analysis

This activity aims at teaching word roots and affixes as a technique for the students to attack new vocabulary.

c. Mnemonic devices

Mnemonic devices are aids to memory. They may be verbal, visual or a combination of both.

d. Semantic mapping

The purpose of this technique is for the students to integrate new words with the old ones already in their lexicon to promote depth of vocabulary knowledge. The technique involves brainstorming associations which a word has and then diagramming the results.

e. Collocations and lexical phrases

Collocations are words which commonly go together. Providing opportunities to practice collocation is a worthwhile activity.

f. Oral production

This activity uses to break the class routines, getting students out of their seats and experiencing words in a variety of ways with oral reinforcement.

Indirect or implicit teaching is contextual learning. Nagy (1997) states that contextual learning plays less important role than explicit teaching because ESL/EFL students will be less effective than native speakers at using context, at least until they achieve a fairly high level of L2 proficiency.

However, about a decade ago, one type of contextual learning, namely incidental vocabulary learning, became an object of considerable interest among researchers, teachers, and material developers (Coady and Huckin. 1999). Incidental learning occurs through extensive reading, with the learner guessing at the meaning of unknown words. This type of learning is used by second language learners for developing their vocabulary beyond the first few thousand most common words. Coady and Huckin (1999) state that the incidental vocabulary learning has certain advantages over direct instruction:

1. It is contextualized, giving the learner a richer sense of a word's use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired associate exercises.
2. It is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities--vocabulary acquisition and reading--to occur at the same time.
3. It is more individualized and learner-based because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading materials.

However, this type of learning has some weaknesses. Coady and Huckin. (1999) have made some comments on the incidental vocabulary acquisition as follows:

1. It occurs only when the learner's attention is focused on the meaning of individual words. The amount of attention and the amount of learning varies according to a number of factors, including context, type of attention, and task demand. A learner must be able to recognize on sight most of the surrounding words in order to guess the meaning of unknown words in context.

2. It requires a basic sight-recognition vocabulary of at least 3,000 word families. For university-level texts, a knowledge of 5,000 to 10,000 word families is needed.

3. It also requires multiple exposures to a word in different contexts in order to make a successful acquisition. There are no specific kinds of exposures, but both explicit teaching strategies and natural strategies expedite learning. Personally interesting texts facilitate incidental vocabulary acquisition.

4. Input modification, including glossing of specific words, is generally effective, especially if it involves interactive learning.

5. However, educated imprecision, misrecognition and interference result since this type of learning depends on guesswork. To overcome these problems, learners need to have a well-developed core vocabulary, stock of good reading strategies, and prior exposure.

In short, both direct and indirect vocabulary instructions are useful ways which can help EFL/ESL learners develop their vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, it is the teachers' responsibility to select appropriate techniques for the teaching of vocabulary.

2.2 Vocabulary selection for teaching/learning

In teaching a second/foreign language, one problem that many teachers have is selecting vocabulary for teaching. In order to help those teachers with the problem, several criteria for selecting vocabulary in teaching have been suggested by some linguists. Lewis (1997), for example, suggests that the most useful words both from and outside of textbooks should be selected and made a more intensive focus. Moreover, Irvin (1990) suggests three types of words. The first are words that are already in the student's oral vocabulary because the student needs to identify the written symbol for such words. The second type is words in neither the oral nor the reading vocabulary of the student but can be easily defined through the use of more familiar synonyms. For example, if the student does not know the meaning of the word 'altercation,' synonyms such as 'argument' and 'quarrel' define the word. The third type are those for which the student has yet to acquire an understanding. Such words are encountered frequently in content areas. Before the student can understand the word, the teacher must take the time to develop the concept through instruction. Furthermore, Gairns and Redman (1986) and McCarthy (1990) suggest that the most frequently used words and words which occur in a wide variety of context ought to be presented in the early stages of language instruction. They also suggest that teachers should think about students' needs and levels.

2.3 Research on vocabulary teaching

The research studies investigated here are about the analysis of various methods of vocabulary instruction. These studies shared a common theme, which was the effectiveness of teacher-initiated instructional methods. The studies are as follows:

Tillery (1985) investigated the effect of four instructional strategies: the Vocabulary Guide Strategy (Instruction), the Semantic Mapping Strategy, the Self-Selection Strategy and the Glossary. The results indicated that the most effective method for vocabulary acquisition and thus student performance was the Instructional Strategy.

Porter (1993) sought to compare the effectiveness of three vocabulary teaching strategies: semantic mapping, semantic feature analysis, and list learning. The research questions were: (1) whether the semantic mapping and the list learning strategies were as effective as no instruction in promoting vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in the advanced foreign language class and (2) whether the semantic feature analysis and list learning strategies were as effective as no instruction in promoting vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in the advanced foreign language class. The results of the study indicated that semantic mapping and list learning yielded significant gains in vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension.

Svenconis (1994) investigated the effectiveness of semantic mapping techniques in teaching a second-language vocabulary in the interactive hypertext environment. Hypertext is nonsequential writing. The 48 secondary students, without prior study of Spanish, used Macintosh computers to study three groupings of 24 words. Two groups of subjects studied the words in the traditional 'Word Listing' format. Two groups studied the words under 'Semantic Mapping' format whereby maps displayed the relationship among the word. Two experimental groups had the words sounded; two did not. One post-test was given immediately; the second approximately two weeks later. The results indicated in the sounded conditions, mean

scores were greater under the mapping condition than they were for the word listing condition, while in the non-sounded conditions, mean scores for the listing group were significantly greater than those for the mapping group. The semantic mapping in the interactive hypertext environment was not itself a better instructional format if subjects did not produce their own maps. Yet, with the sound factor, mapping contributed significantly to greater mean scores.

Czajkoski (1995) investigated two approaches to vocabulary presentation (in and out of context) and examined the effects of either treatment upon short and long-term recalls. The aim was to search for efficiency in instruction. The subjects were divided into two groups. Group A learned word-pairs through memorization and Group B (in context) experienced all input in Spanish. The results indicated that in learning vocabulary in and out of context, there were individual differences in the way a second language was acquired: some students learned better in context and some did not.

Johnson (1995) assessed the dynamics of three different methods of vocabulary instruction at the college level when each was supplemented by a mixed method of computer-assisted instruction. The subjects were divided into three groups. Group 1 consisted of 18 students who received contextual instruction only. Group 2 consisted of 18 students who received definitional instruction only. Group 3 consisted of 24 students who received mixed instructions. The results revealed that the students receiving context instruction only scored significantly higher than the mixed instruction group.

From the research reviewed here, it can be said that every instruction is useful, but the effectiveness of each instruction mostly depends on the learners because there

are individual differences in the way vocabulary is acquired. Some students can learn vocabulary better in context, some can learn better out of context, and some can learn better both in and out of context. Moreover, the effectiveness of Semantic Mapping, the Self Selection Strategy and the Glossary should be considered.

3. Characteristics of English vocabulary which are problematic for Thai students

There are some English vocabulary characteristics that confuse Thai EFL students, and usage problems occur regularly. Such characteristics include (Navasumrit. 1989):

1. Polysyms

Polysymy is a single word form, which has several different but closely related meanings; for example, the word grow in the following sentences:

He is growing a beard.

They grow a lot of apples in this part of the country.

2. Homonyms

Homonymy is a relationship between two or more words which have the same sound and/or spelling as another but are different in meaning.

Examples: mail	die	no	lead (verb)
male	dye	know	lead (noun)

3. Synonyms

Synonymy refers to groups of words which share general sense. A word in the same group can be replaced by each other in a limited number of contexts, for example, big/large, freedom/liberty, beneath/below, and expand/extend. The

sentences below indicate that expand and extend can replace each other, but the underlined word is appropriate for a different context.

1. We are going to extend/expand the kitchen by ten feet this year.
2. The metal will extend/expand if we heat it.

Synonymy is also a problem to Thai students because they cannot decide which word is appropriate for a particular situation. They usually use the word, which is most frequent rather than the contextually correct one.

4. Parts of speech

English vocabulary is divided into lexical and grammatical words (Jackson, 1988). Lexical words consist of verbs, nouns, adverbs and adjectives. Grammatical words consist of prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns. Some words may be used as nouns or verbs. The parts of speech of some words can be changed by adding a suffix or prefix. These characteristics are complicated. Hence, if Thai students are not well versed in their usage, they will make many mistakes, such as the word note used in the three sentences below.

1. She wrote a note of thanks for the gift.
2. The policeman noted the footprints in the soft earth.
3. His father is a noted violinist. (Navasumrit, 1989).

The word note in (1) is a noun which means a “short letter,” in (2), noted is a verb which means “notice, observe or pay more attention,” and in (3), noted is an adjective which means “famous.”

5. Idiomatic expressions

Idioms cause problems for Thai students because understanding these requires a cultural awareness. The meaning of idioms cannot be gauged from the word form or a direct translation.

Example: He swung at his companion and gave him a black eye.

The English, black eye is equivalent to a green eye in Thai, but if Thai students use a green eye instead of a black eye in this situation, it will be incorrect because green eyes in English means 'jealous'.

6. Collocations

Collocation is a group of words which naturally co-occur. There are fixed or flexible collocations. Navasumrit (1989) provides examples for collocation errors which are found frequently in Thai students' writing:

I was a large smoker.

(The correct statement: I was a heavy smoker.)

I have a sharp interest in chess.

(The correct statement: I have a keen interest in chess.)

His face is as red as [a] rose.

(The correct statement: His face is as red as a beetroot.)

4. Research on Lexical errors in ESL/EFL Students' Compositions

Most error analysis studies were concerned with grammatical or structural and lexical errors and usually examined the types of errors found in students' writing.

However, there has rarely been research focusing only on lexical errors. Most lexical error analyses were conducted as a part of error analysis studies. The research studies

reviewed here, therefore, are the ones concerning errors in compositions and translations.

Lyster (1998) divided errors into two types: (a) inaccurate, imprecise, or inappropriate choices of nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives, and (b) non-target derivations of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, involving incorrect use of prefixes and suffixes.

Teemant (1988) analyzed lexical errors in ESL compositions, and the lexical errors were divided into three main categories: errors in distribution (extra and omitted words, collocation, and tenses), meaning, and orthography. The results indicated that nearly half (49.8%) of all errors made were errors in extra and omitted words, collocational, syntactic, or tense errors. Errors in meaning accounted for 24.9% while 25.6% were orthographic errors. Overall, the error rate per hundred words decreased with increased proficiency.

Kroll (1990) examined differences between students' writing in class and at home. Kroll found that there were 33 different types of errors such as missing verbs, word order, tense/aspect, word forms, prepositions, article, etc. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in terms of error ratios and there was a high correlation of errors between essays done in class and those written at home.

Ubol (1981), analyzed errors in English compositions and texts translated from Thai into English by the first versus third-year English majors at Prince of Songkhla University. It was found that the third-year English majors had more errors regarding parts of speech than did the first-year writers because they produced more complex sentences.

Songjiarapanit (1985) studied structural and lexical errors in three reports translated from Thai into English. The lexical errors were categorized as wrongly translated words, wrong choice of words, and commonly confused words. The results indicated that wrong choice of words (64.7%) was most common, followed by wrongly translated words (20.6%), and then commonly confused words (14.7%).

Noojan (1999) analyzed errors found in English abstracts of Srinakharinwirot University graduates' theses translated from Thai. The research results revealed that there were five types of errors at the word level: adverbs (30.0%), adjectives (12.1%), articles (13.5%), prepositions (9.1%), diction (8.3%) and misspelling (1.1%).

Kerdpol (1983) analyzed errors in free compositions written in English by upper-secondary school students who sent letters to the editor of Student Weekly from July to December in 1982. Three hundred and five compositions were selected and analyzed for structure and vocabulary. It was found that meaning errors accounted for 53.7% while function errors the remainder (42.9%).

In conclusion, most lexical errors found in both compositions or translations frequently involve wrong use of parts of speech, collocation, meaning and wrong spelling.

Chapter 3

Methodology

In Chapter 3, the procedures for conducting the research, namely accumulation of data and data analysis, are presented. The instrument used for the analysis of data, the computer program VocabProfile, is also discussed.

1. Accumulation of data

The steps in collecting the data were as follows:

- a. 146 English major students who were registered at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham in the second semester of the academic year 1998 were selected as the subjects for the study. Among them, 39 were first-year students, 41 were studying in the second year, 27 in the third year, and 39 in the fourth year. They were asked to write an essay on the topic “Friendship Beyond Frontiers” in a two-hour time limit. This topic was chosen because it was the slogan of the 13th Asian Games, an important event in which people in Thailand were interested at that time.
- b. From 146 essays, 80 essays (20 from each year) were selected for the analysis of vocabulary size.
- c. From the 80 essays, 10 of each year were randomly selected for the analysis of lexical errors.

2. Data analysis

2.1 Analysis of vocabulary size

To analyze the amount of vocabulary used in the informants’ written products, the software program VocabProfile (Nation. 1995) was used. The results revealed the

number and percentage of frequency of occurrence of word tokens, word types, and word families in each word list. These results were used to investigate if there were similarities in the number of word tokens, word types and word families.

2.1.1 The instrument

The computer program VocabProfile was developed by Nation (1995). The program groups words into four lists:

1. The first list, Base List One, includes the most frequent 1000 words of English.
2. The second list, Base list Two, includes the next 1000 most frequent words.
3. The third list, Base List Three, includes words which are not among the first 2000 words of English but are frequently used in the upper-secondary school and university texts from a wide range of subjects.
4. The fourth list, List Four, includes words which are not in any of the three aforementioned lists.

All of the base lists include the base forms of words and derived forms. The first 1000 words thus consists of about 3000 forms. The word forms in the base lists are grouped into word families under a headword. For example, the word AID has the following family members AIDED, AIDING, AIDS, and UNAIDED (Nation 1990). The words in Base Lists One, Two, and Three are taken from A General Service List of English Words (West. 1953) for the first 2000 words, and The University Word List (Xue and Nation. 1990). These word lists are included in the appendix of the thesis.

The program thus can be used to compare a text against the four ready-made vocabulary lists to see what words in the text are and are not in the lists, and to see what percentage of the items in the text are covered by the lists.

2.1.2 The steps in the analysis of vocabulary size are:

1. The 20 selected essays from each group of students were typed into the computer.
2. The vocabulary in the essays was grouped into the four lists, and the number of words in each list and the percentage were calculated.

Results of the analysis are provided in table forms by the program. The tables present the number and percentage of word tokens, word types, and word families of the vocabulary in the text. The following table presents the results of the analysis of the paragraph below by the program VocabProfile.

I think the two jobs are very different, so it is hard to say which is more difficult. Working as a VJ, you have to present both a good image and voice, but almost everything is prepared for you. VJs just have to present it. However, DJs have to do more. They choose songs and run the program on their own. (Bangkok Post Student Weekly, 4 October, 1999, p. 11)

Table 1 The amount of vocabulary used in the example paragraph

Word List	Word tokens		Word types		Word families
	No.	%	No.	%	
Base List One	55	90.2	42	87.5	39
Base List Two	1	1.6	1	2.1	1
Base List Three	2	3.3	2	4.2	2
List Four	3	4.9	3	6.3	-
Total	61		48		42

The table shows that in the example paragraph there are 61 word tokens. These 61 word tokens could be classified into 48 word types and 42 word families. All the words in the paragraph are also grouped into the four lists. The table presents the overall number and percentage of words in each list. From this table, it can be seen that the 55 word tokens, which make up 90.2%, 42 word types (87.5%) and 39 word families were found in Base List One. One word token which makes up 1.6%, one word type (2.1%), and one word family were found in Base List Two. Two word tokens, which make up 3.3%, two word types (4.2%), and two word families were found in Base List Three. Three word tokens, which make up 4.9%, and three word types were found in List Four.

In addition, seven lists of the words in the text, identified according to word types and word families and their frequencies (four lists for word types and three lists for word families), are also provided by the program. For instance, the following are words in the example paragraph presented in seven lists as a result of the analysis of the Vocabprofile program.

1. Word types found in Base List One

Type	Frequency				
a	2	hard	1	so	1
almost	1	have	1	songs	1
and	2	however	1	the	2
are	1	I	1	their	1
as	1	is	3	they	1
both	1	it	2	think	1
but	1	just	1	to	4
choose	1	more	2	two	1
different	1	on	2	very	1
difficult	1	own	1	voice	1
do	1	prepared	1	which	1
everything	1	present	2	working	1
for	1	run	1	you	2
good	1	say	1		

2. Word Types found in Base List Two.

programme 1

3. Word types found in Base List Three

image 1

jobs 1

4. Word types found in List Four

DJs 1

VJ 1

VJs 1

5. Word families in Base List One

a	2	good	1	sing	1
almost	1	hard	1	so	1
and	2	however	1	the	2
as	1	I	1	they	2
be	4	it	2	think	1
both	1	just	1	to	4
but	1	more	2	two	1
choose	1	on	1	very	1
difference	1	own	1	voice	1
difficult	1	prepare	1	which	1
do	1	present	2	work	1
every	1	run	1	you	2
for	1	say	1		

6. Word families found in Base List Two
programme 1

7. Word families found in Base List Three
image 1
job 1

2.2 Analysis of lexical errors

From the 80 essays, 10 essays of each level were randomly selected to analyze the vocabulary problems. The steps of the analysis of lexical errors were as follows:

1. The vocabulary used in the essays was counted.
2. The errors were analyzed by the program into five categories of errors: tense errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors, errors of extra/omitted words, and meaning errors.
3. The number of errors of each type was counted.
4. The frequencies of occurrences of each type of errors in each essay were calculated in percentage using the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage of each type of errors} = \frac{\text{Total number of errors}}{\text{Total number of words in each essay}} \times 100$$

The following table presents an example of the analysis of lexical errors.

Table 2 Lexical errors found in the informants' writing

Text	Tense errors	Parts of speech errors	Collocation errors	Extra and omitted errors	Meaning errors
I think it means love, <u>friendly</u> , and everything that is <u>well</u> between people in the world. It is being helpful between friends, between families, or between everyone. Then it gives happiness <u>for our</u> . The cooperation from every <u>people can</u> <u>made</u> hard work, easy work. Any work can be <u>made</u> easy by every <u>people</u> because there are many people with many ideas. Although people in the world are different <u>traditions</u> , they have friendships and <u>generous for help</u> everyone.	can made	friendly well our generous help	for for	(from)	people made people traditions
77 word tokens	2	5	2	1	4
	2.59%	6.49%	2.59%	1.29%	5.18%

Table 2 indicates that there were 77 word tokens in the text. Two tense error (2.59%), five part of speech errors (6.49%), two collocation errors (2.59%), one errors of extra/omitted words (1.29%), and four meaning errors (5.18%) were found.

2.3. Investigation of Vocabulary Development

In order to see if there was a vocabulary development of the first to fourth year students, the following steps were conducted:

1. To examine the amount of vocabulary in the writing of each group of subjects, means and standard deviations of the following data were calculated:

1.1 Word tokens

1.2 Word types

1.3 Word families

1.4 Word types found in Base List One

1.5 Word types found in Base List Two

1.6 Word types found in Base List Three

1.7 Word types found in List Four

1.8 Word families found in Base List One

1.9 Word families found in Base List Two

1.10 Word families found in Base List Three

2. To analyze the lexical errors in the informants' writing, the means and standard deviations of each error type were calculated.

3. The means and standard deviations of the above data were compared using ANOVA to see whether they were significant difference from each other.

Chapter 4

Findings

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

1. To analyze the amount of vocabulary used in the informants' written products.
2. To analyze the lexical errors in the informants' writing.
3. To investigate if there was a cross-sectional vocabulary development of the informants' who were first, second, third, and fourth-year RIM English-major students during the academic year 1998.

The findings are thus presented in three parts:

- Part 1 presents the vocabulary size of the informants which was examined through the number of word tokens, word types, and word families found in their essays.

- Part 2 presents the results of the study of lexical errors found in the informants' writing.

- Part 3 presents the results of the statistical comparison of the informants' vocabulary size and lexical errors in order to find out if there were differences in these areas among the four groups of students, and hence the informants' overall vocabulary growth.

1. Vocabulary size

From 146 essays written by the first to fourth year English majors at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham, only 80 essays, 20 from each level of students, were randomly selected to analyze the students' vocabulary size in terms of word tokens, word types, word families used in these essays. Those word tokens, word types, and word families were grouped into four word lists: Base List One (the 1,000 most frequent word in use or general words), Base List Two (the next 1,000 most frequent words), Base List Three (words frequently used in the upper-secondary school and university texts), and List Four (words not in any of the first three lists).

In order to study the amount of the vocabulary used by each level of students, the number of word tokens in the informants' writing were tallied. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 The number of word tokens in the informants' writing

Level	Number of word tokens
First year	2379
Second year	3200
Third year	3255
Fourth year	2587

Table 3 shows that the number of word tokens found in the writing of the first to fourth-year students were 2379, 3200, 3255 and 2587 respectively. It can be seen that the number of vocabulary used in the second-year students' writing was higher

than that of the first-year students' writing, and the number of vocabulary used in the third-year students' writing was higher than that of the second-year students' writing. Presumably, the number of vocabulary in the fourth-year students' writing should be higher than that of the third-year students.' In this case, this is not true.

To examine in detail what kinds of words are used by the informants, the vocabulary used in the selected essays were tallied by word tokens and then matched with the four ready-made word lists and grouped accordingly. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4 The number of word tokens in the informants' writing divided into word lists

Level	Base List One		Base List Two		Base List Three		List Four	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1 st year	2082	87.5	97	4.1	51	2.1	149	6.3
2 nd year	2791	97.2	120	3.8	107	3.3	182	5.5
3 rd year	2910	89.4	99	3.0	73	2.2	173	5.3
4 th year	2199	85.0	112	4.3	62	2.4	214	8.3

It can be seen from Table 4 that most of the words used by all levels of students were those basic vocabulary of Base List One (over 85% for all levels) whereas the words in the other three lists were much less used (below 10% for all levels). As a result, it can be said that the students in all four levels are rather familiar

with basic simple English vocabulary than the less frequent ones. Hence, they can produce a lot of words in this list (Base List One) only.

In order to examine further the characteristics of the informants' vocabulary, the vocabulary used in their essays were identified into word types. Table 5 indicates the number of word types found in the informants' writing.

Table 5 The number of word types in the informants' writing

Level	Number of word types
First year	412
Second year	529
Third year	541
Fourth year	502

As can be seen in Table 5, the number of word types used in the first to fourth year's writing were 412, 529, 541, and 502 respectively. Thus, when the informants' vocabulary was classified into word types, it can be seen that, from over 2,300 word tokens (Table 3) used by each group of students, there were approximately 500 word types only. By definition, the occurrence of a word in a text is counted as one word token, but the occurrence/s of a word in a text is counted as one word type no matter how many times it appears in the text. Therefore, the results indicated that there were many repetitive uses of the same vocabulary items in the students' writing. In other words, although the students produced quite a relatively large number of words in their essays, the words were usually the ones already used in their writing. For

example, the qualitative examination of the first to fourth-year's writing the data revealed that the word the (in Base List One) was used 117 times, 167, 124, and 197 times; the word friendship was used 79, 78, 111, and 51 times; and the word people was used 32, 55, 63, and 70 times respectively.

To see what kinds of word types were used by the informants, the number of word types presented in Table 5 were regrouped into the four lists. The following table reveals the number of word types in each list.

Table 6 The number of word types in the informants' writing divided into word lists

Level	Base List One		Base List Two		Base List Three		List Four	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1 st year	309	75.0	38	9.2	11	2.7	54	13.1
2 nd year	381	72.0	52	9.8	30	5.7	66	12.5
3 rd year	384	71.0	54	10.0	23	4.3	80	14.8
4 th year	371	73.9	40	8.0	23	4.6	68	13.5

Table 6 reveals similar results. That is, most of the word types used by the informants were those words in Base List One (over 70% for all student levels). Although the percentage of word types in the other three lists were higher (below 15% for all levels) than that of word tokens divided into word lists in Table 4 (below 10% for all levels), it still was much lower when compared to the percentage of word types in Base List One. However, it is interesting to note that the orders of frequencies of word types used were the same in all four levels: most of the word types used were

word types in Base List One, the second mostly used word types were the ones in List Four, the next mostly used word types were those in Base List Two, and the word types in Base List Three were the least used. What is also remarkable is that not only were the orders of word types used by the informants the same in all levels, the percentages of frequencies of word types in each word list were also of similar value: about 70% for Base List One, 12 – 15% for List Four, 8 – 10% for Base List Two, and 2 – 6% for Base List Three.

In order to study what word families were used by the informants, the vocabulary in the selected essays were classified into word families. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 The number of word families in the informants' writing

Level	Number of word families
First year	286
Second year	362
Third year	365
Fourth year	339

Table 7 shows that the number of word families found in the first to fourth year's writing were 286, 362, 365, and 339 respectively. It can be seen that the number of word families used by the second, third, and fourth-year students were more than 300 while that used by the first-year students were less than 300, with the

third-year students using the largest number of word families, the second-year students using a lower number of word families than the third-year students, the fourth-year students using a lower number than the second-year students, and the first-year students using the lowest number of all.

To see what kinds of word families were used by the four groups of students, the word families presented in Table 7 were regrouped into the four lists. The following table reveals the number of word families in each list.

Table 8 The number of word families in the informants' writing divided into word lists

Level	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three
First year	241 (84.3%)	35(12.2%)	10(3.5%)
Second year	291(80.4%)	49(13.54%)	22(6.1%)
Third year	294(80.5%)	51(14.0%)	20(5.5%)
Fourth year	281(82.9%)	37(11.0%)	21(6.2%)

Table 8 indicates that the word families mostly found in all groups' writing were those in Base List One (over 200 word families, or more than 80%, for all levels), and the number of word families in Base Lists Two and Three were relatively small (10 – 14% were of Base List Two and 3 – 6% of Base List Three).

It can be concluded from the results presented in Tables 3 to 8 that students in every level all used words which mostly belonged in Base List One, no matter whether the words that the students used were examined in terms of word tokens,

word types, or word families. As a result, it can be said that in writing an essay on the topic “Friendship Beyond Frontiers,” the informants used mostly basic, simple words. Although words which are less frequent (i.e., words in Base Lists Two, Three and List Four) were used, the number of these words was rather small when compared to the first 1000 most frequently used words of Base List One.

Tables 3 to 8 provide only a quantitative analysis of the data. In order to present a clearer picture of the informants’ vocabulary knowledge, the qualitative information on the words found in the informants’ writing, i.e. words found to be used by every group of informants and words found to be used by some but not all groups, are presented in detail as follows.

Base List One’s word families found in every group’s writing

a	around	call	do	game
able	arrive	can	during	get
about	as	care	each	give
accept	ask	carry	easy	go
accord	at	cause	English	good
act	away	chance	enjoy	happen
after	back	change	ever	happy
again	be	child	every	have
ago	beauty	choose	example	hear
agree	because	city	experience	hello
air	become	close	fact	help
all	before	come	family	home
almost	begin	common	feel	house
alone	behind	connect	find	how
already	being	continue	finish	however
although	believe	country	first	human
always	best	custom	for	I
among	better	day	foreign	idea
and	between	December	forget	if
animal	beyond	describe	free	in
another	business	develop	friend	into
any	but	difference	from	it
appear	buy	difficult	full	keep
army	by	divide	future	kind

know	neighbour	reason	such	want
land	never	relation	sure	wait
language	new	religion	take	war
learn	next	remember	talk	way
life	no	return	teach	we
like	not	safe	tell	welcome
limit	now	same	than	well
listen	of	say	that	what
little	old	see	the	when
live	on	send	then	where
look	one	sense	they	which
lose	only	serve	there	while
lot	opportunity	several	therefore	who
love	or	shake	thing	why
make	other	share	think	will
man	part	should	this	win
many	past	show	time	with
may	peace	smile	to	without
mean	people	so	today	woman
meet	person	social	together	wonder
memory	place	some	too	word
mind	play	speak	trade	work
money	please	special	travel	world
more	possible	spirit	trust	would
most	prepare	start	try	year
must	present	stay	understand	you
nation	problem	stop	until	
nature	protect	strange	use	
necessary	race	study	very	
need	real	succeed	visit	

Base List One's word families found in some groups' writing

actual	centre	deep	escape	garden
add	certain	destroy	event	general
age	class	die	face	glad
bad	club	dog	faith	god
bear	colour	dream	fall	gold
belong	complete	drop	famous	great
black	concern	earth	fast	group
both	control	east	fill	grow
boy	could	eat	five	habit
break	cover	either	flower	half
build	creature	end	follow	hand
car	cry	enemy	food	hard
case	date	enough	free	he

head	mass	opinion	second	strong
health	matter	organize	serious	subject
heavy	might	ought	side	suggest
hold	modern	out	sign	support
hot	month	pain	sister	sweet
high	moreover	pass	situation	though
hill	most	picture	shall	train
history	mother	plant	shake	twenty
hour	mountain	point	short	type
impossible	move	poor	since	under
increase	much	possible	small	unite
interest	music	post	society	up
introduce	nature	power	soft	value
last	near	private	sound	variety
lead	necessary	prove	south	wave
less	need	public	spread	white
let	neither	reach	stand	willing
level	nor	receive	standard	wish
local	object	result	state	
long	often	right	still	
manner	once	school	story	
many	open	sea	strike	

Base List Two's word families found in every group's writing

host	important	sport	really
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Base List Two's word families found in some groups' writing

abroad	chain	especial	hate
absolutely	cheer	essential	heart
advertisement	cloth	excess	honest
advice	coin	excite	improve
angle	combine	explore	inform
angry	comfort	fan	international
apology	compete	far	inside
approve	confidence	father	joy
attract	congratulate	female	kiss
bag	conversation	fight	laugh
behaviour	cook	fly	lone
birth	decrease	foot	mad
bless	defend	fresh	male
borrow	depend	fun	match
broad	earn	generous	medicine
busy	education	girl	milk
card	empty	grammar	mix
ceremony	encourage	greet	nice

noun	pure	skin	tour
official	radio	sorry	true
origin	refer	staff	tune
parent	rescue	star	upset
patient	sale	suit	victory
pig	sentence	telephone	warm
pink	self	temple	worry
plane	sincere	ticket	
practice	sing	till	
probable	ship	time	

Base List Three's word families found in every group's writing

communicate	culture	frontier	economy
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Base List Three's word families found in some groups' writing

area	continent	invest	site
adapt	create	locate	source
authorize	dispose	negative	style
community	final	occupy	team
compute	generate	occur	tradition
concentrate	geography	period	traffic
concept	huge	region	transport
confront	image	rotate	vocabulary
contact	impress	section	
coordinate	income	sex	

List Four's word types found in every group's writing

Asian	Asia	Bangkok	slogan
Thai	Thailand		

List Four's word types found in some groups' writing

airport	counties	inspire	nickname
America	E-mail	Internet	non
anytime	essay	jam	outfield
apprentice	Europe	knowledge	oversea
athlete	exercising	Korea	pager
Australia	farness	Lao	personality
amazing	festival	lifestyle	prefix
bride	forever	linked	prize
campaign	friendliness	loser	Rayong
candies	globalization	lover	reception
champion	globe	media	relaxing
citizen	goods	nationality	remembrance
cookies	Hawaii	nature	rewrite
contest	humanities	New Zealand	rumor

Siam	tiger	unlimited	yesterday
sightseeing	tourism	update	zone
sponsors	tourist	vegetables	
traditional	Udornthani	wai	
television	UNESCO	wedding	
tennis	unfriendly	worldwide	

This qualitative vocabulary knowledge of the first to fourth-year students can be represented as the following figure.

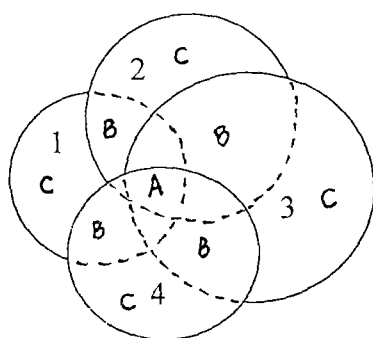


Figure 1 The informants' vocabulary knowledge on the topic "Friendship Beyond Frontiers"

In the figure above, Circles 1, 2, 3, and 4 represent the words found in the first to fourth-year students' writing respectively. A represents the words which were used by all groups of students, B represents the words which were used by two or three groups of students, and C represents the words which were used by only one group of students. That is, there is a group of words which was shared by the students in all four levels. Some words were shared by some of the groups only, and some words were used solely by either one of the four groups of students.

2. Lexical errors

From the 80 essays, only 40 essays, 10 from each level, were selected randomly to analyze lexical errors. Five types of lexical errors were classified: tense errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors, errors of extra/ omitted words, and meaning errors.

In order to see the total frequency of lexical errors of each level of students, their writing were analyzed and the errors found in the writing were manually counted and calculated in percentage. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9 Total number of lexical errors found in the informants' writing

Level	Word tokens	Frequency of occurrence	
		No.	%
First-year	1026	262	25.53
Second-year	1570	275	17.51
Third-year	1815	395	21.76
Fourth-year	1337	238	17.80

As can be seen in Table 9, the results indicated that the percentage of the overall lexical errors found in the first to fourth-year's writing were 25.53%, 17.51%, 21.76%, and 17.80 % respectively. It can be concluded that the frequency of lexical errors were quite high in all levels of students, but the number of lexical errors found in the first year's writing was the highest.

To find out the total frequency of each type of errors in all groups of students' writing, errors were classified into five categories and the frequency of each type of errors were counted. Table 10 reveals the frequency of occurrence of each error type.

Table 10 Frequency of occurrence of each error type

Type of lexical errors	Frequency of occurrence
Tense	445
Part of speech	245
Collocation	90
Extra/omitted words	76
Meaning	320

The results in Table 10 indicated that the frequency of occurrence of tense errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors, errors of extra/ omitted words, and meaning errors were 445, 245, 90, 76, and 320 respectively. Therefore, it can be said that tense errors were mostly found in all groups, followed by meaning errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors, and errors of extra/omitted words.

In order to examine in detail what types of errors were produced by each group of students, each type of errors was classified according to each group of students.

The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11 Frequency of occurrence of each type of lexical errors found in each group of students' writing.

Level	Tense errors		Part of speech errors		Collocation errors		Errors of extra /omitted words		Meaning errors	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1 st year	115	11.20	60	5.84	13	1.26	35	3.41	39	3.80
2 nd year	79	5.03	59	3.75	14	0.89	29	1.84	94	5.98
3 rd year	166	9.14	70	3.85	31	1.70	6	0.33	122	6.72
4 th year	85	6.35	56	4.18	26	1.94	6	0.44	65	4.86

As can be seen in Table 11, tense errors are the type of errors which were produced mostly by all the four groups of students, followed by meaning errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors, and errors of extra/omitted words. Besides, the percentage of each type of errors of each student group was also in about the same range. For example, the range of frequency of part of speech errors of all four groups of students are 3.5 – 5.8, and that of collocation errors are 0.9 – 1.9.

3. Vocabulary development

In order to investigate vocabulary development of the first to fourth-year RIM students, their vocabulary size and lexical errors found in their writing were compared by using the statistics ANOVA. The means, the standard deviations, and the degree of significance of the *F*-test were calculated. The means were considered significantly

different from each other when the p value, i.e. the significance of difference, was not higher than .05.

To find out whether there was a cross-sectional development in the vocabulary knowledge of the first to fourth-year students, the total number of word tokens and the number of word tokens in each of the four lists were analyzed. The results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12 Comparison of the total number of word tokens and the number of word tokens in each of the four lists in the four groups of the students' writing.

Level		Word tokens	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three	List Four
First-year	Mean	118.15	104.10	4.85	2.60	7.45
	SD	52.42	52.48	2.74	0.88	2.91
Second-year	Mean	154.00	139.55	6.00	5.35	9.10
	SD	52.15	51.10	1.86	1.84	4.47
Third-year	Mean	157.80	145.50	4.95	3.65	8.65
	SD	53.94	55.05	2.74	2.13	4.31
Fourth-year	Mean	123.75	109.95	5.60	3.10	10.70
	SD	54.16	51.63	3.75	1.52	14.48
F		3.34	3.12	0.73	10.37	0.56
Sig.		0.02*	0.03*	0.54	0.00**	0.64

* $p < .05$

The results in Table 12 indicated that there were some significant differences for the overall word tokens and word tokens in Base List One and Three ($p < .05$). On the other hand there was no statistically significant difference for word tokens in Base List Two and List Four. However, although the results were not significantly different for all types, the students' progress in vocabulary can be considered from the means of the total number of word tokens and the number of word tokens in each of the four lists of the four groups of students which slightly increased.

Also, the total number of word types and the number of word types in each of the four lists found in the writing of all informants were compared in order to find out whether there was a cross-sectional development in their vocabulary knowledge. The results are shown in Table 13.

Table 13 Comparison of the total number of word types and the number of word types in each of the four lists in the four groups of the students' writing

Level		Word types	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three	List Four
First-year	Mean	20.60	15.45	1.90	0.55	2.70
	SD	5.23	4.35	0.79	0.60	2.22
Second-year	Mean	26.45	19.05	2.60	1.50	3.33
	SD	7.40	5.84	1.67	1.36	2.83
Third-year	Mean	27.05	19.20	2.70	1.55	4.00
	SD	10.82	8.46	1.75	0.49	3.13
Fourth-year	Mean	25.10	18.55	2.00	1.15	3.40
	SD	7.87	7.10	0.73	0.37	1.90
F		2.60	1.42	1.90	4.82	0.86
Sig.		0.05*	0.24	0.13	0.01*	0.46

* $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 13, there were some statistically significant differences for overall word types and the word types in Base List Three ($p < .05$). On the other hand, there was not any significant difference for Base List One, Base List Two, and List Four ($p > .05$). However, although the results of analyses of variance were not absolutely different, the vocabulary development of the first to fourth-year students can be observed from the increase of the means of the total number of word types and the number of word types in each of the four lists in the four groups of students' writing.

A further comparison was conducted on the total number of word families and the number of word families in each of the four lists of informants' writing to determine the cross-sectional development in the informants' vocabulary. The results are shown in Table 14.

Table 14 Comparison of the total number of word families and the number of word families in each of the four lists in the four groups of the students' writing

Level		Word families	Base List One	Base List Two	Base List Three
First-year	Mean	14.30	12.05	1.75	0.50
	SD	3.79	3.27	0.55	0.61
Second-year	Mean	17.50	14.50	1.75	1.10
	SD	3.40	3.28	0.85	0.31
Third-year	Mean	18.15	14.70	2.55	0.90
	SD	3.78	3.31	1.47	0.31
Fourth-year	Mean	17.05	14.05	1.85	1.05
	SD	4.83	4.78	0.81	0.89
F		3.59	2.16	2.79	4.40
Sig.		0.01*	0.09	0.04*	0.01*

* $p < .05$

Table 14 indicated that there were some statistically significant differences for the overall number of word families and the number of word families in Base Lists Two and Three ($P < .05$). On the other hand, there was not any significant difference for Base List One ($p > .05$). Although base List One was not significantly different, it can be said that students made progress in word families considering from the increase of the means of the total number of word families and the number of word families in each of the four lists of the four groups of students' writing.

The cross-sectional development of the students' vocabulary was also considered from their lexical errors. The results are shown in Table 15.

Table 15 Comparison of the lexical errors found in the informants' writing

Types of errors		First-year	Second-year	Third-year	Fourth-year	F	Sig.
Tense	Mean	11.50	8.90	16.60	8.50	2.72	0.05*
	SD	7.86	7.29	7.85	5.06		
Part of speech	Mean	6.00	5.90	7.00	5.60	0.23	0.87
	SD	4.00	3.73	5.14	2.63		
Collocation	Mean	1.30	1.40	3.10	2.60	2.04	0.12
	SD	1.77	2.46	1.85	1.71		
Extra/omitted words	Mean	3.50	2.90	0.30	0.10	7.43	0.001*
	SD	3.14	2.38	0.95	4.43		
Meaning	Mean	3.90	9.40	12.20	6.50	3.55	0.02*
	SD	3.14	7.65	7.54	4.43		

* $p < .05$

As can be seen from Table 15, the results indicated that there were statistically significant differences for tense errors, errors of extra/omitted words, and meaning errors ($p < .05$) and no significant differences for part of speech errors and collocation errors ($p > .05$). However, when the means were examined, it was found that the sequential reduction of errors was inconsistent. Thus, there was not enough evidence in terms of the lexical errors to conclude whether the informants' vocabulary had developed.

It can be concluded from the results in Tables 12 to 15 that there was some development of vocabulary size of the first to fourth-year English majors at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham because it was found that the number of word tokens, word types, and word families of students' vocabulary size sequentially increased. Moreover, even though the number of words of the fourth-year students was smaller than those of the second and third-year students, they could use the difficult words more than the third-year students. In the opposite way, it cannot be said that there was development in word usage because errors did not decrease through time though in

some types of errors, such as tense and meaning errors, some significant differences were found.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Discussion

The objectives, the results, discussion as well as application of the study are presented. Finally, the chapter ends with suggestions for further studies.

Objectives of the Study

1. To analyze the amount of vocabulary used in the informants' written products.
2. To analyze the lexical errors in the informants' writing.
3. To investigate if there was a cross-sectional vocabulary development of the informants who were first, second, third, and fourth-year RIM students during the academic year 1998.

The results of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. Vocabulary size

1.1 Word tokens

The number of word tokens found in the writing of the first to fourth-year students were 2379, 3200, 3255, and 2587 respectively.

1.2 Word types

The number of word types found in the writing of the first to fourth-year students were 412, 529, 541, and 502 respectively.

1.3 Word families

The number of word families found in the writing of the first to fourth-year students were 286, 362, 365, and 339 respectively.

1.4 Vocabulary in terms of word lists

1.4.1 Base List One

The largest number of word tokens, word types, and word families in the writing of all four groups of students were words in Base list One. The average number of Base List One's word tokens, word types and word families found in the four groups' writing were 2500, 350, and 270 respectively.

1.4.2 Base List Two

The number of word tokens, word types, and word families in the writing of each group of students which belonged to Base List Two were quite small. The average number of word tokens, word types and word families of this list found in the four groups' writing were 100, 50, and 40 respectively.

1.4.3 Base List Three

The number of word tokens, word types, and word families found in the writing of each group of students which belonged to Base List Three were even smaller, with the average number of word tokens, word types and word families of 70, 20, and 18 respectively.

1.4.4 List Four

The average number of word tokens and word types found in the four groups' writing were 180 and 70 respectively.

1.5 The use of words of the four groups of students

The same pattern of word use was found among all four groups of students. That is, most of the words used by all four groups of students were words in Base List One whereas a much smaller number of words in Base List Two, Base List Three, and List Four were used.

2. Lexical errors

2.1 Total lexical errors

The total number of lexical errors found in the writing of the first to fourth-year students were 262, 275, 395, 238 respectively.

2.2 Tense errors

The frequency of occurrence of tense errors found in the first to fourth-year's writing were 115 (11.2%), 79 (5.0%), 166 (9.1%), and 85 (6.4%) respectively.

2.3 Part of speech errors

The frequency of occurrence of part of speech errors found in the first to fourth-year's writing were 60 (5.8%), 59 (3.8%), 70 (3.9%), and 56 (4.2%) respectively.

2.4 Collocation errors

The frequency of occurrence of collocation errors found in the first to fourth-year's writing were 13 (1.3%), 14 (0.9%), 31 (1.7%), and 26 (1.9%) respectively.

2.5 Errors of extra/omitted words

The frequency of occurrence of errors of extra/omitted words found in the first to fourth-year's writing were 35 (3.4%), 29 (1.8%), 6 (0.3%), and 6 (0.4%) respectively.

2.6 Meaning errors

The frequency of occurrence of meaning errors found in the first to fourth-year's writing were 39 (3.8%), 94 (6.0%), 122 (6.7%), and 65 (4.9%) respectively.

From the frequency of occurrence of each error type, it can be said that tense errors were mostly found, followed by meaning errors, part of speech errors, collocation errors, and errors of extra/omitted words respectively.

3. Vocabulary development

From the statistical analysis, since there was a statistically significant difference at .05 level of both vocabulary size and lexical errors in some points, it can be concluded that there was a little progress in vocabulary knowledge of the first to fourth-year English majors at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham.

Discussion

This study aimed to analyze the vocabulary and lexical errors found in the first to fourth-year English majors' at Rajabhat Institute Mahasarakham and investigate if there was a vocabulary development of these students. It was found that the students were most familiar with the first 1,000 most frequent words (Base List One) because the highest number of words used were found in Base List One in all levels. On the other hand, the vocabulary which belonged to the other three lists were used at a much less extent than those of Base List One. Less use of words in the three lists may be because Base List Two and Base List Three are lists of words which are the second 1,000 most frequent words (Base List Two) and words which are frequently used in the upper-second school and university texts (Base List Three). The words in these two lists are non-basic words; therefore, the students might be less familiar with them. On the other hand, the students might know the words in these lists to a certain extent, but they might not have yet fully acquired them so they might not be their active

vocabulary. Therefore, the students are not able yet to productively use them in their writing. Moreover, these words are usually not covered in direct teaching because words taught in the classroom are usually the most frequent ones whereas more difficult, or less frequent, words are acquired in contextual learning, such as in the students' own reading outside of class. However, the context of learning and teaching in Thailand does not enable the students much to become familiar with words in these two lists because these words are frequently used in academic texts at upper-secondary school and university levels, but in general university students in Thailand are not often required to read texts written in English during their study. Therefore, they have few opportunities to encounter these words, and thus it is hard for the students to acquire these words and bring them into their writing.

A second objective of the research was to analyze the students' lexical errors. The results of the analysis indicated that, when compared with the word tokens, word types, and word families the students produced, there was a high frequency of occurrence of lexical errors particularly tense errors, part of speech errors and meaning errors. This shows that long learning of English in the Thai context does not help the students much to use words correctly. This also may result from the fact that English is taught through Thai, especially in primary and secondary schools, or from the lack of continuous practice in vocabulary use by the students outside of class.

Finally, it can be concluded from the results that there was vocabulary development among the students to some extent when the means of vocabulary size and lexical errors were considered. Although the fourth-year students produced a disappointing number of words (smaller than the third and second-year students), the number of difficult words in Base List Three used by the fourth-year students was

higher than that of the third-year students. It might be that the vocabulary size of the fourth-year students might be greater than those of the other groups of students. However, the cause of the fourth-year students' producing a smaller number of vocabulary than the second and third-year students may come from their lack of continuous practice of English since they had just returned to college and resumed their study after taking a rather long study-break (about two months) for their work practicum when they were asked to write the essay for this research. The other three groups, on the other hand, had been attending classes as usual. It is probably then that a smaller number of words in the fourth-year writing is because of the lack of spontaneous practice, such as everyday use.

Although it is interesting to note that from writing only one topic the students could produce about one-third of the first 1,000 most frequent words, one should also keep in mind that this number of vocabulary size may not represent the overall vocabulary knowledge of the students. It should also be noted that these students used mostly simple words (Base List One) and that the frequency of occurrence of lexical errors were quite high. Naturally, errors should decrease through time while one's vocabulary knowledge increases, but the results of this study were not in line with this tendency. One explanation for this is that the students may only know words receptively but do not know them well enough to be able to use them productively. Therefore, it should be emphasized that Thai English teachers, especially at the higher levels such as college and university, should be interested in direct vocabulary teaching. Only assigning students to read texts or telling them to use the dictionary to find word definitions is not enough. As can be seen from the results, though the subjects of this research are English majors, they still produced a lot of lexical errors

and used mostly simple words. The same results may not necessarily be found in students at other colleges and universities around Thailand; still, these results should not be neglected.

Application

1. One finding of the study was that basic simple words (in Base List One) were mostly used and that the number of lexical errors of the words in this list was also quite high. This might mean that words in this group are more necessary in writing for the students than words in the other groups. Also, since the students produced a large number of lexical errors of the words in this list, it might as well mean that they still have not mastered these words. Therefore, it is recommended that these words should be taught extensively in order to help the students use these words correctly.

2. As the less frequent words of the upper-secondary school and university texts (Base List Three) were less used in the writing, it is suggested that teachers should emphasize these words in teaching by, for example, asking students to practice these words in a variety of situations.

3. One conclusion of the study that lack of continuous practice of English might cause Thai students to be less effective in writing points to a suggestion that teachers should design courses which require that students have a lot of practice in writing so that they will be able to write better.

4. Tense errors, part of speech errors, and meaning errors respectively were mostly made by all four groups of students although these grammatical features have been taught extensively in every level of education. However, they are usually taught

out of context, with an emphasis on students' knowledge of these features, not on their use and application. Therefore, to reduce errors of these types, vocabulary should be taught in context so that the grammatical behavior of vocabulary in context can be observed.

Suggestions for Further Studies

1. In this research, the subjects' vocabulary size was examined via just one essay written by each informant; therefore, the vocabulary knowledge of the students found in this study may not be representative of the students' lexicon. In order to gain a more representative sample of students' vocabulary, studies should be conducted in which a large number of students' essays or a wide variety of students' work, such as those taken from their portfolios, are used.

2. In fact, Thai students have learned a relatively large number of English words in the classroom, but the results of this study found that the students still had a lot of problems when using the language productively. Therefore, studies of the relationship between receptive and productive vocabulary should be conducted.

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

4. This research was conducted with only one group of subjects, namely college students. Therefore, there should be similar research which uses students at other levels as research subjects, for example students in secondary schools or graduate students.

5. There should be a comparative study of direct and indirect vocabulary teaching of basic, general words in order to see which is a more effective method for helping students correctly use these words.

6. There should be a comparative study of the vocabulary knowledge of English majors and non-English majors.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Sample data of the first to fourth-year's writing

The first year's essays

1. "Friends" this word is very important because everybody in the world don't to live alone. Everybody want to get help and loves from another people. They are understand the meaning of friend very well. Friendship Beyond Frontiers. This slogan is used to in 13th Asian Games during 6-20 December 1998. Asian games hosted by Thailand in Bangkok. Thailand is a land of smile. I think it like Friendship beyond frontiers. When I heard this slogan I think it a good idea because it easy for understand. The people from another country coming to Thailand for look the Asian Games. I look and cheer the player from Thailand in TV. I saw the Asian Games in very beautiful and very interesting. I'm very happy and pleased very much. This Asian Games is successful. I have a nice feeling about it.

2 between peoples in the world. It is helpful between friend, between family, or between everyone. Then it give happiness to our. The cooperation from every people can make hard work become easy work. Any work can be made easy by every people. Because there are many peoples mean there are many ideas. Which country there is friendship that there are happy. "friendship Beyond Frontiers" I think, although another nationality, another language are going to be good friends. That people can help or communication between each other. Although people in the world here different tradition, but they have friendship and generous for help everyone.

3. A sport is a good always. Every country in the world have a sports. Sports are occupation, exercising and relaxing. When we play a sport, it helping us a strong and patient. I agree the slogan " Friendship Beyond Frontiers" Every country have difference culture, language and nationality. When they meet another countries, they have conversation and exchange idea, each person have learn another habit person and then they adapt. They have a contest. When who win the games, another person to approve and congratulation to the winner. But the persons who disappointment they are not sorry. They think it is experience. They have about twenty days to know and learn another person. Sometimes they know before Asian Games maybe Sea Games or another Games. They give friendship for their friends. After they finished Games, they are friends always. The Asian Games 13th host by Thailand. I think it the best for Thailand. The foreign came to Thailand make they know Thailand better. Sometimes they came back to stay and invest Thailand. They tour in Thailand. They make economic Thailand better. I proud that I host too.

The second year's essays

1. "Friendship Beyond Frontiers" is more important for people in the world. I think friendship is a center of every race and every language. And its make a nice world very much. "Friendship Beyond frontiers" is slogan from 13th Asian Games hosted by Thailand. Every race in Asia came to Thailand for completion many sport. In this Asian Games there are winner and loser. But friendship make everybody is friendly. Although the competitive games have already finished. "Friendship Beyond frontiers" means in Thai is "Mittapap Rai Promdan". This word will be inside the mind of Thai people and every country in Asia. Friendship still forever.

2. In generally the people probably know the word "friend" and "ship". They are both vocabulary as nouns in English. If we rewrite in one word as "friendship", the meaning has been changed. Although it is still a noun. All humans in the world

want freedom, right, food, clothes, house and medicine. They want goodness, honest and kindness from one another. As we know in our world, there are a lot of people that they come from different family, different countries, different religion and they speak different language but they can join one place by something like activity such as sport. For example the Olympic games, Sea games or Asian games. These can let them together. We have heard the slogan that says "Friendship Beyond Frontiers" from 13th Asian Games hosted by Thailand. This activity shows people can join in every where every time. There is no limit. This is one of many concepts of the slogan "Friendship Beyond Frontiers".

3. For long time ago, humans had communicated from the other side of the world to the other by trade. They traveled a long way by the ship and also changed cultures, customs and goods. After that humans explored something to help them communicating and transporting that made everything comfortable and more faster. Nowadays, the world completely changed. Everything is connected. There is very easy to talk with your friend in America while you are in Thailand. In the other hand, you can go to see him in about 24 hours, and today the internet is concerning to our lives. It is similarly a big source of the knowledge that you learn at home and also enjoy yourself. Not for long time, Thailand absolutely had the Asian Games, the games of Asian people that Thailand was prepared for a long time and we confronted a lot of problems. One is the problem of the economy which we can do nothing about it. But Asian Games made us smiling and very proud. From that the slogan "Friendship beyond Frontiers" which is friendship of people in the world, not only in Asia. You actually learned how to live and share with other people and it makes the world completely peace.

The third year's essays

1. The slogan "Friendship Beyond Frontiers" from 13th Asian Games hosted by Thailand. I think people around the world are understand and know this slogan. I think this people want to have friendship. When they go to every country. No one don't want friendship. I think friendship is very important because it make the peace. The people from different country can live together. Although they speak different but they can understand. It not necessary that people from same country will be friend but people from every country will be friend because the only one word "friendship". Why we have friendship? Because friendship is a good thing. It make people live together without a war. When people give a sincere for the people who come to greeting. Every thing in the world will be beautiful, peaceful, and develop more than this day.

2. Friendship can occur everywhere and every time between man and man or animal and animal. Everybody have friendship in his heart. I believe everybody have friendliness in his heart and everybody have friends. I have many friends. We love, and share and care. Friendship occurs everywhere like in Thailand. When foreigners come to Thailand. Thai people smiles and Thai people have friendliness for the foreigners that make Thailand land of smiles. However if Thai people go to abroad, the people in that place have friendliness for Thai people too. Friendship make people love together that make this world beautiful, no war no frontiers. Between animal and animal, it has friendship too. Yesterday I saw my dog ate their food together. They don't fight each other. And if you see the news about a little tiger eat

pig milk with a little pig, this show that animal have friendship too. Everywhere you go you will get a friendship if you have friendship to give too. Don't forget friendship between man and animal. Do you have a dog or animal? I have 4 dogs and I love them and I know they love me too. This is a friendship beyond frontiers. And do you know? When you give us to writing this essay, we don't mind. I try although I don't good at writing English. I don't have many vocabs and I don't good at grammar but I have friendship for you that make I try to write it.

3. Friendship beyond frontiers that means connection between human with human which may be different language, nationality but everybody were human in the world together. So people cannot negative friendship from another persons. Good friendship will make us happy. When we feel tired and want to travel in the peace places or beautiful places or wherever that you want to go may be other country that never to go. It make you feel good cause by pure air. Especially, smiling and kindness from person that you meet. Although, may be don't understand language but smile is activity to happy friendship and want to be friend. Friendship with other person was important too. If we do good thing for other persons although we don't well known him. It make us happy because serve is best activity that we can do. When we serve other people that means we serve God too. We give friendship and kindness to neighbor and help them such as prepare vegetables from garden, cookies for children and many ways that we can show. When we do good things make many persons love us cause by friendship that we give them. And myself used to have experience like this and I would like you to know my story. I remember that when I was fifteen years old. Lovely boy which lived near my house. Everyday we will play tennis some day other sports. We only used to date 1 time. After that his family was angry that we met together. Next his father sent him to study at Bangkok and we cannot met together. I am really sorry for this happened. My neighbors hate me and my family. Almost 8 years, my family hard try to make my neighbor to understand and love us. We hoped all the times all the ways that we can do. Because I believe that the God will see and understand us. He will help us but we must help before myself and do best. If we cannot to do, he will help us but mean we must good person. Today, my neighbor already love my family. The God gave blessings with my family from good that we done. My family help neighbor made garden, cook and prepare candies, cookies food and many things. And important, we have friendship to give together.

The fourth year's essays

1. I agree with you about " Friendship Beyond Frontiers" from 13th Asian Games hosted by Thailand. I think every people in the world want to know the friendship Beyond Frontiers. It was very important for every people in the world. I think foreign come to Thailand they want to study about the way of life and everything to know about Thai people. The sport was very important for every people to take for the friendship then they are different language we can communicate with everybody to change culture but it is impossible to know everything, them Thailand used more money for Asian Games but we receive everything of them famous nation. This year is amazing Thailand I want to introduce Thailand for every person in the world.

2. "Friendship Beyond Frontiers" is a good slogan. I think the slogan have important for people in the world. Friendship is a good for friends. When every people have it the world are happy. Everyday the people wants it because people are unhappy. Now we can to tell them about the mean of Friendship. Because of when the people know that they can use it in your works and student are use in your class. Last month Friendship Beyond Frontiers we used it in Asian games are finished we are very happy and they understand of the meaning about friendship beyond frontiers are very good. We like the slogan we love the world and we want to tell the people in the world I love you so much. Friendship can tell you and make you a good people for your friends. When you have it many people are love you. Sometimes you ought to contact about work. If you have friendship you is very good. Now the world are hot when we have friendship Beyond Frontiers, so we have a good world.

3. There are several countries around the world which are different from each other. In addition, the citizen of each country are different from any other countries also. However, the people can't stay alone. Humans is one creature that have to live in group for their object. From the past time, the people in the East don't know about the people from the south. Now the technology have developed, it is possible to know any event from any part of the world. People can communicate with any other person wherever they live. From the slogan "Friendship Beyond Frontiers", I think , it is very important for humans to make a good relationship, even though they live in different country. The society or country can't develop if the citizens in the country don't help each other to do for their own country. They accord of the people bring the country to be the great country. On the other hand, the war may occur from the less or the shortage of good relationships. How to encourage the people in the country to have a good relation to the other person is ver necessary and ver important. This time is the information technology period or the globalization. It is easy to make a strong relation or to break a relation also. By this reason the head of every country have to concentrate on this problem. I think making a international sport or national sport is essential for a good relationship. The other way to make a good relationship is to spread out the culture and some good things to the other country such as tourist sites, customs, the way of life of the local people. However, the good friendship don't come from only one person or one group even though from one country but it needs a power of every people around the world. It is not difficult but it is not easy also because everybody can make it true by each person heart.

APPENDIX B

**Example of the analysis of lexical errors and
lexical errors found in the informants' writing**

Example of the analysis of lexical errors

Text	Tense	Part of speech	Collocation	Error of extra/omitted words	Meaning
Friendship Beyond Frontiers <u>it's the</u>	is			the	
good words for <u>this</u> Asian Games.			this		
Because <u>this</u> games <u>is</u> great. There	is		this		
are a lot of countries from Asia ^Λ				(that)	
come to Thailand <u>for</u> race sports.					race sports
Everybody <u>want</u> to be the winner.	want				
They hope they will get many					
<u>golden coins</u> or the other <u>coins</u> .		golden			coins, coins
Though <u>somebody</u> and some					somebody
countries <u>don't</u> get any <u>coins</u> <u>but</u>	don't			but	coins
they are not sorry, they are pleased					
to join <u>in this</u> games. Because the			this	in	
most <u>importance in this games</u> is not ^Λ		importance	in, this	(being)	
the winner or <u>the coins</u> . But it is ^Λ				(getting, being)	coins
<u>the friendly of</u> ^Λ human. Everybody			of	the, (the)	
will not forget <u>this</u> games because in			this		
the games they <u>get</u> a new friend,	get				a new friend
new <u>experience</u> and the sport <u>make</u>	make				experience
<u>they to</u> strong and they can show ^Λ		they		to, (the)	
spirit of a good sports player. <u>In</u> the					in
next Asian Games <u>that</u> they must <u>to</u>				that, to	
share. They know they must <u>to</u>				to	
practice more and more for <u>golden</u>		golden		(the)	
<u>coins</u> but though they lose they					coins
know <u>the</u> friendship ^Λ important more				the, (is)	
than <u>the win</u> .		win		the	

Tense error

1. A smile made the world peaceful.
2. However, Friendship Beyond Frontiers haven't accepts the different nationalities.
3. The god gave blessing with my family from good that we done.
4. I think that friendship are need.
5. They are met new friends from Asian Games in Thailand.

Parts of speech errors

1. People in Asian are friendly.
2. Only human have friendships, love, and helpful.
3. It makes the world completely peace.
4. We can do it very easy if we open our minds.
5. We could live happiness.

Collocation errors

1. In the present, Thai children can speak foreign languages.
2. I look and cheer the player from Thailand in TV.
3. In the other hand, you can go to see him in about 24 hours.
4. In this point, making friend you can make yourself.
5. For long time ago, humans had communicated the other side of the world to the other by trade.

Errors of extra/omitted words

Extra word errors

1. We live together is well in a little period.
2. Though somebody and some countries don't get any coins but they are pleased to join in this games.
3. It is easy to make a strong relations

Omitted word errors

4. This slogan is used in 12th Asian Games.
5. I agree the slogan "Friendship Beyond Frontiers."
6. The world full of love from everybody around the world.

Meaning errors

1. Asian Games are held for Asian people friendship because each sport let many people from many countries to share their opinions.
2. We can see Thai people wedding with foreigners.
3. And if you see the news about a little tiger eat pig milk.
4. Friendship still forever.
5. Man is social animal.

APPENDIX C

The VocabProfile word lists

Base List One

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

early	faith	future	hold	late
earth	fall	gain	home	law
east	familiar	game	honour	lay
easy	family	garden	hope	lead
eat	famous	gate	horse	learn
edge	farm	gather	hot	least
effect	fashion	general	hour	leave
effort	fast	gentle	house	left
eight	favor	get	how	length
either	fear	gift	however	less
eleven	February	give	human	letter
else	feed	glad	hundred	level
employ	feel	glass	husband	library
end	fellow	go	idea	lie
enemy	few	god	if	life
English	field	gold	impossible	lift
enjoy	figure	good	in	light
enough	fill	great	inch	like
enter	find	green	include	likely
entire	fine	ground	increase	limit
equal	finger	grow	indeed	lime
escape	finish	guard	independent	listen
even	fire	habit	influence	little
evening	first	half	instead	live
event	fish	hall	intend	local
ever	fit	hand	interest	long
every	five	handle	into	look
evil	fix	hang	introduce	lose
example	floor	happen	iron	lot
excellent	flower	happy	it	love
except	follow	hard	January	low
exchange	food	hardly	join	machine
exercise	for	have	judge	main
exist	force	he	July	make
expect	forget	head	June	man
expense	form	health	just	manner
experience	former	hear	justice	many
experiment	forth	heat	keep	March
explain	fortune	heaven	kill	mark
express	four	heavy	kind	market
extend	free	hello	know	marry
eye	Friday	help	lack	mass
face	friend	here	lady	material
fact	from	hide	land	matter
factory	front	high	language	may
fail	full	hill	large	maybe
fair	furniture	history	last	mean

measure	nine	pass	protect	river
meet	no	past	prove	road
member	none	pay	provide	roll
memory	nor	peace	public	room
mention	north	people	pull	rough
mere	not	perfect	purpose	round
metal	note	perhaps	put	rule
middle	November	permanent	quality	run
might	now	permit	quarter	Rush
mile	number	person	quiet	Safe
million	object	picture	quite	sail
mind	observe	piece	race	same
minister	occasion	place	raise	Saturday
minute	October	plan	rank	save
miss	of	plant	rate	say
modern	off	play	rather	scale
moment	offer	please	reach	scarce
Monday	office	point	read	scene
money	often	political	ready	school
month	oh	poor	real	science
more	oil	popular	reason	sea
moreover	old	population	receive	season
morning	on	position	recognize	seat
most	once	possess	record	second
mother	one	possible	red	secret
motor	only	post	reduce	secretary
mountain	open	power	refuse	see
mouth	operate	practical	regard	seem
move	opinion	prepare	regular	seize
Mrs.	opportunity	present	relation	sell
much	or	preserve	religion	send
music	order	press	remain	sense
must	ordinary	pressure	remark	sensitive
name	organise	pretty	remember	September
narrow	other	prevent	repeat	serious
nation	otherwise	price	reply	serve
native	ought	print	report	service
nature	out	private	represent	set
near	over	problem	respect	settle
necessary	owe	produce	rest	seven
neck	own	product	result	several
need	page	production	return	shadow
neighbour	pain	programme	rich	shake
neither	paint	progress	ride	shall
never	paper	promise	right	shape
next	part	proper	ring	share
night	party	propose	rise	she

shine	spring	take	twelve	what
shoe	square	talk	twenty	when
shoot	stage	taste	two	whether
shore	stand	teach	type	which
short	standard	tear	typical	while
should	start	tell	under	white
shoulder	state	ten	understand	who
show	stay	term	unfortunate	why
side	steel	terrible	union	wide
sight	step	test	unite	wife
sign	stick	than	university	wild
silence	still	that	unless	will
silver	stock	the	until	willing
simple	stone	then	up	win
since	stop	there	upon	wind
single	store	therefore	use	window
sit	storm	they	usual	wing
situation	story	thing	valley	winter
six	straight	think	value	wise
size	strange	thirteen	variety	wish
skill	stream	thirty	various	with
sky	street	this	vary	within
sleep	strength	though	view	without
slight	strike	thousand	village	wonder
slow	strong	three	visit	wood
small	struggle	through	voice	word
smile	study	throw	vote	work
so	subject	Thursday	wait	world
social	substance	thus	walk	worse
society	succeed	to	wall	worth
soft	such	today	want	would
soil	sudden	together	war	write
some	suffer	too	warn	wrong
son	suggest	top	waste	year
soon	summer	total	watch	yellow
sort	sun	touch	water	yes
sound	Sunday	toward	wave	yet
south	supply	town	way	you
space	support	trade	we	young
speak	suppose	train	weak	
special	sure	travel	wear	
speed	surface	tree	Wednesday	
spend	surprise	trouble	Week	
spirit	surround	trust	welcome	
spite	sweet	try	well	
spot	system	Tuesday	west	
spread	table	turn	western	

Base List Two

abroad	argument	beg	bush	coal
absence	arrange	behave	busy	coarse
absent	arrangement	behaviour	butter	coat
absolute	arrest	bell	button	coffee
absolutely	arrow	belt	cage	coin
accident	artificial	bend	cake	colar
accuse	ash	bicycle	calculate	collect
accustom	ashamed	billion	calm	colony
ache	aside	bird	camera	comb
admire	asleep	birth	camp	combine
advantage	astonish	bite	canal	comfort
advertise	astonishment	bitter	cape	commerce
advertisement	attend	blade	captain	committee
advice	attentive	blame	card	companion
aeroplane	attention	bless	carriage	compete
afraid	attract	blind	cart	complain
afternoon	attractive	block	castle	complicated
agent	audience	boast	cat	compose
agriculture	aunt	boil	cattle	confess
ahead	autumn	bone	caution	confidence
aim	avenue	boarder	cave	confuse
airplane	avoid	borrow	cent	congratulate
alike	avoidance	bottle	centimetre	conquer
alive	awake	bottom	century	conscience
aloud	axe	boundary	ceremony	conscious
altogether	baby	bow	chain	convenience
ambition	bag	bowl	chair	conversation
amongst	baggage	brain	chalk	cook
amuse	bake	brass	charm	cool
anger	balance	brave	cheap	copper
angle	band	breakfast	cheat	copy
angry	barrer	breath	check	cork
annoy	bare	breathe	cheer	corn
anxiety	bargain	bribe	cheese	correct
anxious	barrel	brick	cheque	cottage
apart	basin	broad	chest	cotton
apology	basket	broadcast	chicken	cough
apologize	bath	brother-in-law	Christmas	courage
applaud	bathe	brown	civilize	cousin
applause	bay	brush	classify	cow
apple	beam	bucket	clay	coward
approve	bean	bundle	cliff	crack
approval	beard	burst	climb	crash
arch	beast	bury	cloth	cream
argue	beat	bus	cloud	creep

crime	disgust	explode	frame	hat
critic	dish	explore	freeze	hate
crop	dismiss	explosion	frequent	hay
crown	disturb	extra	fresh	heal
cruel	ditch	extraordinary	fright	heat
crush	dine	extreme	fruit	heart
cultivate	dollar	fade	fry	height
cup	donkey	faint	fun	hesitate
cure	dot	false	funeral	hinder
curious	dozen	fan	fur	hire
curl	drag	fancy	furnish	hit
curse	drawer	far	gallon	hole
curtain	drink	farther	gap	holiday
curve	drown	fasten	garage	hollow
cushion	drum	fat	gas	holy
customer	duck	fate	gay	honest
dad	dull	father	generous	hook
damage	dust	fault	girl	horizon
damp	duty	feast	glory	hospital
deaf	eager	feather	goat	host
dear	earn	female	govern	hotel
debt	earnest	fence	grace	humble
decay	ease	fever	gradual	hunger
deceive	educate	fight	grain	hunt
decrease	efficient	film	gram	hurry
deed	egg	firm	grammar	hurt
deer	elastic	flag	grand	hut
defeat	elder	flame	grass	ice
defend	elect	flash	grateful	ideal
delay	electric	flat	grave	idle
delicate	elephant	flavor	grease	ill
delight	empire	flesh	greed	imagine
department	empty	float	greet	imitate
descend	enclose	flood	grey	immediate
deserve	encourage	flour	grind	immense
desk	engine	flow	guess	important
despair	entertain	fly	guest	improve
devil	envelope	fold	guide	industry
diamond	envy	fond	guilty	inform
dictionary	especial	fool	gun	ink
dig	essence	foot	hair	inn
dinner	essential	forbid	hammer	inquire
dip	exact	forest	handkerchief	insect
dirt	examination	forgive	harbor	inside
disappoint	excess	fork	harm	instant
discipline	excite	formal	harvest	instrument
discuss	excuse	forward	haste	insult

insure	liquid	mistake	pair	prompt
interfere	literature	mix	pale	pronounce
international	litre	model	pan	property
interrupt	load	modest	parcel	proud
invent	lord	moon	pardon	pump
invite	loss	moral	parent	punctual
inward	loan	motion	park	punish
island	lock	mouse	particular	pupil
jaw	lodging	mud	passage	pure
jealous	log	multiply	passenger	purple
jewel	lone	murder	paste	push
joint	loose	mystery	path	puzzle
joke	loud	nail	patient	qualify
journey	loyal	neat	pattern	quantity
joy	luck	needle	pause	quarrel
juice	lump	neglect	paw	quart
jump	lunch	nephew	pearl	queen
key	lung	nest	peculiar	question
kick	mad	net	pen	quick
kilogram	mail	nice	pencil	rabbit
kilometre	male	noble	penny	radio
king	manage	noise	per	rail
kiss	manufacture	nonsense	perform	rain
kitchen	map	noon	pet	rake
knee	master	nose	photograph	rapid
kneel	mat	noun	pig	rare
knife	match	nuisance	pick	raw
knock	meal	nurse	pigeon	ray
knot	meantime	nut	pile	razor
ladder	meanwhile	oar	pinch	realize
lake	meat	obey	pint	really
lamp	mechanic	ocean	pipe	recommend
landlady	medicine	offend	pity	receipt
landlord	melt	official	plain	refer
latter	mend	omit	plane	reflect
laugh	merchant	onto	plaster	refresh
lazy	mercy	onward	plough	regret
learn	merry	oppose	plural	rejoice
leaf	message	opposite	pocket	relieve
leg	metre	organ	poem	remedy
lend	mild	origin	poison	remind
lessen	milk	ornament	practice	rent
lesson	mill	overcome	president	repair
liberty	mililitre	outline	probable	replace
lid	milimetre	overflow	procession	reproduce
limb	miner	pack	profession	republic
lip	miserable	pad	profit	reputation

request	saw	smoke	string	thumb
reserve	scatter	smooth	strip	thunder
resign	scent	snake	stripe	ticket
resist	scissors	snow	stroke	tide
responsible	scold	soap	stuff	tidy
restaurant	scorn	sock	stupid	tie
retire	scrape	soldier	suck	tight
revenge	scratch	solemn	sugar	till
review	screen	solid	suit	tin
reward	screw	solve	supper	tip
ribbon	search	sore	suspect	tire
rice	seed	sorry	swallow	title
rid	self	soul	swear	tobacco
ripe	sentence	soup	sweat	toe
risk	serve	sour	sweep	tomorrow
rival	sew	sow	swell	ton
roar	shade	spade	swim	tongue
roast	shallow	spake	swing	tonight
rob	shame	spell	sword	tool
rock	sharp	spill	sympathy	tooth
rod	sheep	spin	tail	tough
roof	sheet	spit	tall	tour
root	shelf	splendid	tame	towel
rope	shell	split	tap	tower
rot	shelter	spoil	tax	toy
row	shield	spoon	taxi	track
royal	shilling	sport	tea	translate
rub	ship	staff	telegraph	trap
rubber	shirt	stain	telephone	tray
rubbish	shock	stairs	temper	treasure
rude	shop	stamp	temperature	treat
rug	shout	star	temple	tremble
ruin	shower	station	tempt	trail
rust	shut	steady	tend	tribe
sacred	sick	steam	tender	trick
sacrifice	signal	steap	tent	trip
sad	silk	steer	thank	truck
saddle	sincere	stem	theatre	true
sake	sing	stiff	thick	trunk
salary	sink	sting	thief	tube
sale	skin	stir	thin	tune
salt	skirt	stocking	thirst	twist
sample	slave	stomach	thorn	ugly
sand	slide	stove	thorough	umbrella
satisfy	slip	strap	thread	uncle
sauce	slope	straw	threat	unit
saucer	smell	strict	throat	universe

upper	violent	wax	whip	wool
upright	virtue	weapon	whisper	worm
upset	vowel	wealth	whistle	worry
urge	voyage	weather	whole	wound
vain	wage	weave	wicked	wreck
veil	waist	weed	widow	wrist
verb	wake	weigh	wine	worship
verse	wander	wet	wipe	wrap
vessel	warm	wheat	wire	yield
victory	wash	wheel	witness	zero

Base List Three

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

contemplate	denominator	elaborate	exploit	gravity
contend	denote	electronic	exponent	guarantee
context	dense	element	export	hemisphere
continent	deny	elicit	expose	heredity
contingent	depress	eliminate	external	hero
contract	deprive	eloquent	extract	hierarchy
contradict	derive	emancipate	facilitate	homogeneous
contrary	design	embody	faction	horror
contrast	detect	emerge	fallacy	hostile
contribute	detriment	emigrant	fare	huge
controversy	deviate	emotion	feasible	hypothesis
convene	device	emphasize	feature	identical
converge	devise	empirical	federal	identity
convert	devote	enable	fertile	ignorant
cooperate	diagram	energy	final	ignore
coordinate	diameter	enhance	finance	illuminate
correlate	dictate	enlighten	finite	illustrate
correspond	diffuse	enrich	fluctuate	image
create	digest	ensure	fluent	immigrate
credible	dimension	entity	fluid	impact
creditor	discern	enumerate	focus	imperial
crisis	discourse	environment	forgo	implement
criterion	dispense	episode	formula	implication
criticise	disperse	equate	formulate	implicit
crucial	displace	equate	fossil	imply
crystal	dispose	equation	foundation	import
culture	dispute	equidistant	fraction	impose
cumbersome	dissipate	equilibrium	fragment	impress
currency	dissolve	equipment	fraternal	impressive
cycle	distinct	err	fraud	impulse
cylinder	distort	establish	friction	incentive
data	distribute	estate	frontier	incessant
debate	diverge	estimate	frustrate	incident
decade	diverse	ethics	fuel	incidental
decimal	divine	evaluate	fulfil	incline
decline	doctrine	evaporate	function	income
dedicate	domestic	eventual	fund	incompatible
deflect	dominate	evident	fundamental	inconsistent
defer	drain	evoke	fuse	incorporate
deficient	drama	exclude	generate	index
define	drastic	execute	genuine	indicate
definite	drug	exert	geography	indigenous
deflect	durable	exhaust	geometry	individual
degenerate	duration	expand	germ	induce
deliberate	dynamic	expel	goal	infer
democracy	economy	expert	grant	inferior
demonstrate	edit	explicit	graph	inflation

ingenious	judicial	mobile	pendulum	project
inherent	justify	modify	period	propagate
inherit	kindred	moist	perpendicular	propensity
inhibit	knight	molecule	perpetrate	proportion
initial	label	momentum	perpetual	proprietor
initiate	laboratory	monarch	persist	prosper
injure	labour	morphology	perspective	protest
injustice	launch	motive	pertain	province
innate	layer	muscle	pertinent	provoke
innovation	lecture	myth	pervade	prudence
insist	legal	navy	pest	psychology
inspect	legislate	negative	phase	publish
instance	legitimate	negotiate	phenomenon	purport
instinct	leisure	nerve	philosophy	pursue
instruct	lens	network	physical	quote
integer	liberal	neutral	planet	radiant
integrate	liberate	niche	plead	radical
intellect	linguistic	norm	plot	radius
intelligent	litigate	normal	pole	random
intelligible	locate	notate	policy	range
intense	locomotion	notion	pollution	ratio
interact	logic	novel	port	rational
interlock	luxury	nuclear	portion	react
interlude	magic	null	positive	rebel
intermediate	magnetic	nutrient	postulate	rectangle
internal	magnitude	objective	potential	recur
interpret	maintain	oblige	pragmatic	reform
interrelate	major	obsolet	precede	refute
intersect	majority	obtain	precipitate	region
interval	manifest	obvious	precise	reign
intervene	manipulate	occupy	preliminary	reinforce
interview	margin	occur	premise	reject
intimacy	maternal	odd	preposition	release
intrinsic	mathematics	odour	prestige	relevance
intuitive	matrix	option	presume	reluctant
invade	mature	orbit	prevail	rely
inverse	maximum	orientate	previous	remove
invest	medium	oscillate	primary	render
investigate	mental	outcome	prime	repress
invoke	metabolism	overlap	primitive	repudiate
involve	metaphor	oxygen	principle	require
irrigate	method	parenthesis	prior	research
isolate	microscope	parliament	proceed	reservoir
issue	migrate	participate	process	reside
item	military	partisan	proclaim	residue
job	minimum	passive	procure	resource
journal	minor	peasant	prohibit	respective

respond	source	tape	
restore	sovereign	task	urban
restrict	spatial	team	usage
retain	specify	technique	utility
retard	spectrum	technology	utilize
reveal	speculate	telescope	utter
reverberate	sphere	temporary	vague
reverse	spontaneous	tense	valid
revise	stable	tentative	vary
revive	starve	terminology	vast
revolt	stationary	territory	vein
rhythm	statistic	terror	velocity
rigid	status	text	verbal
rigour	stereotype	texture	verify
role	stimulate	theft	version
rotate	stipulate	theorem	vertical
route	strata	theory	vibrate
rudimentary	stress	thermal	violate
rural	structure	tiny	virtual
saint	style	tissue	visible
sanction	subdivide	tolerate	vision
satellite	subjective	tone	visual
saturate	subordiante	topic	vital
schedule	subsequent	trace	vocabulary
scheme	subside	tractor	volume
score	subsidize	tradition	voluntary
secret	subtle	traffic	withdraw
section	suburb	trait	x-ray
secure	suffice	transact	
seek	sum	transfer	
segment	summary	transform	
select	superficial	transparent	
sequence	superimpose	transport	
series	superior	treaty	
sex	supplement	trend	
shift	suppress	triangle	
shrink	supreme	trivial	
sibling	surplus	tropical	
signify	survey	tyre	
similar	suspend	ultimate	
simultaneous	sustain	undergo	
site	switch	underlie	
skeleton	symbol	undertake	
sketch	symptom	unduly	
sociology	synthetic	uniform	
solar	tangent	unify	
sophisticated	tangible	upsurge	

VISTA

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Name: Miss Pattaraporn Sujan
Date of Birth: October 4, 1963
Place of Birth: Muang District, Mahasarakham
Address: 296 Moo 12, Tumbol Kwao, Amphur Muang,
Mahasarakham 44000

Educational Background:

2000	Master of Arts(English) from Srinakharinwirot University
1986	Bachelor of Education (English) from Mahasarakham Teacher's College
1982	Certificate of Science (Mathematics and Science) from Sarakham Pittayakom School, Mahasarakham