

ANA G. MÉNDEZ UNIVERSITY
Cupey Campus
Graduate Program in Education
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**RECOMMENDED CONTENT VOCABULARY ACQUISITION STRATEGIES FOR
LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT SECONDARY LEVEL STUDENTS**

By

Kenneth Cembalest

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Abstract

According to the Florida Department of Education (2014), only 23 % of the total number of students in the tenth grade at High School X mastered the 2014 Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) reading comprehension section. The resulting scores revealed a lack of mastery of skills in specifically content vocabulary. This demonstrated that the current strategies and approaches implemented by the school district for ESOL students is not accomplishing its goals. If academic content vocabulary is not acquired in a timely manner, the student will be retained, will not be promoted to the next grade level, and will not graduate. The objective of this study aimed to identify which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at Florida Public High School X. By identifying the most effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies, ESOL students can master academic content vocabulary in a faster pace. Learning and acquiring the specific academic content vocabulary is not only critical for every ESOL student's reading comprehension levels, but also provides for greater accuracy answering each of the questions on State Standardized Tests, such as the FSA, EOC, or SAT. Furthermore, this investigation is a qualitative study that employed a phenomenological approach. To assure the reliability and validity of the investigation, the investigator deployed triangulation methodologies throughout the study. The use of triangulation strengthened the credibility of the study's findings. Moreover, during the data collection phases, a semi-structured interview was used to determine the perceptions that participants had regarding the focus of this study. In these findings, it was clear that Teaching Word and Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues), Repetition of the Content Vocabulary, and Concept Illustrations/ Picture Graphs stood out as the most recommended strategies for effective content vocabulary acquisition for

limited English proficient students. These acquisition strategies, among others that are presented throughout the study, were recognized as both useful and effective in accelerating content vocabulary acquisition, particularly for secondary level ESOL students.

Dedication

I dedicate this work to all my family. Specifically, my lovely wife Gloryanne, my daughter Lyanne Nicole, my son Kenneth Adam, my mother-in-law Gloria Bonilla, and my parents Carmen Juarbe, and Arthur Cembalest, who have given me the values, education, and tools to be successful in life. They all have been very supportive throughout the process, and without their help, I would have never been able to accomplish this academic achievement. Thanks to all from the bottom of my heart.

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Chapter I

Introduction

The increasing populations of the English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) at the secondary level and the State Standardized Exams that they must pass in order to graduate, have presented teachers with a number of challenges in Florida. One of the great challenges that they face is instructing effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies among the ESOL students in order to prepare them for standardized testing. Notably, Hill and Flynn (2006) comment that ever since the arrival of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB Act), now amended in some states as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA Act) (2011), teachers can no longer rely solely on what they know of best practices or draw upon their own teaching experiences. As a consequence, it is essential that teachers become familiar with second language development theories and that teachers be prepared with effective content acquisition strategies which they can then model and practice with the ESOL students.

However, to better understand the fundamentals of content vocabulary acquisition strategies, a theoretical background was considered. According to Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010), theory helps constitute a description and an explanation of “reality” (the theory) or a context. Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010) add that it is the theory, the ultimate purpose of any scientific investigation and it helps to provide answers to questions like: why, how, and when a phenomenon occurs. Theories also help to organize knowledge regarding a specific phenomenon or reality, and it assist the investigator in making predictions.

In such a theory, as applied here, the basic needs of any student must first be met. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs demonstrates the necessity for education to begin with basic essentials. According to De Lozier (2014), once basic needs have been met, a student can then

begin to learn in significant ways. Glenn and Gort (2008) indicate that this includes the academic needs as well as the cultural and social acclimation of the ESOL students, which are basic needs in a classroom environment.

Similarly, according to Reiss (2012), to better understand our students' expectations and learning goals, a large piece of the puzzle must be considered first: culture. Haneda and Wells (2010) conclude that for a more effective instruction of ESOL students, teachers must consider a student's cultural needs and contemplate the benefit of that instruction. To better understand the concept of culture, Reiss (2012) reduces this to mean a construct of shared beliefs and values that determine rule-governed patterns of behavior of individuals within the cultural group.

Reiss (2012) describes culture as being built of many parts: values, beliefs, levels of beauty, models of thinking, norms of conduct, and forms of communication. Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, and Kohler (2003) indicate that learning to communicate in an additional language involves creating awareness and consciousness of the ways in which culture connects with language. Generally, culture determines how its group members interact with others.

Moreover, Hollie (2012) explains that when describing how culture and language are mutually related, there is nothing more real to us than the use of our mother tongue; linguistic identity is a crucial aspect of who we are. Hollie (2012) observes that the term *culture* subsumes or absorbs language; consequently, linguistic identity is obscured.

In short, we are what we speak. In broader terms, our language represents our heritage, including: family, community, and history. Therefore, teachers must always consider culture when teaching in order to support their students' learning, intentionally creating better communication that will assist them in meeting the criteria of academic accomplishments, cultural skills and abilities, and critical consciousness (Hollie, 2012).

In particular, Herrera and Murry (2005) state that the basic needs for the ESOL population, consistent with most of the literature, include Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) as well as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency skills (CALP) in the classroom. Reiss (2005) indicates that although children learning English develop a competent BICS within six months to three years, CALP can take between five to seven years to acquire.

Moreover, Collier and Thomas (1989) agree that academic language can take at least five to seven years to develop and expand, and it can take even more for students who cannot read in their native language when they start their schooling in the United States. Reiss (2005) adds that BICS is generally cognitively unchallenging (i.e., easy), while CALP is generally challenging (i.e., hard). The more familiar content teachers are with the conceptual basis of CALP and how it develops over time, the better they will be able to help the ESOL students in their classrooms. Reiss (2005) argues that to support ESOL students, teachers must understand how language develops and builds towards proficiency.

Mora-Flores (2011) comments that our work as teachers begins by understanding language development. Teachers should be familiar with how a second language is developed, and the different levels of language acquisition. Mora-Flores (2011) indicates that there are five distinct acquisition levels that have been identified: (a) a pre-production or silent level, (b) an early production level, (c) a speech emergence level, (d) an intermediate level, and (e) fluency at a native-like level. Hill and Flynn (2006) state that all students acquiring English will pass through these stages.

Furthermore, Hill and Flynn (2006) comment that by understanding the levels of linguistic proficiency of your student, you will become more competent at differentiating instruction to promote linguistic and academic achievement. These authors add that by

understanding the phases of language acquisition, a teacher can engage learners at the correct level of formal discussion of a given subject. In addition, Hill and Flynn (2006) state that when appropriate level questions are asked, content knowledge can be assessed alongside language proficiency. Overall, comprehension and monitoring by teachers of each of the five language acquisition levels in their ESOL students is a consideration that is absolutely necessary.

In addition, Mora-Flores (2011) states that regardless of whether or not language development is monitored and identified differently by teachers, what is important is that understanding what it is that ESOL students bring to their second-language learning experience helps teachers build upon the foundational knowledge and skills students have to assist them in reaching higher levels of second-language acquisition. Mora-Flores (2011) states that it is our job as teachers to make sure that students understand what is it that they must learn and what expectations and goals they must meet.

Situation

The growth of minority populations is a nationwide phenomenon and the rate of that growth is increasing year by year (Reiss, 2005). Freeman and Freeman (2007) indicate that there has been a rapid growth in the English Speakers of Other Language (ESOL) in the United States public school system. In fact, in the decade between 1995 and 2005, the number of ESOL students in K-12 schools grew to more than five million, with some states growing as much as 200% (OCEALA, 2007). Roedel (2011) indicates that by 2025, nearly one out of every four public school students will be an ESOL student. In addition, Klinger (2006) argues it has been projected that by 2030, 20% of people older than five years of age will speak a native language other than English.

Unfortunately, for many adolescents, arriving at a new high school, not knowing the language and culture can be overwhelming and stressful. Moreover, Hill and Flynn (2006) comment that these types of students have to comprehend an overload of important and necessary content vocabulary that is pertinent to each school subject and general reading comprehension. Particularly, one of the performance goals of the NCLB Act (Public Law 107-110 of 2001) requires that all ESOL students become skillful in English while at the same time be academically successful in reading, language arts, and mathematics. In addition, the ESEA Act states that ESOL students have to embrace and fulfill statewide English language competency standards that are connected to the state's colleges and universities' academic content standards (United States Department of Education, 2011).

Brassell and Rasinski (2008) stress the fact that if ESOL students do not understand many of the content words used in a text, they are not likely to understand that text and, as a consequence, will not pass mandatory state standardized reading and writing tests that are prerequisites to graduation. This most certainly contributes to making school a frightening experience as these students must make greater efforts to comprehend the content that is being taught (Cruz-Wiley, 2010).

Moreover, Reiss (2012) comments that ESOL students entering the U.S. academic system confront challenges to understand content vocabulary that increases with each school year. Since third grade and through high school, what is expected from each student increases to higher levels. According to Honigsfeld and Dove (2013), as learning levels increase, diverse secondary students may have difficulties with developing content vocabulary language skills attributable to a range of out-of-school factors. For example, some ESOL students are not completely familiar with Standard American English either because they may come from homes where little or no

English is spoken, or because their families speak a language other than Standard English at home (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2013).

Likewise, Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) comment that poverty may also limit access to out-of-school learning opportunities that incorporate more formal language use, examples of which may include visiting museums and art exhibits or attending theater performances and other cultural events. Thus, Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) add that some ESOL students that come from low-income families are additionally disadvantaged because their parents, sometimes, have had limited formal education. They may lack the background knowledge and firsthand personally relevant learning experiences that can serve as a stepping stone for acquiring complex content vocabulary in a text.

According to Hogan (2015), frequently other ESOL students just do not acquire through exposure to textbooks the breadth and depth of the content vocabulary needed to comprehend English, nor the content skills in order to participate in classroom discussions of different topics or issues presented in those texts. Also, Hogan (2015) states that ESOL students may struggle with expressing their ideas because they have disabilities like speech and language impairment, which can impede their learning of the content vocabulary. Reiss (2012) expresses that those ESOL learners who must comprehend academic English language competencies while they are expected to acquire content vocabulary knowledge confront an intimidating and demanding situation.

Gandara and Contreras (2009) discuss that data have shown that a large number of ESOL students drop out of school every year. Transcript data from Los Angeles city schools allowed an analysis of graduation rates in 2004 for these ESOL students who enrolled in the ninth grade in 2000, but only 27% remained in school and graduated with their class in the district in 2004.

Mora-Flores (2011) points out that transitioning from one language to another language trying to succeed academically can be very stressful and complex. In general, for ESOL students, Pérez and Holmes (2010) indicate that the importance of the “linguistic capacity” in a student’s achievement, meaning the stage of English acquisition for each learner impacts their success.

Moreover, Crockett (2011) indicates that if the majority of educators and academic institutions model and provide students with the tools to succeed academically, the process of graduating would be one of less failure among the ESOL groups. Moreover, the NCLB Act (Public Law 107-110 of 2001), a law signed by President Bush, and the new ESEA (2011) reform, signed by president Obama, guarantee accountability and flexibility as well as additional federal support for education, and call for quality and accountability for all the students in U.S. schools.

Furthermore, according to the United States Department of Education (2011), the ESEA Act states that academic institutions, districts, and states must have the responsibility for educating all students, including ESOL students to high academic standards. In addition, the ESEA Act indicates that importance may be given to programs, projects, or strategies that are made to specifically enhance the performance of ESOL students (United States Department of Education, 2011). Isecke (2011) mentions that we as educators are equally responsible for all of the students in our charge.

On the other hand, Apthorp, Wang, Ryan, and Cicchinelli (2012) address that no matter if the student’s primary language is another than English, educational institutions are mandated to evaluate teachers with intentions of recognizing, encouraging, and rewarding exceptional teaching strategies and implementation through professional development and guidance to improve students’ academic performance. As a result, all educational institutions serve as a

vehicle for deepening the ESOL students' language and continuing the content vocabulary acquisition process. Mora-Flores (2011) indicates that what is different, aside from students obviously needing to learn a new language, is how teachers can support ESOL students.

An interesting analogy about students' support is described by Hollie's (2012) concept of underserved students, which can be misinterpreted by many teachers as students of different races, cultures, languages, special education, or gifted students. According to Hollie (2012), underserved encompasses those students who are receiving bad customer service from the school, similar to a person not receiving the best service in a restaurant or a department store. Hollie (2012) explains that the difference is that we can request to see a manager or even walk out of the establishment, students cannot! They are stuck in a situation where the institution is failing them, so instead of asking for the manager, they simply check out mentally and emotionally. Also, Hollie (2012) argues that even worse, far too many are pushed out of school and become what are commonly known as dropouts.

In addition, approximately 180 different languages are spoken by students in American classrooms (Templeton, Bear, Inverzinni, & Johnston, 2010). According to Templeton et al. (2010), specifically ESOL students enter classrooms with various levels of proficiency in English and reflecting diverse educational and socioeconomic backgrounds. Likewise, Templeton et al. (2010) comment that teachers at all levels are working with increasing numbers of ESOL students who reflect an increasing diversity of languages.

Dawson (2014) states that in Florida the passing rate on the 2013-2014 FCAT 10th grade level reading test, a graduation requirement for all 10th grade students including the ESOL population, was 54%. Statewide, only 11% of 9,320 ESOL students earned a passing score on the 2013-2014 FCAT 10th grade level reading test. Specifically, Dawson (2014) indicates that in

X County Public Schools only 10% of the 992 ESOL students passed the 2013 FCAT reading test. Most recently on the new 10th-grade English Florida Standards Assessment (FSA), only 50% of the students statewide passed, down from 55% when the last FCAT was administered in 2014 (Sokol & Wright, 2016).

According to the X County Public Schools' District site, (2016) ESOL students represent 187 countries and 168 languages/dialects. A recent study by the Washington University's Center for Equity and Excellence in Education (2014) indicates that by 2050 the number of Latino students, the fastest growing school age demographic, is expected to surpass the number of white students in American schools. Likewise, in X County Public School District, the Hispanic students — a large number of whom speak Spanish in their homes — are now the largest demographic group in the district, at 35% (Sokol, 2017). Yet, Karac (as cited in Dawson, 2014) states that even though schools are becoming more diverse, expectations continue to equal out for ESOL students. Templeton et al. (2010) express that because of the increase in the ESOL student's population, there has been a substantial emphasis in current years on how best to accommodate this broad diversity.

Mora-Flores (2011) suggests that communication is essential and that teachers need to listen to their ESOL students and take note of the primary language that students bring to the classroom along with what they know and can do in English. However, this can be very misleading. Reiss (2005) states that the language that ESOL students need to achieve in school or their Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is not the same as the oral language they use in social context or Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS). Moreover, Reiss (2005) expresses that what instructors ask ESOL students to do with language inside the

classroom is much more difficult and challenging than what they do with language in the real world, consequently making it more difficult to acquire content vocabulary.

Also, Isecke (2011) comments that in addition to school itself being complex and challenging, students enter schools with diverse readiness levels, skills, interest, strengths, needs, motivations and learning styles that in a negative or positive manner have affected their background knowledge and their capacity of acquiring specific content vocabulary. Mora-Flores (2011) explains that most ESOL students have developed a complex level of academic language development in a primary language other than English when they arrive at school. Mora-Flores (2011) also confirms that, although in their primary language, many students have spent their early years exposed to rich language models, practiced using language and specifically content vocabulary across contexts. However, Hollie (2012) adds that most students bring to school a home and community vocabulary that is mostly identified with real world concepts, definitely a language that lacks critical skills for understanding and learning content vocabulary. Also, Hollie (2012) states that the intention of expanding their content vocabulary as a pedagogical approach involves bridging the students' world of words to the academic world of words.

Particularly, Cummins (1984) indicates that the development and bridging of a primary language can help in learning and expanding a new language. For example, the words *traditions*, *celebrations*, and *customs* are all cognates with the Spanish words *tradiciones*, *celebraciones*, and *costumbres*. Also, Cummins (1984) refers to this transfer as the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis which stipulates that both languages are working through the same processing system. Reiss (2011) suggests that the deeper conceptual understanding and skills we learn in a language do not change when learning a second language.

In addition, Cummins (1984) states that while learning a second language the surface-level output is what changes; meaning, that what we say or write (output), changes as we share our thinking and use our skills to make sense of new words. Last, Cummins (1984) indicates that when students have primary language literacy skills, they can use them to learn to read in a second language.

Likewise, Goldenberg (2008) comments that most ESOL students can call upon content knowledge, skills, conceptual knowledge, and strategies learned through a primary language when developing a second language. Goldenberg (2008) stresses that as teachers we need to understand CUP (Common Underlying Proficiency) as a critical piece for supporting English language learners. Moreover, Mora-Flores (2011) adds that we need to think about how we can use the knowledge and language that students develop in their first language to support their learning *of* and *in* English. However, Reiss (2005) comments that teachers must not lose the thought that even, learners who seem to work at a high level in face-to-face social interaction may still need critical language skills to comprehend academic content vocabulary.

Moreover, Mora-Flores (2011) states that to comply with diversity and with the NCLB Act, teachers today must be equipped with strategies to support not only, cultural and linguistic needs, but also the learning goals of their diverse classrooms. Sawchuk (2010) affirms that specific learning goals and accommodations are required for all students in core content. However, Tobin and McInnes (2008) suggest that while some teachers do recognize the diverse student's needs within the classroom, they may have difficulty providing the instruction to support the needs evidenced within the classroom.

In addition, Lucas, Villegas, and Freedson-González (2008) state that most teacher-training programs do not prepare teachers well for working with ESOL students. Sawchuk

(2010) comments that the general education teachers, with little or no specific training, are expected to implement effective strategies, methods, and models when teaching core content vocabulary to benefit all students including ESOL students. Mora-Flores (2011) argues that with a lack of preparation, we find ourselves reverting back to traditional pedagogical approaches that do not work with ESOL students. Consequently, the students will lack the academic language needed for triumph in an academic setting.

Mora-Flores (2011) suggests that teaching content vocabulary is about discovering new ways of connecting your content vocabulary in a manner that is engaging and meaningful to students. According to the NCLB Act (2001) and the new ESEA Act (2011), regardless of the strategies, methods, models, or programs the educational system implements, the general education teacher is continued to be held responsible for the primary core instruction of every student, and that includes the ESOL population. Zehr (2011) states that considering the diversity of academic needs evidenced in the general population, the ESOL students' needs require the teacher to provide instruction suitable for academic language acquisition embedded within the core content vocabulary. Hill and Flynn (2006) indicate that fortunately for ESOL students, today every member of a school staff is equally responsible of teaching English language skills.

According to Mora-Flores (2011), academic content language development happens every day, as ESOL students are constantly encountering language challenges. From one content to the next, they are exposed to varied text filled with difficult vocabulary, unfamiliar concepts, and decontextualized language. Also, Mora-Flores (2011) comments that ESOL students deserve a challenging curriculum that exposes them to quality literature, authentic writing experiences, inquiry - based content instruction, and high levels of thinking and productions. However, without training the teachers with the most effective teaching strategies on content vocabulary

acquisition, ESOL students will take longer to acquire the proper academic language. Therefore, these students will not comply with all the graduation requirements.

Furthermore, Mora-Flores (2011) states that when working with ESOL students, teachers need to devise immersed in a student-centered environment full of rich academic language opportunities. ESOL students need to hear academic language models from a variety of sources. Mora-Flores (2011) adds that teachers, peers, books, videos, and other sources of information can serve as models of academic language. Mora-Flores (2001) states that ESOL students need to be immersed in genuine language tasks that make language comprehensible.

In addition, Mora-Flores (2001) states that ESOL students need opportunities to share their thinking with one another and to practice oral language for academic purposes. Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) address that students need both, clear detailed instruction and relevant opportunities in academic language to proceed acquiring and developing essential language skills independently.

Statement of the Problem

According to Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010), in order to be more specific and to minimize any type of distortion, it is convenient to lay out the problem in the form of a question. The statement of the problem is to study: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida?

As a result of a lack of mastery of skills in the content vocabulary section of the new tenth grade English Florida Standards Assessment (FSA), a graduation requirement, effective academic content vocabulary acquisition strategies must be considered. Without effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies, ESOL students will continue to strive in the process of

obtaining a high school diploma. Furthermore, Mitchell (2016) asserts that the percentage of ESOL students graduating high school still trails other subgroups, including disabled learners and those who come from low-income families.

According to Paredes (2010), strategies are the ways through which learners develop a consciousness of their own thought process and therefore control of their own metacognition. Moreover, Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins (1999) comment that ESOL students who are conscious of their own metacognition, strategies, and inclinations are able to control their learning endeavors to meet their own objectives, and they become increasingly self-sufficient and self-directed learners.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify, describe, and analyze from a phenomenological perspective which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida. The researcher will review literature related to content vocabulary acquisition strategies used with ESOL students, interview ESOL teachers, and research the teachers' views, experiences, and teaching content vocabulary strategies.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this study aims to identify which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida. Considering, from the teachers' perspective, a recollection of the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for the ESOL population will provide other teachers with effective tools that will accelerate the language acquisition of the ESOL students, and best prepare them for the state standardized

exams. This study values the participating teachers' contributions, and gather their teaching experiences as an essential component in the investigation.

Justification of the Study

This study is expected to contribute to the field of instructing ESOL students, as well as, meeting the needs of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. Also, its goal is to focus on teaching and acquisition of academic content vocabulary strategies at the secondary tenth grade school level. Therefore, ESOL teachers, academic program designers, and coordinators may find this study useful and beneficial.

According to the Florida Department of Education (2014), only 23% of the total number of students in the tenth grade school level at X Public High School mastered the reading comprehension section in the 2014 Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT); the remaining 77% that did not pass had to retake it. Overall, these scores presented a lack of mastery of skills in understanding content vocabulary that if not acquired in a timely manner the student will be retained and will not be promoted to the next grade level or not graduate.

On the other hand, Yi (2015) states that to make the challenge even more difficult and rigorous for the ESOL students, the new Common Core tests will be harder and longer than the FCAT. In addition, Yi (2015) expects the failure rate among non-English speaking students to increase. Consequently, time will pass and more ESOL students will not graduate.

Also, Vogt and Echevaría (2014) state that ESOL students do not have the comfort of waiting to grasp content until they have dominated English. Vogt and Echevaría (2014) comment, that they must be able to advance English language skills and content comprehension simultaneously. The extent and difficulty of study necessary at the secondary level can be accommodated and the mechanics of learning content vocabulary for the ESOL students has to

be greatly facilitated (Paredes, 2010). Furthermore, in order to fully comply with the ESEA Act, and provide an excellent education, every single student must be facilitated with the same support and learning tools.

The X County Public Schools (2014) indicate that they serve over 45,000 students who speak over 168 different languages/ dialects and represent almost 200 different countries. Programs for ESOL students in the X County Public Schools in Florida have been modified to accommodate the diverse communication, cultural, and academic needs of the ESOL students. Yet, reports have demonstrated that ESOL students' levels of academic performance remain much below those of their native English speaking peers in almost every measure of achievement.

Researching what are the most effective academic content vocabulary acquisition strategies will help students understand their academic course content vocabulary. Paredes (2010) indicates that if ESOL students have a well-functioning repertoire of academic content vocabulary acquisition strategies, then these strategies would facilitate learning the language, as well as allow the students to learn how to learn.

In conclusion, the growing number of ESOL students in the public schools of the U.S. is a trend that needs to be researched to understand and to develop effective academic content acquisition strategies that work with the ESOL students as they progress (Lovett, 2008). Knowing content vocabulary acquisition strategies is highly recommended by experienced teachers and it is a must on every teacher's list of responsibilities.

Research Question

The purpose of this investigation is guided by the following question:

Which are, according to the teacher's perspective, the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida?

Contributions of the Study

In order to aid the educational process of the ESOL population and to decrease the number students failing and not graduating, research into teaching effective strategies for content vocabulary acquisition is necessary. According to Mora-Flores (2011), content vocabulary acquisition instruction is the world in which our students live: the history of our world and ourselves, the beauty of the arts, the study of our health, and how things work. Such valuable content and familiar contexts give a perfect channel for students to develop academic language or content vocabulary. Not to say that it is an easy task for students to navigate language and content simultaneously, but providing teachers with a variety of effective strategies, can facilitate high levels of content vocabulary development.

While today's programs have come a long way from the "sink- or swim" approach of the past times, few of them address the issue of content vocabulary learning for ESOL students (Reiss, 2005). This study is an effort to contribute to this need. In addition, this research may provide educators better knowledge to indicate which strategies experienced teachers consider work best with ESOL students. By doing so, other teachers can incorporate strategies in their lessons that may lead ESOL students to a higher English language proficiency level which will help when taking state mandatory exams like the FCAT or FSA that are required for graduation.

Reiss (2012) states that although approaches to instruction may vary among schools, school districts, and counties, the primary objective of all school programs for non-native speakers should be the same: to teach them to understand, speak, read, and write. Mora-Flores (2011) addresses that all teachers must remember that all students can learn and that their responsibility is not only instructing a student, but preparing the following generation of model citizens, leaders, and members of a controversial society.

Limitations of the Study

The following investigation is conducted to identify, describe, and analyze from a phenomenological perspective which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida. First, the study is limited to strictly the public educational school system and corresponds solely to the ESOL students' population. In addition, the participants of the study are all Highly Effective secondary tenth grade ESOL certified teachers with five years of experience or more. Moreover, the study is limited in time due to the fact that it has to be carried out in a restricted school time frame. Finally, the study is limited to a semi-structured interview with open-ended questions that neither the researcher nor the respondent knows what results will be generated.

Conclusion

Finally, according to the United States Department of Education (2011), the NCLB Act and the ESEA Act will continue to supply meaningful grants to assist states and school districts implementing excellent language teaching educational programs to upgrade the education of ESOL students. The ESEA Act states that the grantees may provide dual-language programs, interim bilingual education, sheltered English immersion, new-student programs for late-entrant

ESOL students, or other language teaching educational programs (United States Department of Education, 2011). In addition, the grantees may also supply effective professional growth for all instructors of ESOL students, including instructors of academic content areas that respond to revealed needs recognized by evaluations (United States Department of Education, 2011).

To make sure that formula grants in these areas assist the necessary conditions to encourage ESOL students' success, the ESEA Act will require states to: (a) establish new criteria to ensure consistent statewide identification of students as ESOL students, and to determine eligibility, placement, and lasting of programs and services, based on the state's valid and reliable English language proficiency assessment; and (b) activate a system that evaluates the effectiveness of language instruction academic programs, and to inform on the achievement of subgroups of ESOL students, to drive better decisions by school districts for program development, and to help districts select effective programs (United States Department of Education, 2011).

The United States Department of Education's (2011) ESEA Act states that districts that are not demonstrating growth in the ESOL students' performance will lose flexibility funds under this program, and must work with the state to apply more effective strategies. This study aims to address the requirement of recommended effective strategies in specifically the topic of content vocabulary acquisition.

Through the participant's descriptions and interpretations on the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies the investigator can uncover and reveal an understanding about a phenomenon not typically studied. According to Merriam (2009) (as cited in Worthington, 2010), the overall purpose of a qualitative research study derived

philosophically from phenomenology is to understand how people make sense of their experiences.

Ultimately, Merriam (2013) (as cited in Worthington, 2010) states that the purpose of educational qualitative research is to improve our practice and to obtain an in-depth understanding of effective academic processes. During the whole process the investigator intends to discover strategies that can benefit the acquisition of the content vocabulary necessary for the ESOL students to understand the lessons taught in their classes and to comprehend the questions in their exams.

Definition of Terms

The following section provides the definitions to terms and abbreviations that are stated throughout the investigation. According to Goes and Simmon (2015), defining key terms is important to ensure that a common understanding of significant concepts and terminology is shared between the author and his or her readers, particularly if the word is uncommon. Reading over these concepts may assist readers in comprehending the text as they analyze it. All of the words are placed in alphabetical order and each one provides a reference for easy access and additional information.

Moreover, each word is grounded by a committee of experts to assure it is coherent. According to Goes and Simmon (2015), having the words revised by other experts helps rationalize terminology and comprehension within the branch of study. By providing clear and consistent definitions of terms, peer investigators will not misinterpret any concepts and abbreviations.

1. Academic Language – The knowledge, understanding, and use of language particular to an academic context; involves the functions, forms, and vocabulary students use to understand and demonstrate their learning across the curriculum (Mora-Flores, 2011).
2. Academic Vocabulary - The words critical to comprehending the concepts of the content instructed in classrooms (Freeman, 2007).
3. Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) - Language that is both context-embedded and cognitively undemanding (Freeman, 2007 p.180).
4. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) – The level of language acquisition where learners are able to understand concrete and abstract vocabulary and express their thoughts throughout the academic curriculum (Mora-Flores, 2011).
5. Cognates – Words that are similar in spelling, meaning, and pronunciation from one language to another (Mora-Flores, 2011).
6. Common Core State Standards (CCSS) - Set of high-quality academic standards in mathematics and English language arts/literacy (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2015).
7. Content Vocabulary - Vocabulary specific to a particular academic subject matter (Freeman, 2007).
8. Differentiation – When a teacher observes and understands the similarities and differences among learners and uses this information to plan the class (Scholastic Professional, 2016).
9. English Language Learners (ELL) - Students who come to school speaking a language or languages other than English and need support to study English (Freeman, 2007).

10. English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) - Programs for ESOL students in which English is the means of instruction (Freeman, 2007).
11. Florida Comprehension Assessment Test (FCAT) – Test used to measure student achievement of the Next Generation Sunshine State Standards in reading, mathematics, and writing (Florida Department of Education, 2014).
12. Florida Standards Assessment (FSA) - Beginning with the 2014-2015 academic year, the Florida Department of Education is transitioning to the new Florida Standards Assessment, which replaces the FCAT 2.0 assessments in reading, writing, and mathematics (Florida Department of Education, 2014).
13. Teachers’ State Levels in accordance to the Students’ Assessment Results and the Principal’s Evaluations - Highly Effective, Effective, Needs Improvement, or Unsatisfactory (Hillsborough County Public Schools Teacher Evaluation Handbook, 2017).

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

This study focuses on effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies for ESOL students at a secondary school level. According to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) (2010), literature reviews are critical assessments of information that has been published. Therefore, the literature review for this study includes theoretical research of content vocabulary acquisition strategies.

The literature is broken down into eleven sections to inform the reader of the state of research on effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies for ESOL students at a secondary school level: (a) theoretical and historical framework, (b) methodological framework, (c) types of vocabulary, (d) the three tiers, (e) content vocabulary acquisition and the brain, (f) the BICS and CALP, (g) content vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension, (h) motivation and content vocabulary acquisition, (i) theoretical concepts on vocabulary acquisition learning strategies, (j) content vocabulary acquisition focused on STEM, (k) language learning strategy assessment, and (l) self-directed learning theory. All of the information is classified into sub-topics that contain important evidence based research and feedback.

Theoretical and Historical Framework

Second language acquisition is a very complicated process and it involves many internal and external factors relative to learners (Cheng, 2000). According to Cheng (2000), despite many theories discussing different models and factors, there is not a theory that directly addresses academic vocabulary acquisition in second/foreign languages, which is an important part of a complex process. Cheng (2000) states that vocabulary acquisition in second language learning has only been incidentally treated in some theories.

Moreover, Levenston (1979) argues that psychologists, linguists, and language educators have been curious and interested in vocabulary acquisition strategies for a long time. Yongqi Gu (2003) states that many investigations have been administered comparing the retaining effects of various academic vocabulary presentation strategies. Moreover, Yongqi Gu (2003) indicates that the academic vocabulary field has been very productive in the last two twenty years.

According to Yongqi Gu (2003), there is a lot of great literature on theories (e.g., Carter, 1987; Carter & McCarthy, 1988; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 1990), research (e.g., Arnaud & Bejoint, 1992; Gass, 1987; Meara, 1989; Nation & Carter, 1989), and practical tips (e.g., Gairns & Redman, 1986; McCarthy & O'Dell, 1994). Contemporary literature, for example information on CUP or the Common Underlying Proficiency that gives significant information upon many features of content vocabulary acquisition, also considers Huckin, Haynes, and Coady (1993), Harley (1995), Hatch and Brown (1995), Coady and Huckin (1997), Schmitt and McCarthy (1997), Atkins (1998), Wesche and Paribakht (1999), Read (2000), Schmitt (2000), and Nation (2001).

Definitely, many studies have been done along a more general edge, in terms of seeking for overall algorithms of useful strategies (Yongqi Gu, 2003). However, Yongqi Gu (2003) states that the selection, use, and effectiveness of vocabulary acquisition strategies rely on the assignment (e.g., breadth vs. depth), the student (e.g., cognitive and cultural styles of learning, motivation), and the context. Yongqi Gu (2003) expresses that in the future, research needs a more concrete ground that considers all the previous aspects.

Moreover, Yongqi Gu (2003) states that we can examine strategies for multiword units, strategies to increase levels of vocabulary acquisition, strategies for students at various stages of proficiency, and strategies for vocabulary as skill. Likewise, Yongqi Gu (2003) assures that

context perspective is necessary if we are to stop the unrealistic and impractical look-out of the perfect strategy. Techniques that work in one particular school system, might not work in another (Yongqi Gu, 2003). Thus, Yongqi Gu (2003) confirms that language instruction needs a variation of labor.

While theory construction is for sure in order so that future empirical investigations receive transparent advice (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Meara, 1998), more bottom-up experiential attempt on various features of vocabulary acquisition at different levels of learning for different students in a diverse cultural and academic context will assist us answer many research interrogatives beyond the presentation and retention of vocabulary words (Yongqi Gu, 2003). Yongqi Gu (2003) states that a fully developed, interrelated, functional, and dynamic second language vocabulary is expanded gradually, and develops by itself, if the student makes use of strategies that aim for the use, rather than absorption, of vocabulary.

Furthermore, before the late nineteenth century, teaching second-language reflected the so-called Classical Method of instructing Latin and Greek; classes were found on mental-aerobics exercises—repetitive drills and out-of-context academic vocabulary trainings as well as lots of reading and translations of prehistoric texts (Taber, 2006). Brown (2007) states that languages were not being instructed to learn oral/aural interaction, but to acquire for the purpose of being ‘academic’ or for reading mastery. Particularly, theories of second-language mastery did not start to emerge until the instructional objective became an oral competence (Taber, 2006).

Since the 1940s, the definitive answers to effective ESOL education and methods have been uncovered numerous times (Taber, 2006). Rogers (2001) states that the very notion of method has to do with the idea of an exact arrangements of instructional practices and strategies rooted on specific theories of language and language acquisition. Also, like bestsellers, pop stars,

and candy flavors, second-language theories take place in the spotlight and then stumble into the dusk of oldness (Taber, 2006). The following methods and theories help describe the basic evolution of instructional practices considered within the ESOL class settings:

Grammar-Translation. From the turn of the nineteenth century until the late 1940s, the grammar-translation method dominated (Taber, 2006). According to Taber (2006), it is unchallenging to instruct; it needs nothing else than the skill to retain lists of remote vocabulary words; and it targets low in terms of oral interaction and aural understanding—no person that is instructing or acquiring an academic language has to speak, pronounce, or even comprehend what is being spoken. Also, Taber (2006) explains that using the grammar translation method the teacher might then allocate students a series of fill-in-the-blank practice or sentence constructions that reveals the grammar concepts.

In addition, Taber (2006) indicates that other aspects of the grammar-translation class include translations of written texts from the academic language into the native language, recognizing antonyms and synonyms, repeating academic vocabulary words, retaining vocabulary lists, fabricating sentences with the new content vocabulary words, and writing compositions in the academic language. According to Taber (2006), most of the previous work is written, except for the repetitive exercises.

Taber (2006) states that grammar-translation learners are used to doing fill-in-the-blank assignments, acquiring grammar guidelines before applying them, retaining lists of content vocabulary words, and forming artificial sentences to demonstrate their ability of the lexicon and syntax. However, when students are presented to more creative strategies of academic vocabulary instruction, they many times consider it hard to perform, and as a result, regret the apparent shortage of structure (Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) concludes that grammar-translation's

theoretical base may be identified as behavioristic because habit formation is developed through repetition and encouragement.

Pre-Behaviorism. The first second-language instruction theory-based strategies started with François Gouin in the mid-nineteenth century. Even though his effort did not win universal and lasting acknowledgement, it set the floor for upcoming theorists (Taber, 2006).

The Series Method. According to Taber (2006), Gouin's theory of language acquisition came out of the ashes of his own lack of success to acquire German. Taber (2006) states that Gouin spent a year in Germany segregated in his learning process, retaining thousands of verb declensions and vocabulary words, and meanwhile, stepping away from any interaction with local people of Germany.

Discouraged and effectively monolingual, Taber (2006) asserts that Gouin returned to his native France and found that in all his year being absent, his three-year-old nephew had become gracefully fluent in French. Reflecting on how a toddler could so quickly out-perform his own considerable intelligence, he was determined to analyze his nephew and other kids who were in the process of learning language (Taber, 2006). According to Taber (2006), Gouin was able to theorize that the language a person uses is connected to one's actions at the moment of saying a word.

On this theory, Taber (2006) states that Gouin created the Series Method, which attempted to teach second language by recreating conditions in which students acquire a first language. For example, Brown (2007) explains that particularly, the instructor takes action—walking to the window—and simultaneously verbally explains the process of walking to the window: “I walk to the window.” “I take steps toward the window.” “I get to the window.” “I stop at the window.” The student then mimics the instructor. As time goes on, the student is able

to expand his/her linguistic skills: “Am I walking to the window?” “Did I walk to the window?” “I am thinking about walking to the window.”, and “I am walking to the window.” (Brown, 2007).

The Direct Method. Second-language theorists state that the first real method of language instruction was the Direct Method that originated as a response in opposition to the tedious repetition and ineffectiveness of grammar-translation instruction (Taber, 2006). According to Taber (2006), the Direct Method was the idea of Charles Berlitz, a nineteenth-century linguist whose schools of language acquisition are well-known around the world. It borrowed and practiced Gouin’s findings of the previous generation, looking to model his naturalistic approach (Taber, 2006).

Moreover, Taber (2006) states that Charles Berlitz accepted, as did Gouin, that a person could acquire another language by modeling the way children acquired their first language; that is, straight and with no explanations of grammatical features and using just the academic language. Therefore, grammar was instructed logically (Taber, 2006). The ends were speaking and listening comprehension, but not translation. For this reason, content vocabulary was presented in context and through demonstrations and illustrations, and special importance was put on proper usage and pronunciation (Taber, 2006).

To test for comprehension, the instructor then asks questions in the academic language and learners would have to answer correctly in the academic language (Taber, 2006). Following the question-answer segment, the teacher might read aloud the passage to the learners three times. Learners would then read the dictation again to their classmates (Taber, 2006).

Behaviorism. According to Taber (2006), we can appreciate investigators such as Pavlov, Skinner, and Watson for behaviorism-based strategies applied in U.S. schools as well as

the Audio-lingual Method of second-language education. Skinner's theory of operant conditioning is founded on the concept that acquisition results from a change in observable behavior (Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) indicates that practical to language learning, one acquires language by producing an utterance (operant), which is reinforced by a reply by another (consequence). Moreover, Taber (2006) states that if the consequence of the imitated action is negative, one does not repeat the same behavior, but if the action is what is expected, and the consequence is positive, one repeats the behavior. Repetition then forms into a habit (Taber, 2006).

Thus, behaviorists all consider with the ideas of Francis Bacon and John Locke that a person is born a *tabula rasa*, a blank slate, and all acquisition is the outcome of exterior stimulants (Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) states that this theory sprang the popular Audio-lingual Method, which left grammar-translation by the wayside.

According to Taber (2006), the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) was first known as the Army Method because it had been embraced by the military during the Second World War when it became obvious that most Americans were irredeemably monolingual. Moreover, Taber (2006) states that ALM is not unlike the Direct Method in that its main idea is to instruct learners to communicate in the academic language. The Audio-lingual Method is basically a behavioristic approach to language instruction. In addition, Taber (2006) indicates it is grounded on drill work that focuses on forming good language manners, and it makes use of extensive discussion practice in the academic language. Learners also start the academic-language school year with their minds completely blank—at least in theory—and they receive multiple linguistic stimulants and comment about them (Taber, 2006).

Moreover, Taber (2006) indicates that if learners answer right, they receive a reward or compliment so that they repeat the answer, which promotes proper habit formation. Yet, if the learners respond incorrectly, they receive no reward, nor compliment and therefore repress the response, which holds back the response (Taber, 2006).

Furthermore, Stafford (2001) states that its theoretical assistance also comes from post-war structural linguists. Also, Stafford indicates that structural linguists evaluate how language is constructed, not in a historical-descriptive, or diachronic, manner, but as it is currently spoken by natives. Language was now analyzed as a group of abstract linguistic units that made up a complete language system (Stafford, 2001).

The awareness that all languages are difficult, authentic systems allowed linguists to comprehend its many facets, singular structure of English without comparing it to Latin, which had long been the model of greatness among dictatorial grammarians (Stafford, 2001). Moreover, Stafford (2001) discusses that this led to new ideas of how language should be instructed. Stafford (2001) states that individual structures should be introduced one by one and practiced through repetition drills. Grammar explanations must be minimum or nonexistent, for learners will acquire grammatical forms by inductive analogy (Stafford, 2001).

Universal Grammar. The 1960s disturbed traditional thinking about the importance to avoid mistakes and the thought that language acquisition was a matter of developing positive habits by imitation, repetition, and over-learning (Taber, 2006). Chomsky (1965) came into the scene with an innovative new concept of first-language acquisition, which had a resounding effect on theories and strategies of second-language acquisition. According to Taber (2006), no longer did children begin life with a tabula rasa; in fact, it was just the other way around—they are born with an innate program of grammar already built in them and ready to start.

Humanistic thinkers such as Carl Rogers, insists that people are—well—people. Everyone is a unique person who responds in her/his unique manner to any given situation (Taber, 2006).

Taber (2006) expresses that David Ausubel was there to assist. Influenced by Piaget and other cognitive psychologists, Ausubel (1978) (as cited in Bowen, 2013) theorized that the most meaningful factor influencing ESOL students is what the student already knows. Ausubel (1978) rejected the antique rote-learning methods in favor of significant, or relevant, methods of teaching. When material is significant, learners can relate, or subsume, the new information to components in their cognitive structure (Brown, 2007).

Consequently, a new series of so-called “designer” methods or theories of second-language instruction was elaborated during the 1970s (Brown, 2007). According to Brown (2007), their initial popularity was short-lived; but many remain on the edge of contemporary methods, and some still make brief appearances in classroom mini-lessons. The fundamental message in cognitive language acquisition is that individual students have to be gradually guided toward their own comprehension of prescriptive rules (Taber, 2006).

Community Language Learning. Developed by Charles Curan in 1972, Community Language Learning distributed with the hierarchical student-teacher connection and adopted a counselor-client connection (Taber, 2006). According to Taber (2006), the idea was to remove any sense of challenge or risk-taking from the emotionally delicate client, which theoretically would free him/her to acquire another language without truly trying. Moreover, Taber (2006) asserts that the counselor would translate and gradually facilitate all learning activity.

Community Language Learning was inspired by Rogers’ (2001) theory that all living creatures are inspired to live up to their capacity; but, people are often blocked by environmental

and personal situations. According to Rogers (2001), once the situations are solved, the person can live up to his/her potential. We will observe that this thinking was further developed during the 1980s by Stephen Krashen in his analysis of affective filter (Taber, 2006).

In terms of second-language acquisition, certain affective factors—features in the environment or in the ESOL student’s psyche—may cause a mental block that prevents input (target language) from grasping the language acquisition device (Cook, 1993). Taber (2006) explains that in a typical session, ESOL students and teacher are seated in a circle. The teacher starts by describing what the students will be doing. When moved by the spirit, one student will raise his/her hand, and signal for the teacher to approach. The student then says a phrase in her/his native language, which the teacher repeats in the academic language (Taber, 2006).

Moreover, Taber (2006) expresses that the student then repeats the phrase in the academic language. The academic-language section of this “conversation” is recorded. Taber (2006) states that the students listen to the recording and the teacher then writes the student’s part of the conversation on the board and the most courageous fellow students volunteer to translate the sentences into their native language. Meanwhile, students receive tender reassurance from the teacher (Taber, 2006).

Suggestopedia. Yet another theory was created by Georgi Lozanov in 1979 (as cited in Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) discusses that according to this theory when the mind and body are calm the brain absorbs knowledge with no effort. Moreover, Taber (2006) explains that the Suggestopedia classroom uses music—specifically Baroque music with its ideal 60 beats per 60 seconds—to assist relaxing students as teachers apply several language-acquisition activities. Taber (2006) expresses that in this classroom even adult students are motivated to behave as adaptable, suggestible students, and to regard their instructor as a great-mentor parental model.

Having soft music playing in the background, learners role-play, and learn academic vocabulary under the guidance of the all-powerful instructor (Taber, 2006).

The Silent Way. The Silent Way established its way into classrooms after the publication of Gattegno's text, also called *The Silent Way* (Taber, 2006). According to Sidhakara (2002), the Silent Way, "is founded on a theory of learning and instructing rather than on a theory of language". According to Taber (2006), the purpose is to make learning automatic by inspiring learners to discover, rather than memorize, the lexicon and prescriptive principles of the academic language. The teacher has to be a facilitator who only intercedes in students' learning if they are wandering without hope off course (Taber, 2006).

Total Physical Response (TPR). In the nothing-is-gone-forever section, Total Physical Response harkens back to Gouin's Direct Method of the mid-nineteenth century (Taber, 2006). Asher (1988) states that since children in the process of acquiring their native language seem to listen more than they speak and often react physically to speech, second-language learners might learn an academic language in the same manner. In addition, Asher (1988) wanted to develop an atmosphere in which students did not have to do anything, but answer to commands such as "Go to the door!" or "Walk slowly to the chalkboard!" because he believed that language classes were too demanding.

According to Taber (2006), Total Physical Response helps ESOL learners retain other linguistic forms, such as questions by watching and imitating the instructor shrug his/her shoulders, look confused, and ask, "Where is the chair?" In these ways, learners magically begin asking questions and developing their own imperatives. In theory, Tabers (2006) comes to the conclusion that this procedure takes ESOL students to fluency in the academic language.

Krashen: The Natural Approach. In 1983, Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell published *The Natural Approach*, which set forth both the theory and application of the Natural Approach to language instructing (Taber, 2006). They had the special idea that the purpose of language is to communicate meanings and messages which can be achieved simply by acquiring the lexicon of the academic language (Kiymazarslan, 1995). Moreover, Taber (2006) explains that Krashen and Terrell understood that the initial “silent period” should be honored until learners begin to express themselves naturally; that is, when speech in the target language emerges of its own accord. In addition, Taber (2006) states this is supposed to occur when teachers create a non-risky environment by incorporating TPR at the beginning level, and by targeting low in terms of communicative abilities; that is, by limiting learning objectives to simple interpersonal communication skills.

The Natural Approach is supported by Krashen’s (1983) famous Monitor Model of Language Acquisition, a set of five hypotheses: (a) *The Acquisition vs. Learning Hypothesis* distinguishes the subconscious process of first-language acquisition in children from the conscious process language learning in adults, (b) *The Natural Order Hypothesis* states that morphemes are acquired in a predictable order; ([-ing] is the first acquired morpheme in English, (c) *The Monitor Hypothesis* maintains that acquisition, not learning, is responsible for fluency. Learning—for example, knowledge of grammar and other linguistic structures—functions as a monitor or editor during and after the acquisition process, (d) *The Input Hypothesis* asserts that language is acquired when students receive comprehensible input that is a tad beyond their level of competence, and (e) *The Affective Filter Hypothesis* claims that one cannot acquire a language unless one feels confident, relaxed, and diverted.

The typical Natural Approach classroom is teacher-centered (Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) states that textbooks are not used and it is the teacher's responsibility to make the classroom experience enjoyable and unchallenging and ESOL students are not expected to be responsible for their own learning. Moreover, Taber (2006) explains that the ESOL students' role is to absorb the input provided by teachers. According to Taber (2006), the trick is not to tell the ESOL students they are learning or to suggest they are capable of making an error. The order of business is to give ESOL students a steady flow of comprehensible input and just enough extra information to help them acquire, rather than consciously learn, the academic language (Taber, 2006).

In the Natural Approach classroom, the teacher plays the role of actor and prop person and students play the role of "guessers and immersers" (Rogers, 2001). The teacher/actor is called upon to create a comfortable, welcoming atmosphere and to develop units of study—or, guessing—based on topics that interest the students (Reynor, 2002). Moreover, Taber (2006) expresses that ESOL students are encouraged to express their thoughts, opinions, and feelings in the academic language. The teacher speaks only in the academic language; but, in keeping with the no-pressure approach, students are permitted to use their native language. Theoretically, in this way, ESOL students acquire language without effort (Taber, 2006).

The Communicative Method. The Communicative Method was the flavor of the decade during the 1990s, at least when classroom doors were open (Taber, 2006). According to Taber (2006), the Communicative Method does not teach about language, rather, it teaches language. Taber (2006) states that it is often associated with the Functional-Notional Approach; that is, the emphasis is on functions such as time, location, travel, and measurements. Taber (2006) explains it seeks to recreate real-life social and functional situations in the classroom to

guide students toward communicative competence. In addition, Taber (2006) states that the linguistic accuracy that was deemed so essential in grammar-translation, the Direct Method, and other approaches is a mere trifle in the Communicative classroom. Ideally, grammar is not taught at all. Teachers avoid upsetting their students by requiring them to identify or recognize nouns, verbs, or direct objects; instead, they guide them to second-language proficiency by employing “the three Ps”— presentation, practice, and production (Taber, 2006).

Moreover, Taber (2006) comments that teachers introduce the academic language through everyday experiences. They give ESOL students time to practice the language through structured situational dialogues, and finally, they step aside for ESOL students to produce language—the phase in which they are able to function independently in the academic language. Second-language instruction has come a long way since the bad old days of rote learning (Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) acknowledges that it still has a long way to go.

Stahl and Fairbanks (1986), performed (as cited in Ellis, 1995) a meta-analysis of nearly one hundred independent studies comparing the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction methods. According to Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) this meta-analysis showed that the body of evaluative research to that data demonstrated that vocabulary instruction is a useful adjunct to natural learning from context; that the methods which produced highest effects on comprehension and vocabulary measures were those involving *both* definitional and contextual information about each to-be-learned word; that several exposures were more beneficial for drill-and-practice methods; that keyword methods produced consistently strong effects; and that methods which provided a breadth of knowledge about each to-be-learned word from multiple contexts had a particularly good effect on later understanding of texts incorporating these words (rather than on tests which merely demanded accurate echoing of learned vocabulary definitions). According to

Ellis (2013), taking their results together with the more recent ones reviewed here, it is clear that it truly matters what learners do in order to acquire the meaning of a new word.

Furthermore, Taber (2006) indicates that the trend since the late 1990s has been toward eclecticism, and this is probably the healthiest approach for it accommodates many styles of learning. Moreover, Taber (2006) asserts that an eclectic approach allows teachers to glean the effective elements from many strategies that really work in the classroom.

In addition, Saville-Troike (2006) states that basic disagreement remains in the definition of relative success in second language learning. According to Saville-Troike (2006) without common criteria for evaluation, drawing general conclusions is very difficult, since the definition of criteria for success (along with determining questions to be explored, appropriate methods of assessment, and interpretations of findings) depends on theoretical interpretations. Moreover, Saville-Troike (2006) suggests that there can be no one “best” method or strategy that will fit all, and a combination of different methods is undoubtedly the wisest approach.

Taber (2006) explains he has attended many faculty meetings in which the chair insisted that teachers “make sure the kids are having fun in language class”—as though having fun were the one and only criterion for success. On the other end of the spectrum, Taber (2006) claims to have observed language classes whose professors demean learners who don’t respond to their textbook’s approach to the content vocabulary instruction. Taber (2006) states that neither extreme—fun or misery—is laudable or effective.

Regardless, for many teachers a little Total Physical Response is a great warm-up activity. A little prose translation is often a welcome relief from guided conversation in the academic language, and a five-minute session of academic-language can only give students a sense of true accomplishment (Taber, 2006).

Taber (2006) discusses that the eclectic approach takes the best that theorists have to offer and incorporates it with strategies that work; a conceptual approach that does not hold rigidly to a single paradigm or set of assumptions, but instead draws upon multiple theories, styles, or ideas to gain complementary insights into a subject, or applies different theories in particular cases (Educational System, 2013). According to Oxford (2003), it is foolhardy to think that a single second language theory or methodology could possibly fit an entire class filled with students who have a range of stylistic and strategic preferences.

Language acquisition is difficult business (Taber, 2006). Taber (2006) assures that students' attitudes about school and authority, their home situations, literacy, self-confidence, academic level, identification with their native language and country are only a few factors that affect their ability to learn or acquire a new academic language. Taber (2006) states that teachers have a tremendous challenge in trying to give their students the tools with which to function on all levels in the academic language. In addition, Taber (2006) states that in perusing the literature regarding second-language methodologies and their supporting theories, it is almost impossible to make sense out of the discrepancies in terminology and theoretical bases.

Methodological Framework

Recent research indicates that content vocabulary instruction may be problematic because many teachers are not confident about best practice in content vocabulary instruction and at times do not know where to begin to form an instructional emphasis on content vocabulary learning (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008). On the other hand, Marzano (2004) states that over the years, educators in different content areas— English / language arts, math, science, history, and social science, and so forth— have identified the words that they believe represent the concepts that are most important to learn in their respective fields.

In particular, Templeton et al. (2010) advise all teachers that when deciding which words to consider as core academic and content-specific academic vocabulary, to locate the words that are characterized by their scope and sequence across the grades and that are reflected in the curriculum materials that publishers develop for each grade level. Templeton et al. (2010) state that the required textbooks teachers use for the subjects and grade levels they teach, include most of the important words. In fact, state and school districts have also developed standards that reflect the content and concepts that are important to teach at different levels and usually designate the most important vocabulary for the material (Templeton et al., 2010).

Sprengr (2016) claims that one of the key indicators of ESOL students' success on standardized tests is their content vocabulary. According to Pressley (2002), their lack of word knowledge disrupts fluency in reading and interferes with reading comprehension because word meaning make up as much as 70% – 80% of comprehension.

Stahl and Kapinus (2001) agree that some words are not likely to become part of one's vocabulary without direct instruction. In addition, Stahl and Kapinus (2001) state that effective content vocabulary direct instruction helps students understand what they must do and know in order to learn or acquire new words on their own. Learning is conscious knowledge of language rules, does not typically lead to conversational fluency, and is derived from formal instruction Oxford (1990).

Krashen (1982) comments that acquisition, occurs unconsciously and spontaneously, does lead to conversational fluency, and arises from naturalistic language use. Furthermore, (Oxford,1990) states that some specialists even suggest that learning cannot contribute to acquisition, that is, “conscious” gains in knowledge cannot influence “subconscious” development of language.

However, Oxford (1990) states that this distinction seems too rigid. It is likely that learning and acquisition are not mutually exclusive, but are rather part of a potentially integrated range of experiences (Oxford, 1990). Littlewood (1984) comments that our knowledge about what is conscious and what is subconscious is too vague for us to use the [learning-acquisition] distinction reliably; moreover, some elements of language use are at first conscious and then become unconscious or automatic through practice. Many language education experts suggest that both aspects— acquisition and learning— are necessary for communicative competence, particularly at higher skill levels (Canale & Swain, 1980; Omaggio, 1986). Brown (1984) indicates that for these reasons, a learning-acquisition continuum is more accurate than a dichotomy in describing how language abilities are developed. Oxford (1990) assures that language learning and acquisition strategies contribute to all parts of the learning-acquisition continuum.

For ease of expression, the term acquisition strategies may be used to refer to strategies which enhance any part of the learning-acquisition continuum (Oxford, 1990); a continuous sequence in which adjacent elements are not perceptibly different from each other (Oxford Dictionary, 2018).

Nevertheless, teachers attempt to determine their ESOL students' development of English language proficiency (Templeton et al., 2010). Moreover, this development is described by the following levels (Bear, 2007): (a) Level 1 - *Emergent / Early Receptive Language*. English learners have little or no understanding of oral English. They usually attempt to communicate in their home language or with body language, gestures, and one- or two-word phrases; (b) Level 2- *Beginning*. Students begin to show some understanding of oral English and are able to communicate expressively in short phrases, in contrast to the one- and two-word utterances of

Level 1; (c) Level 3- *Early Intermediate*. Students are able to respond with more understanding and comfort to a variety of communication situations. In their expressive language, they are becoming more fluent in phrasal expression; (d) Level 4- *Intermediate*. Students have a large receptive vocabulary, they use verb tenses correctly in conversation, and they understand and use most fundamental academic language. Their core academic and content specific vocabulary, however, is still limited; and (e) Level 5- *Advanced*. Students demonstrate a high level of understanding and use of core academic and content-specific academic vocabulary, and their command of phrasing and syntax approaches that of native English speakers. They are able to learn content-specific information through English.

According to Templeton et al. (2010), ESOL students who have had rich educational experiences in their primary language have a strong foundation for acquiring English and for learning to read and write in English and have most likely already developed strong academic content vocabularies in their home language. In addition, Sprenger (2016) comments that as with any topic, the more you know about it, the easier it is to learn and understand information about it. The knowledge anyone has about a topic is based on the content vocabulary of that information (Marzano & Pickering, 2005).

Yet, Templeton et al. (2010) state that regardless of the ESOL students' background knowledge, and their level of competence with English, ESOL students must be in the social situations— teacher— student and student— student— that support learning about the important concepts teachers are addressing. Mehring (2005) states that content vocabulary, like other aspects of language learning, can be facilitated when done through cooperative learning. According to Mehring (2005), this is true because although the main motivational learning factor must come from the student, when learning content vocabulary in a cooperative learning

environment it allows students to learn from peers closest to them. Furthermore, Murphey and Arao (2001) point out that students felt more relaxed and learned more from peers since they saw that making mistakes is acceptable, having goals is good, and learning English can be fun. Certainly, Mehring (2005) assures that when done in collaboration with peers, students may enjoy the activity more learning more academic vocabulary in the end.

Similarly, Templeton et al. (2010) indicate that research investigating the most effective context for word learning supports the following: (a) a *low-anxiety environment*, in which student interaction and learning activities allow students the opportunity to make mistakes; (b) *student-to-student interactions* involving peer discussions, cooperative learning teams, and other small-group activities; (c) *positive expectations for students* based on appropriate assessment of where the students fall along a development continuum; and (d) *strong student-to-teacher connections*— these create bond that supports learning.

Furthermore, Neuman and Dwyer (2009) define vocabulary as the words we must know to communicate effectively: words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary). Certainly, for students, building content vocabulary is extremely important for success in undergraduate or graduate studies (Mehring, 2005). Likewise, learning content vocabulary is an important instructional aim for teachers in all content areas in schools (Harmon, Wood, & Kiser, 2009). In addition, Stahl and Nagy (2007) comment, that every teacher is a teacher of language. Regardless of the subject you teach— English, Math, Social Studies/ History, Chemistry, or another subject— you teach the language of a subject (Stahl & Nagy, 2007).

As classroom teachers, Templeton et al. (2010) indicate that it is important to get ESOL students up to speed as quickly and efficiently as possible. Templeton et al. (2010) state anyone

can learn the 55 or so words considered critical to test taking, academics, and to life, but we should teach content vocabulary words sooner rather than later to help our ESOL students increase test scores, build confidence, and put the words into daily use. Content vocabulary has long been ignored or thought a burden in our classrooms, and it is time to give it the time it deserves (Templeton et al., 2010).

In addition, Stahl and Nagy (2007) state that the most important part of the language is the content vocabulary, because the important words in a subject area stand for the most important concepts and ideas in the subject. Stahl and Nagy (2007) comment that teaching content vocabulary is more than teaching words, it is teaching about words: how they are put together, how they are learned, and how they are used. Moreover, by providing this language to the ESOL students — the content vocabulary— teachers are giving their ESOL students the keys to accessing the important ideas and concepts of the subject (Stahl & Nagy, 2006).

Certainly, every teacher should instruct using strategies that will help the ESOL student become verbophiles — people who enjoy word study and become language enthusiasts, lovers of words, appreciative readers, and word-conscious writers (Mountain, 2002). Templeton et al. (2010) state that our challenge is also to help them apply that natural tendency to areas in which they may not at first be as interested. Moreover, Templeton et al. (2010) comment that teachers can help ESOL students become engaged with the content vocabulary of what they are teaching and reveal aspects of words to them that they might not otherwise notice, improving the effect on their academic performance noticeably. The focus may be a videogame, a novel, a car engine, setting up a webpage — it really does not matter, so long as they are focused (Templeton et al., 2010).

On the other hand, Cook (1996) comments that most teachers have been trained to teach, not to think about second language learning. Whether they know it or not, all teachers assume something about second language learning; it is not that they lack a theory of language learning so much as they have a theory that they are unaware of (Cook, 1996).

According to Cook (1996), everything that is achieved in the classroom depends eventually upon what goes on in the ESOL students' minds. Cook (1996) states that without an understanding of why people need to learn other languages and of how knowledge of other languages are stored and learnt, teachers will always be less effective than they could be. Not to mention, when ESOL students whose home language is not English first arrive in a classroom where English is one of the languages used, they are at the starting point of a new development of skills in a second language (Taber, 2006).

Templeton et al. (2010) comment that in the process of developing new skills in a second language, teachers play a pivotal role in developing such type of awareness in their ESOL students and in helping ESOL students grow their content vocabularies effectively and engagingly.

Likewise, Mehring (2005) states that understanding where ESOL students are starting from will help in providing the content vocabulary needed in order for them to improve and catch up. As teachers, understanding how ESOL students learn language also means understanding what language is (Cook, 1996). Tabors (2006) explains that although there will be differences in the way that ESOL students pursue learning a second language, researchers have noted a consistent development sequence for most students: (a) there may be a period of time when children continue to use their home languages in the second- language situation; (b) when they discover that their home language does not work in this situation, students enter a nonverbal

period as they collect information about the new language and perhaps spends some time in sound experimentation; (c) students begin to go public, using individual words and phrases in the new language; and (d) students begin to develop productive use of the second language.

Generally speaking, research studies with children reveal that it takes 2-5 years to become socially adept in second language and from 5-8 years to become academically on a par with native speakers (Cummins, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 1997). Smith (1998) comments that vocabulary learning never stops; it is a natural and lifelong phenomenon. Specifically, Harmon (2009) states that content vocabulary learning, is a continual process of encountering new words in meaningful and comprehensible contexts.

Likewise, Nakata (2006) acknowledges that content vocabulary acquisition requires continual repetition in order for effective content vocabulary learning. Similarly, Nation and Waring (1997) state that ESOL students need to encounter the academic word multiple times in authentic speaking, reading, and writing context at the student's appropriate level. Acquisition requires the learner to be disciplined, spending time each day working on words he/she does not know in order for learners to remember high frequency words and put them into their long term memory (Mehring, 2005).

With this in mind, Ruddell and Shear (2002) estimated that children will encounter an excess of 100,000 words in their reading. Graves (2000), comments that students' academic vocabularies may increase by 3,000 to 5,000 words per year by reading, resulting in nearly 25,000 words by the eighth grade and over 50,000 by the end of high school. In addition, Nation and Waring (1997) reported that 5-year-old native English speakers beginning school will have a vocabulary of around 4,000 to 5,000 word families, adding roughly 1,000 word families a year until graduating from university with a vocabulary of around 20,000 word families.

Specifically, Bauer and Nation (as cited in Nation and Waring, 1997) define a word family as the base word, its inflected forms, and a small number of regular derived forms. According to Jamieson (as cited in Nation and Waring, 1997), once ESOL students enter a school where English is the primary language, their academic vocabulary grows at the same rate as native speakers, around 1,000 word families a year; however, the initial gap never closes.

Mehring (2005) assures that vocabulary acquisition is not something a student can spend time learning or memorizing, like grammar, and be successful. Allen (1999) states that whether in school or out of school, the key to learning content vocabulary words at an amazing rate, is that individuals experience words in comprehensible and meaningful contexts.

Daniels and Zemelman (2014) explain that learning content vocabulary is more complex than simply memorizing definitions of words; rather it involves seeing hearing, and again, using words in meaningful contexts. Also, Yongqi Gu (2003) states that learning new words through context is only one step students may use, and that students should think meta-cognitively and learn new words within the context of where they appear. Ultimately, Blintz (2011) confirms that strategies that focus on word recognition and word use in meaningful contexts are most likely to positively affect content vocabulary growth.

Precisely, the term *strategy* in the context of language learning refers to a specific type of action or behavior used by a language learner to improve performance in both using and learning a language (Naiman, Frolich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1990). Some researchers define strategies as special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Other researchers state that strategies are distinguished from other cognitive processes through the element of choice and that they are mental processes that students consciously choose to use in

accomplishing a task (Cohen, 1998). In summary, strategies can be distinguished as specific means for realizing a behavior (Cohen, 1998).

Furthermore, Stahl and Nagy (2006) comment that content vocabulary knowledge, the understanding of words, and the concepts they represent, are the single best indicators of students' reading ability, comprehension, and familiarity with academic discourse. Moreover, Templeton et al. (2010) state that content vocabulary is one of the best predictors of students' success in school. Templeton et al. (2010) also comment that as teachers, because we are in the position to affect our students' content vocabulary development significantly, we will also open their worlds and minds more expansively to them.

Moreover, Henderson (1980) understands that the most powerful source of content vocabulary instruction is the well-focused mind, seeking actively to understand. Templeton et al. (2010), state that all educators must focus on giving ESOL students the tools to acquire tens if not hundreds of thousands of content vocabulary independently. Precisely, teaching students how to use learning strategies, and helping them choose and implement them effectively, helps to strengthen their metacognitive abilities—and this, in turn, connects to improved student learning (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008). According to Protheroe and Clarke (2008) good strategy instruction can also help improve student performance, especially students who have not previously developed effective metacognitive skills, increase student independence and engagement with learning, and help students realize that it is sometimes the use of ineffective strategies—not lack of ability—that hinders performance.

Needless to say, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) state that this last factor is especially important because it may help to increase motivation. Protheroe and Clarke (2008) comment that students who have repeatedly experienced failure in school due to a lack of “tools” that can help

them approach learning efficiently are likely to become less persistent in addressing school tasks. Acquiring some additional tools — learning strategies — increases their likelihood of success, and may also increase their willingness to take on new challenges (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008).

In recent years, vocabulary researchers have emphasized the role of word consciousness in content vocabulary learning: the knowledge and predisposition to learn, appreciate, and effectively use words (Schlepegrell, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006). According to Vocabulary.com (2016), the word predisposition, means an inclination beforehand to interpret statements in a particular way. Learners who are aware of their own learning processes, strategies, and preferences are able to regulate their learning endeavors to meet their own goals; they become increasingly independent and self-directed learners (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999).

Chick (2016) comments that “thinking about one’s thinking” is a metacognitive process. More precisely, Chick (2016) states that it refers to the processes used to plan, monitor, and assess one’s understanding and performance. Metacognition includes a critical awareness of (a) one’s thinking and learning and (b) oneself as a thinker and learner (Chick, 2016). Overall, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) confirm that students with better-developed metacognitive skills typically have a better sense of their own strengths and needs related to the learning process.

In general, there are many theories about language acquisition, learning, and content instruction. These theories focus on different methods on how people acquire a language. Bow Valley College (2011), an ESOL Literacy Network, states that although every theory is different, most instructors tend to collect and use pieces of several theories in their instruction.

The following titles represent a range of theories that provide background knowledge on the language development, content, or literacy vocabulary acquisition of ESOL students (Bow

Valley College, 2011). Also, according to Bow Valley College (2011) some of these theories are more common at lower levels, when learners are still developing concrete language and others are more effective at higher levels, when learners are mastering abstract vocabulary:

The Participatory Approach. Paolo Freire (1972) considered instructing literacy as enabling the oppressed through education. Freire (1972) thought that learning and comprehension only have importance when they allow people to liberate themselves from the conditions that society places upon them. This distinct student-centered approach aims to develop literacy through communication of the ESOL student's real-life encounters and worries. At first, "generative words" are selected to help ESOL students start to discuss life problems and worries as well as begin reading (decoding) and writing (encoding). This approach pressures teachers and student. Teachers and students use objects, pictures, and written texts to assist them describe and analyze associations among the different aspects of the issue they are talking about. As they plainly express the problems, they are able to find solutions. The teacher is seen as the facilitator of language acquisition and is an equal learner in class, learning along with the students. Students become prepared to move themselves and the society surrounding them (Peyton & Crandall, 1995; Huerta-Macías, 1993).

The Whole Language Approach. Whole language supporters understand that language should be acquired from the highest point to the lowest. That is, language has to be always deconstructed into compact, decontextualized pieces. Language is a recreational procedure that must be used for the reason of communication. ESOL students bring a lot of background knowledge to school. Teachers must consider and value each ESOL student's own abilities and use it as a ground for developing language competencies. The ESOL students are motivated to take challenges, both conversational and written. Functions (conversational skills) precede form

(standard spelling, grammar, etc.). The whole Language Approach gives special importance to a cooperative mind-frame towards education. Both published books and learner-created documents are practical. Instruction is set on strategies for reading and writing, while problems as spelling and grammar are instructed in response to the learner questions (Peyton & Crandall, 1995; Huerta-Macías, 1993).

The Language Experience Approach. The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is an instructional method or strategy that is compatible with the Participatory and Whole Language Approaches. Language Experience invests on the ESOL student's background knowledge and permits instructors to supply important encounters that inspire language progress. This can be accomplished cooperatively, or one-on-one. The gathered assignments can be used as class reading texts. There is some discussion as to the teacher's participation in correcting the written assignments; some teachers debate that real language experience narrations are completely in the student's own words, no matter of its mistakes in grammar or form, while other teachers favor to assist and shape the text. Whatever approach is considered, the material of the text comes completely from the students (Peyton & Crandall, 1995; Taylor, 1992).

The Competency or Performance-Based Approach. This approach begins with the teacher asking the question, "What do the ESOL students must learn?" What goes next is a list of skills or teaching results such as: The ESOL students can read and follow signs in his or her surroundings. ESOL student evaluation is founded on whether or not the student can carry-out the assignment in the class. The objective of this approach is student-centered in that each group of ESOL students is assessed, and learning is grounded on their needs and basic requirements (Peyton & Crandall, 1995).

The Functional Approach. All skills are at the heart of the Functional Approach when teaching. An assessment of the ESOL student's needs permits the teacher to verify which effective and practical skills the ESOL student needs to comprehend. ESOL student's results are usually transcribed as skills and are ordered according to importance. The Functional Approach pays particular attention on competencies the ESOL students need in order to operate at home or at work. Communication and behavior are combined with linguistic purposes. This approach has a tendency to reject the progress of creativity in language and keeps away from society and its issues (Mora, 2008).

The Communicative Approach. Abstract ideas like when, where, how far, and how much, as well as culturally suitable communication are the center of the Communicative Approach. Practical communication like apologizing, regretting, arguing, and offering, permits students to interact well with native English speakers. This method is appropriate for learners that want to be bi-cultural and who seek acquiring English as a means of being accepted in the society that surrounds them. Similar to the Functional Approach, this instructional approach has a tendency of diminishing the suggestive, creative, and imaginary features of language (Mora, 2008).

The Ethnographic Approach. Combining aspects of the Communicative and Participatory Approaches, the Ethnographic Approach takes in account the socio-cultural features of a dialect as well as linguistics, and cultural knowledge to be the center of language instruction. This approach assists learners in becoming conscious of the ways people interact in their own lives and the natural environment in which they live. Teachers use ethnographic strategies to analyze the complications their ESOL students have to face. Students become spectators of language as it takes place naturally in their surroundings: on the park, in the

dentist's office, and in the market. As ESOL students recognize what they must do to acquire English, they become devoted in the language (Watson-Gegeo, 1998).

The Task-Based Approach. Task-based instruction concentrates on cooperative learning as opposed to teacher-fronted or one-on-one instruction. The teacher supplies ESOL students with assignments that are planned to encourage genuine and meaningful interaction. These assignments are interactive and may have to do with field matters that are unknown to the ESOL students. Most recommended assignments are concepts that have to do with conflicts or moral difficulties of something. ESOL students must communicate and share views as they try to reach a specific outcome – like making a choice by coming to an agreement. Information gap drills where all ESOL students have data to share with their classmates are also successful as they demand all the ESOL students to take equal parts in finishing the assignment. Studies demonstrate that ESOL students who are going through these types of assignments express themselves in longer sentences and make more effort to comprehend what others are talking about (Moss & Ross-Feldman, 2003).

The Project-Based Approach. In this approach ESOL students have to work in long projects instead of short assignments. Like Task-Based Approach, activities mainly rely on small groups trying to solve a problem or produce a product. The ESOL students must speak clear and interact together as they aim towards achieving their objectives. Like the Task-Based Approach, assignments require ESOL students to use both language and cognitive abilities to handle conflicts. This provides ESOL students a meaningful context and permits them to practice competencies they will need in life (Moss & Van Cuzer, 1998; Gaer, 1998; Wrigley, 1998).

The Natural Approach. When ESOL students come in the literacy classroom with some or no English at all, the Natural Approach assists them in learning English in much the

same manner they learned their native language. The Natural Approach is meaning-based and permits ESOL students to experience long language information (listening and later reading) before needing language output (conversing and then writing). ESOL students start with words and then move on to several word combinations, before they are capable of using sentences. The Natural Approach requires a supportive academic environment where ESOL students are motivated and their mistakes are not rectified (Illinois Resource Center, 2018).

Total Physical Response. Total Physical Response (TPR) involves expanding spoken language through corporal response to orders. This not only permits a lengthy exposure to English before the ESOL students start to talk, but also assists them in reflecting on what they have acquired through motor learning or repetition. ESOL students acquire their maternal language with their family members in both, physical and verbal manners. When ESOL students begin to talk, they are praised with positive remarks from their close ones. In the ESOL learning environment, this Total Physical Response depends a lot on language in the imperative case: “Sit down. Jump up. Close the window.” While this technique will not work for a complete language learning plan, it can impart diversity to a class and involve the complete compromise and dedication of the ESOL student (Asher, 1995).

De Lozier (2014) states that no matter the theory or strategy applied on an ESOL student, understanding their basic needs and their BICS and CALP skills is important to consider as a teacher. Although most resources are provided for general education instruction, limited resources are available for general education teachers on content vocabulary acquisition strategies and social context within the core content. In addition, De Lozier (2014) suggests that without the consideration of the ESOL students’ needs for content vocabulary acquisition, as

well as social and cultural contexts it seems teachers have difficulty providing academic instruction in any situation.

Types of Vocabulary

To assist the ESOL students acquire the most recommended vocabulary from the context of an assignment, the instructor needs to focus on low context words, and which necessitates a second distinction: high frequency and low frequency words (Mehring, 2005). In particular, Nation (2005) defines high frequency words as words that occur quite frequently in the language, such as the, a, man, and woman. Nation (2005) indicates that high frequency words occur so regularly in daily conversations, that if students understand these words, they are able to write and speak in comprehensible English. Nation (2005) describes low frequency words as words that deal more with academic studies, words that appear throughout all academic texts and courses, but not very often in day to day speech, such as formulate, index, and modify.

Reiss (2005) indicates that textbooks and their accompanying teachers' editions do a creditable job of identifying and defining new content vocabulary that appears in each chapter. In addition, Reiss (2005) comments that these academic words are content-specific or technical in nature and they are words students must learn in order to understand the concepts that follow.

Over the years, researchers and educators have used a number of terms to describe different types of vocabulary (Templeton, Bear, Inverzinni, & Johnston, 2010). As teachers, Bintz (2011) comments that when we think about the students, subjects, and grade levels, it will be useful to keep the distinctions among types of vocabulary in mind.

Templeton et al. (2010) comment that listening and speaking vocabulary is the beginning in human development. Thereupon, from the upper elementary grades onward our reading and writing vocabularies come to include more words than our listening and speaking vocabularies

(Templeton et al., 2010). Thus, Templeton et al. (2010) comment, that academic language contains many content words that do not usually occur in most spoken language. If it were only certain academic words that needed explanation, teachers and students would have an easy task (Reiss, 2005).

Because most new words we encounter come from print or specific content areas, more recently some educators and researchers fine-tuned the traditional labels that are now most commonly used to represent distinctions in types of vocabulary, subdivided into three broad classifications: conversational vocabulary, core academic vocabulary, and content-specific academic vocabulary (Templeton et al. 2010).

Conversational vocabulary includes the most common and most frequently occurring words in the spoken language, such as *talk, have, and upon* (Templeton et al. 2010). Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2008) refer to these words as “tier 1” vocabulary because they are so easily picked up conversationally and rarely requires instruction.

Core academic vocabulary includes those words that that may not occur a lot in everyday spoken language, but which students may encounter frequently in their reading and, because of the high utility of their words, should be able to use in their writing (Templeton et al. 2010). Templeton et al. (2010) also comment that these words also occur in more formal oral discourse, such as a lecture format, and are equally likely to occur across all content areas. In addition, Templeton et al. (2010) state that students usually have the underlying conceptual understanding of what these words represent, but they simply lack the label. Beck et al. (2008) suggest target core academic vocabulary words such as *transmit, energetic, and paradox* for instruction because these “tier 2” words can more precisely express concepts that are already understood.

Content-specific academic vocabulary refers to words that occur in specific content or subject matter areas such as science, history and social science, mathematics, and the arts (Templeton et al., 2010). According to Templeton et al. (2010), in contrast to core academic vocabulary, much content-specific academic vocabulary represents significantly new concepts, and can therefore be more difficult to learn. Beck et al. (2008) categorize content-specific words such as *rectilinear*, *potentate*, and *mercantilism* as “tier 3” vocabulary.

Templeton, Bear, Inverzinni, and Johnston (2010) comment that students are expected to learn content-specific vocabulary in their content classes, which are most often taught by subject area teachers. Also, Templeton et al. (2010) have included *academic language* in the core academic vocabulary category rather than in the content-specific academic vocabulary category because this type of language occurs across all content areas.

In addition, Reiss (2005) specifies that other than obvious technical or content-specific vocabulary in textbooks, there are four other categories of vocabulary words that may be unknown or misunderstood by ESOL students. These are (1) new usages of familiar words, (2) synonyms, (3) idioms, and (4) just plain new words (Reiss, 2005).

First, Reiss (2005) states that category one words, *new usages of familiar words*, is important because ESOL students need to understand that a single word can have multiple meanings depending on context. According to Reiss (2005), *synonyms* make-up the second category of unknown or misunderstood vocabulary words, and teaching synonyms can lighten the content vocabulary load on ESOL students by pointing out in advanced of the reading assignment, the variety of words that relate to the specific concepts. Reiss (2005) indicates that *idioms* fall in the third category and ESOL students love to learn idioms because they feel, and perhaps rightly so, that if they understand idioms, they really know English. Finally, Reiss

(2005) presents the new words, or as Reiss describes the catchall category — the least well defined, the most individualized, and the most challenging for the teacher.

Moreover, Snow (2010) adds that the central features of academic language must also include “grammatical embeddings, sophisticated and abstract vocabulary, precision of word choice, and use of nominalizations to refer to complex processes,” all of which are used in text in science, social studies, and the technical subjects to express complex ideas efficiently.

According to Honigfeld and Dove (2013) within the secondary school context, students may be provided with more opportunities to develop receptive language skills — to aid them in comprehending discipline-specific academic English by listening to presentations or teacher-directed lessons or reading complex text. In addition, Honigfeld and Dove (2013) indicate that students also need to build their productive language skills by speaking in correct sentences, generating well-constructed paragraphs, and creative longer academic text both orally and in writing that emulate key academic text features.

Baker (2002) explains that her students, as do most Americans, need at least three forms of English language — or need to be trilingual — to lead socially fulfilling and economically viable lives: (a) “home” English or dialect, which most students learn at home, and recent immigrants often learn from peers, and which for first and second generation immigrants may be a combination of English and their mother tongue; (b) “formal” or academic English, which is learned by many in school from reading, and from the media, although it may also be learned in well-educated families; and (c) “professional” English, the particular language of one’s profession, which is mostly learned in college or on the job, or in vocational education.

The Three Tiers

According to Beck and McKeown (2002), every literate person has a vocabulary consisting of three levels. In fact, Calderón, et al. (2003) modified the three-tier system devised by McKeown and Beck into four tiers.

Tier 1 words consist of basic words (Beck & McKeown, 2002). Templeton et al. (2010) comment these words usually do not have multiple meanings and do not require explicit instruction. Moreover, Templeton et al. (2010) also comment that sight words, nouns, verbs, adjectives, and early reading words occur at this level; Examples of Tier 1 words are *book, girl, sad, clock, baby, dog, and orange*. Templeton et al. (2010) also indicate that there are about 8,000 word families in English included in Tier 1.

Moreover, Beck and McKeown (2002) indicate that Tier 2 contains high-frequency words that occur across a variety of domains. Beck and McKeown (2002), state that these words play a large role in the vocabulary of mature language users. As a result, Tier 2 words may have a large impact in the everyday functioning of language (Beck & McKeown, 2002). According to Beck and McKeown (2002), because of their lack of redundancy in oral language, Tier 2 words present challenges to students who primarily meet them in print. Tier 2 words consist of such words as *coincidence, masterpiece, absurd, industrious, and benevolent*.

Furthermore, Beck and McKeown (2002) state that because Tier 2 words play an important role in direct instruction, there are certain characteristics that these words have: (a) Usually have multiple meanings, (b) Used in a variety of subject areas, (c) Necessary for reading comprehension, (d) Characteristic of a mature language user, and (e) Descriptive words that add detail.

Beck and McKeown (2002) state that Tier three words consist of words whose practical use and frequency is low. Moreover, Beck and McKeown (2002) comment that these words are domain-specific and are used for brief periods of time when we are studying particular content. Tier 3 words are central to building knowledge and conceptual understanding within the various academic domains and should be integral to instruction of content (Beck & McKeown, 2002).

Last, Tier Four words consist of primarily the same words as Beck's Tier Three. They are words of low frequency and limited to specific domains.

However, how do students add words to their mental lexicon? According to Sprenger (2005), it begins with listening to the conversations in the early environment. Sprenger (2005) comments that academic vocabulary would be enhanced through listening to adults read aloud. Moreover, Bintz (2011) states that students learn content vocabulary words best in classrooms which teachers read to them and highlight important and interesting vocabulary words. Sprenger (2005) comments that although students who come to our schools from a literacy-rich home are clearly in a better position to meet any standards, the neuroplasticity of the brain teaches us that all students can learn, enhance their vocabulary, and change their brains.

Content Vocabulary Acquisition and the Brain

Sprenger (2016), a neuro-educator who teaches students and teachers based on current brain research, indicates that there are a variety of factors that affect student achievement, including the effectiveness of the teacher, the student's own personal interest in the content matter, and the amount of information or prior knowledge students already possess about the content. Sprenger (2016) states that prior knowledge is a term with which most educators are familiar. Sprenger (2016) indicates that in neuroscience terms, we are talking about long-term

memory, and yes prior knowledge, also known as background knowledge, consisting of networks in the brain that have been placed in permanent memory.

Furthermore, Marzano (2004) comments that prior knowledge or background knowledge is acquired through the interaction of two factors: the ability of the student to process and store information and the regularity with which a student has academically oriented experiences. Professional educators know that the amount of background knowledge our students have may rely a great deal on their cultural experiences and differences and their economic status (Tileston & Darling, 2008). According to Hermann (2016), linking to students' personal life experiences is beneficial for a number of reasons. Hermann (2016) states that it can help students find meaning in content learning, and linking to an experience can provide clarity and promote retention of the learning. In addition, relating content to students' personal lives and experiences also serves the purpose of validating students' lives, culture, and experiences (Hermann, 2016). Moreover, Sprenger (2016) states that not only does background knowledge grow in the brains of our students through their experiences, but the content vocabulary words that are stored as a result of such experiences provide avenues to comprehend the curriculum, the lectures, and discussions from the text.

According to Sprenger (2016), when we think of vocabulary acquisition and the brain we can look at the work of Piaget (1970), who concluded that we organize information in our brains in the form of a schema, a representation of concepts, ideas, and actions that are related. Schemata (the plural of *schema*) are formed in our brains through repeated and varied experiences related to a topic (Sprenger, 2016). In addition, Sprenger (2016) likes to refer to schemata as those networks in the brain that we form, store, re-form, and restore in our memories through our interactions in the world through both experience and environment.

According to Doidge (2007), it is the brain's ability to change known as neuroplasticity that allows us to learn and form lasting memories. Doidge (2007) mentions that as new evidence presents itself, the brain can change to accommodate the new information. Just as one stores files on a computer or tablet, the brain stores information in ways that allow it to retrieve concepts, ideas, and actions in an orderly and expeditious manner (Doidge, 2007). Moreover, Doidge (2007) reconfirms that all of this, and much more, refers to your background knowledge of "school." Doidge (2007) assures that all of our students have a school file (or schema) in their brains as well.

Because the brain is malleable and can change, researchers have made several suggestions to improve the brain's systems (Sprenger, 2016): (a) Gazzaniga, Asbury, and Rich (2008) suggest the arts can improve cognitive skills, processing, attention, and sequencing; (b) Pereira (2007) suggest physical activity as an avenue to produce new brain cells, which has been associated with increasing learning and memory; (c) According to Klingberg (2005) computer instruction in which students identify, count, and remember objects by holding them in working memory can increase working memory within a matter of weeks; and (d) Training in music can improve the brain's operating systems as it enhances focused attention, which will assist in memory (Jonides, 2008).

According to Sprenger (2016), the arts movement, computer use, and music, among many other strategies will be helpful in teaching all of our students the content vocabulary of the standards. Moreover, Haynes (2016) believes all students need direct instruction of content vocabulary, but it is especially imperative for ESOL students. Even more, August and Shanahan (2006) state that ESOL students need much more exposure to new content vocabulary than their native-English-speaking classmates. Sprenger (2016) states that understanding and being aware

of some of the challenges that our ESOL students face will help us to focus our content vocabulary teaching in a way that will improve the minds and memories and reading comprehension of each student.

The BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency)

Many mainstream teachers who teach ESOL students will find a disparity between the language these students use for conversation and that which is used for more academic purposes (Bilash, 2011). Bilash (2011) states that sometimes teachers hear their students speak with their friends and judge them to be “fluent”. The danger of this assumption is that teachers can often misjudge the language level of ESOL students and therefore when academic work is analyzed it can appear to the teacher as though the students are not working to their ability (Bilash, 2011). Cummins (2000) explains that this confusion can lead to misconceptions about the intelligence or motivation levels of ESOL students.

Consequently, if ESOL students are transitioned into a "mainstream" class in which the teacher knows very little about how to promote academic skills in a second language, then they are unlikely to receive the instructional support they need to catch up academically (Cummins, 2000). Cummins (2000) states that the implicit assumption that conversational fluency in English is a good indicator of "English proficiency" has resulted in countless bilingual children being "diagnosed" as learning disabled or retarded.

According to Cummins (2000) (as cited in Bilash, 2011), in order to better understand the misconception of assuming the wrong language levels in ESOL students, we must look at it through two language continua called the BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). BICS describes the development of

conversational fluency in the second language, whereas CALP describes the use of language in decontextualized academic situations (Cummins, 2000).

Ultimately, Cummins (2000) wants to point out that not all aspects of language use or performance could be incorporated into one dimension of global language proficiency.

According to Cummins (2000), the distinction between BICS and CALP twenty years ago as a qualification to John Oller's (1979) claim that all individual differences in language proficiency could be accounted for by just one underlying factor, which he termed global language proficiency. In effect, to better understand language acquisition among students, Cummins (1984) proposed a theory that consisted of the distinction between two differing kinds of language proficiency. Baker (2006) comments, that the terms BICS and CALP, are commonly used in discussions of bilingual education.

Furthermore, Cummins (1984) explains that the Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) are the “surface” skills typically acquired quickly by many students; particularly by those from language backgrounds similar to English who also have constant interaction with native speakers. Unlike BICS, Cummins (1984) states that the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is the basis for a student’s ability to cope with the academic demands placed upon the student in the various subjects. Cummins (2000) adds that any instructional program in bilingual, ESOL, or "mainstream" classes designed to promote bilingual students' CALP, should address the three components of the construct: (a) Cognitive - the instruction should be cognitively challenging and require students to use higher-order thinking abilities rather than the low-level memorization and application skills that are tapped by typical worksheets or drill-and-practice computer programs; (b) Academic - academic content (science, math, social studies, art, etc.) should be integrated with language instruction as in content-based ESL programs (Chamot

et al., 1997); and (c) Language - the development of critical language awareness should be fostered throughout the program by encouraging students to compare and contrast their languages (e.g. phonics conventions, grammar, etc.) and by providing students with extensive opportunities to carry out projects investigating their own and their community's language use, practices, and assumptions (e.g. in relation to the status of different varieties).

Moreover, Cruz- Wiley (2010) assures that Conversational English or Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) can be learned ah relatively quickly, while the formal academic English (CALP) can take several years. Specifically, Bilash (2011) states that in conceptualizing bilingual proficiency this way, Cummins (2000) suggests that it takes learners, on average, approximately two years to achieve a functional, social use of a second language, but that it may take five to seven years or longer, for some bilingual learners to achieve a level of academic linguistic proficiency comparable to monolingual English speaking peers. Ultimately, both Native-English-speaking and immigrant children usually reach a plateau in the development of native-like phonology and fluency after several years of acquisition, but CALP continues to develop throughout schooling (Cummins, 2000).

Content Vocabulary Acquisition and Reading Comprehension

Motivating ESOL students to want to read is a challenge, but it can lead to high levels of literacy and language development (Mora-Flores, 2011). According to Mora-Flores (2011), ESOL students need to be surrounded by books of a variety of genres, topics, types, and styles. They need opportunities in school to explore books and have time to read independently (Mora-Flores, 2011). In addition, Mora-Flores (2011) comments that this gives them a chance to see how much books have to offer. Indirectly, the more ESOL students read, the better their vocabulary, reading comprehension, and ultimate success in school will be (Stanovich, 1986).

One of the oldest findings in educational research is the strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension (Sedita, 2005). According to Sedita (2005), word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will be able to comprehend the texts they read in middle and high school. Moreover, Chall and Jacobs (2003) point out that the correlation of word knowledge with reading comprehension indicates that if students do not adequately and steadily grow their academic vocabulary knowledge, their reading comprehension will be affected. Cunningham and Stanovich (1998), comment that students who do not understand some words in texts tend to have difficulty comprehending and learning from those texts. In fact, vocabulary experts agree that adequate reading comprehension depends on a person already knowing between 90 and 95% of the words in a text (Hirsh, 2003).

Likewise, Boulware-Gooden, Carreker, Thornhill, and Joshi (2007) state that comprehension is the reason for reading, and vocabulary plays a significant role in comprehension. Dressler, August, Carlo, and Snow (2005) comment that ESOL students who experienced slow academic vocabulary development are less able to comprehend texts at the grade level than their English-only peers. For the most part, a particular problem for students with poor comprehension is that they have difficulty learning new vocabulary (Wolley, 2010).

In addition, Smith (1997) says that there is a common sense relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension since messages which are composed of ideas are expressed in words. Wallace (2008) points out that difficulty in reading at the appropriate grade level is perhaps due to a lack of sufficient academic vocabulary. According to the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) (2008), more than 8 million youngsters in Grades 4-12 read below their grade-level expectations and 3,000 students with limited literacy skills drop out of high school every day.

Tovani (2000) states that many ESOL students are word callers that have mastered decoding and, as a bonus, also choose to read. As a result, Tovani (2000) suggests that they do not understand that reading involves thinking. Tovani (2000) comments that they go through the motions of reading, but assume all they have to do is pronounce words. Worst of all, when ESOL students do not understand or remember what they have read, they quit (Tovani, 2000).

Tovani (2000) refers that word callers are fairly good students, but often do not do well with tasks that require them to use the academic words they read to think on their own. These readers feel powerless because the only strategy they have for gaining meaning is sounding out words (Tovani, 2000).

There is no doubt that the stakes are high, and literacy instruction is the key (Honigfeld & Dove, 2013). As a result, one broad-based shift in instruction initiated by the Common Core State Standard is a direct emphasis on the explicit teaching of academic vocabulary (Honigfeld & Dove, 2013). Honigfeld and Dove (2013) state that for ESOL students to consistently be able to comprehend complex text, all content teachers should identify academic vocabulary that most frequently appears in text across disciplines and grade levels, carefully explain strategies for understanding new content vocabulary during the different phases of reading (before, during, and after), associate new words with previously known or learned academic vocabulary, and focus students on key objectives for reading to emphasize clear tasks. Honigfeld and Dove (2013) assert that with diverse learner needs in mind, the shared reading of short, complex texts is an invaluable opportunity for teachers to stress not only key academic vocabulary, but also the understanding of content by analyzing meaning at both the sentences and text levels.

According to Templeton, Bear, Inverzinni, and Johnston (2010), exploring academic vocabulary development guides our efforts to facilitate students' literacy learning. In addition,

Templeton et al. (2010) comment that given the strong relationship between content vocabulary knowledge and reading development, the wide variation in students' reading development has implications for students' content vocabulary learning. Also, Templeton et al. (2010) indicate that students' reading achievement affects how easily they can read the words and then uncover the meanings of the new academic vocabulary words they encounter in their reading. Indeed, students who read well do not have to concentrate on the mechanics of reading and therefore have the time and energy to think and focus on the meaning of what they read (Templeton et al. 2010). Moreover, Tekman and Daloglu (2006) state that extensive reading can help students to deepen their knowledge of a word's different meanings and contexts. The more the student reads, the more the student's vocabulary expands (Nagy & Scott, 1990).

Furthermore, Nagy and Herman (1987) suggest that the amount of word knowledge gained while reading relies on three main factors: (a) the frequency of word exposure, (b) the text quality, and (c) the student's ability to infer meaning and recall the new academic words learned while reading. Nevertheless, Nagy et al. point out that the most important factor in academic vocabulary development is the amount of reading that takes place. Basically, Nagy et al. (1987), indicate that word acquisition occurs by reading and in order to realize substantial vocabulary expansion, an ESOL student must read extensively.

It is a truth universally acknowledged, that students with larger vocabularies are also much better at reading comprehension (Newmonic, 2016). According to Blintz (2011), two of the most important findings related to content vocabulary learning are, that reading is the single most important factor in increased academic word knowledge (Anderson & Nagy, 1991) and that a rich content vocabulary increases comprehension and learning (Robb, 2009). ESOL students

develop extensive content vocabularies not by completing worksheets, memorizing word lists, or using a dictionary to define unknown words, but by the act of reading (Weir, 1991).

Moreover, Guthrie (2003) comments that because academic language is found primarily in written texts, extensive engaged reading is likely to be a crucial component of an effective learning environment. According to Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1986), the amount of time students spend reading, especially free choice reading, is the best predictor of content vocabulary growth and development. Overall, Ellis (2103) states that reading gives us whole language, and not just isolated words.

Certainly, understanding a written passage is so much more than just reading the words; understanding, or comprehension, is directly linked to a child's vocabulary (Newmonic, 2016). Allen (1999) and Robbins and Ehri (1994) insist that academic vocabulary growth is the result of the extensive amount of reading that occurs in a balanced reading program that includes read-alouds and think-alouds; shared, guided, and independent reading experiences; and fictional and informational book readings that focus children's attention on meanings of unfamiliar words in context.

In particular, time spent on repeated readings of a story produces significant gains in content vocabulary growth and development (Senechal, 1997). Similarly, Dickinson and Smith (1994) suggest that spending time on storybook readings and interactive talk contributes significantly to gains in content vocabulary. Likewise, working with words, thinking about them, and seeing them in a meaningful and relevant context also help students acquire content vocabulary (Daniels & Zemelman, 2014).

Moreover, Blintz (2011) states that an extensive body of research indicates that learning vocabulary is a lifelong process. Specifically, Blintz (2011) comments that frequent reading

enhances content vocabulary growth. Nagy (1988) indicates that what is needed to produce academic vocabulary growth is not more content vocabulary instruction, but more reading. Nevertheless, Blintz (2011) comments that while reading is indeed necessary if not critical in increasing content vocabulary, for most ESOL students it is not sufficient.

Ellis (1995) refers that reading provides an ideal environment for the implicit acquisition of orthography, and also the explicit acquisition of meanings. In addition, Al-Darayseh (2014) acknowledges that studies have focused on the effect of teaching vocabulary implicitly or explicitly, but very few studies have tackled the impact of combining both vocabulary teaching techniques on improving ESOL students' reading comprehension skills. In essence, Ellis (1994) comments that implicit vocabulary learning method involves an indirect or incidental teaching approach, whereas the explicit method involves direct or intentional instruction.

According to Greenwood and Flannigan (2007), 90% of the words that a student learns over the course of a year are without direct instruction; meaning implicitly. These words are learned through incidental contact (Greenwood & Flannigan, 2007). Implicit instruction refers to teaching where the instruction does not outline such goals or makes such explanation overtly, but rather simply (Jenkins, 2012).

On the other hand, Jenkins (2012) defines explicit instruction, as teaching where the instructor clearly outlines what the learning goals are for students, and offers clear, unambiguous explanations of the skills and information structures they are presenting. While some researchers advocate language to be acquired in natural language environments by exposing the learner to comprehensible language data, many other studies have presented sufficient evidence to show that formal instruction contributes greatly to second language acquisition (Cheng, 2000).

By reviewing the literature on formal instruction, Long (1983) indicates that formal instruction is advantageous for children as well as for adults and for both intermediate and advanced learners in acquisition-rich as well as acquisition-poor environments, and that formal instruction appears to result in faster learning and higher levels of proficiency. Moreover, Ellis (1994) concludes that formal instruction helps learners (both foreign and second) to develop greater second language proficiency, particularly if it is linked with opportunities for natural exposure.

According to Cheng (2000), there are also limitations to formal instruction. Several hypotheses below proclaim that formal instruction only works when it matches learners' stage of development and focuses learners' attention on both forms and meanings in the context of communicative activities.

The *Interface Hypothesis*: Instruction facilitates acquisition by supplying learners with conscious rules and providing practice to enable them to convert the controlled knowledge into automatic knowledge (Sharwood-Smith, 1981).

The *Variability Hypothesis*: Instruction of new structures will affect learners' careful style (i.e. the language forms are used spontaneously and easily in communication) (Ellis, 2013).

The *Teachability Hypothesis*: Instruction can promote language acquisition if the interlanguage is close to the point when the structure to be taught is acquired in the natural setting (Pienemann, 1985).

The *Selective Attention Hypothesis*: Formal instruction acts as an aid to acquisition by providing learners with points of access and focusing their attention (Lightbown, 1985).

Moreover, Cheng (2000) addresses that all these hypotheses indicate, that formal instruction, which matches the learner's learning stage and style, speeds up the acquisition

process by helping them pay selective attention to form and form-meaning connections in language input, and by providing them language rules and practice.

In spite of several studies of morpheme acquisition (e.g. Perkins and Larsen-Freeman 1979; Pavesi, 1986, showing that formal instruction results in increased accuracy and accelerates progress through developmental sequences, no difference of acquisition orders was found between instructed and naturalistic learners (Cheng, 2000).

Furthermore, Blintz (2011) suggests that ESOL students need direct instruction in specific academic words and in how words work. Blintz (2013) indicates that this is where teachers play their most important role in students' content vocabulary learning. According to Carrier (2011), modeling the use of content vocabulary acquisition strategies throughout instruction reinforces students' comprehension and maximizes teachers' instructional time.

Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) state that as part of strengthening instructional practices, teachers to some degree must reexamine their overall beliefs about the abilities, strengths, and value of the diverse learners they teach. Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) argues that if these students are perceived as limited, their progress will remain in jeopardy.

According to Bromley (2007), teachers can display an attitude of excitement and interest in words and language. Overall, fun and stimulating vocabulary instruction will awaken the excitement for learning inherent in all students (Willingham & Price, 2009). As recommended by Nilsen and Nilsen (2002), this can be a catalyst for students to actively and even playfully, engage in learning new words.

It is important to keep in mind that the Common Core State Standards defines what all students are expected to know and be able to do, not how teachers should teach (Common Core State Standards, 2010). Therefore, according to Honigsfeld and Dove (2013), teachers of diverse

learners must maintain their autonomy to plan and select research-based instructional strategies that are most crucial for their students to develop literacy skills as well as to learn the complex aspects of analyzing various forms of literature. We can clearly say that selecting the correct or the most efficient technique or strategy to introduce academic vocabulary items is an integral factor in improving ESOL students' reading comprehension (Al-Darayseh, 2014).

Likewise, Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) comment that secondary school teachers, particularly those who work with academically and linguistically diverse students, need to consider how to support the development of fluent readers in their classes. Although much vocabulary is learned from context during reading, word meanings do not come from mere exposure, rather, as Sternberg (1985) (as cited in Ellis, 2013) argues, that simply reading a lot does not guarantee a high vocabulary. Sternberg (1985) states that what seems to be critical is not sheer amount of experience, but rather what one has been able to learn from and do with that experience.

Jensen (1980) (as cited in Ellis, 2013) asserts this position strongly:

Children of high intelligence acquire academic vocabulary at a faster rate than children of low intelligence, and as adults they have a much larger vocabulary, not primarily because they have spent more time in study or have been more exposed to words, but because they are capable of developing more meaning from single encounters with words. The crucial variable in vocabulary size is not exposure per se, but conceptual need and inference of meaning from context, which are forms of education.

Ellis (2013), states that learners can be profitably trained in strategies of 'education'.

Getting students to read will certainly help them learn new content vocabulary and new concepts, but students also need to develop strategy awareness and acquire specific strategic content

vocabulary acquisition strategies (Harmon, 2002). Rosen (2011) states that regardless of linguistic or scholastic abilities, most, if not all, adolescent learners belong to the *iGeneration*. Rosen (2011) explains that to a great extent, their lives have been shaped by technology, by being online, using computers offline, listening to music, playing video games, talking on the telephone, instant messaging, texting, sending and receiving e-mail, and watching television.

Due to the informal nature of these activities, schools play an even more essential role in teaching the formal, academic language critical for students to begin and successfully stay on a college and career path (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2013). According to Tovani (2000), too many bright kids are wasting time sitting in back of the classroom expecting to be filled with knowledge. It is time to pull the plug on this type of behavior and begin teaching adolescents of all ages and reading abilities how to understand what they read so they can begin constructing meaning on their own (Tovani, 2000).

From the intermediate grades on, many other things besides books are claiming our students' attention, so it is especially important that we find ways to keep them motivated and engaged to continue reading independently outside of school (Paredes, 2010). Honigsfeld and Dove (2013) conclude that with the proper amount of instructional knowledge, adolescent students may be guided to become confident and independent readers.

Motivation and Content Vocabulary Acquisition

A more recent publication attempted to condense 30 years of research on the good language learner since 1975 (Griffiths, 2008). According to Paredes (2010), it was concluded that in order to situate good language learners within the intricate landscape of language learning, a large array of variables should be considered. Moreover, Paredes (2010) states that these

variables include individual characteristics such as age, aptitude, gender, personality, culture, style, beliefs, and motivation.

Furthermore, Yule (2002) asserts that there are several factors which combine in a profile of the ESOL student and obviously motivation to learn is very important. In fact, Cook (1996) comments that some ESOL students do better than others because they are better motivated. Grognet (1997) agrees that there is a need to keep the learners' motivation high throughout the lengthy learning process and implement humanistic methodologies in which the learner becomes an active creator, not a passive participant in the learning process.

The usual meaning of motivation for the teacher is probably the interest that something generates in the students (Cook, 1996). Cook (1996) states that it could be a particular exercise, a particular topic, a particular song, that may make the ESOL students appear involved in the class. However, obvious enjoyment by the ESOL students is not necessarily a sign that learning is taking place – people probably enjoy eating ice-cream more than carrots, but which has the better long-term effects (Cook, 1996)? Instead, motivation for ESOL students has chiefly been used to refer to the long-term fairly stable attitudes in the students' minds. In fact, Yongqi Gu (2003) pointed out that vocabulary acquisition is a very learner centered activity with the effectiveness of the learner's strategies depending on his/her attitude and motivation towards new academic vocabulary acquisition. In particular, Oxford (2011) also indicates that more highly motivated ESOL students use a significantly greater range of appropriate strategies than do less motivated learners.

According to Cook (1996), two types of favorable motivation are, integrative and instrumental which were first introduced by Gardner and Lambert in a series of books and papers. First, Cook (1996) explains that the integrative motivation reflects whether the student

identifies with the target culture and people in some sense or rejects them. Cook states that the more a student admires the target culture — reads its literature, looks for opportunities to practice the language, and so on — the more successful the student will be in the classroom. Second, Cook (1996) describes the instrumental motivation as one focused on learning the content vocabulary for an ulterior motive unrelated to its use by the native speakers like passing an exam.

Cook (1996) states that both types of motivations are important. A student might learn content vocabulary well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both, for one does not rule out the other. Particularly, Cook (1996) states that students will find it difficult to learn content vocabulary in the classroom if they have neither instrumental nor integrative motivation, as is probably often the case in content vocabulary teaching.

Furthermore, Cook (1996) comments, that another problem teachers face is that motivation for ESOL students is deep-rooted in the students' minds and in their cultural background. The academic needs as well as the cultural and social acclimation of the ESOL students are basic needs in the classroom environment (Glenn & Gort, 2008). Cook (1996) states that teachers may have to go along with the students' motivation so that learning can be smoothed over; In practice teachers have to be aware of the reservations and preconceptions of their ESOL students. Cook (1996) indicates that what ESOL students think of the teacher, and what they think of the course, heavily affects their success.

Slavin (2006) suggests that motivation is a key component in effective instruction, but we must be aware of the student' basic needs for them to succeed. Cook (1996) addresses that language is one means through which all students fulfill their everyday needs, however diverse these may be.

Abraham Maslow introduced the theory of basic needs, also known as Hierarchy of Needs, as a motivating instructional factor (De Lozier, 2014). Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs demonstrated the importance of people needing the very basic of needs such as safety, food, and shelter to be met in order for higher-level needs such as self-actualization or self-esteem to be met (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). Moreover, De Lozier (2014) argues that Maslow's theory encouraged the awareness of these needs and implementation of instruction.

In addition, Maslow (as cited in De Lozier, 2014) identified five areas of motivation based on the needs of the individual. According to Maslow (as cited in De Lozier, 2014), the most basic of needs must first be met before the individual could successfully continue in the learning process. The visualization used to describe the order of these needs was a pyramid depicting the lowest or most basic needs to be on the base level (Ary et al., 2006). For example, if students do not sleep well they may have less motivation to go beyond to higher-levels because of the physical discomfort (Brown, 2001).

According to Owens and Valesky (2007), Maslow's schema level of needs are: (a) food, water, shelter, sex, and air; (b) physical and financial safety; (c) a sense of acceptance by others; and (d) positive self-esteem and reflection of others. Herrera and Murry (2005) present these four primary needs of ESOL students, referred by them as culturally and linguistic diverse students, as four dimensions intertwined, but must occur simultaneously. These four dimensions can be considered the basic essentials of the ESOL students within the general education classroom, academic development, language development, and cognitive development inclusive of social and cultural processes (Herrera & Murry, 2005). According to Herrera and Murry (2005), this would indicate the necessity for the general education classroom teacher to be aware of the

individual students' needs to assist in specific planning to address the diverse needs of the students.

The fifth component of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is self-actualization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). According to De Lozier (2014), the self-efficacy through feeling capable, self-assured, and confident according to Maslow is the final stage of needs. Moreover, De Lozier (2014) explains that because the general education classroom consists of students with diverse social and cognitive needs, the teacher learns to assess these differences and to differentiate instruction according to the needs represented. Indeed, De Lozier (2014) states that motivation within effective instruction should be determined by the motivational level of students and their desire to learn. After all, the importance of effective instruction is to increase student's motivation to encourage students to learn, and to have a desire to continue to learn (Slavin, 2006).

According to Brown (2001), the level of motivation in which a student learns may depend on the student's level of needs based on Maslow's theory, but will include intrinsic and extrinsic motivational stimulants based on Robert Gardner's study of orientation. De Lozier (2014) suggests that Maslow depicted the highest level of student needs as self-actualization, which indicates intrinsic motivational factors are implemented. The highest motivation for one's self-awareness and choices comes from within, fulfilling the need for autonomy (Brown, 2001).

Brown (2001) explains that the motivation behind the teachers' implementation of strategies, methods, and models may exhibit the awareness of the students' needs, as well as the teachers' need for resources to provide instruction specific for ESOL students. Cook (1996) states that the latter process of creating successful learning which can spur high motivation can be under the teacher's control, if not the former. The choice of teaching materials and the

information content of the lesson, for example, should correspond to the motivations of the students (Cook, 2014).

Theoretical Concepts on Vocabulary Acquisition Learning Strategies

The term "theory" can mean something different, depending on who you ask (Bradford, 2015). According to Jamie Tanner (as cited in Bradford, 2015), the way that scientists use the word theory is a little different than how it is commonly used in the lay public. Tanner (as cited in Bradford, 2015) states that most people use the word 'theory' to mean an idea or hunch that someone has, but in science the word 'theory' refers to the way that we interpret facts.

It is important to remember that any current understanding of language learning strategies is necessarily in its infancy, and any existing system of strategies is only a proposal to be tested through practical classroom use and through research (Oxford, 2003). According to Oxford (2003), at this stage in the short history of language learning strategy research, there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined, demarcated, and categorized; and whether it is — or ever will be — possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies. In fact, Oxford (2003) states that some language learning strategies, such as naturalistic practice, are very broad, containing many possible activities, while others, like keyword technique, are narrower, but breadth or narrowness cannot be the sole basis of a hierarchical structure for strategies.

Certainly, classification conflicts are inevitable (Oxford, 1999). For example, Oxford (1999) explains that a given strategy, such as using synonyms if the exact word is not known to the learner, is classified by some experts as a learning strategy, but it is unceremoniously thrown out of the learning strategy arena by other experts, who think it is merely a communication strategy which is not useful for learning. Oxford (1999) comments that there is confusion among

some strategy specialists as to whether a particular strategy, like self-monitoring, should be called direct or indirect; this may be because researchers disagree on the basic definitions of the terms direct and indirect. Even individual researchers often classify a particular strategy differently at different times, in light of new insights (Oxford, 2003). According to Oxford (2003), these difficulties are understandable, given the early stage of investigation concerning language learning strategies.

Despite problems in classifying strategies, research continues to prove that strategies help learners take control of their learning and become more proficient (Oxford, 2003). In schools and classrooms across the country, educators are working to raise the achievement of all students to ever-higher levels (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008). Protheroe and Clarke (2008) suggest that often missing in discussion about how to raise academic performance is the way in which individual students go about learning. Moreover, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) state that one aspect of any student's approach to learning is his or her use of learning strategies.

Interest has been shifting from a limited focus on merely what students learn or acquire — the product or outcome of language learning and acquisition — to an expanded focus that also includes how students gain language — the process by which learning or acquisition occurs (Oxford, 2013). Particularly, Oxford (2003) addresses that this new emphasis involves looking at a variety of process factors: the development of an interlanguage, (the learner's hybrid form of language use that ranges somewhere in between the first or native language and the actual new language being learned), the kinds of errors and mistakes the learner makes and the reasons for them, the learner's social and emotional adaptation to the new language and culture, the amount and kind of activities available to the learner inside and outside of class, and the learner's reactions to specific classroom techniques and methods and to out-of-class experiences with the

language. The process orientation also implies a strong concern for the learner's strategies for gaining language skills (Oxford, 2003). Although researchers have formally discovered and named language acquisition strategies only recently, such strategies have actually been used for thousands of years (Oxford, 2013).

A different, but related word to strategies is tactics, defined as tools to achieve the success of strategies (Seliger, 1984). According to Paredes (2010), many people use these terms, strategies and tactics, interchangeably. Moreover, Paredes (2010) argues that these two expressions do share some basic implied characteristics: planning, competition, conscious manipulation, and movement toward a goal. Thus, the meaning of strategy can be equated to that of a plan, step, or conscious action toward achievement of an objective, as in language learning, while the term tactics can be equated to that of the means to execute strategies (Oxford, 2003).

Furthermore, Oxford (2003) divided strategies into two main groups: direct and indirect. Direct learning strategies directly involve the target language and indirect learning strategies support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language (Oxford, 2003).

According to Oxford (2003), direct learning strategies can be further divided into the following subgroups: memory, cognitive, and compensation. Oxford (2003) states that direct memory strategies reflect very simple principles, such as arranging things in order, making associations, and reviewing. However, these principles all involve meaning. Therefore, for the purpose of learning a new language or for learning to take place, the arrangements and associations must be personally meaningful to the learner, and the material to be reviewed must have significance (Krashen, 1985). Paredes (2010) indicates that an example of this type of

strategies is when Spanish speakers learn a new vocabulary based on the fact that so many cognates exist between their native language and English.

Moreover, Oxford (2003) states that direct cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language; these direct strategies range from repeating to analyzing expressions to summarizing. With all their variety, direct cognitive strategies are unified by a common function: manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner (Dansereau, 1985). According to Chamot (1987), these types of direct strategies are typically found to be the most popular strategies with language learners. An example of a direct cognitive strategy is comparing elements (sounds, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) of the new language with elements of one's first language to determine similarities and differences (Paredes, 2010).

Oxford (2003) indicates that direct compensation strategies enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge. Moreover, Oxford (2003) comments that beginners are not the only ones who use guessing or "inferencing": advanced learners and even native speakers use guessing when they have not heard something well enough. These direct compensation strategies for language production help learners to use the language by overcoming knowledge gaps and continuing to communicate authentically, thus becoming more fluent in what they already know (Oxford, 2003).

On the other hand, Oxford (2003) divides *indirect learning strategies* into the following subgroups: *metacognitive*, *affective*, and *social*. According to Oxford (2003), *metacognitive strategies* help learners to regulate their own cognition and to plan, focus, and evaluate their language learning process as they move toward communicative competence. For example, learners seek out or create opportunities to practice the new language in naturalistic situations (e.g., joining a conversation club) (Paredes, 2010). In addition, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) state

that activities such as planning, monitoring comprehension, and evaluating progress toward completion of a learning task are metacognitive in nature.

In addition, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) suggest that metacognitive strategies have a larger repertoire of learning strategies — again, many of them used almost unconsciously. Using meta-cognitive strategies, learners are likely to select and use the learning strategy that is most effective in helping them address a particular learning task (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008). In essence, Ellis (1995) states that meta-cognitively sophisticated language learners excel because they have cognitive strategies for inferring the meanings of words, for enmeshing them in the meaning networks of other words and concepts and imagery representations, and mapping the surface forms to these rich meaning representations. Chick (2016) indicates that metacognitive practices are indirect learning strategies that help students become aware of their strengths and weaknesses as learners, writers, readers, test-takers, and group members.

Moreover, Oxford (2003) states that *affective strategies* develop the self-confidence and perseverance needed for learners to involve themselves actively in academic language learning, such as laughing at their own mistakes. Oxford (2003) asserts that indirect affective strategies help to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. According to Brown (as cited in Oxford, 2003) the affective domain is impossible to describe within definable limits. Likewise, Oxford (2003) states that the affective domain spreads out like a fine-spun net, encompassing such concepts as self-esteem, attitudes, motivation, anxiety, culture shock, inhibition, risk taking, and tolerance for ambiguity. Good language learners are often those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning (Oxford, 2003).

Oxford (1990) discusses that negative feelings can stunt progress, even for the rare learner who fully understands all the technical aspects of how to learn a new language. On the

other hand, Oxford (2003) assures that positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning more effective and enjoyable. Basically, teachers can exert a tremendous influence over the emotional atmosphere of the classroom in three different ways: by changing the social structure of the classroom to give students more responsibility, by providing increased amounts of naturalistic communication, and by teaching learners to use effective strategies (Oxford, 2003).

Social strategies provide increased interaction and more empathetic understanding, since they occur among and between people (Canale, 1983). According to Paredes (2010), an example of an indirect social strategy is asking the speaker to repeat, paraphrase, and slow down, and so forth to aid comprehension. Specifically, Oxford (2003) presents three sets of social strategies which can be remembered by using the acronym ACE for: Asking Questions, Cooperating with Others, and Empathizing with others.

Moreover, Oxford (1990) expresses that the indirect social strategy of asking questions helps learners get closer to the intended meaning and thus, aids their understanding. Indirect social strategy of cooperating with others in general — with peers and with more proficient users of the target language — is an imperative social strategy to language learners (Oxford, 1990). Finally, Oxford (1990) describes the strategy of empathizing with others as the ability to “put yourself in someone else’s shoes” in order to better understand that person’s perspective. According to Oxford (1990), empathy is essential to successful communication in any language; it is especially necessary, although sometimes difficult to achieve, in learning another language.

Whether direct or indirect, and despite disagreements in classifying language learning or acquisition strategies, these strategies help language learners take control of their learning, become more competent, and most important become autonomous (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990;

Vandergrift, 2002). Regardless of possible misconceptions, Cohen (2003) explains that a more recent definition explains that language learning acquisition strategies are the conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors used by good learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language.

In essence, the concept of language acquisition strategies has grown out of learner-centered research and is usually attributed to an outgrowth of what are called “good learner” studies, studies which describe characteristics of good language learners (Naiman, et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975). Since 1978, researchers’ focus shifted more to the behaviors of successful learners and methods of classifying those behaviors (O’Malley, Chamot, Stwerner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985). According to Rubin (1975) (as cited in Paredes, 2010), the first good learner study based on interviews with ESOL students found the following seven principles. The good learner (a) is willing and accurate, (b) has a strong drive to communicate or to learn from communication, (c) is often not inhibited, (d) is prepared to attend to form, (e) practices by using a variety of behaviors, (f) monitors his own and the speech of others, and (g) learns to attend to meaning.

In addition to these seven principles, Stern (1978) (as cited in Paredes, 2010) identified ten learning strategies used by good language learners. According to Stern (1978), these included experimentation, planning, organization, revision, search-for-meaning, practice, real-life language use, self-monitoring, developing the second language into a separate reference system, and learning to think in the second language.

Moreover, in another study on commonalities of good language learners, five strategies were identified as essential for successful language learning: (a) being actively involved in learning, (b) seeing the second language as a means of communication and social interaction, (c)

copied with affective aspects of language learning, (d) continual monitoring, and (e) revising of the language being learned (Naiman et al., 1978).

As a result, Paredes (2010) states that the good learner studies began to help researchers understand differences between successful and unsuccessful learners, and stimulated further research into learner differences. Paredes (2010) indicates that attempts to investigate the relationship between language learning and success in language development by ESOL students have produced mixed results.

Nevertheless, while there are certainly many ways to teach and learn content vocabulary, it is important to note that there is no single best way (Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle, & Watts-Taffe, 2006). Protheroe and Clarke (2008) state that it is important to point out that learning strategies can effectively be taught as part of any content area instruction. Teachers can help students improve content vocabulary by providing instruction that helps them see the value and relevance of word study and allows them to study interesting and important new academic words that come from texts they read in the classroom (Bintz, 2011).

Moreover, teachers can also focus the students' attention on learning new words at both the literal level (i.e., dictionary or glossary definition) and the conceptual level; helping them use new words in their speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Dixon- Krauss, 2001); getting them actively engaged in interactive word-learning experiences (Rosenbaum, 2001); focusing their attention on learning clusters of words that share a common element or origin (Hennings, 2000); demonstrating to them how to learn vocabulary before, during, and after reading (Greenwood, 2004); and stressing to them that learning new academic words is not an end in itself, but a tool to enhance reading comprehension (Harmon, Wood, Hedrick, & Gress, 2008).

Research on the most effective instructional practices for ESOL students supports:

- *instructional-level teaching*. Match tasks and instructional materials to the developmental level of the students and to their background knowledge;
- *modeling and think-alouds*. Provide examples of whatever task or activity is to be taken. Depending on the degree of abstractness, this often involves a multisensory input for ESOL students. As teachers “walk through” a task or activity, they talk through” their thinking, making it explicit;
- *modifying language*. Make the input comprehensible by talking more slowly, facing the students, emphasizing key words, and avoiding idioms. In addition, teachers can modify their language by the use of paraphrase, by providing examples and analogies, and by elaborating on student responses. Questions may be adapted so that the ESOL student response can vary from pointing to simple yes/no or one- or two- word responses to a sentence response or even a more elaborate response;
- *contextualize instruction*. Use real-life objects, expressive body language, and role playing; and
- *move from simple to complex*. Break down tasks and activities into sequenced steps, gradually moving to more complex formats. Along the way, guide ESOL students in the application of whatever is being learned, providing appropriate feedback (Bear et al., 2007; Echevarría et al., 2004; Freeman & Freeman, 2004).

No matter the instructional practice or strategy, Flanigan and Greenwood (2007) state that all teachers should always keep in mind four factors when considering strategies to teach content vocabulary: (a) the students they are teaching, (b) the nature of the words they decide to teach, (c) their instructional purposes in teaching each of those words, and (d) the strategies they employ to teach the words.

In particular, language acquisition strategies are defined as: steps or actions taken by learners to improve the development of their language skills (Oxford & Cohen, 1992). Similarly, Oxford (2011) defines learning strategies as steps taken by students to enhance their own learning. In addition, Oxford (2011) states that strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active and self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Overall, Oxford (2011) discusses that appropriate academic language acquisition strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence.

Effective content vocabulary acquisition instruction should provide teachers with tools for differentiating instruction for all students, whether they are gifted, struggling, or ESOL students (Brassell & Rasinski, 2011). The following is a list of reviewed and recommended strategies to apply in the classroom for a better content vocabulary acquisition among the students. Its purpose is to guide and support teachers and ESOL students specifically in the area of content vocabulary acquisition (Arroyo, 2006). Understanding the potential of each of the strategy types, alone and in combination, can help teachers provide the best opportunities for the students in the classroom.

However, while all students need to use a variety of strategy types, ESOL students in particular will learn more effectively from using strategies in combination (Reiss, 2012). To better understand the nature of the following strategies, it is recommended to analyze and reflect on the sub-sections found throughout the study.

Concept Illustration: teacher reviews concepts and content vocabulary presented. The teacher will:

1. Model various illustrations that may represent concepts learned.

2. Have cooperative groups or individual students create an illustration or caricature of the concept or content vocabulary.
3. Have students include key vocabulary, critical dates, mathematical formulas, etc. on their illustration. Caricatures should be humorous.
4. Have groups/students present their illustration or caricature to the class.

Puzzle Cards: The teacher will

1. Provide students construction paper or regular white writing paper.
2. Have student write the content word or concept on the right.
3. Allow students to draw their own pictorial representation on the left side of the card.
4. Have them cut the puzzle cards in half once students have completed several cards,
5. Have students mix their cards and begin the matching process in cooperative groups.

Cards must be face up.

Content Vocabulary Quadrant: the teacher will:

1. Have students create a quadrant on an index card or sheet of paper.
2. Brainstorm similar vocabulary, four words, that can be grouped together because they share similar attributes.
3. Model the thinking processes to demonstrate which content vocabulary can be grouped into one quadrant; students write similar content vocabulary on each square.
4. Students may also draw corresponding pictures on their quadrant.
5. You can also have students cut the quadrant in fourths and use puzzle card activities (Concentration and mix and match).

Content Word Wall

1. As you introduce content vocabulary, begin to create a content word wall.

2. Teacher writes the alphabet across the top of butcher paper.
3. As new words are being introduced, add the word (one word at a time) onto the content word wall.
4. Students may also create their own portable word wall since secondary teachers have several classes.

Vocabulary Mental Connections

1. Use 3x5 index cards, plain white paper, or construction paper.
2. Introduce the new vocabulary, one word at a time from the content students have read.
3. Have students write the word on front of the card as the teacher models the writing.
4. Help students make a personal mental connection for the new word.
5. Have students draw an illustration of that mental connection underneath the word.
6. Create a T-chart in back of the card and solicit 2 synonyms and 2 antonyms. If possible, use a picture thesaurus.

Frustration Model

1. Have students use index cards for this strategy.
2. Teacher will model each step starting with the content vocabulary word. Have students place the word in the center of the quadrant.
3. Teacher will brainstorm, with the help of the students, a definition of the word.
4. Repeat step #3 to identify the characteristics, examples and non-examples.
5. Encourage students to create an illustration for each of the four sections.

Mad Minutes

1. The teacher will write all the words on the board that have been the focus of the lesson.
2. Have students look at the words and study them for a few minutes. Erase the words
3. Have students write as many words as possible in three minutes. Use a second hand watch.
4. As students are writing the words, they can provide a definition or an illustration that represents the words.
5. At the end of three minutes, they will count the number of words.
6. The student with the most words earns a round of applause.

Synonyms and Antonyms Dictionary

1. Provide students with plain or construction paper.
2. Have students fold their paper in half to create a book. If possible, staple the book by the spine to hold it together.
3. Students are guided to write the content vocabulary at the top and similar words in the bottom.
4. The purpose is for students to create a synonyms and antonyms dictionary of all the content vocabulary they have acquired.

Spider Web

1. Create a spider web on the board.
2. In the center of the web, write the target word.
3. Make extensions to the web by writing words that correspond with the target word.
4. Have students create their own web and write corresponding words as the teacher models the writing.

KIM

1. Provide students with index cards or use regular writing paper.
2. Inform students that they will use an advance organizer called KIM.
3. Model KIM on the board by using one content vocabulary word.
4. Have students use KIM as students develop their vocabulary.

Fishbone

1. After reading the content, introduce or review the target word.
2. Teacher draws a fishbone on the board.
3. Explain that the fishbone is a graphic organizer that helps us see synonyms and antonyms of words that correspond with the target word at the fish head.
4. Continue the process until you have completed the fishbone.

Vocabulary Prediction Chart

1. Teacher will create a table with the following titles: word, my guess before reading, my guess after reading, and clues. Instruct students to copy the table onto their own.
2. Model your thinking process by identifying a key content vocabulary word from the text. Then model processes of guessing the meaning before reading, guessing the definition after reading, and context clues used to Table out the meaning.
3. Walk students through the same using the next vocabulary word.

Vocabulary Partner Think Aloud

1. As the content read, have students underline target vocabulary words.
2. The teacher underlines the clues used in the passage and guides students by modeling his/her thinking processes in the use of context clues
3. Have students use the same underlining and thinking processes with partner.

4. Allow students to share processes used with each other.

Partners

1. Provide students with construction paper or regular white writing paper.
2. Have students write the content vocabulary word on the right.
3. Allow students to draw their own pictorial representation on the left side of the card.
4. Once students have completed several cards, have them cut the puzzle cards in half.
5. The teacher will pick up the cards and mix them.
6. Pass out the cards with the word to half the class and the picture cards to the other half of the class.
7. Have students stand and let them find their partners. Interactive discussions will occur as students find their partners. Continue process until all the cards are gone.

Cloze Method

1. The teacher will select the target vocabulary word based on the content.
2. Provide students with a copy of the text with the vocabulary word blocked (omitted).
3. Model the thinking processes used to determine the meaning of the omitted word using the surrounding text.
4. Have students read the surrounding text to determine the meaning of the omitted word. Circle the text.
5. Repeat steps 1-4 using the next vocabulary word (omit only one word at a time).
6. The goal of the cloze method is for students to understand the gist of the text to Table out an omitted word using context clues.

Find, Delete and Circle

1. The teacher will model how to use context clues to find the meaning of new words.

2. Provide students with a copy of the text or use a transparency to place on top of the textbook. Use erasable markers.
3. Steps:
 - Find the target word and box in it.
 - Delete information that does not provide clues to understand the target word.
 - Circle the information that does provide strong clues.
4. The teacher will guide discussion through the remaining text to derive the meaning of the target word.

Word Jar

1. The teacher will have to model the following process for his/her students:
2. Have individual students select a content vocabulary word. Students write the following information on an index card. All cards are placed in the Word Jar: (a) content vocabulary word, (b) chapter number and page number where the word can be located, (c) actual sentence in which the word was used, (d) student's own definition and illustration of the word, and (e) student's name.
3. The teacher picks an index card from the Word Jar and reads the word. Students try to guess the meaning of the word. If they cannot guess the meaning of the word, the teacher provides the chapter and page number for students to do a quick search. The word is then read in context, definition, and illustration are presented, and the student's name is revealed.

Vocabulary Checkers

1. After the chapter, text, article, etc. has been read, provide each cooperative group with a manila folder, rulers and markers. Instruct groups to create a checker board.

2. Teacher will review all content vocabulary and will have students write all the content vocabulary randomly throughout the checker board.
3. Each cooperative group will also have to create an answer key with the words and definitions.
4. Have teams exchange checker boards and play by applying the same rules as regular checkers. For example, in order to move a piece (use checker board pieces or have students create their own with construction paper), the student must provide the correct definition. The student holding the answer key will determine if that student can make a move. This student does not participate. Or, you can pass the answer key around so all can participate.

Outlined below are five key elements of an effective academic language learning environment. The use of these strategies can assist all students in accessing the content material (Virginia Department of Education, 2010): (a) *comprehensible input*—Teachers can make their language more comprehensible by modifying their speech by avoiding colloquialisms and speaking clearly, adjusting teaching materials, adding redundancy and context, and scaffolding information within lessons; (b) *reduced anxiety level*— A student’s emotions play a pivotal role in assisting or interfering with learning a second language. Teachers can assist students by creating a comfortable environment that encourages participation and risk taking without fear of feeling embarrassed or foolish (Collier, 1995; Krashen, 1981; Krashen & Terrell, 1983); (c) *contextual clues*—Visual support makes language more comprehensible. For example, a grammar lesson using manipulatives may be more understandable than an explanation of the grammar rule. Even social language is more comprehensible when context is added. For example, understanding a face-to-face conversation in which facial expressions and gestures are

used is easier than understanding a telephone conversation when context clues are nonexistent (Cummins, 1981); (d) *verbal interaction*— ESOL students need opportunities to work together to solve problems and use English for meaningful purposes. They need to give and receive information and complete authentic tasks; and (e) *active participation*—Lessons that encourage active involvement motivate ESOL students, engage them in the learning process, and help them remember content more easily.

Furthermore, Cruz-Wiley (2013) states teaching content vocabulary is critical for the comprehension of texts. According to Cruz-Wiley, building word awareness and academic vocabulary knowledge requires the students to make a personal construction of meaning. In addition, Cruz-Wiley (2010) believes that the following strategies will help ESOL students build mnemonics and visual images to define new academic words.

Strategy 1 – Building Sentences - Teacher lists and pronounces 6-8 vocabulary words related to the major concepts to be learned and that are adequately defined by context in the text to study. Some of these words can present relations to the text that students already know.

1. Students individually, with a partner or in groups use at least 2 of these words to write sentences that they think may be in the text. Teacher has already provided the list of sentence starters to help beginner students create their sentences. This is a draft of the sentences that will be edited later.

2. Students read and verify the content vocabulary to verify if the content they predicted was related to the text.

3. Students generate new sentences using the targeted vocabulary and this time they will support their sentences with the text.

Strategy 2 – Keyword Strategy

1. Teacher reviews with the students the meanings of new vocabulary words and asks them to create personal, visual images to help them remember the meaning.

2. Students create images that they will remember and discuss them with their classmates and with the teacher.

3. New words with pictures or images are recorded in their vocabulary notebook.

Strategy 3 – Vocabulary Self-Collection

1. Students will read a common text and will select (highlight or write in their notebooks) a word they consider important and that should be shared with the class.

2. Students and teacher present the words and their meaning according to the text. These definitions can be expanded or clarified, and a dictionary can be used for final clarification.

During this process students share the reason why they think the word selected is important for understanding the text.

3. After the words have been explored a final list of words is made from the words that are considered most important to understand the text. Students record these words in their vocabulary notebook or journal.

4. Follow-up with activities to monitor words that have been learned.

Ultimately, few things have greater impact on how well one listens, speaks, reads, and writes than the depth and breadth of one's vocabulary knowledge (Green, 2004). According to Green (2004), to be articulate, whether we are describing a person's oral or written language skills, is to be a person who uses the most accurate and powerful word to express a concept. Moreover, Green (2004) states that many benefits result from having word power: the ability to better comprehend what is read, the ability to express oneself well when speaking or writing,

and, of great interest in today's political climate, the ability to score well on standardized and criterion-referenced tests of many kinds.

Acquiring knowledge in all realms of learning – the natural and social sciences, the arts, and mathematics – requires one to master the meanings of the related technical vocabulary terms for that field (Green, 2004).

Content Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies Focused on STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics). With the implementation of the Common Core State Standards, content-area literacy is a huge focus right now. The Common Core State Standards emphasize the literacy of Math, Science, and Technical subjects in English language arts (Crumpler, 2013).

STEM is the acronym for Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics, and encompasses a vast array of subjects that fall into each of those terms (Hos, 2014). Moreover, Hos (2014) states that rather than teach the four disciplines as separate and discrete subjects, STEM integrates them into a cohesive learning paradigm based on real-world applications. While it is almost impossible to list every discipline, some common STEM areas include: aerospace engineering, astrophysics, astronomy, biochemistry, biomechanics, chemical engineering, chemistry, civil engineering, computer science, mathematical biology, nanotechnology, neurobiology, nuclear physics, physics, and robotics, among many others (Hos, 2014). As evidenced by the multitude of disciplines, it's clear that STEM fields affect virtually every component of our everyday lives (Teach.com, 2015).

Furthermore, Crumpler (2013) also states that STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Math) content areas are difficult for ESOL students. To meet the literacy objectives under the Common Core State Standards, ESOL and content-area teachers must work together in

teaching STEM content-area vocabulary. ESOL students will not be able to understand STEM subject area objectives or texts without understanding the technical content vocabulary within each (Crumpler, 2013).

The following are additional content vocabulary acquisition strategies to be taken in consideration when managing strategies for STEM's content vocabulary development between ESOL teachers and content-area teachers (Crumpler, 2013):

- Generate a list of terms and phrases that ESOL students will not know which need to be pre-taught. Next pre-teach the terms and phrases before the lesson is taught in the content-area classrooms. Use methods and resources listed below for pre-teaching.
- Label classrooms with content vocabulary labels to help ESOL students have visual guides.
- Write all content demonstrations and directions out for students to see and reference. This can be on a class board, interactive whiteboard presentation, or classroom handout.
- Create content-area objectives and language learning objectives that correlate with lesson tasks.
- Practice vocabulary through modeling of real-life scenarios. Do mini experiments, virtual experiments, virtual field trips and the like to create real-life scenarios.
- Use graphic organizers that generate meaning and understanding. Have students practice labeling and making diagrams of vocabulary concepts. These tools can be used also to practice cause and effect relationships.

- Have students create ESOL STEM dictionaries of the lesson terms. Have them draw or paste a picture of the meaning of the word, write the part of speech, create a list of synonyms, write the definition of the word, use the word in a general sentence, and then use the word in a STEM-focused sentence.
- Use videos and interactive resources online and on mobile apps to facilitate content vocabulary understanding.
- Act out content, use songs or chants to teach content vocabulary.
- Use realia (real objects) to have students make connections with the real world and to facilitate content-area understanding.
- If you have access to an interactive whiteboard, use a document camera to snap a photo to generate labels or write about the object. Document cameras can also be used to review content and meaning in the textbook.
- Video record lessons, demonstrations, small group presentations, etc., in the classroom and make the recordings accessible for students. Upload records to classroom websites or to the school's content management system.
- Break students into small groups. Give a content vocabulary learning tasks to complete. Have them present their findings to the class.
- Use mobile apps to create personalized vocabulary flash cards, video recordings, dictionary applications, and any other applications that will make the STEM content meaningful.
- Use social media classroom outlets to create conversations about STEM concepts.
- Use informational and clarifying questions to build understanding.

- Have students practice making a hypothesis and prediction in various real-life scenarios.
- Take students through the entire scientific process or through a mathematical formula. Have them diagram the process as you go through it step by step. Then, have students retell what happened and how the answer was determined.
- Use cognates between languages to encourage understanding of difficult content vocabulary words.
- Engage instruction and pace lessons according to student needs. Implement longer wait periods to help ESL students respond to the difficult questions and technical tasks that STEM area learning requires.
- Create a content-area word wall and concept definition map to help ESOL students use as content vocabulary referencing tools.
- Have students take notes of text, highlight key information, write outlines, etc., of the subject textbook to make the content comprehensible for students.
- Incorporate reading and writing activities for content vocabulary development.
- Build upon prior knowledge and basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) in lessons and activities.
- In lessons and activities teach word families and parts of speech.

Furthermore, according to Templeton et al. (2010), the end goal is for all students to rate their own knowledge of content vocabulary periodically. Taylor (1999) explains that learners who are more aware or more advanced seem to use better content vocabulary strategies. Moreover, Paredes (2010) suggests that content vocabulary acquisition strategies are the means through which students develop an awareness of their own metacognition and thus control of

their own learning. Taylor (1999) describes metacognition or reflections on one's own thinking and learning, as the hallmark of the successful learner.

Finally, according to Protheroe and Clarke (2008), the goal of strategy instruction should not be rote memorization of a particular approach, but instead the development of a repertoire of tools a student can access as needed. Thus, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) discuss that teachers should build in opportunities for students to generalize use of a strategy to a new type of task. Protheroe and Clarke (2008) indicate that this is another skill that most highly effective learners have. They mentally—and, again, often subconsciously—select from among a variety of strategies (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008).

Protheroe and Clarke (2008) state that less effective learners may fixate on the skill learned most recently or one that worked well for them in the past—although in regard to a very different type of task. Moreover, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) indicate that this is a reason why school wide implementation of strategy instruction can be particularly effective. As students enter tenth grade, for example, all of tenth grade teachers will know what learning strategies have been taught in ninth grade and remind students to use appropriate ones (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008). A strategy taught in a math class can be pointed to by a science teacher as one that would be helpful for a specific science task (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008).

Moreover, Schumaker and Deshler (2006) define a learning strategy as an individual's approach to a task. According to Schumaker and Deshler (2006), it includes how a person thinks and acts when planning, executing, and evaluating performance on a task and its outcomes. College students need to be in control of their own learning (Stahl, Simpson, & Hayes, 1992). Certainly, the goal is for learning to continue when students leave the classroom (Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Stahl & Nagy, 2006).

Language Learning Strategy Assessment. ESOL teachers could benefit by assessing the learning styles and the strategy use of their students because such assessment leads to greater understanding of styles and strategies (Oxford, 2003). According to Oxford (2003), teachers need to assess their styles and strategies, so that they will be aware of their preferences and of possible biases. Teachers can learn about assessment options by reading books or journals, attending professional conferences, or taking relevant courses or workshops (Oxford, 2003).

Moreover, Oxford (2003) states that some of the most important strategy assessment techniques include observations, interviews, “think-aloud” procedures, note-taking, diaries or journals, and self-report surveys. By assessing ESOL students’ learning strategies, Oxford (2003) asserts that teachers can provide training on how to improve those strategies.

In essence, learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process (Oxford, 1990). Oxford (1990) indicates that although learning is certainly part of the human condition, conscious skill in self-directed learning and in strategy use must be sharpened through training. Moreover, Oxford (1990) asserts that strategy training is especially necessary in the areas of second and foreign languages. Oxford (1990) states that language learning requires active self-direction on the part of learners. They cannot be spoon-fed if they desire and expect to reach an acceptable level of communicative competence.

Contemporary / Self-Directed Learning (SDL) Theory. The prevalence of self-directed learning (SDL) is now well established. According to Paredes (2010), scholarly interest in this form of learning has grown considerably since the late sixties and early seventies. Although more recently there has been some decline in the number of studies and articles on the subject (Brockett, et al., 2000), SDL continues to be one of the focal points for scholarship in the field of education (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). SDL is defined as a process in which

individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating goals, identifying human and material resources, choosing and implementing learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes (Knowles, 1975) (as cited in Paredes, 2010).

The plethora of literature available on the subject of self-directed learning indicates the level of educational interest in the concept (Song & Hill, 2007; Rager, 2003; Roberson & Merriam, 2005). Indeed, no area of adult education has received more attention, in terms of investigative research (Boekaerts, 1997) (as cited in Paredes, 2010). Paredes (2010), states that emphasis has been on the development of a theory that has led to the generation of models to explain the meanings and contexts of self-directed learning. In addition, Paredes (2010) states that research suggests that self-directed learning can play an important role in learning within institutions and highlights the variance in levels of readiness for self-directed learning in individual students (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; Grow, 1991).

Moreover, Paredes (2010) indicates that different scholars have presented different perspectives on SDL. Some scholars see SDL as a process of organizing the instruction (Harrison, 1978), focusing their attention on the level of learner autonomy over the instructional process. Others view self-direction as a personal attribute (Guglielmino, 1977; Kasworm, 1988), with the education's goal being to developing individuals who can assume moral, emotional, and intellectual autonomy (Candy, 1991).

Several models have been proposed to understand SDL (e.g., Brockett and Hiemstra, 1991; Candy's model, 1991; Danis's model, 1992; Grow's model, 1991) to a more recent one, Garrison's Three Dimensional Model (1997). According to Paredes (2010), Garrison's three-dimensional model views SDL as a personal attribute as well as a learning process. Paredes

(2010) states that SDL is accomplished by three dimensions interacting with each other: self-management, self-monitoring, and motivation.

Overall, the focus of Garrison's (1997) model is on resource use, learning strategies use, and motivation to learn. It involves learners taking control of the learning context to reach their learning objectives (Paredes, 2010).

Related Studies

The following section introduces similar studies that focused on content vocabulary strategies. Although the investigations presented in this section are more extensive, a brief abstract is provided. By analyzing other investigations, the researcher is able to critically examine and compare the final results with general knowledge in the field under investigation.

A study by Paredes (2010), "Language Learning Strategy Use by Colombian English Language Learners: A Phenomenological Study" presented conclusions that were focused on language learning strategies. The purpose of this phenomenological study was to describe how Colombian ESOL students select and use language learning strategies. According to Paredes (2010), the participants were selected for this study using purposeful sampling methods. Berg (2004) (as cited in Paredes, 2010) states that purposeful sampling is used in order to assure that some types of individuals displaying certain particular traits participate in the investigation.

Moreover, semi-structured interviews and a focus group interview were conducted, transcribed, and analyzed for 12 Colombian ESOL students (Paredes, 2010). Within the study's conclusions, Paredes (2010) identified types of learning strategies that ESOL students utilize when acquiring English and determined how these experiences compared and contrasted with the existing literature on language learning strategies. According to Paredes, four topics came out from the information collected that targeted the purpose of the investigation. These topics were:

learning conditions, problem-solving resources, data processing, and target language drills. The study also provided key insights on the importance of both the internal and external factors as well as the individual student's past and current experiences on the selection and use of language learning strategies (Paredes, 2010).

Paredes (2010) states that both internal and external elements influence the choice and use of language learning strategies. A framework for analyzing the learning context together with individual learner variables was suggested. Paredes (2010) states that the conclusions of this investigation recommend the importance of including the learners' culture and background knowledge, as necessary elements in the teaching design. According to Paredes (2010), the investigation implies the pertinent inclusion of strategy training in order to better prepare ESOL students with effective ways to enhance their language learning experience and consequently their successful fulfillment as a person in society.

Furthermore, in another investigation by Mukoroli (2011) titled, "Effective Vocabulary Teaching Strategies for the English for Academic Purposes ESOL Classroom," and through a qualitative descriptive approach he observed three well established English for Academic Purposes ESOL classrooms across the United States. The purpose was to investigate and analyze effective and contemporary methods and strategies used by the professors in the English for Academic Purpose, ESOL classroom. The following methods and strategies were successfully employed by the Professors at Riverside Language Program (New York), Ohio University (Ohio), and Loyola University (Chicago) (Mukoroli, 2011). All of the participants were chosen through a criterion based sampling because they contained all of the elements that the investigator had desired to study.

Mukoroli (2011) states that analyzing different effective vocabulary teaching strategies in the English for Academic Purposes classroom could greatly help ESOL students in their adventure of language acquisition and therefore accelerate the language learning process. Mukoroli found that within the results was the necessity of providing ESOL students with the key topics of the curriculum, the content specific academic vocabulary words, and sentence structures related to what they acquire in class. In addition, Mukoroli (2011) states that ESOL teachers have to occasionally assess the learners' progress and development to demonstrate how they are advancing and thus motivating them to work harder. For example, Mukoroli describes the portfolio as an effective method of assessment for ESOL students. Through a portfolio, students can assess their own progress at regular intervals (Mukoroli, 2011).

Moreover, Mukoroli (2011) recommends ESOL instructors not to simplify the learners' curriculum. Mukoroli advises ESOL teachers to focus on determining the key concepts and learning processes in the curriculum that all students must know. When teachers help students focus on the most important academic vocabulary words, the content in the classroom becomes manageable and the assignments less stressing. This makes the learning and instructing process productive for both teachers and learners because valuable time is spent on what is most necessary for students to comprehend the standards (Mukoroli, 2011).

A third investigation by DeLozier (2014), "A Phenomenological Investigation of Instructional Practices of General Education Teachers for English Language Learners," was designed to describe, through interviews, the general education instructors' perceptions of effective teaching strategies to strengthen the acquisition of core content curriculum of the ESOL students in the classroom. The participants of the study were selected through a criterion based

sampling. According to DeLozier (2014), to identify these participants, the district Research and Evaluation team provided a list of teachers that fit within the parameters of the investigation.

In this study, DeLozier (2014) commented that during the interview the participants specifically focused and described practices that were content-based and related to core academic curriculum in the general education classroom. DeLozier observed that the interview and correlating questions gathered a general collection of strategies utilized throughout all content-based fields. Yet, an emerging pattern became clear throughout the data collection process. DeLozier (2014) found Vocabulary Building, Teacher Modeling, Peer Assistance, Cooperative Learning, Technology, Differentiated Instructions, and an Appropriate Classroom Environment as effective strategies to enhance core content learning opportunities for ESOL students.

One last study with a mixed approach by Zhao (2009), “Metacognitive Strategy Training and Vocabulary Learning of Chinese Students,” attempted to analyze the relationship between metacognitive strategy training and content vocabulary acquisition of students through a five-week workshop. This investigation embraced a descriptive design with quantitative information recollection and examination strategies to study the use of metacognitive strategies and to analyze the influences of metacognitive strategies on content vocabulary acquisition. It intended to answer the question: Can metacognitive strategy drills facilitate vocabulary learning of Chinese students?

For the investigation, both a survey and an exam were used. The investigation had 134 participants; one group of 68 that received both cognitive vocabulary drills and metacognitive training comprised the experimental group; the other group of 66 learners served as the control group and received only cognitive strategy training without a metacognitive component.

According to Zhao (2009), the metacognitive strategy workshop for vocabulary acquisition of these learners demonstrated to be effective. The experimental group performed better than the control group in the post-training vocabulary exam and the survey displayed how the students advanced on these metacognitive strategies. Zhao states that although the results demonstrated that the overall students' use of metacognitive strategies is very low, a metacognitive strategy workshop could facilitate ESOL students' content vocabulary acquisition.

In addition, Zhao (2009) indicates that explicitly instructing and analyzing metacognitive strategies in the classroom can have a direct positive impact on the learners' results. Zhao states, that the use of learning strategies is longer-lasting when students are educated on the importance of the strategies and given reasons for their effectiveness. According to Zhao, the mastery of vocabulary represents an important part in the complete process of the second language acquisition and is of critical importance to the students. Without a strong dominance of vocabulary, listening, reading, translation, and writing are all attics in the air (Zhao, 2009).

Perhaps most investigations seem to conclude a variety of different answers towards effective instruction of content vocabulary for ESOL students. Considering the previous abstracts, all four investigations although had varied conclusions, focused on specific content vocabulary building strategies.

Conclusion

Isecke (2011) argues that although it is impossible to specifically know what students will need in order to successfully compete in the future, we know for sure that our students will eventually enter an-ever-changing and complex world, where at the minimum, they will need to read with understanding, communicate their ideas with clarity, make appropriate connections, distinguish between reliable and unreliable sources of information, investigate information

accurately and efficiently, make decisions based on sound reasoning, think through new problems, and apply what they know to solve these problems.

Moreover, Hollie (2012) discusses that understanding the basics of the pedagogy of content vocabulary is important. According to Meriam-Webster dictionary (2011), pedagogy is defined as the method and practice of teaching, especially as an academic subject or theoretical concept. More specifically, Hollie (2012) defines pedagogy as the how and why of teaching, the strategic use of methods, and the rationale behind why instructional decisions are made. Hollie (2012) states that without the principles of the pedagogy of content vocabulary, there is only theory, and theory alone does not adequately serve teachers and students.

Furthermore, Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2006) comment that a survey of the literature indicates several principles of content vocabulary instruction that should be included in any program or approach. These principles include providing definitional and contextual information about the word's meaning, actively involving students in word learning through talking about, comparing, analyzing, and using the target words, providing multiple exposures to meaningful information about each word, and teaching word analysis. Indeed, Hollie (2012) suggests that when working with all students, teachers must consider the previous four, time- and research-proven principles or concepts. Activating prior knowledge, making schematic connections, and building on the words that the students already know are central to any basic vocabulary instruction. Furthermore, Hollie (2012) explains that students come to school with some knowledge. Through their rich out-of-school experiences, students have a multitude of thoughts, opinions, and concepts about the communities they live in and the world around them. Therefore, students have vast conceptual vocabularies upon which strategic instruction can be built.

In addition to strategic instruction on general content vocabulary acquisition, Reiss (2005) comments that teaching students a new language also involves helping them know its sound (phonology), its words (lexicon), and its sentence formation (syntax and semantics). Moreover, Reiss (2005) argues to help students learn content in a new language, we must use clear and concise articulation, make eye contact, use visuals, employ gestures/ body movement/ pantomime, use shorter and simpler sentences at a slower rate, use high-frequency vocabulary, and eliminate idiomatic expressions. Generally speaking, we have to model, scaffold, access, and activate student's prior knowledge; provide cooperative learning activities; and differentiate instruction. Hill and Flynn (2006) state making such accommodations helps provide better instruction for any student.

Ellis (2013) states that we need ever to remember that language is all about interactions. Cognition, consciousness, experience, embodiment, brain, self, and human interaction, society, culture, and history are all inextricably intertwined in rich, complex, and dynamic ways in language. Despite this complexity, despite its lack of overt government, instead of anarchy and chaos, there are patterns everywhere (Ellis, 2013).

In addition, Ellis (2013) suggests that linguistic patterns, are not pre-ordained by God, genes, school curriculum, or other human policy. Instead they are emergent (Ellis, 1998, 2006; Hopper, 1987; MacWhinney, 1998) – synchronic patterns of linguistic construction at numerous levels (phonology, lexis, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, discourse, genre, ...), dynamic patterns of usage, diachronic patterns of language change (linguistic cycles of grammaticalization, second language acquisition, pidginization, creolization, ...), ontogenetic developmental patterns in child language acquisition, global geopolitical patterns of language growth and decline, dominance,

and loss. Ellis (2013) indicates that we cannot understand these phenomena unless we understand their interplay. As emphasized by Reiss (2005), the tricks of the learning trade.

Moreover, Mora-Flores (2011) states that our work as teachers of content vocabulary acquisition strategies begins by understanding language development. Mora-Flores (2011) expresses that teachers must examine what they know about how people learn a language and what it means to become fluent in a language. Moreover, Mora-Flores (2011) argues that to support their ESOL students, teachers can begin by thinking about their own experience and what helps them learn a language.

According to Mora-Flores (2011), a summary of what she believes to be true about how to support ESOL students in diverse instructional contexts consists of.

- Cognitive skills and concepts learned in a primary language transfer to learning a second language.
- Content and skills must be taught through meaningful, authentic experiences.
- ESOL students must feel connected to their language. In other words, learning must be meaningful and relevant to student's lives.
- ESOL students need to feel safe trying out language and serving as language models for one another.
- ESOL students are brilliant as they navigate two languages to reach high levels of academic success.
- ESOL students need to feel that they are members of a learning community, where everyone is a novice, an apprentice, and an expert.
- Quality bilingual programs best support ESOL students to develop high levels of academic achievement in both languages.

- Rigorous, quality teaching is appropriate for all ESOL students.
- Challenging curriculum is appropriate for all ESOL students.
- All ESOL students are capable of reaching high levels of academic achievement.
- Teachers must believe that all ESOL students are capable of high levels of academic English and school success.

In addition to teacher's support, Ellis (2013) states that successful learners use sophisticated metacognitive knowledge to choose suitable cognitive learning strategies appropriate to the task of vocabulary acquisition. Ellis (2013) indicates that these include: inferring word meanings from context, effective use of dictionary and thesaural aids, and deep processing for elaboration of the new word with existing knowledge. Moreover, Ellis (2013) suggests that there is no single process of learning a word. Rather these processes are logically, psychologically, and pedagogically separable.

Certainly, finding a solid answer to the problem of academic language acquisition is far from being over (Lemetyinen, 2012). Lemtyinen (2012) states that our current understanding of the developmental process is still immature. For example, Lemtyinen (2012) explains that investigators of universal grammar are still trying to convince that language is a task too demanding to acquire without specific innate equipment, whereas the constructivist researchers are fiercely arguing for the importance of linguistic input. Overall, the mystery of language acquisition is granted to keep psychologists and linguists alike astonished a decade after decade (Lemetyinen, 2012).

More than ever before, educational change in all its complexity rests within a teacher's classroom practices and the ability to collaborate concerning the materials and instructional resources chosen, the use of teaching approaches and strategies, and the alteration of pedagogical

beliefs (Fullan, 2007; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). Nonetheless, as pointed through-out the study, approaches and strategies to instruction may vary among schools, school districts, and counties, but the primary objective of all school programs for nonnative speakers is the same: to teach them to understand, speak, read, and write (Reiss, 2012).

Chapter III

Methodology

This chapter begins with the purpose of the investigation and its methodology. Then it explains the research design of the study, describes the participants and the procedure of accessing them, explains the data collection procedure, provides an explanation of the analysis of the data, and describes the validity of the data. At all times throughout the study, the investigator considered the objective of the study and contemplated on the Research Question before making any decision.

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to examine the perceptions of a selected group of teachers regarding the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida. Using phenomenology, the investigator makes specific comments and observations about individual situations which cannot be directly generalized in the same manner which is sometimes claimed for survey investigation (Lester, 1999). Through this investigation the investigator observed as if seeing through the eyes of the participants and derived important information on the Research Question: Which are, according to the teacher's perspective, the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida?

According to Merriam (2009) (as cited in Worthington, 2010), a phenomenological study is well suited for analyzing affective, emotional, and often intense human experiences. Husserl (1970) states that pure phenomenological studies search essentially to describe rather than explain. The focus of a phenomenological study is in discovering and understanding the inner

essence of the participants' cognitive processing regarding some ordinary experience (Worthington, 2010).

Research Design

For this study the investigator used a qualitative investigation. It is through a qualitative approach that the investigator obtained the most relevant information for the purpose and methodology of the investigation. According to Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010), the purposes of a qualitative investigation consist in "reconstructing" reality through the experiences and the language of the participants in the study.

Lester (1999) states that phenomenological methods are specifically effective at bringing forward the experiences and perceptions of individuals from their own perspectives, and therefore at challenging structural or normative speculations. Adding an interpretive element to phenomenological studies, permitting it to be used as the premise for practical theory, allows it to inform, help, or confront policy and action (Lester, 1999).

Moreover, in order to research and interpret from a first-person point of view the participants' perspectives on the purpose of this investigation, the investigator selected a phenomenological design from the many branches of the qualitative investigation like: ethnography, narrative research, grounded theory, and case studies.

With an initial purpose of obtaining precise information from the participants' experiences, Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, and Sorensen (2006) describe phenomenology as an approach that interprets the experience as described by the participants, and centers around the participants' perceptions of the experience. By focusing on the perceptions of the participants, this phenomenological study identified the participants' reasoning for what content vocabulary acquisition strategies effectively benefit ESOL students' learning.

Rawat (2011) states that in phenomenology the researcher is more attentive in the experiences of the participants; therefore, it is not enough knowing how a respondent interprets something; the important thing is to understand the encounters that led the respondent to their decisions. Moreover, Christensen, Johnson, and Turner (2010) assert that the most important objective of a phenomenological investigation is to describe the meaning, structure, and essence of the lived encounters of a person, or a group of people around a particular phenomenon. Phenomenological studies focus on studying human phenomenon through real life experiences that people live and experiment (Ponce, 2014).

Since phenomenology is a philosophy that emphasizes on the social reality in a subjective manner as a method of investigation, the phenomenological investigators try to “enter” in the mind of those being studied to understand certain social phenomenon that they are experiencing and to be able to describe and communicate the results in a scientific form (Ponce, 2014). Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2013) describes phenomenological investigations as the structure of different types of experiences ranging from perception, thought, memory, imagination, emotion, desire, and conscious choices to bodily awareness, embodied action, and social recreation, including linguistic activity.

With the purpose of collecting data, the investigator designed a semi-structured interview of eight open-ended Guiding Questions containing a set of socio-demographic compilation of facts (Gender, Teaching Subject, Academic Background/Highest Degree, Age, and Teaching Years at the Secondary Level) from the participants and focused in one Research Question: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida? (see Appendix A).

Participants

The sample of participants for this study was purposive, and the methodology used for its selection was classified as a non-probabilistic expert's sampling which involves both, deepness, and immersion in the field being investigated, and the congregating of a sample of people with known or demonstrable experience and expertise in a subject. For this investigation, a "panel of experts" consisted of six English speaking secondary level public school teachers. The X Public School that was used in this investigation fit all the inclusion criteria: (1) five years of experience in the secondary tenth grade level, (2) a valid certificate approved by the United States Department of Education, and (3) ESOL certified endorsed teachers with over five years or more of experience.

Moreover, an inclusion of criteria was considered to select the participants who described the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient grade level students. This non-probabilistic expert's criterion-based sampling, with a purposive nature, was selected for the study because it contains the elements that the investigator decided to study and made it ideal for the investigation's objective. Yet, for purposes of validation, the investigator consulted the selected criteria with the school's principal, the English Department Head, and the school's ELL Specialist.

The participants were selected according to the following inclusion criteria: (1) must have a bachelor's degree in Education, (2) must have five years of experience in the secondary tenth grade level public school system, (3) must have a teacher certification from the Department of Education, (4) must have a certified ESOL Endorsement, (5) must be certified Highly Effective by the Florida Department of Education, and (6) must sign the consent form that officially assigns them as part of the investigation. However, the investigator excluded from the study any

participant that (a) did not have a bachelor's degree in Education, (b) did not have five years of experience in the secondary tenth grade level public school system, (c) did not have a teacher certification from the Department of Education, (d) did not have a certified ESOL Endorsement, (e) was not certified Highly Effective by the Florida Department of Education, and (f) had not signed the consent form that officially assigns them as part of the investigation.

The number of participants depended on the number required to inform completely all the main components of the phenomenon being examined. Although in a qualitative investigation the process of selecting the participants is flexible, and the sample does not necessarily have to be representative of the universe, the investigator did pay close attention to data saturation.

Furthermore, according to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) (2018), an informed consent is the process of giving clinical trial participants all the facts about a trial. The IRB states that this happens before they agree to take part and during the process of the trial. The IRB (2016) indicates that an informed consent must present details about the treatments and exams the participants may receive and the advantages and disadvantages they may confront.

Before the IRB approved the protocol to access the participants for the interviews, the investigator, through a written consent, requested the authorization of the school's director. After obtaining the authorization from the school's director and the IRB's approval, the investigator arranged a second date and time to meet again with the school's director to discuss specific details like: the selection of the six participants and the date, the hour, and the location in the school site where the interviews would take place. Once these specific details were established and the principal had determined a safe and private location for the interviews, the investigator proceeded with the investigation.

Approximately a week later, through the school's director as the main contact, a first meeting was coordinated with each participant to explain specific details of the process. Finalizing that first meeting with the participants and confirming their participation in the semi-structured interview, the investigator proceeded to schedule through a written consent form, the specific time and date. Once the time and date were settled, the investigator explained to each participant the location in the school site where the interview would take place. All interviews were one on one and face to face at the participants' school site inside a secure and private classroom selected by the school's principal, and where the participants did not feel confined or uneasy about expressing their experiences.

Each participant received a copy of the consent form with the investigator's contact number for future reference. In addition, if at any moment during the process of the investigation a participant decided to withdraw from the investigation, he or she could do so without any kind of consequences. Immediately, the investigator would proceed to shred their documentation and destroy any USB or recording used in the process, and a new participant would be selected to fill his or her space.

Once the corroboration phase was completed, the one on one semi-structured interview of eight open-ended Guiding Questions and a set of socio-demographic compilation of facts (Gender, Teaching Subject, Academic Background/Highest Degree, Age, and Teaching Years at the Secondary Level) from the participants took place in order to concentrate more on the participants' ideas, emotions, feelings, experiences, knowledge, abilities, and preferences.

Data Collection

In determining according to the teacher's experiences, which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade

level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida, a specific and accurate procedure of semi-structured interviews containing a set of socio-demographic compilation of facts (Gender, Teaching Subject, Academic Background/Highest Degree, Age, and Teaching Years at the Secondary Level) from the participants took place.

Through individual semi-structured interviews containing a set of socio-demographic compilation of facts from the participants, and eight open-ended Guiding Questions to a preselected sample of teachers, the investigator gained insight of the information needed to accomplish the purpose of this study and uncover trends in thought and opinion.

In order to accomplish the investigation's purpose and to collect the proper information, the following eight Guiding Questions were considered throughout each interview:

1. Considering the different language barriers English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) experience, how many years do you consider it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to master the State's Standardized Tests? Explain.
2. What are your recommendations to other teachers in helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school?
3. State and explain your agreement or disagreement with the following statement: Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams).
4. What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist you in differentiating your ESOL students' language acquisition

- levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary: (1) Emergent, (2) Beginning, (3) Early Intermediate, (4) Intermediate, (5) Advanced? Explain.
5. Which content vocabulary acquisition strategies do you consider are the most recommended for ESOL students at the tenth-grade level in order to accelerate their preparation for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?
 6. Based on your knowledge and experience, what encounters led you to the decisions made on the previous question (Question Five)?
 7. Considering that if ESOL students do not pass the required state's tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, what are the challenges that you face when preparing these students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?
 8. What resources should teachers use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their ESOL students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Primarily, it is through semi-structured one on one in-person interviewing with open-ended questions that the investigator got up-close to the participants and obtained the most precise information. Using closed-ended questions with yes and no answers would not provide rich information about the phenomenon under investigation. With open-ended questions the participants could share motivations that were not expected and uncover unknown behaviors and concerns.

Moreover, each semi-structured interview took approximately 30 to 50 minutes at the participants' school site inside a secure and private classroom selected by the school's principal where the participants did not feel confined or uneasy about expressing their experiences. As an interviewer, the investigator assumed neutrality. Also, keeping the same objective approach in every interview helped to maintain its reliability or consistency. To maintain a standard and consistent procedure of the collected information, the whole data collection process of this investigation was clear and transparent.

To avoid off-topic discussions and focus on the objective of the investigation, the interview items in this investigation were created with the feedback of previous related investigations, discussions with practitioners in the field, and a literature review. All the interview Guiding Questions in this investigation were presented to the X Public School's principal, three Department Heads (English, ESOL, and Reading), and to the committee members of the study for further validation, precision, and relevance (see Appendix A). Together they provided recommendations to make sure that the questions were valid and credible before being administered. By doing so, the investigator applied triangulation as a method of validation and was able to study one particular object from different contrasting perspectives.

Furthermore, on the assigned date of the interview, before it began, the participants received general orientation about the objectives, procedure, their participation, and the consent form. Once the investigator completed the orientation in a kind manner, the participants were asked to explain the objective of the investigation and its procedure. This method guaranteed that the participants could decide if they want to proceed or not.

Moreover, the investigator explained to the participants the possible dangers and advantages of their participation in the study. The procedure presented minimum risks for the

participants like tiredness or lack of interest. Nevertheless, the benefits for the participants were larger than the risks. The potential benefits for the participants were their self-reflection on the topic of content vocabulary acquisition strategies, and their professional and personal development.

A major benefit for our society is the fact of recognizing and identifying the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient tenth grade level students. It will provide educators better knowledge of which strategies experienced teachers consider work best with ESOL students. By doing so, other teachers can incorporate strategies in their lessons that may lead ESOL students to a higher English language proficiency level which will help when taking state mandatory exams like the FSA that are required for graduation, potentially increasing the number of possible college or university candidates for the ESOL population.

For purposes of confidentiality and facilitation of the data analysis, every semi-structured interview was coded with a specific number that represents each individual participant throughout their interview, and that only the investigator can identify. To keep an organized inventory of all the data from each individual participant like field notes, documents, or memos written while thinking of the information, the investigator number coded each complete set of data using each participant's individual interview number code. Then, every individual set was accommodated in a specific organized scheme that permitted access to every piece of the data at any time.

In addition, it was explained to all the participants that the information was totally confidential and that their participation was voluntary; meaning that no economical compensation would be received for their participation. It was also explained that the purpose of

this interview was not to evaluate them, but just to learn about the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient students at a tenth-grade school level. With the objective of evaluating if the participant understood the purpose of the study the investigator directly asked the following questions: Do you understand the procedure? What is the purpose of the study? Are there any doubts?

Next, the participants were informed that their answers would be jotted down in a paper journal. Each participant would have a specific individual paper journal that the investigator would use to write down the participant's answers and additional notes from each interview. They were also informed that the interview would be recorded using a digital recorder with voice distortion capability, and that they would only be identified through their individual number code to protect their identity. For purposes of confidentiality, privacy, and security, after every interview session the digitally recorded material and the written data was manipulated by the investigator only for research purposes and secured in a locked file cabinet.

Each interview lasted 30 to 50 minutes, but it also depended on the participant's responses. If during the process the participant did not understand any of the questions, he or she could feel free to ask and immediately they would be clarified. However, the investigator would not emit opinions. The investigator only wrote down their answers to the questions as the interview proceeded and recorded the interview to clarify any misinterpretation.

The interviews began with a salutation and a welcome, so that the investigator could establish an environment of respect, kindness, and professionalism. During the course of the interview, the participant's answers were reviewed, in addition to any important additional key points and observations. If the participants were not comfortable with their answers, they had the option to modify them.

Constantly reviewing the notes as they were collected throughout the interview provided new ideas, commentaries, and observations. With all the collected data, opportunities were provided to enhance, not only the limited English proficient students, but the instruction in the general education classroom.

All the data was gathered and categorized. Each category revealed the participant's opinion. The results revealed descriptive and accurate answers that help guide the educational system towards a better understanding of the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies at the secondary tenth grade level. Accordingly, all the collected data was number coded for the confidentiality of the participants and then summarized, displayed in tables, and analyzed.

The sensitive information collected by the interviews, the consent forms, the recordings, and any other material related to the investigation will be kept under the investigator's supervision inside a locked file cabinet in the investigator's residency for a total of five years. After a period of five years the investigator will proceed to destroy all the interview recordings and any USB device used as part of the investigation. The investigator will also shred and dispose of all the printed material, and anything else pertaining to the study.

Finally, during the whole ongoing analysis and while finalizing the data collection process, the investigator carried out triangulation and began searching for possible convergence among the collected data. With the raw data the investigator prepared to enter the data analysis stage of the study.

Data Analysis

The first challenge of a qualitative analysis is that researchers generally find themselves with a great volume of data (numerous pages of interview transcripts and sessions, audios and

videos, notes, blogs, diagrams, photographs, among others) (Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2010). Considering the large amounts of information, the first step that the investigator took was to revise the material and make sure that it was complete and legible. Analyzing and transcribing the data from the interviews and the field notes, such as reflective comments, can be a complex task. With clear and readable data, the task of analyzing the information is simplified. In addition, having a digital recorded copy of the interview can help confirm any misunderstanding in the writing journals.

Although analyzing the data takes a rigorous action that entails a lot of organization, the investigator maintained a flexible mind frame throughout the process with occasional pauses to reflect on the Research Question: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida?

Moreover, for accurate management of the confidentiality of the participants, and for organizational matters of the results, every interview and any other additional piece of information was identified through a specific number code. This coding system includes any evidence that was part of the interview.

Once every interview and journal used to take notes was number coded, the data was cautiously and logically deconstructed by the investigator into different classified categories. All the categories emerged from each Guiding Question in the semi-structured interview. Although the investigator had already started analyzing the results during the data collection phase of the investigation, once all the data was organized in appropriate categories, the investigator carefully reanalyze the collected data.

Moreover, to ease the coding process of the answers from the interviews, the investigator used a method called open codification. Here, the investigator began by reading all of the sets of field notes since the beginning of the investigation and started to systematically organize and arrange in writing. Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe the process of classification as a procedure where the recollected information is all deconstructed into discrete categories, closely analyzed, compared for differences and similarities, and questions are asked about the phenomena reflected in the information.

Once all of the information was properly transcribed, classified, and encoded the investigator tabulated it in tables. During this phase many unexpected categories emerged. These categories or themes or findings were responsive (answers) to the research question and corresponded with the investigation. Merriam (2009) suggests that by writing out the purpose statement on top of the tabled categories, the investigator can immediately see whether the categories are answers to the research questions.

Moreover, organizing the data in tables allowed a better view and description of the results, and helped the investigator identify tendencies or frequencies among the categories. In addition, by presenting the results in tables helped eliminate irrelevant information for a more precise interpretation of the results. As indicated previously, the results were tabulated and organized in tables to provide a sense of deep understanding for a more profound reflection and comprehension of the facts.

Finally, the investigator examined and confronted the results. These final experiences and explanations to the phenomenon being studied made it possible to interpret and compare the information in order to generate the final results and conclusions and provide recommendations on the Research Question being inquired: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary

acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida?

Reliability and Validity of Data

Assuring this investigation's reliability and validity was an important element in the study. Merriam (2009) states that largely the validity and reliability of an investigation depends upon the moral principles of the researcher. Patton (2002) (as cited in Merriam, 2009) recognizes the integrity of the investigator, together with accurate procedures, and a necessary admiration of qualitative investigation, as three important components to make certain for the credibility of qualitative studies. Patton (2009) states that the integrity of the investigator depends, on training, condition, experience, track record, status, and presentation of self. In addition, Patton (2002) (as cited in Merriam, 2009) indicates that credibility has to do with intellectual accuracy, professional honesty, and procedural capabilities. Overall, the investigator maintained integrity and order during the whole process of the investigation.

Moreover, according to the Center of Teaching, Research, and Learning (2016), accuracy is a test of the solidity or consistency of answers. According to Merriam (2009), traditionally accuracy is the degree that research results can be reproduced or duplicated. The Center of Teaching, Research, and Learning (2016) states that to magnify the regularity and accuracy of a study, the investigator must take notes of all the procedures, and if possible, prepare a precise procedure. Creswell (2009) adds that other reliability procedures include verifying the data for obvious faults and assuring there are no drift in meaning of codes or implementations of them during the labeling process.

In addition, with the purpose of supporting the investigation, it is important to assure the validity of the analysis, before the researcher, and before others interested in the study

(Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2010). As a qualitative investigator it is necessary to evaluate if one has obtained sufficient information regarding the subject of the investigation. This includes any information gathered before, during, or after the interview. The notes taken by the investigator were also included to contribute in the verification and correspondence of the results.

After verifying that all the data were ample enough, the investigator confirmed its accuracy through an analytical procedure; however, it must stand clear that the internal validity of any investigation is accomplished in the moment that the data correspond to the phenomenon being investigated, and that the procedure of the study does not alter the results (Ponce, 2011).

According to Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010), qualitative investigations have to evidence and make sure that the findings correspond to the problem of the study. For this reason, the investigator purposefully paused on several occasions during the investigation in order to re-evaluate the Research Question, to verify that nothing was missing, to confirm the main goal of the study, and to reflect upon any possible obstacles or missing details that may have interfered with the objective. The more the correspondence of the results matches, the greater credibility for the study. So, if the results of the investigation are consistent with the information presented, the investigation can be considered reliable (Merriam, 2009).

As mentioned before in the research, for greater credibility, triangulation was considered in every phase of the study including the selected literature, the discussion of the transcriptions, and the analysis of the problem. This also implies a process of direct feedback from the same teachers in the sample. This means that after the completion of the interviews the results were transcribed and later reviewed once again with the participants to reconfirm if their answers were precise. Moreover, Hernández et al. (2010) state that this includes, not only asking the subjects to

confirm the results, but also to refute the interpretations and see if the meaning they transmitted was captured, as well as if our descriptions were sufficiently complete and profound.

As a qualitative investigator, assuring the credibility of the findings is vital. Or, as Walcott (2005) (as cited in Merriam, 2009) writes, it increases the correspondence between research and the real world. Merriam (2009) states that the most familiar strategy to support the internal validity of an investigation is what is known as triangulation or the use of three applications of information collection. Whether it is through (a) data triangulation (the use of different sources of information to increase validity), (b) theory triangulation (the use of multiple interpretations), or (c) methodological triangulation (the use of multiple methods to study the results) the investigator ensured triangulation throughout the study.

Conclusion

Richardson and St. Pierre (2005) comment that what we observe depends on our angle of reply. Merriam (2009) indicates that in qualitative investigations, moral choices are likely to appear in consideration to the collection of information and in the exposure of results. Merriam (2009) states that part of making sure the study is accurate —its credibility— is that the investigator himself or herself is dependable in performing and completing the investigation in as moral a fashion as possible. Overlapping both, the gathering of the information and in the exposure of the results is the research-participant connection (Merriam, 2009).

Lastly, the investigation proceeds to Chapter Four (The Findings) and Chapter Five (Conclusions and Recommendations). Here the data was organized and tabulated revealing the investigation's conclusions and helping the investigator establish recommendations. In return, these recommendations may benefit ESOL students and provide useful feedback for future

investigations related to recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies at the secondary tenth grade level.

It must stand clear that the emphasis of any phenomenological investigation is not in measuring the variables included in the phenomenon being studied, but in understanding the phenomenon (Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2010).

Chapter IV

Findings

The purpose of this qualitative investigation was to identify, understand, and describe from a phenomenological perspective, which are the most recommended academic content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient tenth grade level students. This chapter reveals the results from six tenth grade level teachers that were interviewed, and presents graphs that describe their answers in detail. It is important to highlight that in this chapter the investigator does not include conclusions, suggestions, or implications from the data. Primarily, the investigator is limited to only data presentation (Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2010).

The analysis of the six teachers' answers permitted the interpretation of their perceptions considering the most successful content vocabulary acquisition strategies and educational practices for ESOL students in the public educational system of X County in the state of Florida.

First, prior to analyzing the findings of the results, the investigator reassured that all the data were complete, revised several times, and that it complied with the investigation's objective. According to Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010), this includes verifying any material obtained from the interviews, observations, or written documents. They add, that if the investigator feels the collected data lack information, it will be necessary to return to the field of the study and re-evaluate the literature or carry out more interviews. Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010) also state that although it is very normal to feel an internal sensation that "it is never enough" while it probably is, considering the particular problem of the study, it is always important to stop and reflect before continuing to the next phases of the investigation.

Once a deep reflection of the data has taken place, in numerous occasions throughout the study, and the investigator is ready to proceed and examine the findings, it will be important to

prepare the material for its analysis. Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010) indicate that this involves eliminating unnecessary information, carefully reducing or summarizing the information (if necessary), classifying it, and transcribing it. Hernández, Fernández, and Baptista (2010) state that this format or method helps clarify what the study is in search of; its essence.

For this particular investigation, as the participants' responses were being analyzed one by one, the investigator was highlighting the sentences or phrases that best attempted to answer the interviews' Guiding Questions. Then, the investigator went over all the highlighted sections pointing out repeated patterns among all of the participants' answers. This repeated pattern provided the algorithm of results needed to create the titles for the categories.

After all the titles for the categories were created, a quantitative approach took place where the repetition of the same categories among the participants' answers was counted, totaled, and calculated to a percentage. Later these titles for the categories and the percentages were displayed on a chart for clarity. Once the process of quantifying the results was completed, the investigator transcribed the information in printed form onto a computer word processor; Microsoft Word.

Simultaneously, the investigator concluded by re-evaluating the validity of the instruments and the methods used throughout the study, and proceeded with the analysis of the findings. It is important to highlight that all of the questions used to collect data from the participants were reviewed and validated for clarity and precision in format and presentation, question quality and content, spelling, mechanics, grammar, and length, by three Department Heads of X County Public School, and by the five committee members pertaining to this investigation.

Accomplishing the objective of this investigation from a phenomenological perspective has provided educators with a rich background on content vocabulary acquisition strategies that are recommended by Highly Effective teachers to work with specifically the ESOL population at the secondary tenth grade level. Coinciding with the findings from the interviews, if teachers from the secondary tenth grade level begin focusing on teaching words and sentence parts like root words, prefixes, suffixes, word families and context clues, they would help more ESOL students by providing strategies that have already proven to help other ESOL students pass the state's standardized tests. In accordance with the previous results from the objective of this investigation, all teachers recommended that in combination with teaching words and sentence parts to ESOL students, the support of staff members and experienced students that speak the same language, and the use of online content vocabulary practice assessments are additional reliable resources for teachers; All, working together with the goal of achieving what every high school student aspires to —graduation.

Fulfilling the objective of this investigation also benefits both, the students in reaching their graduate degree in a faster pace and the teachers in the quest of their recognition as Highly Effective in X County. Although ethically most educators would agree that their pride and satisfaction is obtained through their students' achievements, being recognized as Highly Effective also comes along with an economical compensation that is always appreciated.

Additional qualitative, quantitative, or mixed investigations are recommended to take place in order to validate the results concluded in this investigation. And, to take it one step further, investigators can conduct quantitative or mixed investigations with the findings or results discovered in this investigation to demonstrate their effectiveness with the ESOL population of the secondary tenth grade level.

The following Tables 1–5 explain the demographic data of the participants: Participants' Gender, Participants' Teaching Subjects, Academic Background / Highest Degree, Participants' Age Range, and the Teaching Years at the Secondary Level for the Six Participants. A sample of six teachers with more than five years of experience with the secondary level participated in the study.

Demographic Data

Table 1

Distribution of the participants in the study by gender

Participants' Gender	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Male	2	33%
Female	4	67%

Once calculated, the participants' genders, 33% were male and 67% were female.

Table 2

Summary of the teaching subjects that the participants teach.

Number of Teachers Six (6) (Frequency)	<u>Participants / Subjects</u>			
	English	Reading	Science	Foreign Language
	3	1	1	1
Percentages (From Total)	50% (From Total)	17% (From Total)	17% (From Total)	17% (From Total)

Summarizing Table 2, 50% of the participants were from the English Department, 17% represent the Reading Department, 17% were from the Science Department, and 17% belong to the Foreign Language Department. All of these teachers' students have continuously obtained

high scores in a variety of exams that involve reading comprehension and have a good reputation with the use of content vocabulary acquisition strategies at the tenth grade level. In addition, each teacher: (1) has five years of experience in the secondary tenth grade level, (2) has a valid certificate approved by the United States Department of Education, and (3) is a certified ESOL endorsed teacher with over five years or more of experience.

Table 3

Distribution of the six participants' by academic background

Number of Teachers	Participants' Academic Background / Highest Degree		
	Bachelor's Degree (From Total)	Master's Degree (From Total)	Doctorate Degree (From Total)
Six (6) (Frequency)	6	6	0
Percentages (From Total)	100 %	100 %	0

Table 3 demonstrates that 100% of the participants have a Master's Degree. None of the participants have earned a Doctorate Degree.

Table 4

Distribution of the age range among the participants

Age Range	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75 or more
Number (Frequency)	0	1	3	0	2	0	0
Percentages (From Total)	0	17%	50%	0	33%	0	0

In Table 4, 17% of the participants' age ranged between 25-34, 50% ranged between 35-44, and 33% of the participants' age ranged from 55-64.

Table 5

Distribution of the six participants' teaching years at the secondary level

Years	5-10	11-16	17-22	23-32	33 or more
Participants (Frequencies)	2	1	1	0	2
Percentages (From Total)	33%	17%	17%	0	33%

Table 5 describes the years of professional experience in the secondary level among the participants. Table five shows that 33% of the sample has 5-10 years of teaching experience, 17% has 11-16 years of experience, 17% has 17-22 years of teaching experience, and 33% has 33 or more years of teaching experience.

The information in tables one through five offered details about the participants' overall socio-demographic information. Specifically, it was divided in five categories: Gender, Teaching Subject, Academic Background/Highest Degree, Age, and Teaching Years at the Secondary Level. Creswell (2007, as cited in Arroyo, 2013) suggest that descriptions and traits obtained are to be presented in tables, diagrams, narrations, or other methods to facilitate its interpretation. In addition, Creswell (2007) (as cited in Arroyo, 2013) recommends to explore every strip of information in order to obtain a first impression of the recollected database; this includes its demographics.

In the following section the results of the semi-structured interviews are exhibited through tables in a clear and comprehensible manner.

Data Presentation of the Interview Questions

This interview was comprised by eight Guiding Questions that generated the desired results through semi-structured interviews. During the beginning of the data presentation process

the investigator examined each individual interview and proceeded to make annotations of the different emerging themes and topics. The findings of this investigation were organized in categories. For each Guiding Question administered to the participants, a table was created with actual quotes and from all of the participants during their interview, another table described the quantitative results from all of the responses, and finally a written summary from all of the participants' answers was done. These three methods work together to simplify the data's interpretations during its analysis, and as a method of validation (credibility) and reliability (consistency).

According to Hernández et al. (2010), one way of portraying all of the information is through graphs, drawings, diagrams, maps, or tables generated from the data-analysis. As mentioned above, once the information was portrayed, the investigator made sure that every title specified the content of the information, that it was legible, that the formats for the charts were consistent, and that all of its categories were clearly distinguished. Throughout the investigation the data were analyzed, revised, and triangulated with the theoretical framework, the literature revision, and the relevant investigations and documents about the phenomenon under investigation.

Moreover, the discussion of all the findings were presented and described in separate individual parts. The American Psychological Association (2001) (as cited in Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2010) recommends that all results are first to be properly described. Considering the proper description and presentation of the results, the investigator divided each single question in three sections. The first part, Section A, presented all of the findings without any type of manipulation from the investigator. No specific quantitative data is presented here. It only presented the expressions and categories that arose from each participant's answers. The

second part, Section B, presented the answers from the participants in a categorized manner which also include the quantitative results for the question. And, the third part, Section C includes a detailed written summary of the final results and discoveries.

According to the American Psychological Association (2001) (as cited in Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2010), the essential content of the report of any investigation must be comprehensible, simple, informative, precise, complete, concise, and specific. Taking this into account the investigator proceeded to analyze the results of the investigations.

Results from the Interviews (Guide Questions)

The Research Question was: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida? Guiding Question 1: Considering the different language barriers ESOL students experience, how many years do you consider it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to master the State's Standardized Tests? Explain.

Table 6

Participants' Responses Guiding Question 1

Teachers	Responses
<p>Teacher One (T1) Categories; Answers: - 3 - 5 Years</p>	<p>“In my experience it seems to take three years for students who enter my class knowing none, or very little English, to acquire the language proficiency to be successful on state standardized exams. I have seen that it takes about one school year for the student to become comfortable enough to begin talking regularly in class and answering questions out loud. This is also when the student focuses on the social aspects of the English language. The second year is then spent gaining a better understanding of the language and learning the academic language. The third year is when students seem to be able to apply their understanding to the sometimes lengthy questions on the state's standardized tests. Those questions sometimes require the students to recall</p>

	information that the student learned in their native language when they then have to write about and answer in English, and that shows a true comprehension of the new language. I think the three-year time span is for students who really focus on learning the language. If it is not a priority it will take four or more years.”
<p>Teacher Two (T2) Categories; Answers: - 6 - 8 Years</p>	“Seven years. There is so much reading of academic texts in all state exams with fast time requirements. ESOL student without extra time to process the reading, struggle.”
<p>Teacher Three (T3) Categories; Answers: - 3 - 5 Years</p>	“I believe it takes a minimum of five years for ESOL students to acquire CALP and master the state’s standardized test. Many students know the language to speak, but are unable to understand written concepts needed for success. It takes time and practice to achieve that degree of comprehension. In addition, students often use their native language as a crutch among their friends because it is more comfortable and a safe place for them to interact. Also, many of our ESOL students were not given an in depth education in their native country, so, when they arrive here, they are often starting from square one and have to learn and comprehend concepts they have never had before.”
<p>Teacher Four (T4) Categories; Answers: - 3 - 5 Years</p>	“I believe it takes about three to four years to master the state’s standardized tests. They may learn the BICS in their first two years, but the academic vocabulary or CALP, will take longer to acquire for the ESOL students.”
<p>Teacher Five (T5) Categories; Answers: - 3 - 5 Years</p>	“That depends. Three to five years in total; most cases. The first two years they go through a memorizing process; They are absorbing everything. Then, the following three years they loosen out and feel much more confident. It is then when I understand they have the knowledge to perform better and pass the many state’s exams.”
<p>Teacher Six (T6) Categories; Answers: - 3 - 5 Years</p>	“In order for English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) students to acquire the necessary proficiency to pass a state’s standardized test like the Florida State Assessment (FSA), they need to acquire language for a minimum of three to five years. The students who are most successful with this level of proficiency are those that do not rely solely on their classroom time, but receive tutoring in both speaking and writing. For most students that I have encountered, however, they do not seek outside help and speak only their native language when outside of the classroom. These students need more time to acquire the necessary language to pass the state’s assessments.”

Table 7

Quantitative Results of the Participants' Answers to Guiding Question 1

Years of Experience It Takes for an ESOL Student to Master the State's Standardized Tests	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
3 - 5 Years	5	83%
6 - 8 Years	1	17%
9 – 11 Years	0	0
12 or more	0	0

According to the participants, the years it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and to master the State's Standardized Tests ranged from 3 - 5 Years of experience with an 83% of occurrence and 6 - 8 Years of experience with a range of 17%.

Acquisition has its origins and history since late 14th century, meaning “act of possession” or “to obtain in addition” (dictionary.com, 2013). Considering this definition, it is important to keep in mind the teacher's role of not only having the capacity of teaching and passing on information, but to possess the skills to best help students acquire the content vocabulary and to own it. According to Reiss (2012) a teacher's actions will be in many students the inducement towards acquiring their content vocabulary appropriately and promptly. Teachers must experiment and integrate different types of strategies —learning strategies, textbook strategies, assignment strategies, instructional strategies, teaching strategies, and assessment strategies. They must evaluate those that work well, identify those that appear less effective, and eliminate the ones that do not seem to work with the ESOL students. Reis (2012) also suggest that once

teachers have selected those strategies that work best, they must be shared and discussed with other colleagues. By choosing effective strategies teachers will be preparing ESOL students with strategies that have proven to work with other ESOL students of the tenth grade secondary level and that have already passed the state standardized required tests.

Providing the ESOL students with the proper tools will help accelerate the learning process and greatly increase their confidence, helping them cope with the many cultural differences. In light of this, Guiding Question 2 specifically asks the participants to reflect on the process of adapting to a new culture.

Guiding Question 2: What are your recommendations to other teachers in helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school?

Table 8

Participants' Responses to Guiding Question 2

Teachers	Responses
<p>(T1) Categories; Answers: - Staff/ Experienced Student's Support (Same Language) - Culture Awareness</p>	<p>“Learning cultural differences may be harder than learning academic vocabulary for some students since it is often something that has to be seen and experienced, not just discussed between the student and a teacher. In class I find it best to pair a brand new ESOL student with two other students for activities. One of the other students will be an ESOL student who has been in the US and learning English for one to two years. The other student will be a native English speaker. This way the new student can see and learn the cultural norms and nuances shown by the native English speaker, and the ESOL student who has been learning English for one to two years can explain any situations that do not make sense to the new ESOL student. The new ESOL student, having recently gone through the same process, can often answer questions before they arise. The faster the new ESOL student gets comfortable with the cultural norms, the faster they can begin focusing on social and academic language.”</p>
<p>(T2) Categories; Answers: - Role-Playing</p>	<p>“I recommend role playing various situations in class, and that way the teacher can demonstrate a productive, and culturally-</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Assistance with Technology (Example: Grades Online) 	<p>appropriate reaction. The ESOL student also needs immediate assistance with technology. For example, Edsby, to make sure they have grades, assignments, and communication... written communication.”</p>
<p>(T3) Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher Modeling - Culture Awareness 	<p>“Continuous practice of the positive strategies and concepts that we as educators should model on a daily basis. Students need to understand that there are going to be huge cultural differences, yet they have to learn to adapt and embrace the differences and not challenge them; Positive thinking; Resilience.”</p>
<p>(T4) Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Staff/ Experienced Student’s Support (Same Language) - Boost Confidence; Mindfulness 	<p>“To help ESOL students through their adaptation process I recommend that teachers should try to introduce them to some staff members and responsible students... teachers know who those students are... that speak their own language, so they can find help when they need instructions or any type of translation. These other students can also help alleviate some of the emotional stressors within the culture shock.”</p>
<p>(T5) Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cooperative Learning - Culture Awareness - Boost Confidence; Mindful 	<p>“To accelerate the process of adaptation teachers can provide or place the student on tutoring. They can also integrate cooperative learning to the class, lots of conversations and dialogues, and language immersion combined with writing practice assessments. Believe it or not, the combined skills of reading and writing, from the easy skills to the more complex allows the students to feel grounded, which in turn helps him or her adapt quicker... Maybe the school district can also have an extension of school time for those fresh new students. For example, seniors that come from another country and need to pass the state’s standardized tests.”</p>
<p>(T6) Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Staff/ Experienced Student’s Support (Same Language) - Boost Confidence; Mindfulness 	<p>“There are many possible structure and procedures that might help ESOL students adapt to their new environment. One is to pair them with a buddy that has most of the same core classes. The buddy should be proficient in English and the native language. The buddy should also be comfortable encouraging ESOL student to speak the new language and help with translations and pronunciations. This could also be done with a teacher’s assistant. Teachers should encourage ESOL students to speak as much English as possible and not place these students in their own group as they will only speak their native language.”</p>

Table 9

Quantitative Results of the Participants' Answers to Guiding Question 2

Recommendations to other Teachers	Number of Teachers That Agree with X Strategy (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Staff/ Experienced Student's Support (Same Language)	3	50%
Culture Awareness	3	50%
Boost Confidence; Mindfulness	3	50%
Tutoring	1	17%
Teacher Modeling	1	17%
Assistance with Technology (Example: Grades Online)	1	17%
Cooperative Learning	1	17%
Role Playing	1	17%

In accordance with the participants' answers to Guiding Question two, the most recommended strategies used by other teachers when helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school are Staff/Experienced Student's Support (Same Language), Culture Awareness, and Boost Confidence; Mindfulness with a 50% of occurrence, followed by Tutoring, Teacher Modeling, Assistance with Technology, Cooperative Learning, and Role Playing resulting in 17%.

As a result of government policies, more and more students are being placed into mainstream classrooms before they are ready and without further support from ESOL teachers (Miller & Endo, 2010). Therefore, it is imperative that teachers make their best effort to help ESOL students adapt to the accelerated pace and culture of high school in the United States.

Guiding Question 3: State and explain your agreement or disagreement with the following question: Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English

classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State’s Standardized Tests?

Table 10

Participants’ Responses to Guiding Question 3

Teachers	Responses
<p>(T1) Categories; Answers: - Disagree</p>	<p>“I disagree. In theory it seems like the best way to learn a new language is to be completely immersed in the new language. That may be true for adults, but for what I have seen from high school-aged students, this is often not the case. The reason is that high school students have much more to worry about than just learning the new academic language. They have appearances, social norms, and peer pressure to deal with being 14-18 years old. What I have often seen when a student who knows no English is put into an English speaking class with no accommodations or help is that they will become very introverted and try to hide in class as to not draw attention to themselves. They can become so involved in trying to “hide” in class that they do not put forth the effort needed to learn the new academic language. They may learn some social language, but they often feel so overwhelmed that they will give up trying to learn the academic side. That can be easily fixed by having an ESOL teacher in the room or with proper grouping techniques if there are other ESOL or bilingual students in the room.”</p>
<p>(T2) Categories; Answers: - Disagree</p>	<p>“I disagree, as ESOL students are often lost and quiet with a “regular” English teacher. The ESOL student needs specific remediation on language structure... roots with more visuals. Putting a student in a room where they are not supported will lead to frustration and giving up. Ideally, they are in a class slightly above their level where they understand most of their tasks. With enough time, they are able to pass the state exams.”</p>
<p>(T3) Categories; Answers: - Agree</p>	<p>“I agree with this statement... only if the student is immersed early in his educational career... that is, in elementary school. The older the child, the more assistance he needs to master the acquisition of content vocabulary.”</p>
<p>(T4) Categories; Answers: - Disagree</p>	<p>“I disagree, especially in the public system. These students are exposed to a variety of tests that if they do not pass, they do not graduate. It is like a time bomb about to explode. Many of the paraprofessionals teach the students strategies that help them</p>

	build confidence and acquire the language faster.... Time plays an important part.”
(T5) Categories; Answers: - Disagree	“I totally disagree. These students do not have time. They need help. If they did not have to take state’s mandatory exams to graduate, it would be another story. But, they need a tutor to guide them and teach them the strategies that will help them accelerate.”
(T6) Categories; Answers: - Agree	“I agree and disagree with the statement: Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular classroom... In order to accelerate their language acquisition. For example, having classes in English and having a buddy would alleviate the need for ESOL aides in English through ESOL classes. That being said, some students need the extra help to bridge their learning gaps. Having ESOL classes helps with anxiety and worry, but should be limited to a single semester. I believe allowing students to stay in classes with their native language if spoken more than the new language (English in this case), actually sets them up for failure. Furthermore, it is in their best interest to be fully immersed in most cases because it forces them to take the necessary steps to learn the new language. In the end, it really needs to be determined on a case by cases basis.”

Table 11

Quantitative Results of the Participants’ Answers to Guiding Question 3

Answers:	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Agree	2	33%
Disagree	4	67%

Throughout this qualitative investigation the participants were asked to consider if they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State’s Standardized Tests?

The answer to this question was finally categorized as 33% agreeing that immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary to communicate and master the state’s standardized tests. Sixty-seven percent disagreed with the statement. They stated that new ESOL high school students need assistance to communicate and master the state’s standardized tests.

Guiding Question 4: What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist you in differentiating your ESOL students’ language acquisition levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary: (1) Emergent, (2) Beginning, (3) Early Intermediate, (4) Intermediate, (5) Advanced? Explain.

Table 12

Participants’ Responses to Guiding Question 4

Teachers	Responses
(T1) Category; Answer: - 20-Hour State Workshop	“Officially the only training in teaching ESOL students I have taken is the 20-hour state-mandated training needed to re-certify every five years. I found that training very thorough and it included many specific strategies for teaching ESOL students. Also, the head of the ESOL department as well as the ESOL aide that is frequently in my classroom have also been good about giving me tips, ideas, and strategies on a one-on-one basis. I have found that it is not just the language barrier that can cause learning difficulties when a new ESOL student joins class, there can be outside factors as well which my ESOL aide helps me identify. I find that if the student was a good learner in their home country they will be a good learner in my class and the only way to know that is to have an ESOL aide call home, discuss with the student, etcetera.”
(T2) Category; Answer: - None	“We have very short meetings about once or twice a year to review the different phases and abilities of ESOL students. They encourage cognates, roots of language, visuals, modeling, and others.”
(T3) Category; Answer: - None	“Since I am certified in ESOL, very little professional development has been given to me to differentiate my student’s

	language acquisition. Usually in class, I can adjust any lesson to accommodate ESOL students. Plus, our students are tested by our ESOL specialist, then placed in the correct class.”
(T4) Category; Answer: - None	“Apart from the 60 hours I completed for the ESOL endorsement in the Hillsborough county several years ago, I took a 20-hour workshop on ESE, and I believe it included ESOL, which I do not remember much about. I have also had lots of discussions with my coworkers, but I have not had my school district provide any hands-on training in differentiating language acquisition levels specifically... Most probably it is the same in the whole county. The school’s ESOL specialist does come once a while and provides links to where we can find information and data on each student.”
(T5) Category; Answer: - None	“I have not received any workshops from the county. My school has provided some type of workshop, but not much more. We do get some data-based information from the ESOL administrator. I believe differentiation among our students is incredibly important. It is a key element for reaching all students equally.”
(T6) Category; Answer: - None	“In terms of professional development, I am ESOL certified and have not had any other formal training in this matter. There are resources at my current school and best practices strategies available for the teachers who are proactive and seek out the resources.”

Table 13

Quantitative Results of the Participants’ Answers to Guiding Question 4

What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist in differentiating language acquisition levels?	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
None	5	83%
20-Hour State Workshop	1	17%

Throughout this qualitative investigation it was asked of the participants to consider if their school district has provided any professional development workshops that may have

assisted them in differentiating their ESOL students' language acquisition levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary. The answer to this question was that 83% of the participants selected None, as their final answer. They did not consider that the school district has facilitated any professional development workshops that may help them in differentiating their students' language acquisition levels. Seventeen percent stated that Yes, the school district did facilitate them with some type of workshop or training that helped them differentiate their students' language acquisition levels.

Understanding the language acquisition levels of students can help teachers tailor their lessons and strategies to better suit their ESOL students' needs. The following Guiding Question focuses on those content vocabulary acquisition strategies that Highly Effective teachers consider are the most recommended for secondary tenth grade level ESOL students.

Guiding Question 5: Which content vocabulary acquisition strategies do you consider are the most recommended for ESOL students at the tenth grade level in order to accelerate their preparation for the State's Standardized test (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Table 14

Participants' Responses to Guiding Question 5

Teachers	Responses
<p>(T1) Categories; Answers: - Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues) - Concept Illustrations/ Picture Graphs</p>	<p>“It can be difficult to prepare 10th grade ESOL students for state tests because in most classes there are several different levels of ESOL learners, and they may need different strategies. I think teaching word parts like the root words, base words, prefixes, and suffixes that are common in the subject is a great method. This allows them to prepare for more than just one class at a time. Also, helping students connect new vocabulary to something with which they are already familiar seems to allow students to grasp words faster. Often the words sound similar anyway and they can easily make the connection; cognates. Having students paraphrase the definition of a new word is much better than just having student copy the definition from a book. This allows the student</p>

<p>(Example: Frayer Model)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaching Cognates/ Sight Words - Repetition of the Content Vocabulary/Bold Words in their Textbooks - Paraphrasing - Teaching Through Games (Examples: Jeopardy and Kahoot) - Combining Hearing, Speaking, and Writing Activities 	<p>to connect this new word to words they already know as well as words from different subjects. Finally, oral repetition both from the teacher and from the student works to accelerate learning content vocabulary. This can be in the form of officially reading passages, playing a game like Jeopardy or Kahoot or simply discussing a classwork or homework. When the student writes the word, sees the word, hears the word, and then says the word, they learn it very quickly.”</p>
<p>(T2)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaching Synonyms and Antonyms - Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues) - Concept Illustrations/ Picture Graphs (Example: Frayer Model) 	<p>“I consider synonyms, antonyms, examples, and picture graphs to fully digest a vocabulary term... Such as a Frayer model or Marzano chart.”</p>
<p>(T3)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Repetition of the Content Vocabulary/Bold Words in their Textbooks 	<p>“Select words that are common or generally useful for students to know, then use words over and over again; repetition. Identify words that are essential for understanding a reading selection, an assignment, or a question about the text. Pick textbook vocabulary that addresses key concepts or ideas. These three strategies must be modeled by the teacher on a daily basis for students to understand and learn the terminology.”</p>
<p>(T4)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p>	<p>“I consider that the best strategy to start any class is to prepare the students’ mindset. There should be an awareness of what is</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mindfulness (What? Why? and How?) - Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues) - Repetition of the Content Vocabulary/Bold Words in their Textbooks - Combining Hearing, Speaking, and Writing Activities 	<p>going to be learned, why, and how... mindfulness. Then, they can start scaffolding the various concepts. They can continue to learn word parts, like prefixes, suffixes, and root words. Yet, at the same time they should be continuously practicing the subject's content vocabulary that is expected to come in their final exams and state's standardized tests... In combination with reading, writing, and speaking."</p>
<p>(T5) Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mindfulness (What? Why? and How?) - Teaching Cognates/ Sight Words - Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues) - Repetition of the Content Vocabulary/Bold Words in their Textbooks 	<p>"The best content vocabulary acquisition strategy starts with awareness. Students should be conscious of what is going to be learned, why, and how. Then, they can continue to learn cognates, sight words, and word parts like prefixes, suffixes, and root words... even context clues. At the same time they should continuously be practicing the class textbooks' vocabulary that is expected to come in their final exams and state's standardized test."</p>
<p>(T6) Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, 	<p>"Content vocabulary acquisition strategies for ESOL students in tenth grade, any grade, should include prefix, suffix, and root word study. This allows students to start to see patterns and categories of words. I teach remediation reading and this usually includes a fair amount of ESOL students. I teach them the top 200 or so root words. This helps them because they start recognizing words families and are able to categorically sort</p>

and Context Clues)	words and meaning in order to get the “gist” of what they are reading. This is my second year using this vocabulary strategy and the students really find that it is helpful once they realize it is relevant. For example, the root “cog” means “to know or learn”, and the prefix “in” means “not”. If a student encounters the words: recognize, cognitive, or incognito, they can work out a tentative understanding of the word by using the root “cog”.”
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Table 15

Quantitative Results of the Participants’ Answers to Guiding Question 5

Most Recommended Strategies	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues)	5	83%
Repetition of the Content Vocabulary/Bold Words in their Textbooks	4	67%
Concept Illustrations/ Picture Graphs (Example: Frayer Model)	2	33%
Teaching Cognates/ Sight Words	2	33%
Combining Hearing, Speaking, and Writing Activities	2	33%
Mindfulness (What? Why? and How?)	2	33%
Paraphrasing	1	17%
Teaching Synonyms and Antonyms	1	17%
Teaching Through Games (Examples: Jeopardy and Kahoot)	1	17%

According to 83% of the participants in this study, Teaching Word/Sentence Parts (Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families and Context Clues) appears to be on the top position

for the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategy for ESOL students at the secondary tenth grade level. As the second most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategy selected is, Repetition of the Content Vocabulary/Bold Words in their Textbooks, with a 67% of the participants' approval. Following that strategy are Concept Illustrations/ Picture Graphs (Example: Frayer Model), Teaching Cognates/ Sight Words, Combining Hearing, Speaking, and Writing Activities, and Mindfulness (What? Why? and How?) with 33% of the nominations. Finally, Paraphrasing, Teaching Synonyms and Antonyms, and Teaching Through Games totaled 17% of confirmation as the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for ESOL students at the secondary tenth grade level.

Considering these strategies may help guide teachers towards better instruction of the content vocabulary and possibly prolonging the effect of the content vocabulary acquisition among the students, leading to more ESOL students passing the various state's standardized tests. When making reference to the most effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies within tenth grade level high school students, it is important to reflect and consider the previous strategies that are recommended by experienced Highly Effective teachers.

Yet, effectiveness involves the rational use of steps towards reaching a determined objective. Vogt and Echevarría (2008) state that all students, regardless of home language, must have access to appropriate grade-level content concepts and vocabulary. Therefore, it should always undertake reaching the programmed goals and objectives with premeditation and with the most appropriate resources. Making the process optimum for learning should be the end goal. And, that can only be obtained by learning strategies from Highly Effective teachers, and their teaching experiences.

Guiding Question 6: Based on your knowledge and experience, what encounters led you to the decisions made on the previous question?

Table 16

Participants' Responses to Guiding Question 6

Teachers	Responses
<p>(T1) Categories; Answers: - Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience - ESOL Students' Testimonies</p>	<p>"For me it has been trial and error that led me to the previously mentioned strategies as well as getting feedback from students. By asking high-level or now bi-lingual ESOL students what worked best for them, I was able to get a picture of what best practice strategies to use. Many students say watching English language T.V. was one way they learned English. That led me to think that the students need to hear the new words, not just write and study them. Many students also say they use an electronic translator that speaks the new English word before they are comfortable saying it. This let me to understand that students need to hear the word as part of the learning process. It is a combination of these that has led to the practices I use in class."</p>
<p>(T2) Categories; Answers: - Teacher-Trainings</p>	<p>"My decisions were based on trainings from Polk County where teachers all used Marzano's, 6-Step Process for Building Academic Vocabulary, school wide once a month. We had a high percent of ESOL students."</p>
<p>(T3) Categories; Answers: - Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience</p>	<p>"I have always believed that through repetition and modeling students learn, whether it is in sports or a testing situation or while teaching, the more practice the better, and more familiar students become with the concepts."</p>
<p>(T4) Categories; Answers: - Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience - Reading through Research Documents and Informational Texts - Teachers' Testimonies</p>	<p>"Hands-on Experience, trial and error, and repetition. Also, reading and researching through informational texts and teacher narratives. I have learned a lot from reading other teachers' testimonies."</p>

<p>(T5)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience - Analyzing Students' Work (Example: Writing Assessments) 	<p>“After many years of practice. Imagine, I have taught ESOL students of all ages, and I have learned to recognize their language acquisition level after a short period of time. I have seen how a student develops language skills, and how they transition from one level to another more advanced level. I have seen how they transition from a silent stage, to one where they speak fluently in English. And, it also reflects in their writing skills. By observing their notebooks, how they write, and how organized the student is I can quickly tell their academic roots or their academic performance or stamina.”</p>
<p>(T6)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience 	<p>“In both native speaking and ESOL students, I realized vocabulary was a weakness and needed to be formally taught. Some teachers do what I call drive through or on the spot teaching of vocabulary, teaching as words present themselves. But, I have found that making the students memorize roots helps them with all content not just what is in front of them. Also, students tend to take those instant word lessons in for that day or that story, but do not carry that knowledge forward. Teaching root words and exposing them to these words multiple times all year helps them not only retain the knowledge, but also helps them apply it to all contents.”</p>

Table 17

Quantitative Results of the Participants' Answers to Guiding Question 6

Encounters that Led to the Previous Decisions (On Question 5)	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience	5	83%
Teacher-Trainings	1	17%
ESOL Students' Testimonies	1	17%
Teachers' Testimonies	1	17%
Reading through Research Documents and Informational Texts	1	17%
Analyzing Students' Work (Example: Writing Assessments)	1	17%

Based on the participants' knowledge and experiences, the following encounters led the participants towards deciding which content vocabulary acquisition strategies they recommend for the ESOL students (see Guiding Question 5). Trial and Error; Hands-On Experience scored 83% of the participants in agreement. All other strategies recommended by the participants, with a total score of 17% each, were Teacher-Trainings, ESOL Students' Testimonies, Teachers' Testimonies, Reading through Research Documents and Informational Texts, and Analyzing Students' Work (Example: Writing Assessments).

Guiding Question 7: Considering that if ESOL students do not pass the required state's tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, what are the challenges that you face when preparing these students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Table 18

Participants' Responses to Guiding Question 7

Teachers	Responses
<p>(T1) Categories; Answers: - Language Barrier - Limited Time - Students' Lack of Emotional Support (Confidence, Motivation, and Enthusiasm) - Poor Scores Work Against the Teachers' Evaluations and Lead to Frustration - Too Many Exams/Extensive and Diverse Content</p>	<p>“Since state's standardized tests are likely a new concept for ESOL students coming from a different country it can be a great challenge to pass these tests, not only because of the language barrier, but because of the different content on the test. If a student enters ninth grade as a brand new mono-lingual student, which is very common, they only have one and a half years to not only learn English, but to also catch up with the content as it may be very different than they are used to. This puts an extreme amount of pressure on the student. It is very likely that the student will not pass the standardized tests the first time. Although they get several times to take and pass the tests, this can be very demoralizing for the student. It leads them to feel like they are not making gains fast enough or will never learn what is expected. This is not fair and can lead some students to simply give up. This situation can also be frustrating for teachers as if they cannot show learning gains for each student, it can go against the teacher's evaluation. This can lead to a cycle of frustration in the classroom.”</p>

<p>(T2)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language Barrier - Students' Lack of Emotional Support (Confidence, Motivation, and Enthusiasm) - Additional Planning for Teachers 	<p>“We have to overcome the language barrier and get students confident and motivated enough to even fully attempt these tasks. Teachers have to scaffold the most important information to the ESOL students so the material is accessible: lists, visuals, charts, cognates, and others.”</p>
<p>(T3)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students' Lack of Emotional Support (Confidence, Motivation, and Enthusiasm) - Poor Scores Work Against the Teachers' Evaluations and Lead to Frustration 	<p>“A lot of students do not believe that they will not graduate if they do not pass state's tests. Then, of course, our teaching skills get blamed for not addressing what students needed to begin with, which in turn becomes very frustrating as an academic teacher. A lot of students continuously look for the easy way out and they do not give themselves the chance to challenge themselves. Success is so much more instigating when they have reached a difficult benchmark and understood it.”</p>
<p>(T4)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language Barrier - Limited Time - Cultural Elements - Lack of Parent Support - Too Many Exams/Extensive and Diverse Content 	<p>“The challenges I face when I am preparing ESOL students start with obviously language barrier and cultural elements. These cultural elements go from how everything looks, the environment, to the language, and the learning systems. Also, there are too many exams with exaggerated amounts of vocabulary and little time. Parent support is huge. Usually after two weeks you recognize who is who. You can easily spot responsible students that have a good academic background.”</p>
<p>(T5)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students' Lack of Emotional Support (Confidence, Motivation, and Enthusiasm) 	<p>“My main concern or challenge is the students' intrinsic motivation to learn English; to learn the language. Many of these students learn extremely slowly because they hang around the wrong group of people. For example, many of the Spanish speakers prefer to hang around people that speak their own language, Spanish, because it feels natural and makes them feel comfortable. They feel in control. The same goes with students</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of English Exposure Surrounding their Environment 	<p>that speak languages other than Spanish. What these students need to accelerate their language acquisition skills and to pass the state's standardized tests is pure English immersion. This includes continuous usage of the language at home."</p>
<p>(T6) Categories; Answers: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language Barrier </p>	<p>"The biggest obstacle we face as teachers trying to teach ESOL students to pass the state's exams is accessibility to the exams in their native language. Although I believe in total immersion in most cases, I also believe that ESOL students who have been here for less than three years should be able to take the exam in their native language. After all, we are assessing their content knowledge and what they understand about a subject, we are not assessing their English acquisition. I believe that there should be parameters in place for acquisition of language measures, but they should still be allowed to test in their native language."</p>

Table 19

Quantitative Results of the Participants' Answers to Guiding Question 7

Challenges Faced	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Language Barrier	4	67%
Students' Lack of Emotional Support (Confidence, Motivation, and Enthusiasm)	4	67%
Limited Time	2	33%
Poor Scores Work Against the Teachers' Evaluations and Lead to Frustration	2	33%
Too Many Exams/Extensive and Diverse Content	2	33%
Additional Planning for Teachers	1	17%
Lack of English Exposure Surrounding their Environment	1	17%
Lack of Parent Support	1	17%
Cultural Elements	1	17%

Considering that if ESOL students do not pass the required state's tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, the challenges that teachers face when preparing these students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams) are Language Barrier and Students' Lack of Emotional Support (Confidence, Motivation, and Enthusiasm) with a 67% of the participants' approval. Following are Limited Time, Poor Scores Work against the Teachers' Evaluations and Lead to Frustration, and Too Many Exams/Extensive and Diverse Content with 33% of recognition. And last, with a total of 17% are Additional Planning for Teachers, Lack of English Exposure Surrounding their Environment, Lack of Parent Support, and Cultural Elements as the final challenges selected by the participants.

As part of becoming an expert in applying content vocabulary acquisition strategies and obtaining possession of the good and effective techniques, one must also reflect and consider its challenges and how to overcome them. According to many psychologist, identifying our challenges is the first step in overcoming them. Once these challenges are identified, then a plan can be set up to best assist ESOL students.

As part of better assisting our ESOL population with their content vocabulary acquisition strategies and as a final resource for teachers, the investigator decided to ask each participant for information on what resources can other teachers use to identify the most important and relevant content vocabulary for ESOL students at the tenth grade level.

Guiding Question 8: What resources should teachers use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their ESOL students for the state's standardized tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Table 20

Participants' Responses to Guiding Question 8

Teachers	Responses
<p>(T1)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals - Teachers' Autodidactic Role - Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) 	<p>"Since no one strategy or resource is the answer for ESOL students learning English, teachers should use a combination of strategies and resources to best serve students. The best resource for me is the ESOL department and my ESOL aide. It is often on individual teachers to seek these resources out. There are many on-line resources available by doing a simple Google search. Like most on-line searches not everything will be useful, but there are many .edu, .gov and .org sites with peer reviewed and edited research. Again, it is often on the individual teacher to seek these out and use them."</p>
<p>(T2)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals - Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) - Class Textbooks and Workbooks (Highlighted, Italicized, or Bold Words) 	<p>"I am not sure about rarer language, but a content-area teacher should definitely work through the curriculum with the ESOL specialist who ideally speaks Spanish and is educated in the subject to identify which words could be rephrased for the ESOL majority language. The content-area teacher could also use Google as a resource in addition to their English language materials."</p>
<p>(T3)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) 	<p>"Teachers should continuously break practice tests questions or prompts down into little sections, and have the students understand what the question or prompt is asking. Then they should push forward and try to find the answer with either peer conferencing or teacher-modeling answers; Surfing the internet for meaningful text."</p>
<p>(T4)</p> <p>Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Class Textbooks and Workbooks (Highlighted, Italicized, or Bold Words) - Consult X Subjects' Department Head 	<p>"Well, teachers should stick to the vocabulary words that are usually colored in or in bold within each unit of the class textbook. They should consult with their Department Head, the ESOL Specialist, and with other experienced teachers for advice. Talk with the Reading Coach at the school. And, go online."</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals - Consult Reading Coach/Reading Teacher - Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) 	
<p style="text-align: center;">(T5)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Categories; Answers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Class Textbooks and Workbooks (Highlighted, Italicized, or Bold Words) - Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals - Consult Reading Coach/Reading Teacher - Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) - Teachers' Autodidactic Role 	<p>“The first step is for students to use the class subject’s textbook and workbook as the main resource for the content vocabulary coming in their final exams. For the state’s standardized tests, they should consult their school’s ESOL specialist, school’s Reading teacher, and the school’s Reading coach. They should also go online to sites that offer specific tests and assessments for students like FSA, SAT, and ACT. They can also visit their closest public library for practice books, and they can also buy books at any nearby book store.”</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">(T6)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Categories; Answers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals - Consult Reading Coach/Reading Teacher - Consult X Subjects’ Department Head - Class Textbooks and Workbooks (Highlighted, Italicized, or Bold Words) - Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) 	<p>“There are a plethora of resources that can be used for content vocabulary. Each content department or teacher should have a list of “important” words that is given to each student at the beginning of each quarter. These lists should be shared across content areas, especially with their ESOL teachers, Reading, and English teachers, and school’s Reading coach. For English classes, ESOL students should be directed to the online Springboard vocabulary practice. I have found some success getting students to utilize vocabulary.com and quizlet.com.”</p>

Table 21

Quantitative Results of the Participants' Answers to Guiding Question 8

Resources	Number of Teachers (Frequency)	Percentages (From Total)
Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments)	6	100%
Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals	5	83%
Class Textbooks and Workbooks (Highlighted, Italicized, or Bold Words)	4	67%
Consult Reading Coach/Reading Teacher	3	50%
Consult X Subjects' Department Head	2	33%
Teachers' Autodidactic Role	2	33%

Presented as the number one resource teachers should use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their ESOL students for the state's standardized tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams) is Online (Google/.edu/.gov/.org/Practice Assessments) with a 100% of the participants' approval. Following is to Consult with the ESOL Specialist, English Teachers, and Paraprofessionals with 83%" of the nominations, and Class Textbooks and Workbooks (Highlighted, Italicized, or Bold Words) with 67%. Next, with a total of 50% recognition is to Consult Reading Coach/Reading Teacher. And, last with 33% of the participants' acknowledgement are to Consult with X Subjects' Department Heads, and Teachers' Autodidactic Role as the final resources.

Recognizing what content vocabulary acquisition strategies and resources are recommended by Highly Effective teachers could mean the difference for the students between passing or failing the state's standardized tests required for graduation.

Year after year new teachers make big efforts to advance their students to higher levels of reading comprehension and do not succeed; causing great tension and disappointment among themselves not recognizing they are applying inadequate content vocabulary acquisition strategies with their students. It is even worse, if the students' achievement determines their salary. However, the information gathered throughout this investigation can result in a collection of rich and real raw tools that any teacher or facilitator, amateur or veteran, can utilize to better their content vocabulary acquisition teaching strategies. Hopefully teachers learn new strategies to implement with their ESOL students, and view them as students on a journey to discover new knowledge in a new language (Hill & Flynn, 2006).

The findings previously presented were organized in accordance to the investigation's Research Question and its supporting Guiding Questions. Which in turn, shaped the study and served as a base to establish the conclusions, implications, and recommendation in the following chapter; Chapter Five.

Chapter V

Discussion, Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

This chapter aims to discuss the findings in this qualitative non-experimental investigation, and offers the conclusions and implications arising from the data. It also includes recommendations for all teachers that work with ESOL students at the secondary level, and concludes with additional recommendations for teachers in their current practice, teaching prospect teachers, and future investigations.

With the coming years, the number of ESOL students has multiplied. In fact, Roekel (2011) indicates that by 2025, nearly one out of every four public school students will be an ESOL student. Likewise, a recent study, by the Washington University's Center for Equity and Excellence in Education (2014) indicates that by 2050 the number of Latino students, the fastest growing school age demographic, is expected to surpass the number of white students in American schools. This increase in ESOL students reflects the necessity there is in having teachers with the skills and tools to manage this great diversity.

Furthermore, recently on the new tenth grade English Florida Standards Assessment (FSA), a recent exam that substituted the old FCTA, only 50 percent of the students countywide passed this year (Sokol and Wright, 2016). Moreover, at the selected High School for the study, where a largely migrant group of students struggled with the tenth-grade English (Reading Comprehension) exam, only 30 percent met the requirements on the new tenth-grade English FSA — a graduation requirement. Definitely, this is a sign that the current strategies and approaches implemented by the school district with the ESOL students are not accomplishing their goals.

Overall, these scores presented a lack of mastery of skills in understanding content vocabulary that if not acquired in a timely manner the student will be retained and will not be promoted to the next grade level or not graduate. Yet, considering that one of the performance goals of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB Act) (Public Law 107-110 of 2001) and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) require all ESOL students to become skillful in English while being academically successful in reading, language arts, and mathematics, it is every public educators' responsibility to work effectively in any type of circumstance.

With this in mind the purpose of this study, similar to the objective, is to identify, describe, and analyze from a phenomenological perspective which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida. By doing so, other teachers can incorporate strategies in their lessons that may lead ESOL students to higher English language proficiency levels that can help pass the state's standardized tests, a requisite to graduate.

In general, the researcher reviewed literature related to content vocabulary acquisition strategies used with ESOL students, interviewed ESOL teachers, and researched and analyzed the teachers' views, experiences, and teaching content vocabulary strategies. The participants in this study consist of six English speaking secondary level public school teachers from X Public High School. The methodology used to select the participants is classified as a non-probabilistic expert's sampling, and the participants were selected according to the following inclusion criteria: (1) must have a bachelor's degree in Education; (2) must have five years of experience in the secondary tenth grade level public school system; (3) must have a teacher certification from the Department of Education; (4) must have a certified ESOL Endorsement; and (5) must be certified Highly Effective by the Florida Department of Education.

With the intention of obtaining precise information from the participants, the investigator opted for a phenomenological approach using a semi-structured interview as the instrument to record exact data. Having the initial purpose of obtaining accurate information from the participants' experiences, Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, and Sorensen (2006) describe phenomenology as an outlook that interprets the experience as described by the participants, and centers around the participants' perceptions of their experiences.

Moreover, in this qualitative investigation with a phenomenological design, data were collected through six semi-structured interviews with eight open-ended Guiding Questions that were all rooted to the main Research Question: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient students, used by experienced secondary tenth grade level teachers at X Public High School in the state of Florida?

The results showed the participants' perceptions of the phenomenon under study. All of the teachers that participated presented suggestions and recommendations about their instructional practices, and what strategies they recommended for ESOL students at the secondary tenth grade level.

The data offered by six participants of the secondary level, and the data obtained in documents and in the literature, pertinent to the phenomenon under study, provided the information that supports the processes and practices to teach ESOL students effectively. In turn, the emerging patterns were compared and contrasted in order to uncover conclusions, implications, and recommendations that may impact and contribute to the process of teaching English as a second language.

As previously mentioned, this study is framed by one Research Question: Which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient

students, used by experienced secondary tenth grade level teachers at X Public High School in the state of Florida?, and six semi-structured interviews of eight open-ended Guiding Questions that were answered and analyzed in Chapter IV. The discussion of this chapter was organized under eight categories corresponding to each Guiding Question. The eight Guiding Questions for the semi-structured interviews are the following:

1. Considering the different language barriers English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) experience, how many years do you consider it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to master the State's Standardized Tests? Explain.
2. What are your recommendations to other teachers in helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school?
3. State and explain your agreement or disagreement with the following statement: Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams).
4. What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist you in differentiating your ESOL students' language acquisition levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary: (1) Emergent, (2) Beginning, (3) Early Intermediate, (4) Intermediate, (5) Advanced? Explain.
5. Which content vocabulary acquisition strategies do you consider are the most recommended for ESOL students at the tenth grade level in order to accelerate their

- preparation for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?
6. Based on your knowledge and experience, what encounters led you to the decisions made on the previous question (Question Five)?
 7. Considering that if ESOL students do not pass the required state tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, what are the challenges that you face when preparing these students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?
 8. What resources should teachers use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their ESOL students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Using a specific instrument for the purposes of the internal validity (credibility), reliability (consistency), and external validity (transferability), all of the eight previous Guiding Questions were reviewed by three experts in the field of teaching English proficient students at the secondary level (see Appendix B). No compensation was offered to the participants, and for purposes of their confidentiality and facilitation of the data analysis, every semi-structured interview was coded. Once all of the information was properly coded, transcribed, classified, and encoded the investigator tabulated it in tables. Organizing the data in tables permitted a better view and description of the results, and helped the investigator identify tendencies or frequencies among the categories.

Discussion of the Findings (Guide Questions)

The following is the discussion of the findings obtained in this investigation, and also analyzed in Chapter Four (Findings). The discussion of each corresponding question is based on the conceptual and theoretical framework presented in Chapter Two (Literature Revision). In addition, data recollected from related research were integrated in the discussion. Every piece of information, including the revised literature, was reviewed, studied, and correlated to the findings with the purpose of providing elements that answer specifically to the Research Question and the data collected, analyzed, and discussed in this investigation.

By the justifications presented throughout this investigation the current strategies and approaches implemented by the school district with the ESOL students are not fulfilling their goals. Yet, accomplishing the objective of this investigation from a phenomenological perspective has provided educators with a rich background on content vocabulary acquisition strategies that are recommended by Highly Effective teachers to work with specifically the ESOL population at the secondary tenth grade level. Coinciding with the findings from the interviews, if teachers from the secondary tenth grade level begin focusing on teaching words and sentence parts like root words, prefixes, suffixes, word families and context clues, they would help more ESOL students by providing strategies that have already proven to help other ESOL students pass the state's standardized tests. In accordance with the previous results from the objective of this investigation, all teachers recommended that in combination with teaching words and sentence parts to ESOL students, the support of staff members and experienced students that speak the same language, and the use of online content vocabulary practice assessments are additional reliable resources for teachers; All, working together with the goal of achieving what every high school student aspires to —graduation.

Fulfilling the objective of this investigation also benefits both the students in reaching their graduate degree in a faster pace, and the teachers in the quest of their recognition as Highly Effective in X County. Although ethically most educators would agree that their pride and satisfaction is obtained through their students' achievements, being recognized as Highly Effective also comes along with an economical compensation that is always appreciated.

Additional qualitative, quantitative, or mixed investigations are recommended to take place in order to validate the results concluded in this investigation. And, to take it one step further, investigators can conduct quantitative or mixed investigations with the findings or results discovered in this investigation to demonstrate their effectiveness with the ESOL population of the secondary tenth grade level.

The following eight categories are aligned with the Research Question, Which are, according to the teacher's perspective, the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida?, and represent each one of the previous eight Guiding Questions, providing a window of intriguing facts and points of views about secondary level ESOL students' learning and adaptation processes, and language acquisition strategies.

Category 1 – Years of Experience to Master State Standardized Tests. Category One presents the discussion of the findings that allow answering the first Guiding Question: Considering the different language barriers English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) experience, how many years do you consider it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to master the State's Standardized Tests? Explain.

The answer to this question is crucial for differentiating what learning needs each individual ESOL student has, and what method or program to use with each particular ESOL student. Knowing what Highly Effective teachers think about the amount of years it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the CALP can give other teachers a lead on determining the level of language proficiency. Whether the ESOL student is going through the silent level, the early production level, the speech emergence level, the intermediate level, or the native-like level, Hill and Flynn (2006) state that by understanding your students' level of language proficiency, teachers will become more competent at differentiating instruction to promote linguistic and academic achievement.

In accordance with the results from the interviews, five of the six participants (83%) agreed that it takes three to five years for ESOL students to learn the CALP. Their answers did not coincide precisely with experts like Collier and Thomas (1989), Cummins (2000), nor Reiss (2005). All of these experts agreed that it takes approximately five to seven years for an ESOL student to acquire the academic language. Collier and Thomas (1989) agreed that academic language can take at least five to seven years to develop and expand. Cummins (2000) states that it can take five to seven years or longer for some bilingual learners to achieve a level of academic linguistic proficiency comparable to monolingual English speaking classmates. And, Reis (2005) also indicates that students can take five to seven years to acquire the CALP.

Yet, although there is a level of disagreement between the participants and many experts on how many years does it take for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), both the participants and experts agree that students learning English develop a competent BICS or Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills in six months to three years. One participant in the investigation stated that they have seen students arrive without

knowing a language, and after the first school year they have become comfortable enough to begin answering questions, and expressing themselves in class. Reiss (2005) adds that the BICS is generally cognitively unchallenging (i.e., easy), while the CALP is generally challenging. The more familiar content teachers are with the concept of CALP and how it develops, the better they will be able to help the ESOL students in their classrooms (Reiss, 2005). As a result, ESOL students will gain the necessary academic vocabulary and skills to pass the state's standardized tests and finally graduate.

Category 2 – Cultural Adaptation. Throughout Category Two, the findings that answer the second Guiding Question are discussed: What are your recommendations to other teachers in helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school?

To better interpret the participants' perceptions concerning Category Two, the investigator wants to share an interesting quote from one of the participant's perspective: "Learning cultural differences may be harder than learning academic vocabulary for some students since it is often something that has to be seen and experienced, not just discussed between the student and the teacher." This complex process of learning cultural differences is best described by Reiss (2012) through many parts: values, beliefs, levels of beauty, models of thinking, norms of thinking, norms of conduct, and forms of communication.

Overall, Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, and Kohler (2003) indicate that learning to adapt and communicate in an additional language involves creating an awareness and consciousness of the ways in which culture connects with language. This connection described by Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, and Kohler (2003) in the process of adaptation helps determine that there is congruency among the results in this investigation and other experts.

Meaning that what was gathered from the findings of this study is in harmony with experts in the field of education.

As a final result from the participants' point of view, "Support from a Staff Member or an Experienced Student that Speaks the Same Language", came out as one of the most recommended suggestion from Highly Effective teachers. According to Mehring (2005), this is true because although the main motivational learning factor must come from the student, when learning content vocabulary in a cooperative environment allows students to learn from peers closest to them and with similar traits. Furthermore, Murphey and Arao (2001) point out that in a cooperative environment students feel more relaxed and learn more from peers since they see that making mistakes is acceptable, that having goals is good, and that learning English can be fun.

Moreover, throughout the findings, "Culture Awareness" came out as another of the most recommended suggestions from Highly Effective teachers to other educators that struggle with new students and culture adaptation. Therefore, teachers must always consider culture when teaching in order to support their students' learning by intentionally creating better communication that will assist them in meeting the criteria of academic accomplishments, cultural skills, and abilities (Hollie, 2012). By imparting or exchanging information teachers can provide "Culture Awareness" in their class activities or class assessments. Likewise, practicing and role playing in class will not only teach them about "Culture Awareness", but will also provide a modeling.

Category 3 – Agreement or Disagreement. Through the discussion of Category Three, the third statement in Guiding Question Three is presented: State and explain your agreement or disagreement with the following statement: Immersing new ESOL students, without any

assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, and Final Semester Exams).

Clearly, from the results on Guiding Question Three, more than half the teachers, 67% to be exact, disagreed on the fact that immersing new ESOL students without assistance into the regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary to communicate and master the state's standardized tests. A 33%, which represented the answers of two of the participants out of six, agreed that ESOL students should be immersed without assistance into the regular English classroom in order to accelerate their acquisition of the content vocabulary to communicate, and most important, to master the state's standardized tests.

However, one of those two participants stated that he or she only agrees if the student is immersed early in his or her educational career, meaning in elementary school. That same participant also expressed during the interview that the older the child, the more assistance he or she needs to master the acquisition of the content vocabulary. This slight inclination towards assisting ESOL students depending on age range is not surprising due to the fact that most participants in this investigation also agreed. Mora-Flores (2011) states that without support, these students' transition from one language to another becomes very stressful and complex. Gandara and Contreras (2009) also point out the fact that data have shown that a large number of ESOL students drop out every year, and pressure and tension contribute. In general, for ESOL students Perez and Holmes (2010) indicate that the importance of the linguistic capacity in the students' achievement, meaning the stage of English acquisition for each learner, impacts their success.

According to Isecke (2011) whether immersing new ESOL students, with or without any assistance, into the regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary or not, we are all equally responsible for all of the students in our charge. Above all, the NCLB Act (2001), a law signed by President Bush, and the new ESEA (2011) reform, signed by president Obama, guarantee accountability and flexibility as well as additional federal support for education, and call for quality and accountability for all the students in U.S. schools. This implicitly goes to show that educating ESOL students is becoming a priority in the public educational system, and teachers must start preparing to address their necessities.

Category 4 – Professional Development Workshops on Differentiating Language Levels. Category Four allowed the investigator to group the findings to answer Guiding Question Four: What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist you in differentiating your ESOL students' language acquisition levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary: (1) Emergent, (2) Beginning, (3) Early Intermediate, (4) Intermediate, (5) Advanced? Explain.

The final results for this question demonstrated clearly that teachers have not received any professional development workshops from their district to assist in differentiating language acquisition levels. All except for one participant, expressed that he or she took a 20- hour state training needed to recertify, and found that it was very thorough. Yet, the answer that most participants provided throughout the interviews matched with what many experts like Lucas, Villegas, and Freddson-Gonzalez (2008) confirm, and that is that most teacher-training programs do not prepare teachers well for working with ESOL students.

With the high demand of ESOL instruction, many experts agree that teachers should be well trained, especially in differentiating their ESOL students' language acquisition level for best

practices. This is so, that Tobin and McInnes (2008) state that while some teachers do recognize the particular diverse students' needs within the classroom, they may still have difficulty providing the instruction to support the needs evidenced within the classroom. Reiss (2005) adds that teachers must not lose the thought that even learners who seem to work at high levels in face-to-face social interaction may still need critical language skills to comprehend academic content vocabulary. This ability to differentiate critical language skills, goes hand in hand with the language acquisition levels, and Hill and Flynn (2006) state that all students acquiring English will pass through these stages.

Mora-Flores (2011) states that our work as teachers begins by understanding language acquisition. Teachers should be familiarized with how a second language develops, and its acquisition levels to better attend their students' language needs. Mora-Flores (2011) indicates that there are five distinct acquisition levels identified: (a) the pre-production or silent level, (b) the early production level, (c) the speech emergence level, (d) the intermediate level, and (e) the native-like fluency level. Although many teachers go unaware of the indicators used to identify each student's language acquisition level, being aware of their existence provides a good foundation for better planning

Furthermore, Hill and Flynn (2006) comment that by understanding your students' levels of linguistic proficiency, you will become more competent at differentiating instruction to promote linguistic and academic achievement. Hill and Flynn (2006) add that by understanding the phases of language acquisition, you can engage learners at the correct level of formal discussion of a subject. Also, Hill and Flynn (2006) state that when appropriate level questions are asked, content knowledge can be assessed alongside language proficiency. Overall,

comprehension and monitoring of all five language acquisition levels is definitely necessary for every teacher to consider with each ESOL student.

In addition, Mora-Flores (2011) states that no matter if language development is monitored and identified differently among teachers, what is important is that understanding what ESOL students bring to their second-language learning experience helps us build upon their foundational knowledge and skills to reach higher levels of second-language acquisition. Mora-Flores (2011) indicates that it is our job as teachers to make sure that students understand what is it that they must learn and what expectations and goals they must meet. To support ESOL students, teachers must understand how language develops and builds towards proficiency (Reiss, 2005). Implementing the proper content vocabulary acquisition strategies in a differentiated manner will be crucial for every student's academic performance and motivation.

Category 5 – Most Recommended Strategies. Category Five reveals the answers to the investigation's Research Question: Which content vocabulary acquisition strategies do you consider are the most recommended for ESOL students at the tenth grade level in order to accelerate their preparation for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

In schools and classrooms across the country, educators are working to raise all students to higher levels (Protheroe & Clarke, 2008). Now days, having a high school diploma is crucial. According to Brassell and Rasinski (2008) if ESOL students do not know many of the content words used in the text, they are not likely to understand the text, and consequently not be able to pass the states standardized reading and writing tests that are mandatory to graduate. Yet, with the proper instruction this problem can be attended. Oxford (2003) states that research continues to prove that strategies help learners take control of their learning and become more proficient.

The results for Guiding Question Five have the intention of providing specific content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary level students. Throughout the interviews, the findings revealed that the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategy was “Teaching Word and Sentence Parts like Root Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, Word Families, and Context Clues”. Sharing similar opinions to the previous results, Blintz (2011) states that teachers can help students improve content vocabulary by providing instruction that helps them see the value and relevance of word study, and allows them to study interesting and important new academic words that come from the texts read in the classroom.

The second most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategy selected by the participants was “Repetition of the Content Vocabulary”. Then “Concept Illustrations like Picture Graphs” such as Frayer’s Model came in third, and “Teaching Cognates” in fourth as the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies. In fifth place came in “Combining Hearing, Speaking, and Writing Activities”. And, “Mindfulness, “Paraphrasing”, “Teaching Synonyms, and Antonyms”, and “Teaching through Games” came in as the last selected content vocabulary acquisition strategies.

Considering the variety of existent content vocabulary acquisition strategies for ESOL students, Protheroe and Clarke (2008) state that it is important to point out that learning strategies can effectively be taught as part of any area instruction. However, Mora-Flores (2011) asserts that without training the teachers with the most effective teaching strategies on content vocabulary acquisition, ESOL students will take longer to acquire the proper academic language. This delay for many ESOL students means not graduating, a reality that will persist if teachers do not start focusing and assessing recommended strategies for ESOL students by Highly

Effective teachers that have had success advancing ESOL students to higher second language acquisition levels.

Taking everything previously mentioned into account, all secondary level teachers should continuously and actively research for new content vocabulary acquisition strategies that will provide secondary tenth grade ESOL students the tools to pass the state's standardized tests, mandatory to graduate. Oxford (2003) states that all educators should evaluate strategies in research documents, books or journals, attending professional conferences, or taking relevant courses or workshops. In addition, Oxford (2003) asserts that all teachers should also reflect and assess their own teaching strategies with their students. This way teachers can help ESOL students improve their own strategies. Simultaneously, building self-awareness of what they are particularly learning, and of their own thinking processes or metacognition.

In essence, learners need to learn how to learn, and teachers need to learn how to facilitate the process (Oxford, 2003). Oxford (2003) indicates that although learning is certainly part of the human condition, conscious skill in self-directed learning and in strategy use must be sharpened through training. Overall, most contemporary experts in the field of language learning agree that acquiring a language requires active self-direction on the part of learners, especially the academic language. Schumaker and Deshler (2006) define a learning strategy as an individual's approach to a task. According to Schumaker and Deshler (2006), it includes how a person thinks and acts when planning, executing, and evaluating performance on a task and its outcomes.

Coincidentally, two participants shared the same idea during their interviews. They both commented on mindfulness and awareness. One participant stated, "There should be an awareness of what is going to be learned, why, and how.", and the other said, "The best strategy

to start any class is to prepare the students' mindset. Students should be conscious of what is going to be learned, why, and how." Basically, both participants agreed that a continuous reflective thinking process should take place during any learning experience.

Paredes (2010) comments that scholarly interest in this form of learning has grown considerably. Today, college students need to be in control of their own learning (Stahl, Simpson, & Hayes, 1992). Certainly, the goal is for learning to continue when students leave the classroom (Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Stahl & Nagy, 2006).

Finally, it is evident that everyone acquires vocabulary best through different methods. According to Reiss (2012) while all students need to use a variety of strategy type, ESOL students in particular will learn more effectively from using strategies in combination. However, teachers must carefully consider which strategies will be most effective to implement with consistency in their learning environment, for they have to create long term change in their students' language, and not of a temporary nature. These content vocabulary acquisition strategies must stay stamped in every ESOL student's mind for better future outcomes. After all, the NCLB Act, emphasizes the importance of using evidence-based practices and scientific research in the educational process (Arroyo, 2013).

Category 6 – Encounters That Led to the Decisions Made on Question Five. To better understand the previous category, the investigator decided to take a further step and answer Category Six for background knowledge: Based on your knowledge and experience, what encounters led you to the decisions made on Guiding Question Five; Category Five?

The purpose of Guiding Question Six was specifically to uncover the participants' detailed explanation of what encounters led to the previous discoveries in Guiding Question Five. Due to the phenomenological nature of this investigation it was necessary to understand

what experiences made the participants select these specific strategies that according to tests results have positively impacted the students' scores. Also, by focusing on the participants' experiences and possible encounters we can identify and relate to the participants' reasoning for what content vocabulary acquisition strategies effectively benefit ESOL students' learning. Thus, improving the reliability or consistency of the results, and their external validity, or as defined by the qualitative investigators, their transferability or generalizability.

The final results for Guiding Question Six discloses "Hands-On Experience or Trial and Error" as being the number one encounter that led the majority of the participants towards their decisions on what did they consider are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for secondary level ESOL students. One participant stated, "After many years of practice. Imagine, I have taught ESOL students of all ages, and I have learned to recognize their language acquisition levels after a short period of time." Another participant expressed how repetition was a factor in learning. These conclusions basically correlate with the fact that all of the participants have five to ten years or more of experience in the teaching career, and have been recognized as Highly Effective in X County for the past five years, demonstrating how continuous practice in the fields of instructing and learning can influence a teacher's skills, and hence, the students' outcomes.

Moreover, recognized by all participants as similar encounters that coincide throughout the interviews were "Teacher Trainings", "ESOL Students' and Teachers' Testimonies", "Reading through Research Documents and Informational Texts", and through "Reflections Taken Based on Students' Assessments". Although many school district trainings, peoples' testimonies, and various research studies can provide opportunities for personal growth and

professional development, it is through practical and up-close encounters that have been acknowledge by this investigation's Highly Effective teachers as fundamental.

It is essential to reconsider that the most important objective of a phenomenological investigation is to describe the meaning, structure, and essence of the lived encounters of a person, or a group of people around a particular phenomenon (Christensen, Johnson, and Turner, 2010). In other words, a phenomenological study should focus on studying human phenomenon through real life experiences that people live and experiment (Ponce, 2014), precisely what the investigator had in mind from the beginning of this investigation.

Category 7 – Challenges Faced While Preparing ESOL Students. Category Seven reviews the challenges presented by the participants answering Guiding Question Seven: Considering that if ESOL students do not pass the required state tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, what are the challenges that you face when preparing these students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

In accordance with the results from the interviews, "Language Barrier" and "Students' Lack of Emotional Support" ranged the highest percentages among the participants' answers. Both were selected by four out of the six participants in this investigation. As expected, "Language Barrier" was going to be on the top list of the challenges teachers face with ESOL students because the topic covers specifically language acquisition for ESOL students. But, curiously "Students' Lack of Emotional Support" had the same amount of participants identifying it as equally shocking and challenging, revealing the relationship between language acquisition and motivation.

This fact coincides with Yule (2002) and Cook (1996), both believers that some ESOL students do better than others because they are better motivated. According to Cook (1996) the

problem of motivation for ESOL students is deeply rooted in the students' minds and in their cultural background. Paredes (2010) states that these variables can vary depending on age, aptitude, gender, personality, culture, style, beliefs, confidence, and desire.

Mixed in between all of these variables is the accumulation of exams not being passed due to the language deficiency. Unfortunately, continuous failure for some students can be emotionally exhausting, especially for students with parents that also do not understand the language nor the system. One participant stated, "Although they get several times to take and pass the test, this can be demoralizing for the students. It leads them to feel like they are not making gains fast enough or will never learn what is expected." As this negativity builds in a student's mindset, their self-esteem decreases and a professionals' assistance could be key towards their general improvement.

Considering the difficulties and stressors, ESOL teachers and general staff members should strongly support and serve as a guide and helping hand for any new struggling ESOL student. What ESOL students think of the teacher, its staff, and the course heavily affects their success (Cook, 1996). Motivation and pushing their own willingness towards success is a key component in effective instruction (Slavin, 2006).

Unfortunately, motivating ESOL students was not the only challenge educators face when preparing ESOL students for the state's standardized tests. Other significant challenges discovered were "Limited Time", "Poor Scores Working Against the Teachers' Evaluations and Leading to Frustration", "Too Many Exams with Extensive and Diverse Content", and increase in "Additional Planning". Through the previous lists of obstacles that teachers confront while preparing these students for the state's standardized tests, one can see the depths of problems that exist.

In addition to the many challenges identified throughout the interviews, Hogan (2015) states that frequently ESOL students just do not acquire the language by exposing them to textbooks. And, without vocabulary a student cannot participate in the class discussions. This makes it more difficult for the students and the teachers to obtain academic gains. Furthermore, Hogan (2015) states that other ESOL students may struggle with expressing their ideas because they have disabilities like speech and language impairment, which can impede their acquisition of the content vocabulary. In many occasions, a student's disability is detected later when they are close to graduating, or never identified at all. Thus, the student suffers the consequences of not receiving the proper accommodations on time, and not graduating from high school.

Reis (2012) expresses that ESOL students learning English, while expected to acquire content vocabulary knowledge, confront an intimidating and demanding situation. Unfortunately, the effects can work both ways. Many teachers themselves have it rough dealing with instruction and discipline in a language they do not speak. However, like one of the participants said, "We have to overcome the language barrier, and get students confident and motivated enough to even fully attempt these tasks."

Nevertheless, Apthorp, Wang, Ryan, and Cicchinalli (2012) address that no matter if the student's primary language is another than English, educational institutions are mandated to evaluate teachers with intentions of recognizing, encouraging, and rewarding exceptional teaching strategies and implementation through professional development and guidance to improve students' academic performance. Generally speaking, what truly matters is how teachers can support ESOL students (Mora-Flores, 2011).

Category 8 – Resources for Teachers. Finally, due to the nature of this investigation being specifically content vocabulary, Category Eight discloses the following: What resources

should teachers use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their ESOL students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Certainly, ESOL students bring to their second language learning process, practical understanding and experience that as teachers we must cultivate and build upon their foundational knowledge to reach higher levels of second-language acquisition. According to Mora-Flores (2011) it is our job as educators to make sure that students understand what is it that they must learn. With this being said, all teachers must have a clear understanding of what content vocabulary to practice and reinforce with their ESOL students. For an ESOL student that does not speak the language, knowing the specific content vocabulary is crucial for passing the state's standardized exams that are a graduation requirement.

According to the participants in this investigation, when a teacher is trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words of a class subject the best resource is to go "Online". Although every class subject should have a textbook and possibly a workbook, going "Online" seems to attract teachers the most. There they can locate the content vocabulary from their "Online" textbooks, and use additional practice offered on the site. Since it is computer based, every site can store massive amounts of content vocabulary practice, plus teachers can share assignments that have been effective with ESOL students. For example, one participant quoted, "For English classes, ESOL students should be directed to the online Spring Board vocabulary practice. I have found some success getting students to utilize vocabulary.com and quizlet.com." Another teacher commented, "They should also go online to sites that offer specific tests and assessment for students like FSA, SAT, and ACT." Definitely, technology is taking a role in today's education, and should be considered as a useful and effective resource to

help teachers locate content vocabulary words and assessments that will help students acquire the skills to pass the various state's standardized tests.

Next in line as the most recommended resource that teachers should use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject is, "Consulting with the School's ESOL Specialist, the English Teacher, Department Head, or One of the Paraprofessionals", if the school provides one. Last resource recommended by the participants was the "Teachers Autodidactic Role" towards learning and researching new resources, one in which should be modeled to the students. One of the participant states, "There is a plethora of resources that can be used for content vocabulary. Each teacher should have a list of important words that is given to each student at the beginning of each quarter."

Yet, sometimes locating the most important content vocabulary involves some investigating and researching. Paredes (2010) asserts that it involves learners taking control of the learning context to reach their learning objectives. This process can be translated to what many experts define as, Self-Directed Learning or SDL. Self -Directed Learning is defined as a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating goals, identifying human and material resources, choosing and implementing learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes (Knowles, 1975) (as cited in Paredes, 2010).

Conclusions and Implications of the Findings

This study offers suggestive evidence from eight participants that have experience with secondary level English proficient students. Being phenomenology the nature of this qualitative study, permits the investigator to extract the teachers' perspectives on the topic of academic language acquisition and recognize what best practices are being used by Highly Effective

teachers in X Public High School in the state of Florida. These teachers contributed their time, knowledge, and appreciation of what is paramount to them and practical for their students in the classroom. This knowledge will enrich the process and educational practices of their peers and other teachers who identify with the mission of improving the quality of teaching and learning by teaching English as a second language. It will also benefit English proficient secondary level students with recommended strategies that will contribute with the acquisition of new content vocabulary.

According to Delors (1994) (as cited in Arollo, 2013) through the shared findings and the appreciation of the phenomena under study, the importance of reflection and the process of metacognition or learning to learn is recognized and inferred. Moreover, it highlights what experienced and highly effective teachers recommend in the field of content vocabulary acquisition strategies for English proficient secondary level students. The contribution of the participating teachers will allow other teachers, future teachers and other teaching and administrative personnel to identify, use, and appreciate the processes and practices that have been effective for their peers. Getting to know and to understand these processes and educational practices, involves a reflective process about the teachers' practice, about what is being done with the students to accomplish the class objectives and expectations, an outlook on different educational outcomes like assessments and exams, and if the students are learning.

The findings presented in this study allow conclusions, implications, recommendations, and general contributions addressed to educators, parents, staff, administrative staff, and other officials who directly or indirectly and are associated with the students' academic language development. These findings have been discussed throughout the results recollected from the

interviews to eight secondary level teachers of various courses. The following are conclusions and implications drawn from the participants' answers to the eight Guiding Questions:

1. Learning a language, specifically the language to pass the various state's standardized tests, is a gradual process that implied by the findings from the results can take from three to five years to master. First students learn the social language or BICS, and then they acquire the CALP or the academic language (Cummins, 2000). One of the participants had mentioned that it takes about one year for the student to become comfortable enough to begin talking regularly in class and answering questions. The participant also added that it is by the third year when the students seem to be able to apply their understanding to the lengthy questions on the state's standardized tests.
2. A primary factor identified by the participants that helps accelerate the process of adaptation in ESOL students is having contact with other beings that could be of assistance. This could imply a student or staff that has experience in the country and speaks the native language of the new ESOL student. Hollie (2012) that when describing how culture and language are mutually related, there is nothing more real to us than the use of our mother tongue.
3. Whether or not, new ESOL students should be immersed without any assistance into the regular English classroom in order to accelerate their acquisition of the content vocabulary to master the state's standardized tests is controversial among educators. Yet, for this investigation four out of six participants disagreed in terms of having new ESOL students immersed into the classroom without any assistance. Most suggested that because time is a factor, new ESLO students benefit from the

- assistance. As expressed by one of the participants, “If they did not have to take any state’s mandatory exams to graduate, it would be another story.”
4. A recent study by the Washington University’s Center for Equity and Excellence in Education (2014) indicates that by 2050 the number of Latino students, the fastest growing school age demographic, is expected to surpass the number of white students in American schools. Likewise, in X County Public School District, the Hispanic students are now the largest demographic group in the district. Yet, throughout the findings from six participants in this investigation, it was determined that most teachers have not been trained in differentiating their ESOL students’ language acquisition levels for best teaching practices. Today, with the upcoming number of ESOL students, it is strongly suggested for X County’s Public District to provide teachers with effective trainings on differentiating language acquisition levels that are important to help teachers tailor instruction to meet the needs of every ESOL students.
 5. Considering the number of ESOL students that fail to pass the state’s standardized tests because of a lack of academic content vocabulary, it is crucial for every teacher to reflect on what works and what does not. It is necessary for all teachers to research what content vocabulary strategies are Highly Effective teachers using that seem to have positive results among their ESOL students. According to the findings from six Highly Effective teachers, the two most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for ESOL students are: (a.) teaching them word and sentence parts like root words, prefixes, suffixes, word families, and context clues; and (b.) the repetition of the most important content vocabulary for the particular subject. Considering the

- importance of passing the state's standardized tests as a requisite for graduation, all schools should greatly emphasize the practice of the previous two strategies, among others presented in the results of this investigation.
6. They say, "Practice makes perfect". For this investigation hands-on experience or trial and error was identified by almost all participants as the main encounter that lead them to the decisions made when selecting the most recommended content vocabulary strategies to teach their ESOL students. With this being said, definitely maintaining teachers in the pedagogy field for many years should be every schools' priority.
 7. Teachers and educators have many challenges. Among the challenges are those not only faced by the students, but also by the teachers. While interviewing the participants about the challenges they face with their ESOL students, many expressed being upset because in X County if ESOL students do not demonstrate learning gains through their test scores, it affects their evaluations. Specifically, one participant literally stated, "This can lead to a cycle of frustration in the classroom". With this statement it is implied for X County to research and addresses the controversy teachers express relating students' learning gains and their evaluation scores.
 8. Researching and selecting the proper content vocabulary words of a specific class subject can be overwhelming for a teacher, especially if they are new. However, it is worse for an ESOL student that must approve with a passing score in order to receive a high school diploma. To attend this particular situation one participant suggested for X County High Schools to provide one course that only specifies on content vocabulary, academic vocabulary acquisition strategies, and the study of words and

sentence parts. Through this assigned class, ESOL students will have an early start to the preparation of the academic language used in the state's standardized tests.

The previous conclusions and implications include inferences drawn from the interviews and extended research. Also, aligning these conclusions and implications with the following recommendations provides rich information for future investigators in the fields of language and education.

Recommendations

This study was restricted to only one specific county in the state of Florida. According to a recent report from News Channel Seven (as cited in WJHG.com, 2018), compared to 2016 more students in Florida passed the 2017 statewide standardized English language arts assessment. News Channel Seven (as cited in WJHG.com, 2018) also stated that in grades three through ten the percentage of students overall passing the Florida Standards Assessment (FSA) Language Arts section increased by two points. Certainly, a gain of two points leaves great room for improvement, and sends a message that something must be done to accelerate the rate of passing scores among the students.

Recommendations to Parents, Teachers, Principals, Facilitators, Administrators, Supervisors, and other Personnel. These recommendations are for all those whose goal is to instruct, and facilitate the process for all ESOL students of acquiring the appropriate tools to pass the different state's standardized tests which are required to graduate.

1. All secondary level ESOL programs of the public school system should wait at least three to five years before transitioning an ESOL student into the regular immersed English classes.

2. Pairing up a new ESOL student between another experienced ESOL student and a native English speaker can provide support and accelerate the new ESOL student's adaptation process.
3. Considering an introductory workshop on technology, but precisely on how to obtain their school's data like their grades and the school's activity calendar, can help the ESOL students assess their own learning development by easily accessing their grades on-line and encourages them to participate in yearly scheduled school activities.
4. It is recommended for all school districts in X County to provide extension of school time for new ESOL students with less than one year of experience in the public school system, and whose first language is one other than English.
5. New ESOL students should be immersed with assistance into the regular English classroom to learn specific language skills and strategies that will help accelerate their acquisition of the specific content vocabulary that is necessary to comprehend and pass the state's standardized tests.
6. With the upcoming number of ESOL students in public schools it is necessary to provide secondary level teachers with year-round trainings on differentiation among their ESOL students.
7. Providing students with metacognitive skills will encourage them to be mindful of their own thinking process.
8. Maintaining teachers in the teaching field for many years gives them the experience to identify what content vocabulary strategies work best for ESOL students; Trial and error.

9. X County School Districts should provide trainings for all secondary level teachers on how to surf or navigate the internet for extra resources on content vocabulary acquisition practice for ESOL students. Using the internet teachers will be able to work with a variety of information and communication facilities.
10. In X County Public School district teachers are evaluated based on their students' test scores, and if this method of assessing instruction is not modified, it can start a trend of frustration among secondary level ESOL teachers that will affect instruction in many classrooms.
11. Parental support is highly recommended for ESOL students' academic learning development. Keeping ESOL students supervised at all times helps their overall discipline and self-control, which in return benefits their acquisition of the academic language.
12. Motivation plays a key role in every ESOL student's academic language acquisition development. Inspiring ESOL students helps the process of being mentally stimulated to learn.
13. ESOL students that have been here for less than three years could benefit from the opportunity of taking the state's standardized tests in their native or first language because what is being assessed is their content knowledge and reading comprehension skills, and not their language acquisition.
14. In order to accelerate every ESOL student's content vocabulary acquisition, X County School District could provide a one semester course or an elective in every school that specifies on content vocabulary and word and sentence parts like root words,

prefixes, suffixes, word families, and context clues. This class will strengthen the ESOL students' background knowledge.

The previous recommendations are based on the investigation's findings. They are recommended by Highly Effective secondary tenth grade level teachers. If they are applied in X County Schools, students and teachers could all benefit. Yet, further continuous research should be done to validate (credibility) them, and make them reliable (consistent).

Recommendations for Future Investigations. Without further research into effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies for secondary level English proficient students, it will be impossible to provide them the necessary tools for the achievement of their graduation requirements. The more that each of these topics is researched and investigated the higher the degree of validity (credibility) and reliability (consistency). The recommendations for future investigations are the following:

1. to investigate about effective content vocabulary acquisitions strategies in other schools from different counties to obtain a vast amount of answers that can be manipulated in order to find congruent patterns of helpful and strategic data;
2. to investigate, by interviewing experienced ESOL students (meaning students that have already successfully passed the various state's standardized tests), what content vocabulary acquisition strategies helped them to pass the state's standardized tests;
3. to investigate, by interviewing Highly Effective ESOL teachers, what strategies do they recommend would help ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school;
4. to investigate, by interviewing experienced ESOL students (meaning students that have already successfully passed the various state's standardized tests), what

- strategies do they recommend would help new ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school;
5. to investigate about the parents' impact in the ESOL students' content vocabulary acquisition, and their overall academic language development;
 6. to investigate if immersing new ESOL students, with or without any assistance, into regular English classrooms would accelerate their acquisition of the content vocabulary to communicate and pass the state's standardized tests;
 7. to investigate if providing intensive instructional workshops for teachers on content vocabulary acquisition strategies would increase overall test scores for secondary level ESOL students; and
 8. to investigate what online sites do Highly Effective teachers use as additional resources for their ESOL students.

Opting to research on any one of the previous topics will definitely enrich the field of teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages. Rossman and Rallis (2003) (as cited in Arroyo, 2013) state that in a qualitative investigation the data are like building blocks, which in turn, when it is applied it transforms into knowledge. According to Arroyo (2013) it is expected for the data collected throughout an investigation to contribute to the practice of other educators and to ignite their curiosity of investigating and carrying out the mission of *pass it forward*, since it is not complying its purpose if it is not known to others.

Conclusion

Teachers should always try to improve their content vocabulary acquisition strategies, especially new incoming teachers that start the school year feeling insecure and may lack the necessary skills when it comes to working with ESOL students. Selecting the proper content

vocabulary acquisition strategies is a task that takes some time to master. This investigation was not intended to uncover all the barriers ESOL students face in the process of acquiring the academic language and graduating from high school, but to answer the Research Question that focuses on the content vocabulary acquisition strategies, which are vital for students to understand and master the classes, and the many exams they must confront before graduating.

Most educators would agree that English language development occurs over multiple years. For example, Cummins (1996) states that it takes five to seven years or longer for ESOL students to master academic vocabulary and to be working on a level with native speakers as far as academic language is concerned. Yet, many teachers also consider it is variable, and that it depends on many factors like maturation, classroom experiences, programming, motivation, and attitudes. Sadly, many ESOL students arrive without any English language skills and are placed on high school level classes which offer full English instruction. On top of that, they are expected to pass several state mandated tests in order to graduate. Providing them with tools that can help accelerate their academic language development is essential.

For decades, linguists have tried to understand the phenomena of language development, through plausible or scientifically acceptable theories like the Grammar Translation or vocabulary memorization and Behaviorism or positive reinforcement, two methods of learning that coincided with Pavlov, Skinner, and Watson; the Series Method or imitation, inspired by Gouin; the Direct Method or total physical response, best described through the discoveries of Berlitz who did not permit any type of translation; Community Language Learning or learning in a stress-free environment by Charles Curran; or the Natural Approach by Krashen and Terrell who assumed that it was best to learn in an environment where the students' native language is welcomed, and where translation is permitted.

Although these theories, among many others, have been taken in consideration for the basis or foundation of this study and many other different investigations involving language development, it should stand clear that the focus of this particular investigation is in accelerating the process of the students' CALP or academic content vocabulary in order to pass the state's standardized exams and obtain a high school diploma. Therefore, it concentrates on learning and instructing. Considering CALP to be the language presented in the various state's exams, teachers should start seriously considering differentiating what strategies work best with their ESOL students.

Now is the time for teachers to shut down ineffective content vocabulary acquisition strategies and start incorporating new effective strategies in their professional instructional repertoire. The focus has to be on advancing academic content language development and academic achievement on ESOL students. Teachers are encouraged to examine their strategies, experiment with them in their own classes, investigate as well as interpret their effectiveness, modify them to support their own instructional goals, and work collaboratively with fellow teachers to create methods, technics, and activities that are more suitable for their own population of students (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2013).

It is no longer necessary to try and figure out what works and what does not, but to apply the strategies obtained in this investigation and master them to perfection. Fitzell (2014) comments the good news is that everyone benefits when using strategies that support ESOL students. More than ever before, educational change in all its complexity rest within a teacher's classroom practices and the ability to collaborate concerning the materials and instructional resources chosen, the use of teaching approaches and strategies, and the alteration of pedagogical beliefs (Fullan, 2007; Hoginsfeld & Dove, 2013).

In addition, for a better student performance the quality of the Student/Teacher relationship should be a teacher's primary concern. Warmth, acceptance, and support must be delivered non-contingently, and thus are not conditional upon the students. Particularly with ESOL students, teachers must learn about the students' experiences and backgrounds in order to connect them to new learning. When teachers get to know their students, they can make better decisions about the curriculum, instructional strategies, classroom management, assessment, pacing, and the list goes on (Ferlazzo, 2012).

Teachers have to prepare to help this rising population and they must understand that these students have background knowledge that has to be converted to English. In addition, all educators must realize that ESOL students rely on them as their only resource and that the students are against the clock to graduate. Teachers must seriously consider the most effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies for these students who take several classes at the same time and have a vast amount of content vocabulary to master. Without the content vocabulary knowledge ESOL students will not know what they are being asked in the tests and will continue to fail.

Using eight semi-structured interviews, it is clearly appreciated in the results how *teaching word and sentence parts* like roots words, prefixes, suffixes, word families, and context clues is the most effective content vocabulary acquisition strategy considered by highly effective teachers with five or more years of experience and high academic standards in the public system of X High School in Florida. As part of the most important elements of this investigation, the investigator gathered every piece of information throughout the process of the study and made thoughtful and meaningful interpretations that led to a variety of recommendations. As a result,

the most effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies for the secondary level were discussed.

Part of every teacher's compromise with the students is the importance of always being aware of what strategies work best for every single student. To make this possible, teachers must reconsider the results presented throughout this investigation. Having a variety of tools to help every student, makes acquiring knowledge easier and more effective.

Every teacher must gain effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies and make an effort to establish them in the real scenario of the classroom. These strategies should be accessible for every instructor. If teachers were to copy and carry out the most effective content vocabulary acquisition strategies in the classrooms, all students would obtain a vast amount of academic content vocabulary that should help improve their scores in the state's standardized tests or a passing grade. Better yet, a student's overall language acquisition would improve for life, and they become more fluent in their BICS and most important, reach a higher degree of excellence in their overall CALP.

Finally, it is important to remember that any current understanding of language learning strategies is necessarily in its infancy, and any existing system of strategies is only a proposal to be tested through practical classroom use and through research (Oxford, 2003). According to Oxford (2003), at this stage in the short history of language learning strategy research, there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are, how many strategies exist, how they should be defined, demarcated, and categorize, and whether it is, or ever will be, possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies.

Yet, if we all continue to research and investigate what content vocabulary strategies Highly Effective teachers recommend for ESOL students, we could reach a congruent pattern of

effective strategies in the results that can benefit many secondary level tenth grade ESOL teachers and students in reaching the final goal— graduation!

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Appendix A
Data Collection Instrument

Guiding Questions for the Semi-Structured Individual Interview

Hello, my name is Kenneth Cembalest and I am a doctoral student at the Metropolitan University in San Juan, Puerto Rico. The purpose of this interview is to identify, describe, and analyze from a phenomenological perspective which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary level tenth grade students. The first section involves five Socio-Demographic questions, and the second part has eight Open-Ended Questions. As soon as you are ready, we will begin the interview.

Socio- Demographic Data:

**Gender:*

Female / Male

**Teaching Subject:*

English / Math / Science / Social Studies / Other (Specify): _____

**Academic Background / Highest Degree:*

Bachelor's Degree / Master's Degree / Doctorate Degree

**Age:*

18-24 / 25-34 / 35-44 / 45-54 / 55-64 / 65-74 / 75 or more

**Teaching Years at Secondary Level:*

5-10 / 11-16 / 17-22 / 27-32 / 32 or more

Research Guiding Questions:

1. Considering the different language barriers English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) experience, how many years do you consider it takes for an ESOL student to acquire the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to master the State's Standardized Tests? Explain.
2. What are your recommendations to other teachers in helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school?
3. State and explain your agreement or disagreement with the following statement:
Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams).
4. What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist you in differentiating your ESOL students' language acquisition levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary: (1) Emergent, (2) Beginning, (3) Early Intermediate, (4) Intermediate, (5) Advanced? Explain.
5. Which content vocabulary acquisition strategies do you consider are the most recommended for ESOL students at the tenth grade level in order to accelerate their preparation for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?
6. Based on your knowledge and experience, what encounters led you to the decisions made on the previous question (Question Five)?

7. Considering that if ESOL students do not pass the required state's tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, what are the challenges that you face when preparing these students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?
8. What resources should teachers use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their ESOL students for the State's Standardized Tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

Appendix B

Validation Instrument for Interview Questions

DATA COLLECTION VALIDATION INSTRUMENT

Guiding Questions for the Semi-Structured Individual Interview

Assessor (Department Head) / Identification Number: _____

Years of High School Teaching Experience: _____

Instructions: Please read each question and mark an **X** on top of the space titled **VALID & RELIABLE** if the question is clear and precise in format/presentation, question quality/content, spelling/mechanics/grammar, and length.

Or, mark **X** on the space titled **NEEDS IMPROVEMENT** if the question it is not clear and specific, and please use the space titled **COMMENTS** to provide feedback or reactions that may improve the question's accuracy.

Research Guiding Questions

1. Considering the different language barriers ESOL students experience, how many years do you consider it takes for them to acquire the (CALP) Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency to master the State's Standardized Tests? Explain.

VALID &	NEEDS	COMMENTS
RELIABLE	IMPROVEMENT	
(Clear & Precise)	(Not Clear &	
	Precise)	

2. What are your recommendations to other teachers in helping ESOL students accelerate their process of adapting to the new cultural differences in a school?

VALID &	NEEDS	COMMENTS
RELIABLE	IMPROVEMENT	
(Clear & Precise)	(Not Clear &	
	Precise)	

3. State and explain your agreement or disagreement with the following statement:

Immersing new ESOL students, without any assistance, into regular English classrooms accelerates their acquisition of content vocabulary (academic language) to communicate and master the State's Standardized Tests.

VALID & RELIABLE	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT	COMMENTS
(Clear & Precise)	(Not Clear & Precise)	

4. What professional development workshops have you received from your school district to assist you in differentiating your students' language acquisition levels for best teaching practices of the most recommended content vocabulary: (1) Emergent, (2) Beginning, (3) Early Intermediate, (4) Intermediate, (5) Advanced)? Explain.

VALID & RELIABLE	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT	COMMENTS
(Clear & Precise)	(Not Clear & Precise)	

5. Which content vocabulary acquisition strategies do you consider are the most recommended for limited English proficient students at the tenth-grade level in order to accelerate their preparation for the state's standardized tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

VALID & RELIABLE (Clear & Precise)	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT (Not Clear & Precise)	COMMENTS

6. Based on your knowledge and experience, what led you to the decisions made on the previous question (Question Five)?

VALID & RELIABLE (Clear & Precise)	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT (Not Clear & Precise)	COMMENTS

7. Considering that if limited English proficient students do not pass the required tests, they do not graduate; as an ESOL teacher, what are the challenges that you face when preparing these students for the state standardized tests (FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT, Final Semester Exams)?

VALID & RELIABLE (Clear & Precise)	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT (Not Clear & Precise)	COMMENTS

8. What resources do you recommend teachers should use when they are trying to identify the most recommended content vocabulary words for their class subject in order to prepare their limited English proficient students for the state's standardized tests (Examples: FSA, EOC, ACT, SAT)?

VALID & RELIABLE (Clear & Precise)	NEEDS IMPROVEMENT (Not Clear & Precise)	COMMENTS

Appendix C

Letter of Interview Approval Presented to the School's Director

Metropolitan University

School of Education

Doctorate Program

August_____, 2018

Dear Mr. Hart:

My name is Kenneth Cembalest Juarbe, and I am a doctoral student of the Metropolitan University in San Juan, Puerto Rico. During the next two months I will be working on the data process related to my dissertation. The title of my study is: **Recommended Content Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies for Limited English Proficient Secondary Level Students.**

Furthermore, I would like to ask for your authorization to proceed interviewing several teachers at the secondary level (tenth grade) concerning the theme of the study. The researcher will establish a respectful and professional presentation throughout the process and promises to maintain all the information confidential. A copy of the interview questions will be provided.

After the principal signs the approval on the bottom of this document, the investigator will start with the task required for the interview.

Thanks for your collaboration and support.

Sincerely,

Kenneth Cembalest Juarbe,

Investigator

813-328-9897

(Signature of Approval)

Kenneth Hart

Principal

Appendix D

Letter of Approval from X Public School



October 30, 2018

Dear Mr. Cembalest:

Congratulations! I hereby give you authorization to proceed and interview teachers at Braulio Alonso High School, located in 8302 Montague Street, Tampa, Florida, 33635.

The title of the study is: **Recommended Content Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies for Limited English Proficient Secondary Level Students.** The purpose of the study is to identify, describe, and analyze from a phenomenological perspective which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary (tenth grade) level students.

Sincerely,

Mr. Kenneth Hart

Principal

Appendix E

Letter of Invitation and Approval for the Interviewee

Metropolitan University

School of Education

Doctorate Program

_____, 2018

Dear Professor:

My name is Kenneth Cembalest Juarbe, student of the Metropolitan University from Cupey, Puerto Rico (School of Education; Doctorate Program). During the next two months I will be working on an educational investigation. The title of the investigation is: **Recommended Content Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies for Limited English Proficient Secondary Level Students**

I would like to ask for your authorization to proceed and invite you for an interview concerning the theme of the study. The investigator will establish a respectful and professional presentation throughout the interview and promises to maintain all the information confidential.

As soon as the teacher initials the approval, the investigator will start with the task required for the interview.

Thanks for your collaboration and support.

Sincerely,

Kenneth Cembalest Juarbe, Principal Investigator

813-328-9897

E-mail: kennethcembalest@yahoo.com

_____ I accept to participate in the investigation.

Name of the participant (Print): _____

Appendix F
Informed Consent



ANA G. MÉNDEZ UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

DOCTORAL PROGRAM

Consent Form

Title of the Investigation: Recommended Content Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies For Limited English Proficient Secondary Level Students

Name of the Investigator: Kenneth Cembalest **Name of the mentor:** Dr. Antonio Serra

The following consent form may contain words that you may not understand. Please, if there is any doubt ask the investigator of the study for further explanations.

Introduction

You have been invited to participate in a research study. Before you decide to participate in the study, please read the consent form carefully, including its risks and benefits.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify, describe, and analyze from a phenomenological perspective which are the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient secondary tenth grade level students at X Public High School in the state of Florida.

Participants in the Study

The participants in the study will be six English speaking Highly Effective secondary tenth grade level teachers from the public system in X County; Florida.

Procedure

Before the IRB approves the protocol to access the participants for the interviews, the investigator, through a written consent will solicit the authorization of the school's director. After obtaining the authorization from the school's director and the IRB's approval, the investigator will arrange a second date and time to meet again with the school's director to discuss specific details like: the selection of the six participants and the date, the hour, and the location in the school site where the interviews will be taking place. Once these specific details are established and the principal has determined a safe and private location for the interviews, the investigator will proceed with the investigation. Approximately a week later, through the school's director as the main contact, a first meeting will be coordinated with each participant to

explain specific details of the process. Finalizing that first meeting with the participants and confirming their participation in the semi-structured interview, the investigator will proceed to compromise through a written consent form, the specific time and date. Once the time and date are settled, the investigator will explain to each participant the location in the school site where the interview will take place. All interviews will follow a guide with a set of questions. Each interview will be one on one and face to face at the participants' school site inside a secure and private classroom selected by the school's principal, and where the participants do not feel confined or unease to express their experiences. Each participant will receive a copy of the consent form with the investigator's contact number for future reference. In addition, if at any moment during the process of the investigation a participant decides to resign from the investigation, he or she may do so without any kind of consequences. Immediately, the investigator will proceed to shred their documentation and destroy any USB or recording used in the process, and a new participant will be selected to fill in his or her space. Once the corroboration phase is fulfilled, a one on one semi-structured interview of eight open-ended questions and a set of socio-demographic compilation of facts (Gender, Teaching Subject, Academic Background/Highest Degree, Age, and Teaching Years at the Secondary Level) from the participants will take place in order to concentrate more on the participants' ideas, emotions, feelings, experiences, knowledge, abilities, and preferences.

Possible Risks

The procedure may present minimum risks for the participants like tiredness or lack of interest.

Benefits of the Study

The potential benefits for the participants would be their auto-reflection on the topic of content vocabulary acquisition strategies, and their professional and personal development. A major benefit for our society is the fact of recognizing and identifying the most recommended content vocabulary acquisition strategies for limited English proficient tenth grade level students. It will provide educators better knowledge of which strategies experienced teachers consider work best with ESOL students. By doing so, other teachers can incorporate strategies in their lessons that may lead ESOL students to a higher English language proficiency level which will help when taking state mandatory exams like the FCAT or FSA that are required for graduation. Potentially, increasing the number of possible college or university candidates for the ESOL population.

Participants' Incentive

The participants will not receive any compensation for their participation in the study. Their participation is totally voluntary.

Privacy and Confidentiality

For purposes of confidentiality and facilitation of the data analysis, every semi-structured interview will be coded with a specific number that will represent each individual participant throughout their interview and that only the investigator can identify. To keep an organized inventory of all the data from each individual participant like field notes, documents, or memos

written while thinking of the information, the investigator will number code each complete set of data using the participant's individual interview number code. Once completed the interview, the digitally recorded material with voice distortion will be manipulated by the investigator only for research purposes and secured in a locked file cabinet. After a period of five years the investigator will proceed to destroy all the interviews' digital recordings and any USB device used as part of the investigation. The investigator will also shred and dispose of all the printed material, and anything else pertaining to the study. The results for this investigation may be published in educational magazines, but the participants' identity will not be revealed. All the information may be revised by the IRB of the University System, Ana G. Méndez. The IRB from SUAGM is a group of people that will independently revise the investigations according to the requisites. All the information will be kept confidential.

Compensation for Damages

No alternative payment or form of compensation for any possible damages related with participating in the investigation will be provided.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you do decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any moment without any penalties.

Contact Information

For additional information concerning the study or your participation in it, or you understand you suffered a lesion from your participation in the study, please contact:

Kenneth Cembalest

kennethcembalest@yahoo.com

813-328-9897

Dr. Antonio Serra

antonioserra@gmail.com

787-565-3399

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in the study, you may contact:

University System Ana G. Méndez

Compliance Office

Central Administration

Telephone (787) 751-0178 exts. 7195-7197

E-mail: cumplimiento@suagm.edu

I certify that I have received copies of the signed consent, and I am interested.

I certify that I have received copies of the consent form, but I am not interested.

Consent

I have read the information on the consent form, or it was properly read to me. All the content in the study was explained and all the questions about the study have been cleared.

Once I sign this document I accept to participate in the study, and I certify that my participation is voluntary.

_____	_____	_____
Name of the Participant (Print Name)	Signature	(Month/day/year)
_____	_____	_____
Name of the Investigator (Print Name)	Signature	(Month/day/year)