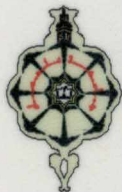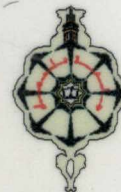People's Democratic and Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Abu-Bakr Belkaid University - Tlemcen -

Faculty of Arts and Languages

Department of Letters and Languages
English Section

The Application of Computerized Corpus in English Vocabulary Teaching

(The Case of Third Year Literary Stream Secondary School ELT Textbook: New Prospects)

Dissertation submitted to the department of foreign languages in candidacy for the degree of « Magister » in Applied Linguistics and TEFL.

Presented by:
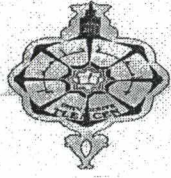Ms BELKHIR Fatima Zohra.

Supervised by:
Pr. BENMOUSSAT Smail.

Jury Members:

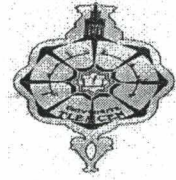|			
Dr. SERIR Ilhem	(MC)	Président	(University of Tlemcen)
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Academic Year
2009 - 2010

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Acknowledgements

Dedications

I dedicate this dissertation to:

- *My parents*

  To you Mum

  For you Dad

- *The memory of my Grand Mother*

- *My beloved sisters, colleagues and friends.*

Abstract

The present dissertation focuses on the area of vocabulary teaching in the foreign language classroom. It attempts to highlight the way computer corpus data can be used as source for EFL (English Foreign Language) vocabulary description, selection and instruction.

The basic foundation of language learning and proficiency is vocabulary acquisition, since this language element pervades all language skills areas: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Therefore, vocabulary helps learners in both language comprehension and production. However, its learning seems to be difficult and challenging to foreign language learners and the main reasons lay in the large amount of vocabulary and the language little exposure in the learning environment, assuming that the classroom is the only place where the foreign language is formally heard and normally used.

In fact, it becomes a necessity to give serious consideration to more reliable language sources for designing relevant teaching materials to achieve successful language learning. Given the challenge involved in EFL vocabulary selection and instruction the present research paper endeavours to highlight the way corpus data analyses and outcomes which the researcher considers to be relevant and transformable in terms of how effective they are in the area of EFL vocabulary selection and instruction.

The aim of the resent study is threefold. At first, along a descriptive study, the attempt is to give an overview of how the teaching of vocabulary is viewed in literature on foreign language education and to highlight the way computer corpus-data enhances the difficulties and encourages the facilities involved in EFL vocabulary teaching and learning processes (Chapter one). Then, through an analytic study, the attempt is to examine and analyze the teaching and learning situation of EFL vocabulary in Algerian secondary education; the case of third year literary stream pupils (Chapter two). The data of the study are collected through a semi-structured interview devoted to 10 EFL teachers and two questionnaires conducted among both teachers and 35 third year secondary school pupils. Latter on, the gathered data are analyzed in tables and graphs and interpreted both quantitatively and qualitatively (Chapter three). Eventually, on the basis of literature reading and the field work outcomes, the researcher highlights some suggestions and recommendations (Chapter four) which may overcome to some extent the difficulties teachers and learners encounter as far as vocabulary knowledge, selection and instruction are concerned.

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AF   Année Fondamental (Fundamental Schooling).

AWL   Academic Word List.

CD   Compact Disk.

CIC   Cambridge International Corpus.

COBUILD   Collins Birmingham University International Language   Database.

EFL   English Foreign Language.

ELT   English Language Teaching.

ESP   English for Specific Purposes

GSL   General Service List.

L1   First Language.

L2   Second Language.

OHP   Over Head Projector.

SLVA   Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition.

S/ FLL   Second or Foreign Language Learning

Vs.   Versus.

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General Introduction

As the English language has been firmly established as the uncontested international language all over the world and much attention and concern are paid is paid to its teaching and learning. It is generally believed that vocabulary is an important component in target language teaching and learning, as it pervades all four skills areas: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Therefore, vocabulary knowledge considerably helps language learners in both comprehension and production.

Indeed, the acquisition of a rich vocabulary is crucial for it plays a significant role in language proficiency. Yet, it is also one of the most difficult and challenging aspects of learning a foreign language. The main reasons lie in the large amount of vocabulary itself and the language little exposure in the learning environment assuming that the classroom is the only place where the foreign language is 'formally' heard and 'normally' used. Therefore, it is necessary to give serious consideration to reliable language resources, teaching materials and learning strategies for successful learning of vocabulary.

Actually, there has been a revival of interest in vocabulary teaching in the recent years. The recent availability of computerized databases of words (or corpora) and the development of new approaches to language teaching, which are much more 'word-centered', such as the "lexical approach", have heavily contributed in raising awareness about vocabulary importance to language learning. However these developments have been slow to reach teachers in a form that is easily transferable to the classroom. This paper attempts to bridge this gap by outlining in the theoretical background the way computerized corpus information can be integrated into EFL vocabulary teaching.

Vocabulary teaching is an important as well as challenging component in language teaching and learning classes; and the English language is no exception. Given the challenge involved in selecting, teaching and learning words in a foreign language; the present research endeavours to highlight the way data corpus analyses and outcomes which one considers to be relevant and transformable in terms of how they inform pedagogy or challenge how to select and what to teach in the area of English vocabulary. Yet, the study stops at the classroom door. It does not intend to tell instructors how to teach and what to do in their own classes; only they can know best what is effective and appropriate in their specific local context. They are by far the best persons to take the final practical steps on this research, if they judge the work to have value. Therefore, this research paper will be set to answer the following question: in what ways or to what extent can computer-corpus

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data analyses enhance the tasks of both vocabulary teaching and learning to EFL literary stream teachers and learners likewise?

In fact, this dissertation intends to answer the aforesaid problematics from which the following research questions are formulated:

1- What beliefs do EFL teachers and learners hold about English vocabulary learning?

2- What barriers and strategies do EFL teachers and learners encounter while teaching and learning vocabulary in their language classes using the textbook New Prospects?

3- How can data corpus ease the burden and facilitate the processes involved in English vocabulary selection and instruction?

4- What are the EFL teachers' and learners' attitudes regarding the application of data corpus in their EFL language classes?

Out of these questions, the following hypotheses are made:

- EFL teachers and learners in Algerian secondary schools would regard vocabulary teaching and learning important to language learning and at the same time a difficult task.

- Both participants might display a lack of interest and motivation to EFL vocabulary teaching and learning. As a consequence, teachers may opt for a range of flexible teaching techniques and learners for learning strategies to go beyond these barriers.

- Data corpus as an informed materials would enhance EFL vocabulary knowledge and selection and may motivate teachers and learners for they can be sure that the language they are practicing is 'modern', i.e. used in everyday situations, and targeted to situations they are likely to find themselves in and corresponds to what they will hear and see in real conversations, movies, radio and TV shows, newspapers, books, Internet texts and magazines.

- Both teachers and learners would welcome the idea of applying corpus data, as an informed material, in their EFL vocabulary teaching and learning materials.

The study takes place at a secondary school named Daoud Mohamed El-Djebli in Remchi -Tlemcen. The foreign language teachers and learners chosen for this investigation are those in charged of teaching third year literary stream pupils who are expected to sit for their baccalaureate exams so as to go on their studies in higher education institutions. One opts for this sample so as to investigate on the English vocabulary knowledge these learners do have and need as a base to go further in different branches of studies.

This four chapters dissertation opens with a literary review that informs the basic questions as far as the target vocabulary teaching and learning situation and data corpus are concerned. Additionally the researcher strives to outline in the first chapter critical knowledge for computerized corpus application and effectiveness on English vocabulary selection and instruction for textbook writers and language teachers respectively. This is intended to illustrate and explain the application and adaptation of data corpus in teacher education and development as regards English vocabulary teaching and learning. Later on, based on selected research instruments, the researcher points out, analyzes and discusses the English vocabulary teaching and learning situation in the Algerian secondary school level of education _ literary stream pupils (chapters two and three). Finally, based on the gathered data, one reveals the facilities and the difficulties Algerian teachers and learners encounter in selecting, teaching and learning EFL vocabulary in their language classes. Besides, some suggestions and recommendations are listed on the light of the study outcomes for a 'better' vocabulary teaching and learning, so as to conclude the present research paper.

Chapter One

Vovabulary and Computer Corpus Review

Chapter One: Vocabulary and Computer Corpus Review.

1.1 Introduction :

For many years, vocabulary was seen as incidental to the main purpose of language teaching, namely, acquisition of grammatical knowledge about the language. Recently, however, methodologists and linguists have increasingly paid attention to vocabulary as it pervades all four skill areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Perhaps the greatest tools teachers can give learners for succeeding, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary and the skills for using those words as their ability to function in today's complex social and economic worlds is mightily affected by their language skills and word knowledge. Therefore, language teachers in general and foreign language teachers in particular should attribute importance to teaching vocabulary in their classes since words play an important role in expressing one's feelings, emotions, and ideas to others during the act of communication (spoken or written).It follows from this, that vocabulary is of great importance for foreign language teaching and learning.

1.2 Vocabulary:

1.2.1 *Vocabulary: definition*

An initial key question is to enquire into what is meant by 'vocabulary'. A commonsense view implies that vocabulary consists of words, albeit categorized and often with multiple meanings for each word.

The first definition of vocabulary in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (A S Hornby, 2000) is *"all the words that a person knows or uses"*. The next definition is *"all the words of in a particular language"*. Similarly, the Random House Webster's Unabridged Dictionary (Flexner, 2003) defines vocabulary as *"the stock of words used by or known to a particular people or group of persons"*. A following definition is *"the words of a language"*. At this level, one needs to denote what a word is. This latter is defined as *"a unit of language, consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation that functions as a principal carrier of meaning"*. These dictionary definitions provide brief and concise knowledge about the query. Yet, little specificity and, hence, little guidance is supplied to researchers who are concerned with vocabulary acquisition and understanding.

More technically, vocabulary is a list of *'freestanding items of language that have meaning.'* (McCarthy, 1990:3). Furthermore, Hatch and Brown (1995:7) note that

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"vocabulary refers to a list or set of words that individual speakers of a language might use". In that context, vocabulary is the name for words one must know in order to listen, speak, read and write effectively. In other words, the vocabulary of a person is defined either as the set of all words that are *understood* by that person or the set of all words likely to be *used* by that person when constructing new sentences. Following this, one may reflect on the existence of different vocabularies (the vocabulary one can only understand and not necessarily use and vice versa).

1.2.2 *Vocabulary or Vocabularies?*

The term vocabulary is usually used in its singular form to mean a person's vocabulary. However, it seems important for Beck, Mckeown and Kucan (2002) to point out that in almost all cases there are some differences in the number of words that an individual understands and uses. They also argue that even the terms "uses" and "understands" need clarification. For example, the major way in which one "uses" vocabulary is when s/he speaks and writes; the term *expressive vocabulary* is used to refer to both since there are the vocabularies one uses to express himself or herself. One "understands" vocabulary when s/he listens to speech and when s/he reads, the term *receptive vocabulary* is used to refer to listening and reading vocabularies. Finally, to round out the terminology, *meaning or oral vocabulary* refers to the combination of speaking and listening vocabularies and *literate vocabulary* refers to the combination of one's reading and writing vocabularies. Figure 1 shows the relationship of the eight different terms.

In early Second or Foreign language learning (S/FLL) stages the language learners have neither meaning vocabulary nor literate vocabulary. At first, they need to acquire a basic knowledge of how printed letters relate to the sounds of spoken words. Being able to translate print into speech allows the learners to use what they know about meaning/oral vocabulary for their literate vocabulary. So for very young learner the meaning vocabularies are larger than their literate vocabularies. This is so much the case for older learners and for adults whose meaning vocabularies are probably larger than their meaning vocabularies. They tend to have a larger group of words which they use in reading and writing than those words they use in their own speech. This is because written language is more formal, more complex and more sophisticated than spoken language.

On the light of what was said before; vocabulary represents a key instrument for its relevant importance on both areas of language learners' comprehension as well as production. Its importance in language learning is further detailed in what comes next.
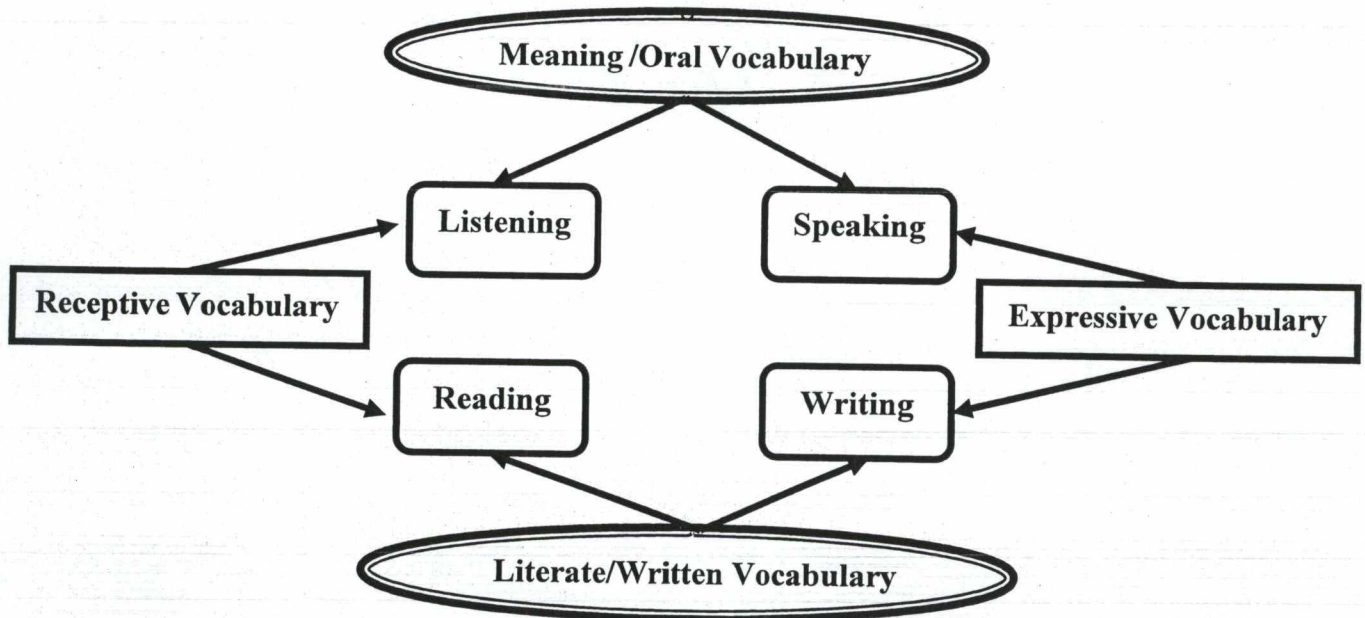
Figure 1: The Eight Different Vocabularies Relationship (Beck, Mckeown and Kucan : 2002).

1.2.3 *Types of Vocabulary*:

In teaching and learning vocabulary, it is essential to distinguish between different types of vocabulary because different types of vocabulary need different focus and treatment or some types of vocabulary will be given priorities and emphases in teaching and learning according to learners' different aims of learning.

1.2.3.1 *Spoken and Written Vocabulary:*

Although most of the existing literature on vocabulary has grown out of the study of written texts, recent corpus-based investigation of written and spoken vocabulary have enabled researchers to do more comparative study of spoken and written vocabulary in actual use. They reveal the difference between the vocabulary of written texts and the vocabulary of everyday spoken language. According to Cambridge International Corpus (CIC) Schmitt and McCarthy distinguish between spoken and written vocabulary. They note that the written list is mainly made up of '*function words, non-lexical, i.e., non-content items, including pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions*', while the spoken list seems to embrace '*some lexical words like: know, think, well, get and right*' (1997:24). Other differences are: spoken texts which seem less 'dense' than most written texts in vocabulary terms, which is characterized in language-in-action texts; repetition and lexical negotiation

occur much more often in spoken discourse than in written texts; vague and rather general words are more frequently used in everyday talk than in written texts.

These differences are quite significant when textbook writers consider what kinds of vocabulary items are important to teach in writing and in speech respectively. From the comparative study, one now knows that '*spoken language is the main source of exposure to language for communication but written language will always remain a fundamental source of input for language learning.*' (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997: 38).

1.2.3.2 Core and Non-core Vocabulary:

As the word 'core' suggests, core vocabulary refers to those words that are more central to the language than other words and tend to be the most frequently occurring ones. '*People prefer to use such words because they do have core meaning-potential*' (McCarthy, 1990). They are thought to be more 'core' because it is easy to find an antonym; also they are neutral in formality and usable in a wide variety of situations. Furthermore, an important point is that, such words can be used to paraphrase or give definitions of other words. For example, in Task 41, (McCarthy, 1990) the following instruction is given: [decide which is the core word in the set of words: slim, slender, thin, emaciated and scrawny and we can easily figure out that 'thin' is the core word.]

In ESP (English for Specific Purposes) teaching, teachers may come across subject-specific vocabulary, which is non-core as far as the language as a whole is concerned. '*This is because it is not neutral in field and is associated with a specialized topic.*' (Carter, 1988:172)

They are subject-specific core vocabulary, for example, *placebo* and *dialysis*. Learners with specific or academic purposes may need to acquire them in medical texts and lessons.

1.2.3.3 Discourse Structuring Vocabulary and Procedual Vocabulary:

In English vocabulary, there exist a number of abstract nouns that have little independent lexical content like *assumption, variety, solution, proposal and factor.*

Their main function is to structure discourse, that is, to summarize or encapsulate previously mentioned ideas and link one sentence to the next. These abstract nouns are also called 'anaphoric nouns' and belong to discourse structuring vocabulary. They are quite commonly used in expository academic prose and in newspaper articles. Therefore, it is important and necessary for second language learners, particularly, those who learn English for academic purposes to be familiar with these words.

Procedual vocabulary is characteristically used to talk about other words, paraphrase

them, define them and organize them in communication. As they are commonly used in dictionaries to give definitions, learners may find them useful when learning other words for the accumulation of their vocabulary.

1.2.3.4 Technical, Semi-technical and General Vocabulary:

In terms of teaching vocabulary in ESP, it is most important to make a distinction between the two types of vocabulary: technical and semi-technical because they are of great importance to learners studying English for specific and academic purposes. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 83) suggest resolving the overlapping six categories (Baker, 1988: 91) into two broad areas:

a). vocabulary that is used in general language but has a higher frequency of occurrence in specific and technical description and discussion.

b). vocabulary that has specialized and restricted meanings in certain disciplines and which may vary in meaning across disciplines.

It is quite clear that the first area would be referred to as semi-technical and the second area would be regarded as technical vocabulary. One can examine the following text to illustrate the difference between them.

> *We report a double blind, placebo controlled, crossover trial of an angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor, enalapril, in patients with chronic fluid overload receiving dialysis. We used a crossover study and carried out procedures within the study according to the standard of the ethics committee of this hospital. Each patient was given either enalapril or placebo in the first period of treatment and the alternative treatment in the second period; the order in which treatment was given was randomized, 13 patients receiving enalapril and 12 placebos first. Randomization was carried out by suppliers of the drug.* [Cited in Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 83)].

The technical vocabulary is quite obvious. The items are: *angiotensin, enzyme inhibitor, enalapril, chronic, dialysis and placebo.* The semi-technical vocabulary items are as follows: *report, double blind control, crossover, trial, convert, fluid, overload, receive, study, carry out, procedure, standard period treatment, randomize, randomization, supplier and drug.*

1.2.3.5 Academic Vocabulary:

So far, there have been several studies that have investigated the vocabulary learners need for academic study. The most 'useful' one is the Academic Word List by

Coxhead (1998), which was compiled from a corpus of 3.5 million running words of written academic text by examining the range and frequency of words outside the first 2000 most frequent occurring words of English, as described in General Service List (GSL) by West (1953). It contains 570 word families that occur reasonably frequently of a very wide range of academic texts and the list is not restricted to a specific discipline, which means that the words are useful for learners studying humanities, law, science, and commerce. There is a number beside each word indicating the sub-list in which it appears and it is quite convenient to look up.

1.2.4 *Vocabulary Revival and Importance to Foreign Language Learning:*

Learning a foreign language involves the development of different skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking. Although specific skills may be focused on separately for pedagogical reasons, two elements are crucial to the process of acquiring and using a language: vocabulary and grammar (Celce-Murcia, 2001). The importance of grammar has been widely recognized in ELT (English Language Teaching) methodologies (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Nunan, 2001; Swan, 2002). This situation seems to be a little different with vocabulary. In comparison to other fields of research in language learning, it is possible to state that vocabulary teaching and learning has been left to a position of secondary importance (Richards and Renandya, 2002). According to DeCarrico: *"vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching"* (2001:285).

Before the mid 1980s, vocabulary was considered the *Cinderella* of language teaching and was referred to as a 'neglected' area of second language learning and teaching (Meara, 1980). Richards was one of the first scholars to point out the fact that vocabulary is typically neglected in Foreign or Second Language (L2) instruction. He states that *"the teaching and learning of vocabulary has never aroused the same degree of interest within language teaching as have such issues as grammatical competence, reading or writing which have received considerable attention from scholars and teachers"* (1974: 73).

From the late 1980s, vocabulary was an area that had drawn researchers' interest within the mainstream of L2 acquisition (Nation 1997). Researchers realised that many of learners' difficulties, both receptively and productively, result from an inadequate vocabulary, and even when they are at higher levels of language competence and performance, they still have the need of learning vocabulary (Laufer, 1986 and Nation, 1990). One of the research implications about the importance of vocabulary is that *"lexical*

competence is at the heart of communicative competence" (Meara, 1996:35), and can be a *"prediction of school success"* (Verhallen and Schoonen, 1998: 452).

Meanwhile, there was an increasing output of teaching and learning handbooks or guidelines which directly focused on vocabulary (Carter 1987 and 1998; Gairns and Redman 1986; Gough 1996; Holden 1996; Jordan 1997; McCarthy 1990; Morgan and Rinvolucri 1986; Nation 1990; Lewis 1993, 1997; Schmitt and Schmitt 1995; Schmitt 2000; Tapia 1996).

Vocabulary has got its central and essential status in discussions about learning a language. Particular approaches were developed, like *discourse-based language teaching* (Carter and McCarthy 1988), the *lexical phrase approach* (Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992), the *lexical approach* (Lewis 1993, 1997), and the *lexical syllabus* (Sinclair and Renouf 1988; Willis 1990). Selection of core vocabulary or corpus by modern technology, (for example the Birmingham COBUILD corpus) was also systematically developed (Carter 1987, 1988; Descamps 1992; Flowerdew 1993; Sinclair and Renouf 1988; Worthington and Nation 1996). Moreover, approaches to assessing vocabulary have become particularly specialised (Nation 1993 and Read 2000). Therefore, the weak or discriminated status of vocabulary as criticised (Levenston 1979) in both L2 acquisition research and teaching methodologies has changed and is no longer the case.

Actually, the late 1990s offer a completely different picture. Vocabulary studies have received increased attention judging by the number of publications in the field, there are more empirical studies on vocabulary learning strategies. Several books on the issue of L2 vocabulary acquisition were also published during the past few years.

After the publication of, The Lexical Approach by Michael Lewis in 1993, there was an evident revival of interest in vocabulary acquisition. What this author suggests in his book is definitely compatible with the claims of the communicative approaches; however, in Lewis' proposal there seems to be a greater emphasis on the meaning and use of the different language items. He argues that *"the Lexical Approach is not a new all-embracing method, but a set of principles based on a new understanding of language."* Since Lewis' claims make so much intuitive sense, the main concern is , therefore, to investigate whether the kinds of activities and strategies proposed by Lewis (1993, 1998, 2000) and others like Nation, (1994, 2001), and Thornbury (2002) facilitate vocabulary acquisition and whether explicit teaching and incidental acquisition of vocabulary make EFL learning more effective.

This revival of interest in issues of vocabulary learning in L2 stresses the fact that vocabulary is a central component of language proficiency. In this respect, Richards J.C. and Renandya assume that:

> *Vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides*
> *much of the basis for how well learners listen, speak, read and write.*
> *Without an extensive vocabulary... learners often achieve less than*
> *their potential and may be discouraged from making use of language.*

> (2002: 252)

The importance of vocabulary knowledge to language learning is therefore highly regarded for this knowledge is not something that can ever be fully mastered; it is something that expends and deepens over the course of a lifetime. Actually, it is this what Steven Stahl (2005:72) points to *"vocabulary is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world"*.

Learning vocabulary appears to be central to language and is of great significance to language learners. Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions and ideas without which people can not convey the intended meaning. Moreover, words are the tools one uses to think, to express ideas and feelings and to learn about the world. Following this, the teaching and learning of languages can not be set apart the teaching and learning of their words. Therefore, vocabulary learning is an indispensable part of language classes and EFL classes are no exception.

In the same context, Beglar and Hunt confess that *"Vocabulary acquisition is a crucial, and in some senses, the central component in successful foreign language acquisition"* (2005: 7). It could be argued that vocabulary is the cornerstone of successful L2 acquisition. Everyone has an innate desire to name their experiences, their environment, and their reality. In some ways, vocabulary could be considered the 'meat' of a language and grammar the framework that holds it together. While it is possible to communicate without good grammar, it is virtually impossible without vocabulary. in this respect, Bowen and Marks write: *"Words are the basic of language, and thus the basic of communication. Without words, it is possible to know everything about the grammatical structure of a language, but yet to be unable to make a single utterance"* (2002: 106).

David Wilkins (1972:111) summers up the importance of vocabulary learning by saying *"without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"*. In other words, words of a language are just like bricks of a high building. Despite quite small pieces, they are vital to the great structure. In that sense, an ability to

manipulate grammatical structure does not have any potential for expressing meaning unless words are used.

In fact, methodologists and linguists emphasize and recommend teaching vocabulary because of its importance in language teaching. Vocabulary is needed for expressing meaning and in promoting the receptive (listening and reading) and the productive (speaking and writing) skills. In this context Harmer (1991, 153) notes *"If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh"*.

Actually, words appear to be the very foundation of learning therefore improving learners' vocabulary knowledge has become an educational priority. Before stating the different vocabulary teaching and learning methods, it may pay attention at first to outline the historical development of vocabulary in 'recent' English language teaching.

1.2.5 *The Background of English Vocabulary Teaching:*

In the early decades of the 20th century, vocabulary teaching and research were respectable. The Grammar Translation Method and the Reading Approach were the leading language teaching methodologies at that time. Both of these approaches involved a great deal of direct vocabulary teaching and learning (Murcia 1991:296).

The Grammar Translation Method aimed to provide the student with a detailed literary vocabulary which is learned through long lists of translated items and a bilingual dictionary and practiced through sentence translation with little opportunity to try out pronunciation (Rivers 1981:28-30). The Reading Approach attached more importance to vocabulary than grammatical skills. The vocabulary of the early readings was strictly controlled. Since the acquisition of vocabulary was regarded more prominent than the mastery of grammatical skills, expanding vocabulary as fast as possible was of great importance (Celce -Murcia and Prator 1979:3).

The Reform Movement, which was set up as a reaction to the Grammar Translation Method, stressed the primacy of spoken language and the presentation of the written word only after the spoken form had been provided. It was emphasized that *"new vocabulary should only be met in sentences and meaningful contexts"* (Richards and Rodgers 2001:10).

The Direct Method, which grew out of the Reform Movement, made emphasis on interaction for language acquisition and acquiring an acceptable pronunciation from the

beginning. It introduced vocabulary through "classroom objects, mime, drawings and explanations, or even texts supplemented by pictures" (Rivers 1981:32-33).

The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching were British structuralist approaches to language teaching developed between the 1930's and the 1960's (Richards and Rodgers: 2001). In the Oral Approach, grammar and vocabulary was carefully chosen and graded. This ultimately led to the Vocabulary Control Movement and West's 'A General Service List of English Words' 1953, which had a permanent effect on the grading of vocabulary (Schmitt: 2000 and Zimmerman: 1997). In Situational Language Teaching, the meaning of words was not to be given via explanation in either the mother tongue or the target language but was to be induced from the way the form was used in a situation. The learner was expected to deduce the meaning of a particular vocabulary item from the situation in which it was presented. The meaning of new words was not conveyed through translation. It was made clear visually with objects, pictures, action and mime (Richards and Rodgers: 2001).

The Audio-lingual Method was shaped after the Second World War when the need for foreign language speakers was better appreciated. In this method, the amount of vocabulary presented was kept low (Thornbury: 2002) and was chosen for its simplicity (Schmitt: 2000). It was assumed that; when grammatical fluency was present, exposure to the foreign language itself lead to vocabulary development (Coady: 1993). It was also stressed that knowing too much vocabulary would cause students to have a false sense of security (Zimmerman: 1997).

The Cognitive Approach, which emerged as a reaction against the defects of the Audio-lingual Approach and its behaviourist features at the end of the 1960s and beginning of the 1970s, took as its theoretical base the Transformational-Generative Grammar of Chomsky (Stern: 1991). In this approach, the acquisition of an adequate vocabulary was crucial for successful L2 use. Students could not use the structures and functions during the act of communication without having sufficient amount of vocabulary. In a cognitive class, the language teacher had to move from competence to performance. To put it another way, he was expected to follow the presentation, practice and the application stages. To teach the meanings of the lexical items, techniques like contextualization, demonstrations, drawings, real objects, flashcards, Over Head Projector (OHP), etc. were used to a great extent. Moreover, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, collocations, cognates and semantic fields, etc. were also utilized by language teachers.

The Communicative Approach is a renowned British Approach to language teaching the emergence of which dates back to the mid-1960s. Especially, British applied linguists like Henry Widdowson, M. Halliday, C. Brumfit, K. Johnson, and D.Wilkins leaded to this communicative movement, advocating that communicative proficiency and functions of language should be emphasized over the mastery of structures. Dell Hymes stressed the need to teach communicative competence (i.e. the ability to use the target linguistic system effectively and appropriately). Concepts like context, use, effective communication, communicative function, comprehensible pronunciation, etc. were given importance in this approach. Şenel (2002) emphasizes that new words are not presented in isolation, but in the context of a complete sentence, and in a meaningful situation. This way, the words acquired meaning when they appeared with a particular definition in a determined context. Moreover, Thornbury (2002) stated that coursebooks began to incorporate communicative activities specifically targeting vocabulary since the meaning-giving role of lexis was recognized in this approach.

The Lexical Approach was developed by Michael Lewis in 1993. This approach stresses the importance of vocabulary as being basic to communication. It is claimed that if learners do not recognize the meaning of keywords, they will be unable to participate in the conversation, even if they know the morphology and the syntax of the foreign language. However, Lewis states that the Lexical Approach is not simply a shift of emphasis from grammar to vocabulary teaching since *'language consists not of traditional grammar and vocabulary, but often of multi-word prefabricated chunks.'* (Lewis, 1997:7). Hence, the Lexical Approach emphasizes language as prefabricated chunks that the learner can take and use to promote fluency: collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms, catchphrases, sayings, sentence frames, social formulae and discourse markers being the most significant chunks for the foreign language learner (Thornbury: 2002). This approach has influenced coursebooks and dictionaries. It is simply due to this reason that many coursebooks and dictionaries incorporate collocational exercises and information in the present times.

In recent years, Content-based Instruction has gained popularity in foreign language learning and teaching. This approach has been utilized in immersion programmes, teaching languages for specific purposes, and for teaching all levels of proficiency. In this approach, vocabulary is completely contextualized and courses which have carefully designed the scope and the spiralling sequence of the content manage to recycle both the content and the associated vocabulary. Many language programmes also choose content to conform to the

knowledge students already possess and texts may either be authentic or specially written (Stryker and Leaver: 1997).

On the light of what was mentioned before, it seems important to note that vocabulary teaching is an area of worthy effort and investigation and that of English is for being the universal language. Indeed, this language element is needed to be taught and learned and appears to have different phases so as its teaching and learning is accomplished successfully.

1.2.6 *Vocabulary Teaching Components:*

Vocabulary instruction generally involves three components: vocabulary selection, word knowledge and teaching techniques.

1.2.6.1 *Vocabulary Selection:*

Traditionally, teachers used to select and present vocabulary from concrete to abstract. Words like 'door', 'window', 'desk', etc., which are concrete, used to be taught at beginning levels. However, words like 'honesty', 'beauty' etc., which are abstract words, used to be taught at advanced levels because they are not 'physically represented' in the teaching and learning environment and are very difficult to explain.

Nowadays methodologists suggest that teachers can decide and select the words to be taught on the basis of how frequently they are used by speakers of the language. That is, the most commonly used words should be taught first (Harmer: 1991).

One can get information about which words will be most useful for learners of English by looking at frequency counts of vocabulary. *"Usually a vocabulary count is done by making a list of the words in a particular text or group of texts and counting how often and where they occur. Some of the more recent counts have used computers to list the words and count their frequency"* (Nation, 2001: 18). Besides that, teachers can decide which words are useful and should be taught to their learners on the basis of semantics. This means, that the word is more useful if it covers more things than if it only has one very specific meaning. For example, the word 'book', which is taught at beginning levels, has wider usage than the words 'notebook', 'textbook', etc. Furthermore, Nation (2001) notes that frequency and exposure are not enough to be used when teachers select and prepare a word list for learners of English. So he suggests other criteria, such as language needs, availability and familiarity, regularity and ease of learning or learning burden.

Teachers can help their learners enrich and increase vocabulary. They can also help the learners to build a new store of words to select from when they want to express

themselves. If any learner can handle grammar correctly, that does not mean that he can express himself fluently, unless he has a store of words to select from. Therefore, teachers are a very important factor in selecting and teaching English vocabulary, and they have to design vocabulary syllabi according to their learners' needs. As a result, *"teachers' vocabulary work can be directed toward useful words and can give learners practice in useful skills"* (Nation: 1990, 1).

The selection of words which are to be taught to the students is a very important procedure in the language learning process. However, the word selection process does not mean that the students will be fluent in expressing themselves in English upon learning that list, i.e., what students need to know regarding vocabulary is the word's meaning, use, formation and grammar.

1.2.6.2 Vocabulary Knowledge:

When conveying the meaning to the language learners, teachers should teach their pupils that a word may have more than one meaning when used in different contexts. For example, the word "book" has at least twelve different meanings when used in context. It has eight meanings as a noun, two meanings as a verb and three different meanings when used with prepositions as phrasal verbs. One may say *"I booked my ticket three days ago"*; another *"I booked him for speeding"* and so on (Harmer: 1991). In fact, teachers should make the vocabulary teaching and learning process clear and easy for their learners when conveying any meaning; otherwise the student may feel bored and become fed up with learning vocabulary.

The meaning of words can be communicated in many different ways. Nation (1990) suggests that teachers can convey meaning to their students by demonstration or pictures (using an object, using a cut out figure, using gesture, using OHP, performing and action, photographs, blackboard drawings or diagrams and pictures from books) and by verbal explanation (analytical definition, putting the new word in a defining context, and translating into another language). Besides that, teachers should involve learners in discovering the words' meanings by themselves and let them make efforts to understand words' meanings. When the pupils are involved in discovering meaning, they will 'seldom' forget those meanings and they will be able to express themselves fluently.

When a single word has various meanings, the teacher should decide which meanings are to be taught first, i.e., the teacher must decide which meanings occur most frequently and which meanings the learners need most. As a result, the pupils will be motivated rather than bored and they will gradually build their own store of words which

will be a basis for communication at any time. Furthermore, the learners should be familiar with the words' meanings when words are used in metaphors and idioms, and they should know when to choose the right word for the right place. Harmer states that: *"We know that the word 'hiss', for example, describes the noise that snakes make. But we stretch its meaning to describe the way people talk to each other ("Don't move or you're dead," she hissed.). That is, metaphorical use"* (1991:157).

Language learners also need to know the different forms which words have and when to use them. Thus the verb 'run' has the participle 'running' and 'run'. The present participle 'running' can be used as an adjective and 'run' can also be a noun. Getting familiar with the different forms of words, learners can easily know how to use the words in writing and speaking. Therefore, word formation is a very important part in teaching vocabulary.

Moreover, word grammar is one of the most important parts that learners should be taught carefully. Teachers should give them the opportunity to be exposed to grammatical patterns and to practice them frequently, such as nouns (countable and uncountable), verb complementation, phrasal verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Therefore, *"different parts of speech should usually be taught separately because they occur in differing sentence pattern, but they need not be widely separated in a course if their meanings are very similar"*(Nation, 1990, 57). Teaching vocabulary is not just conveying the meaning to the students and asking them to learn those words by heart. If teachers believe that the words are worth explaining and learning, then it is important that they should do this efficiently. Teachers should use different techniques and activities in teaching English vocabulary to motivate the learners, enrich their vocabulary and enable them to speak and write English properly.

1.2.6.3 Vocabulary Teaching Techniques and Exercises:

Indeed, much has been outlined about the techniques and activities that teachers can employ and use in teaching target language vocabulary such as presentation, discovery techniques and practice. In fact, research experiments have identified some common vocabulary teaching techniques.

According to Ur (1996:63), there are different ways of presenting new vocabulary. In the following, different techniques of presenting the meaning of new vocabulary are shown:

- *Concise definition.*   - *Detailed description (of appearance, qualities...).*
- *Examples (hyponyms).*   - *Illustration (picture, object).*

- *Demonstration (acting, mime).*   - *Context (story or sentence in which the item occurs.)*

- *Synonym.*   - *Opposite(s) (antonyms).*

- *Translation.*   - *Associated ideas, collocations.*

Along with, Murcia (1991:301-302) lists different techniques used in presenting new vocabulary as follows:

- *Visual Aids (Pictures, Objects).*   - *Word Relations (Synonyms, Antonyms).*

- *Pictorial Schemata (diagrams, grids, tree diagrams, or stepped scales).*

- *Definition, Explanation, Examples, and Anecdotes.*

- *Context.*   - *Word Roots and Affixes.*

In her work, <u>Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language</u> (1991), Celce Murcia describes and explains an approach to vocabulary teaching which she termed "3 C's Approach" (conveying meaning, checking understanding and consolidation).it is an approach in which teachers are recommended to follow the above mentioned stages.

In stage1 (conveying meaning), the items are presented to the students. In stage 2 (checking for comprehension) exercises test how far the students have grasped the meaning of the items. In stage 3 (consolidation), students deepen their understanding of the items through use and creative problem-solving activities. (Celce-Murcia, 1991: 301).

In the stage of *"conveying meaning"*, the presentation of new vocabulary items to learners can be done in many ways, so that the learners can understand and grasp the words' meanings. In the beginning levels, teachers can convey meanings by bringing 'realia' into the classroom, i.e., teachers can bring the objects themselves to the classroom and show them to the learners, such as 'pens', 'rulers', 'balls'. However, when that becomes impossible (to bring the object to the classroom, such as 'cars', 'animals') teachers can show their pupils pictures of those items. Besides that, teachers can mime or do an action or a gesture to convey meaning. Concepts like running, walking, or smoking are easy to present in this way. At the advanced levels, teachers can convey meaning by using the techniques of word relations (synonyms or antonyms), definitions, explanations, examples, anecdotes, contexts and word roots and affixes. Below is an example by Celce-Murcia which may help us understand what some of the above mentioned techniques mean.

If the teacher is explaining the item "a guided tour", s/he may ask the class to imagine a museum or an art gallery in which there is a group of

people listening to a man explaining a picture. The man goes from this picture to the next picture and the people follow him. The teacher explains that the man is called a guide and the group is on a guided tour. If this is not clear, the teacher can illustrate with another example, perhaps of a guided tour of a city. (1991: 302)

Actually, all of the above mentioned techniques are very useful for teaching new lexical items. They can help the teacher to make his lesson interesting and useful. Using these ways, the teacher can motivate his pupils and get them involved in the teaching learning process.

After the stage of *"conveying meaning"*, the teacher should check the learners' understanding, i.e., the teacher can prepare different kinds of exercises to check the pupils' vocabulary comprehension. Celce-Murcia suggests different kinds of activities for checking the learners' understanding, such as fill-in-the-blank, making pairs and sorting exercises. In the fill-in-the-blank activity, the teacher gives the students either sentences or short passages with missing words, and then the students have to consider the context of the sentences to work out the probable missing words. In the matching pair's activities, the students may be asked to pair up verbs with appropriate nouns, mini dialogues, definitions, idioms or funny definitions.

If teachers want to make sure that their students can use the word properly and can express themselves fluently, they should go to the last stage, which is *"consolidation"*. Implementing this stage, the teachers can ask their pupils to handle problem-solving tasks, writing a story or dialogue, discussions and role-play.

Thornbury (2002) discusses several techniques and procedures a teacher might choose to help learners acquire new vocabulary items. The underlying premise is that sometimes there is a need for the instructor's direct intervention in the teaching of selected vocabulary items. Thornbury admonishes teachers to consider important issues such as how many words to present at a time, whether to present the meaning or the form of a word first, and whether to use translation, as opposed to using some type of visual or verbal illustration. This reflection will enable teachers to make appropriate choices. Thornbury adds that the procedure a teacher follows to help learners become aware of how the grammar of a given word works is very similar to the one learners use to understand collocations. The key is to provide learners with rich data and to guide them to pay attention to patterns and to notice.

Since Lewis (1997) claims that most of the activities used in the Communicative Approach are compatible with the Lexical Approach, then what teachers need to do is to adapt activities so that the tasks have a clear lexical focus. To achieve this goal, Lewis (1997: 205) points out that teachers should do the following:

• Consciously take every chance to expand the learners' phrasal lexicon.

• Develop learners' awareness of word-grammar as well as sentence grammar.

• Highlight fixed expressions and prototypical examples, so ensuring learners have maximum benefit from the language they meet.

• Encourage accurate observation and noticing by learners, but without excessive analysis.

• Use many different ways to increase learners' awareness of the value of noticing, recording and learning multi-word items.

• Encourage learners to keep a well-organized lexical notebook.

• Encourage lexical, but not structural, comparison between L1 and L2.

• Help learners to hear and learn language in multi-word units.

• Talk more informally, but in a carefully controlled way, with your class.

• Tell simplified anecdotes (true or otherwise): increase carefully-controlled teacher talking time.

• Take a global, holistic view of pronunciation.

• Value successful language at all times, even if it is not formally accurate.

Furthermore, in the preface to his second book, Implementing the Lexical Approach, Lewis (1998: 3) argues that implementing the lexical approach classes does not mean a radical upheaval, likely to upset colleagues, parents and learners. On the contrary, if introduced with thought and sensitivity, its introduction will be almost invisible, involving perhaps 20 or even 50 small changes in every lesson, each in itself unremarkable, but the cumulative effect will be more effective teaching and more efficient learning.

In sum, vocabulary is not a syllabus, i.e., a list of words that teachers prepare for their learners to memorize and learn by heart. Memorizing may be good and useful as a temporary technique for tests, but not for learning a foreign language. Language students need to learn vocabulary of the target language in another way. If teachers are really to teach students what words mean and how they are used, they need to show them being used together in context. Words do not just exist on their own; they live together and they depend upon each other. Therefore, teaching vocabulary correctly is a challenge for teachers and very important element in language learning.

1.2.7 The Complexity of Vocabulary Learning and Teaching:

Researchers and theorists have pointed to the fact that vocabulary knowledge teaching and learning is multi-faceted, *"a disarmingly simple term for a complex multidimensional phenomenon"* (Harley, 1996). Due to this complexity, classroom teachers must take a more comprehensive approach to vocabulary development for students in order to reach a higher quality and quantity of L2 output (Swain, 1996; Sanaoui, 1996).

There are three facets of this complexity: a) receptive versus productive vocabularies, b) breadth versus depth of vocabularies, and c) direct teaching vs. contextual inferencing.

1.2.7.1 Receptive Vs. Productive:

One seemingly obvious duality of vocabulary knowledge is the receptive - versus productive capacity of the L2 learner. Receptive vocabulary refers to the words and expressions students can understand when reading or hearing them. Productive vocabulary refers to the words and expressions that the students can use correctly when producing oral or written language. In fact, both capacities need to be developed to communicate effectively.

Paribakht and Wesche (1996) adapted the Gass (1988) framework for language acquisition to the realm of vocabulary development. The framework specifies the stages of vocabulary acquisition from first exposure to output:

1. *Apperceived input:* is when students are made to "notice" the vocabulary and then connect it to past learning.

2. *Comprehended input* is similar to Krashen's *"comprehensible input"* but goes a step further in assuring that the student has understood it.

3. *Intake* is when the student uses the vocabulary in various situations.

4. *Integration* is the internalization of the new vocabulary.

5. *Output* is the use of the lexical items in the student's production.

This hierarchical framework clearly delineates the middle processes needed to move learners from the receptive stage to the productive stage. It is imperative that repeated exposure and manipulation of the vocabulary be available for the learner to internalize and in turn produce newly acquired vocabulary.

1.2.7.2 Depth Vs. Breadth:

A second dimensional facet to vocabulary acquisition, which is key to quality language development, is depth of knowledge. *Depth* of vocabulary deals not only with

meaning, but with morphology, phonology, syntax, sociolinguistic aspects, differences between written and spoken uses, and strategies for approaching unknown words.

As teachers approach the challenge of teaching depth of vocabulary across the curriculum, it is helpful to look at continua of vocabulary knowledge. Wesche and Paribakht (1996) make reference to Cronbach's categories of increasing knowledge of words developed in 1942, which are:

1. *Generalization*: being able to define the word.

2. *Application*: selecting an appropriate use of the word.

3. *Breadth of meaning*: recalling the different meanings of the word.

4. *Precision of meaning*: applying the word correctly to all possible situations.

5. *Availability*: being able to use the word productively.

In looking at this continuum, i.e. range, it becomes clear that too often, pupils are given the message that learning vocabulary only involves the very first level of word knowledge. Teachers need to make a conscious effort to create activities that allow students to develop their vocabulary to the highest level.

A second continuum to which Wesche and Paribakht (1996) make reference is Taylor's Categories of Knowledge. The categories are not hierarchical, but are key aspects of full vocabulary knowledge (*breadth* of Vocabulary). Taylor's categories are as follows:

1. *Frequency of occurrence*

2. *Word register*

3. *Word collocation*

4. *Word morphology*

5. *Word semantics*

6. *Word polysemy and the relationship of sound to spelling*

7. *Knowledge of the equivalent of the word in the mother tongue*

These two continua give a more comprehensive view of vocabulary knowledge than has traditionally been considered by second language instructors. To effectively develop depth of vocabulary knowledge, one needs to use a check list similar to Taylor's to plan classroom activities that address all lexical components.

1.2.7.3 Direct Teaching Vs. Contextual Inferencing:

The emphasis of most teachers' vocabulary instruction entails one main tactic--encouraging students to pick up meaning from context. *"Current pedagogical trends emphasize incidental or indirect learning by resorting to contextual cues"* (Duquette and Painchaud, 1996: 143). Krashen professes that vocabulary is best learned through reading

and that other vocabulary teaching approaches are not effective. *"There is growing evidence to suggest, however, that inferring the meaning of new vocabulary in context is a lengthy and error-prone undertaking which by itself, is an inefficient way of mastering second language vocabulary"* (Raptis, 1997: 567). Incidental learning is one way to acquire lexical knowledge, but it may be ineffective and/or inefficient. Morrison (1996) claims that L2 learners need to reach a certain *"threshold level"* before they are able to use effective and inferencing procedures.

Guessing from context is not always possible, due to the learner's limited ability and also due to varied text construction. Texts range drastically in contextual quality. Due to the reality that students will encounter texts which are not context rich, teachers must offer both contextualized and decontextualized vocabulary learning activities.

Explicit instruction must also be planned for developing students' productive skills. Due to years of being encouraged to "just get the gist," the learners' immersion becomes very comfortable with ambiguity. They must be pushed to accurately use the target words in context (Swain, 1996). Lyster (1997) has shown the power of various modes of error correction. In 1987, Lyster explained that without such correction, pupils' immersion will reach eighth grade and still be producing far from native like language and admits that unplanned and explicit correction of lexical errors need to happen consistently in the classroom.

Indeed, this crucial aspect of language learning is not to be left to chance .i.e. the English vocabulary size and complexity should be tackled, selected, planned, managed, represented, encouraged and tested in a way that makes these processes less effort and time devoting than they used to be. In fact, among the many ways which lessen the complexity of the aforesaid processes in vocabulary instruction, one strongly suggests the application of computer-corpus data corpus.

1.3 English Vocabulary Instruction and Corpus Data:

With the new economic order and advances in computer technology, modern communication has greatly increased international contact. This increasing global contact has also affected the academic and business communities. It has also undoubtedly affected language teaching and learning, especially English (Warschauer and Richard, 2000). English has become a global language for international communication (Crystal: 2003). Particularly because of Internet use growth, many more people can now read, write, speak,

and listen to English via the computer. Accordingly, the Internet has become a tool for language teaching and learning (Fotos: 2004 and Brown: 2000).

The use of modern technology in teaching languages has been noticeably increasing worldwide over the past decade (Chen, Belkada, and Okamoto: 2004; Pennington: 1999; Toyoda and Harrison: 2002). With the creation of the World Wide Web (WWW), it has become possible and feasible for language teachers to make effective use of instructional materials, especially in teaching language and culture (Belz: 2003 and Thorne: 2003).

Vocabulary building is an essential component to language learning, and new developments in technology provide new tools for learners. The role of data corpus i.e. a collection of written and/or spoken texts stored by a computer; as a source for English vocabulary selection and instruction to foreign language learners is increasing, as educators recognize its ability to present authentic content that is based on accurate information about present day usage; and to create familiar activity types with authentic language that helps learners to use the language more naturally in their own conversations and classroom speaking activities. In point of that, data corpus input serves as a means to manage the effort and time consuming tasks of foreign language learning in general and vocabulary instruction and acquisition in particular.

1.3.1 *Data Corpus: Some Definitions:*

A corpus (plural corpora) is a collection of written or spoken texts which are assembled for the purpose of language study. In this respect, David Crystal (1991) writes in his work, <u>A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics</u>, a corpus means: *"A collection of linguistic data, either written texts or a transcription of recorded speech, which can be used as a starting-point of linguistic description or as a means of verifying hypotheses about a language"*. Similarly, John Sinclair (1991: 171) defines corpus as *"A collection of naturally occurring language text, chosen to characterize a state or variety of a language."*

Actually, written texts like newspapers and magazines can be stored electronically in the computer by means of a scanner, a CD (Compact Disk), or the Internet. Spoken texts like conversations are recorded and then the recordings are transcribed; that is, they are written down word for word, so that the texts of these conversations can be fed into the computer database and include American, British, Australian, teenager and even learner

varieties of English (McCarthy, 2004). It is then possible to analyze the language in the corpus with corpus software tools to see how people really speak or write.

O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter (2007) report, in their work <u>From Corpus to Classroom: Language Use and Language Teaching,</u> that *"Another feature of a corpus, as Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998) point out, is that it is a principled collection of texts available for qualitative and quantitative analysis"*.

Following this:

➢ **A corpus is a principled collection of texts** i.e. not any collection of texts is a corpus as a corpus needs to be a representative data carefully designed in a way that its qualities will often be judged on how representative it is. In other words, the design criteria of a corpus would ideally capture all the essential linguistic and social variables for it is important to scrutinize how a corpus is designed when buying, assessing or evaluating any findings based on it and more importantly when assessing its representativeness.

➢ **A corpus is a collection of electronic texts usually stored on a computer** i.e. corpora are available on a computer. Data corpus is, therefore, amassed and can be analysed by specially designed software. It may be available either in a form of written or spoken texts or in both. If it is a data corpus of written language, texts may be entered into a computer by scanning, typing, downloading from the internet or by using files that already exist in electronic form. Corpora of spoken language, on the other hand, are much more time-consuming to record, transcribe and assemble.

➢ **A corpus is available for qualitative and analysis** i.e. once a corpus is stored in a database, one can analyze it both qualitatively and quantitatively. In fact, data corpus illustrates this qualitative and quantitative analysis by providing answers to questions like these:

- What are the most frequent words and phrases in English?
- What are the differences between spoken and written English?
- Which tenses do people use most frequently?
- What prepositions follow particular verbs?
- How do people use words like *can, may* and *might?*
- Which words are used in more formal situations, and which are used in more informal ones?
- How often do people use idiomatic expressions and why?
- How many words must a learner know in order to participate in everyday conversation?
- How many different words do native speakers generally use in conversation?

By means of corpora and software tools one can see how language is actually used. Therefore analyses can not rely on intuitions or anecdotal evidence; instead they would rely on what hundreds of different speakers and writers have actually said or written.

1.3.2 *Data Corpus: Some Investments:*

Data corpus is gathered and analysed for different needs: Studies on core areas of linguistic structure (as grammar), lexicography (modern dictionaries are created by exploring large corpora), language variation and language history, literary stylistics, language learning (teaching), cultural studies (frequency and connotation of a political ideology) and translation studies (parallel corpora more often used to describe translation options and preferences).

As regards language learners and teachers, data corpus is applied for various purposes. Learner's dictionaries, grammar reference materials, vocabulary learning materials and, more recently, course books have all benefited from the information in corpora. Materials developed with corpora can be more authentic and can illustrate language as it is really used. (McCarthy, 2004). This means that the data corpus-informed materials (the frequency lists, concordance and collocation statistics) that they generate enable language instructors to get to the facts about language use and insert the content that present authentic and accurate information about present day use and usage.

In summery, a corpus is simply a large collection of texts that one can analyze using computer software, just as one can access the millions of texts on the Internet. It is not a theory of language learning or a teaching methodology, but it does influence the textbook writers and language teachers and users' way of thinking about language and the kinds of texts and examples they use in language teaching and learning.

1.3.3 *Data Corpus Input and English Vocabulary Knowledge:*

The purpose of this subtitle is to supply the reader with the knowledge data corpus can gather and offer to a language *vocabulary*. More precisely, it intends to show what data corpus can tell us about the vocabulary of the language under study; the English language.

A corpus is often divided into sections, or subcorpora, that contain different types of English. For instance there are subcorpora of different varieties such as North American English and British English, or different types of language as conversations, newspapers, business English and academic English.

Following this, the first thing to decide about is what kind of English syllabus designers and language teachers want to base their material on for different corpora will provide them different words and often with different uses of words to teach. For example, the word *nice* is largely used for conversations than for academic written English. Another example is the word *see* which is as frequent in conversation as in academic English, but with different uses. In academic English, *see* is mostly used to refer to the reader to other books and articles like in *'see Jeremy Harmer, 2005'*. In conversation see has a greater variety of uses including the expression ***I see*** which means *"I understand"* and ***you see*** which introduces what the speaker feels a new information for the listener; as in ***you see*** *have a neighbour whom I'm good friend with, as far as neighbour-wise.* (Someone describes his relation with his neighbour to a stranger).

So the teachers' choice of corpus may affect which words they will include in their materials and which meanings of those words they will teach. For most learners, in general English courses, the priority is speaking, so for these students it makes sense to base much of the syllabus on a spoken corpus. Many language learners are asked to write in English, especially for examinations, thus again it makes sense to refer to a corpus in which the kinds of texts learners will have to write are included.

The benefit for teachers and learners of data corpus is that it supplies them with easily accessible information about:

- **Frequency:** which words and expressions are most frequent and which are rare.
- **Differences in speaking and writing:** Which vocabulary is more often spoken and which is more often written.
- **Contexts of use:** The situations in which people use certain vocabulary
- **Collocation:** Which words are often used together.
- **Grammatical patterns:** How words and grammar combine to form patterns.
- **Strategic use of vocabulary:** Which words and expressions are used to organize and manage discourse.

A corpus, therefore, can be a very rich resource for writers and textbook writers for the detailed view it can offer about how 'real' people speak and write in everyday situations. Indeed, it can provide information about vocabulary, grammar, formality and informality, the difference between spoken and written language.

1.3.3.1 Frequency:

The frequency of words is shown and ordered in a frequency list. This latter, tells us what words and phrases are used most often i.e. high frequency words; and which are less used i.e. low frequency words.

Lists from the data corpus as the ones presented in work of Geoffrey Leech, Paul Rayson and Andrew Wilson (2001), *Word Frequencies in written and Spoken English: based on the British National Corpus* can give us lots of interesting information about the written and spoken language alike.

The is the first word in the rank frequency list for the whole corpus (see Appendix E); the five most common verbs (apart from parts of the verbs *be, have* and *do*) are *said know, see, get,* and *made*; the most common nouns are *time, people, way, years, work, government, man, day, work,* and *life*; the most common adverb is *so*. One can also see which words are more frequent than similar or related words: *Yeah* is more frequent than *yes*; *also* is more frequent than *too*.

In The 2000 Most Frequent Words (Brown Corpus) some plurals like *years, people, states, eyes, children* and *members* are more frequent than the singular forms: *year, person, state, eye, child* and *member*. Fore more details and examples see Appendix E. These frequency lists raise questions such as: Why are the adverbs *just* and *too* more frequent than grammatical items like *does*? Why is *something* more frequent than *anything, everything,* and *nothing*?

As far as language teachers are concerned frequency lists will be useful for them to make choices about what to tech and in what order to present their teaching materials. For instance, teachers can see that many idioms are rare, so they can teach hem later in the language programme. On the other hand, they can notice which items in a large vocabulary set people talk about most, so as to give them priority in teaching. These vocabulary units may include names of colours, types of music, clothing, health problems and the like. (O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter, 2007)

At this stage, one may enquire about the following query; should teachers teach the entire top given word list and in the order in which they appear in data corpus? It may not be possible to use all the items in the list, for a number of reasons. Some may be culturally inappropriate, not suitable for class, or just difficult to use until learners have more English. Moreover, it can be related to communicative needs of the language learners that may be different from those of the people whose conversations are recorded on the corpus data. For example, a word like *homework* which is a frequent word in any classroom,

comes toward the end of the top 2,000 words, whereas words like *supposed, true* and *already* which in the top 400, might be challenging for elementary learners. Indeed, frequency, while important is only a guide.

1.3.3.2 Differences in Speaking and Writing:

As noted previously, corpus tools can give textbook writers and teachers information about how frequent a word is in different corpora, therefore, they can compare the frequency of vocabulary in say, newspapers, academic texts and conversations.

In the Cambridge International Corpus (ICI) the word *probably* is about five times more frequent in conversation than in newspapers and ten times more frequent in conversations than in academic texts. On the other side, *however* is eight times more frequent in newspapers than in conversation and over twenty times more frequent in academic texts than in conversation. The word *actually* has 1239 and just 147 Rounded frequency (per million word tokens) in the spoken part and the written one of the British National Corpus respectively. The awareness of such differences helps the language teachers a great deal, to decide on whether to insert and present vocabulary units in a written or spoken context.

1.3.3.3 Context of Use:

The corpus includes information about the speakers and the situations in which different conversations take place. It is possible to see, for example, whether an item of vocabulary is used by everyone in all kinds of situations, or mostly by people who know each other very well, or mostly in more polite situations with strangers or work colleagues. Information like this from large corpora enables teachers to present vocabulary appropriately and to point out to their learners examples of more formal use such as *Goodbye* vs. *Bye* and perhaps more importantly, very informal usage such as using the word *like* for reporting speech (I was *like* "Hey!") or the expression *and stuff (we have a lot of parties and stuff)*.

1.3.3.4 Collocation:

The term *collocation* generally refers to the way in which two or more words are typically used together. For example, one may say *heavy rain* but *not heavy sun*, or to say we *make* or *come to a decision*, but we *do not do a decision*. Following this, *heavy rain* and *make a decision* are often referred to as *collocations*.

With collocation software teachers can search for all the collocations of a particular word. That is, all the words that are used most frequently with a given word and especially those with a higher than anticipated frequency.

This is particularly useful for finding the collocations of verbs like *have, get, make,* and *do* which are often referred to as *delexical verbs.* These are verbs that do not have a lexical meaning of their own, but take their meaning from the words that they collocate or are used with. For example, the verb *make* has a different meaning in each of the expressions *make a cake, make a decision,* and *make fun of,* therefore it is sensible to teach verbs like these in expressions, as collocations, instead of trying to identify and distinguish basic meanings, which is difficult and, in many cases, almost impossible.

Figure 2 bellow is an illustration that shows some of the most frequent collocates of the words *make* and *do* . They include words that come immediately after the word (*make sure*) and words that have two or more words after it (*make a difference, make a huge mistake*).

Figure2: Collocations of the verbs *make* and *do*.

MAKE: *sure, difference, sense, decision, mistakes, decisions, money, judgments, mistake, reservations, copies and effort.*

DO: *anything, something, things, job, well, nothing, work, whatever, aerobics, gardening, stuff, homework and laundry.*

Notice that although *make* is a frequent word, it collocates most strongly with a higher-level, lower-frequency vocabulary. On the other hand, the collocations of *do* are a mixture of very concrete, elementary items (*homework, laundry*) and more advanced abstract or vague vocabulary (*anything, something, things*). Lists like these help teachers and coursebooks writers to make choices about what to teach at different levels. (for more examples see Appendix E).

At higher levels, collocations can be taught and practiced overtly and students can be encouraged to write down collocations as well as single words. But even at the elementary level, instructors can introduce the idea of words and expressions that are "used together" even if they do not use terms like collocation or collocates, and then they can encourage language learners to keep notes of these in their vocabulary notebooks. For instance, teachers at elementary level may ask their pupils to think of words and expressions that go with the verbs 'Play', 'Go' and 'Read'. (For a discussion of this topic see Lewis, 1993, 1997 and 2000; Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002).

Indeed, knowledge of typical collocations gives learners power. Not only they will avoid making mistakes, but they will also sound more native-like because fluent and appropriate language use requires collocational knowledge.

1.3.3.5 Grammatical Patterns: *(The Grammar of Vocabulary /The Vocabulary of Grammar)*

The corpus can show teachers the grammatical patterns that vocabulary forms- or *the grammar of vocabulary.* This is very helpful with verb complements, i.e. Linguistic items that and structures that that must follow or that usually follow any particular verb, such as objects or infinitive verbs. This can answer questions about what forms are used after certain verbs when the teachers' intuition fails them.

This fact would be better explained by means of this example; [Cited in Carter R. and McCarthy M.: 2006)].

Questions with the verb *mind* may include several ones including these; *Do you mind...?* and *Would you mind……?* Without having a look at a corpus, four basic patterns seem equally possible.

Request	*Examples*
Do you mind +……ing	Do you mind helping me for a second?
Would you mind + ……ing	Would you mind helping me for a second?
Asking for Permission	*Exapmles*
Do you mind + if	Do you mind if I leave early today
Would you mind + if	Do you mind if leave (or left) early today?

However, when we look at the phrases *Would you mind* and *Do you mind* in the corpus data, one finds that two of these patterns stand out as being more frequent. Figure 3 includes a representative selection of examples of these phrases from the corpus. Each phrase is shown in a *concordance (*see the example in Appendix E). A concordance is a screen display of a word or phrase as it is used by many different speakers in the corpus. The word or phrase one may be interested in is shown in the middle of the screen, highlighted in some way, with the rest of the text – if any – before and after it. In figure 3, each line represents someone' speech using the phrase *"Would you mind"* or *"Do you mind"*.

Would you mind taking this day?

Would you mind taking this seat by the window because he…?

Would you mind talking to us just for a minute?

Would you mind signing this form?

Would you mind?

Would you mind answering a couple of questions?

Do you mind if I take this?

Do you mind if I go get a drink first?

Do you mind if I put some makeup on real quick?

Do you mind if I uh take the um apple juice in the car?

Do you mind if I take these pretzels?

Do you mind us taping it?

Do you mind if I to put the thing on there?

Figure 3: Concordances of *"would you mind"* and *"Do you mind"* from the CIC.

In the aforementioned list one may notice that the both expressions, in some cases, are used on their own as questions with no following words. Where the speaker continues, one notices that *do you mind* is mostly used in the expression do you mind if…to ask for permission to do something. Whereas, *would you mind* is mostly used as *would you mind +* …*ing* to ask for requests. Moreover, one may point out that the more complex patterns with an object (would you mind me asking... and do you mind us taping...) are also much less frequent. Following this, teachers can make learners' life a little easier and teach the frequent patterns first, leaving the complex structures until a later level.

In addition to seeing the grammar of individual words, the *grammar of vocabulary*, language teachers and syllabus designers can also learn about the vocabulary used with certain grammar structures – *the vocabulary of grammar*. For example, the corpus can tell us the most frequent verbs used in the past continuous structure *was/were +*…*ing*. The top ten are *going, thinking, talking, doing, saying, trying, telling, wondering, looking* and *working.*

Notice that five of these verbs describe "*saying*" and "*thinking*." In addition, 12 percent of the uses of *was going to* are in the phrases *was going to say* or *was going to ask,* and 28 percent of the uses of *was trying* are with similar verbs of saying and thinking (McCarthy, 2004). Hence, it seems that these verbs are an important part of the vocabulary of this structure. Then, why teachers would not teach this vocabulary with this structure, if they want foreign language learners to learn the kind of usage they will hear from expert users and native speakers.

1.3.3.6 Strategic Vocabulary:

Teachers are familiar with the kinds of words and expressions that writers use strategically to organize written texts, from simple conjunctions like *and* and *however,* which organize ideas within and across sentences, and adverbs such as *first, secondly,* etc., which list ideas within a paragraph or text, to expressions such as *in conclusion,* which signals that the text is about to end. Written texts are easy to find in newspapers, books, on the Internet, etc., as models for teaching or our own writing. Yet, what is the strategic vocabulary that speakers use to organize and manage conversations, and how can we find it? To help coursebooks writers and language teachers answer these questions a corpus is needed to analyze many different conversations. Next, they can start by looking again at frequency lists to identify and analyze the kind of strategic vocabulary speakers use.

In addition to looking at single words, they can find in the corpus frequency lists of phrases – vocabulary items that contain more than one word, sometimes called "chunks," "lexical bundles," or "clusters" [see McCarthy and Carter (2002); O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007)]. These lists contain "fragments," or bits of language that don not have a meaning as expressions in their own right, such as *in the, and I,* and *of the.* However, they can remove these to find expressions that do have their own meaning. Examples are: (two words) *you know, I mean, I guess, or something,* (three words) *a little bit, and all that,* (four words) *or something like that, and things like that,* (five words) *you know what I mean, as a matter of fact,* (six words) *it was nice talking to you; and all that kind of stuff* (seven+ words) *a lot of it has to do (with)* . . . (these expressions are taken from the frequency lists in the CIC). It appears that some of these expressions are much more frequent than the everyday, basic, single words that teachers would expect to teach at an elementary level. Chunks such as *I mean, I don't know* and *or something* are more frequent than *woman, six* and *black.* This suggests that teachers need to take chunks seriously as vocabulary items to teach in a basic course.

▶ *Vocabulary for Conversation*:

In fact, the most frequent words and phrases that exist in conversations are also found in written language. Examples are: grammatical items (articles, pronouns, prepositions); common every day nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs (people, money, go, see, different, interesting, still, usually) and modal items (can, maybe, should, probably).

In addition to these grammatical and common every day words and phrases, there exist other items that distinguishes the spoken mode from the written one. Indeed, these

items do reflect the interactive nature of conversation and give this latter its distinctive character. These items are better described as being vocabulary of conversation rather than merely vocabulary in conversation. Bellow is illustrations of this kind of vocabulary with extracts from the corpus to show how people have actually used them.

1. Discourse Markers:

A discourse marker is a word or a phrase that organizes or manages the discourse in some way. In this case the type of discourse is conversation.

Discourse markers are said to organize given conversations as a whole or just the speaker's own speech. Examples include:

Anyway which speakers use with words like "so" and "well" to come back to the main point after an interruption.

🞧 Speaker A gets back to the main point of her story, using *anyway*.

      A: [. . .] I won first prize.

      B: Oh you always win.

      A: I don't win.

      B: Yes you do.

      A: And so *anyway* the prize was ten dollars . . .

🞧 Speakers organize their own speech; an example is the expression *I mean,* which signals the speaker is going to restate, repeat, clarify, or add to what was just said.

      Here the speaker uses *I mean* to explain what she means by "pretty much grown":

      [. . .] this is home for my kids now. Um they're pretty much grown. *I mean* they're nineteen and seventeen.

2. Responses:

The very frequent words and expressions people use to react or respond to what other people say, before adding their own contribution to the conversation, include expressions of agreement like *"exactly", "absolutely"* and *"that's true"* others of understanding as *"I know", "I know what you mean"* and *"I see"* whereas *"great", "that's nice"* and *"that's too bad"* are expressions that people often use when reacting to positive or bad news.

3. Monitoring Expressions:

In conversation, speakers often involve the other participants to measure how the conversation is going. For example, a speaker may use expressions like *"you know what I mean"*, or the shorter *"you know"*, to check if others in the conversation understand, sympathize with, or even agree with what he or she is saying.

In contrast, expressions such as *"you see"*, *"let me tell you"*, and *"actually"* create the opposite impression that the speaker is "telling" the listener something that he or she may not already know. These strategies are not just luxuries or optional extras, but they are important in creating "true" *dialogue* and in creating "good" relationships between the people involved in the conversation. [See Carter and McCarthy (2006), for more on this topic.]

4. Vague Expressions

Related to the idea outlined above about monitoring shared knowledge and views, a large expressions fall into a category which linguists call *vague language*. These include expressions that use very general often informal words, instead of specific words to refer to things, activities, or situations. Some of the most frequent are the phrases *"or something"*, *things like that"*, *"and stuff"*, *"and everything"*, *"or whatever"*, *"and that kind of* and *"and that sort of stuff"*. More formal examples are and so on, and so forth, and ese expressions basically mean *"I don't need to say this in detail because I what I'm saying."*

about autumn:

s are turning different colours and it's nice to walk around and the state ce and it's nice to go out to a restaurant *or something* you know like for a snack thing like that".

Expressions of Stance:

Stance refers to how speakers express their attitude to what they say. For example, they may give information as a personal opinion and use expressions like *"personally"*, *"I think"*, or *"from my point of view"*. In other times, however, they present information as facts about which they are very certain with words and phrases like *"definitely"*," *in fact"*, *"as a matter of fact"*, or less certain using *"maybe"*, *"probably"*, *"I don't know"* or *"I'm not sure"*. Sometimes they want to assure the listener they are being truthful: *"to be honest (with you)"* is often used. [See Carter and McCarthy (2006), for more on stance.]

Conversations in corpus appear to be full of these and other expressions and it would be very difficult to communicate without them. They seem to be very important. For one thing, it would be highly impractical for speakers to list all the things they are thinking of and even if, listeners would feel bored to listen to. Besides, removing them completely might make the conversations sound pedantic and blunt. Indeed syllabus designers and teachers should encourage the instruction and use of the foresaid strategic vocabulary

knowledge pulled out from the corpus in their language teaching materials in general and of vocabulary in particular.

The teaching of English vocabulary seems to be an important area worthy of effort and investigation that may be enhanced by means of data corpus application. In fact, the recent technologies, the electronically corpus data, has provided new teaching and learning tools for language teachers and learners as far as the teaching, learning and developing of language vocabulary is concerned. Indeed, data corpus seems to be a kind of information that is potentially important to the language learners and even more useful to the teacher and the course book writer. However vocabulary learning is not just a question of finding words. It also requires active mediation on the part of the teacher in terms of word selection and instruction.

1.3.4 *What do Teachers Need to Teach about the English Vocabulary?*

Traditionally, the teaching of vocabulary was mostly incidental, limited to presenting new items as they appeared in reading or sometimes listening texts. This indirect teaching of vocabulary assumes that vocabulary expansion will happen through the practice of other language skills, which has been proved not enough to ensure vocabulary expansion (Lewis: 1993).

Nowadays it is widely accepted that vocabulary teaching should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis. Some authors, led by Lewis argue that vocabulary should be at the centre of language teaching, because *'language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar'*. Therefore, the task of vocabulary teaching and learning becomes a challenge for teachers and learners, alike, partly because of the size of the task and partly because of the variety of vocabulary types to be learned, including single words, phrases, collocations and strategic vocabulary as well as grammatical patterns, idioms and fixed expressions.

According to Michael J. Wallace (1982), to *"know"* a word may mean the ability to:

- Recognize it in its spoken or written form.
- Relate it to an appropriate object or concept.
- Use it in the appropriate grammatical form.
- In speech, pronounce it in a recognizable way.
- In writing, spell it correctly.
- Use it at the appropriate level of formality.
- Be aware of its connotation and association.

- Use it with the words it correctly goes with, i.e. in the correct collocation.

In the same concern, Richards (1976) and Nation (2001) list the different things learners need to know about a word before one can say that they have learned it. These include:

- The meaning(s) of the word.
- Its spoken and written forms.
- What "word parts" it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form).
- Its grammatical behavior (e.g., its word class, typical grammatical patterns it occurs in).
- Its collocations.
- Its register.
- What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning).
- What connotations it has.
- Its frequency.

To these, teachers could add whether a word has a strategic use and if it has any special uses that are different in registers such as conversation or academic writing. Hence, they may notice how important it is to use a corpus in order to give learners all the right information they might need to master a word or phrase.

Actually, it would be unrealistic to teach everything about a word the first time it is presented to learners – and any such attempt would make for some very tedious lessons. Obviously, language teachers need to make choices about how much they teach on a first presentation. For example, with the word *like,* in addition to its sound (spoken form) and spelling (written form) instructors might choose to teach only one of its meanings (to enjoy or to find something to be pleasant), with one grammatical pattern (*I like+* singular or plural noun) and some associated vocabulary (*I like football/, cartoons…*). At a later date, teachers can add other meanings such as "to be similar to" (*I have a car like that*) or add more grammatical patterns such as *like+ to+* verb (*I like to play tennis*). The choices teachers make are influenced by factors such as frequency, usefulness for the classroom, and "learnability" – how easy the item is to learn and to teach.

Language teachers can also take each type of knowledge from the list above and make the learners aware of its importance and usefulness in building up their knowledge of a word. For example, teachers can focus occasionally on how to express opposite or similar meanings for a set of vocabulary they are teaching, show learners what is useful to learn about the forms of nouns or verbs or how prefixes, suffixes can help vocabulary building quickly. In fact, giving learners practice in manipulating these different areas of knowledge

teaches useful learning strategies pupils can apply in learning other vocabularies. Schmitt (2000) notes that teachers are also asked to encourage their learners to look at the different meanings of a given vocabulary item for a gradual and incremental need and to show them how they can come back to word they have previously "*learned*" to add more information about it, such as other meanings, or how to create an opposite meaning using a prefix.

Melka (1997) admits that another issue to consider is which vocabulary teachers want their learners to be able to use when they speak or write (their active or productive vocabulary) and which they want them to be able to recognize and understand but not necessary produce (their passive or receptive vocabulary). It appears that learners often feel frustrated when they can understand more than they can produce, but explaining this fact of active vs. passive knowledge as a normal part of learning can be reassuring. When you assign vocabulary lists to learn, why not include some passive vocabulary items and discuss with students which items they need to learn "for understanding" and which they need to learn really well so that they can use them. (But be sure that in practice or testing activities, pupils are required to remember and use only the active vocabulary productively.)

Additionally, even from the elementary level, Sökmen (1997) notes, it is important to include in vocabulary lessons not just single words, but also larger "chunks" such as collocations, phrases, or expressions, even whole sentences, as well as strategic vocabulary. By building up a stock of expressions as well as individual words, learners can assemble the language they need to communicate more fluently.

1.4 Conclusion

It is now clear that acquisition of vocabulary is as just important as the acquisition of grammar. Teachers should have the same kind of expertise in the teaching of vocabulary as they do in the teaching of structure and attach much importance to the vocabulary teaching. Greater attention to vocabulary learning by teachers and students will result in greater overall language progress. Powerful techniques for vocabulary growth should be explored and exploited, so that language learners will be able to make their way more easily to their proficiency goals.

In this chapter, constituting the literature review, the interest was firstly to shed the light on the historical background, importance and complexity of English vocabulary teaching. It secondly, highlights the application of computer corpus-data requirements as

far as problems mainly related to foreign language teachers and learners are concerned in meeting the challenge of English vocabulary teaching and learning in general. The next chapter, however, strives to treat the above teaching and learning situation with close reference to a particular case of study in the Algerian secondary school context.

Chapter Two
Case Study:Data Collection

Chapter Two: Case Study- Data Collection -

2.1 <u>Introduction:</u>

As far as the study's concern is third year learners' English vocabulary teaching and learning in Algerian secondary school, it may pay attention to primary privilege education system in Algeria, the learners and teachers' linguistic background, invest the status of English language in Algeria and its presence in their direct environment and, then, the EFL vocabulary teaching materials in their textbook <u>New Prospects</u>. Later, the researcher introduces the sample population the study is concerned with, the research questions, the hypotheses, the research instruments and the research methodology to be followed in the present investigation.

2.2 <u>The Educational System in Algeria:</u>

The Arabian Campus Web site describes the Algeria education system as follows: Primary education is mandatory and lasts for nine years (École fondamentale). This education comprises two schools primary schools and middle schools. In primary schools, pupils are taught two languages; modern stated Arabic and French. The former is introduced from the first year. The latter, however, is instructed from the third year. The English language is rather taught till the first year in middle schools and is curried out till the last year in secondary schools and in higher education departments either as a main subject in the English department or as an additional subject in other departments as political sciences and physics .

Secondary education is compulsory and consists of a three-year cycle of study provided in secondary schools and technicums. There are three branches of secondary education: general, specialized, and technical/vocational. Students, in general secondary and specialized secondary education, study for three years and sit for the Baccalaureate examination. Successful students are awarded the "Baccalaureate de l'Enseignement secondaire" in one of the various streams offered. The Baccalaureate gives access to higher education but some institutions require it to be of a certain type (science, arts, etc.). The objective of technical and vocational secondary education is to prepare students for active life and industry (technicians and qualified workers).

Studies last between one and four years, according to the type of training undertaken and can also lead to higher education. Higher education is provided by universities, specialized institutes, national institutes of higher education, and teacher training institutes, which fall under the responsibility of the Ministry of Higher Education

and Scientific Research, as well as by institutes run by other ministries. The specific degrees awarded are determined by the field of study, not the institution. The Ministry of Higher Education approves the curriculum, which is standardized for each field of study. Algerian institutions also award graduate degrees (Diplômes de Postgraduation) in most fields in which a Licence is awarded.

2.3 The Status of English Language in Algeria:

In the shade of Globalization, the English language has an indisputable status as the first language all over the world as noticed by Baker (2003: 2) *"English has become firmly established as the international language of the present time"*. Being not only the language of music, literature, politics, technology and/ or sciences, the English language imposed itself in very single field of human beings' daily life. As a result it becomes a   hard task nowadays for someone who does not know English to read an   construction about a drug or an other of how to make use of a household electrical appliances .If   illiteracy's definition was restricted in the few past decades to those who do not know how to write and read, it refers today and with no exaggeration to the person who does not master English at least to know about its basic riles, adding to the computing sciences which is not our concern.

Subsequently, a great interest and a large awareness's wave of its importance are increasingly rising day after day in deferent parts of the world mainly in the developing countries, the case of Algeria. Where and even though the existing linguistic confusion specifying in Algerian society, regarding the many unsettled questions like; what is the real native language of the country either Arabic or 'Tamazight'? And   or what is the real status of the French language in the Algerians' daily   speeches? Yet, the English language found its way to the Algerian people in the early 60's and 70's mainly in respect to the economic tendency of the country and as stated in the British council profile on ELT in Algeria 1975 *"Algeria's interests in the field petroleum, natural gas, iron, steel,....orientates her increasingly to the English speaking west.."*. Moreover, Algeria considers Algeria as: *"a means to facilitate communication with the world, to have access to modern sciences, modern technologies and to enlarge creativity in its universal dimensions."*(Cited in Benmoussat: 2003)

Nevertheless and despite its importance, the English language remained and still in a perpetual competition with French language at least in respect to three points:

-Unlike the French, this is considered as a first foreign language English has the status of a second foreign language.

-English is latterly introduced to the Algerian learners during their schooling in the 8th A.F (Année fondamental/ fundamental schooling) in the middle school comparing the French which is inserted in the 4th A.F. In the primary school (in the 3rd year after the reform).

-Thought its rank as a foreign language, the French language is part of the Algerian learners' daily life since they use it in their ordinary speech and it is present in their direct environment in media like newspaper or on TV, and even in the official speeches of the Algerian Official. Whereas, English is restricted to the classroom use only as a school subject.

Considering that these differences between the two   languages are quiet legitimate in regard to the historical   background of the French language comparing to English one in the country .However ,   this confinement and restriction in use, only in the classroom, is systematically, reflected on the kind of the Algerian learners' language proficiency that may vary between average and poor. Taking into account that statistically, classroom exposure to English is about 524 hours counting 3 hours a week for a period of 7 years (4 years in the middle school and 3 in the secondary school),   remains insufficient to master a foreign language   and meet learners' communicative needs as explained by Mountford and Mackey:

> When English as a foreign language is taught to children at the primary
> school and early secondary levels of education, it is generally taught with
> a general aim in mind- that is regarded as a 'good thing' for them to learn
> a foreign language as a part of a board definition. There is usually,
> however, no immediate and specific requirement for such children to make
> use of the language in any communicative situation. (1978: 2)

They carry on stressing the fact that "inevitably what is taught to primary and secondary level children is not a communicative knowledge of the English language use, but knowledge of how the syntax and lexical rules of English operate". Hence, students arriving at university lack many aspects of the language that negatively affects their performances like the communicative competence which is required in the utilitarian purposes, to travel abroad, to find a job, or simply to study which is the concern of the actual research as stated by Brumfit (1979: 116): *"The problem is that students and especially students in developing countries, who have received several years of formal*

English teaching frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, to understand its use, in normal communication, whether in the spoken or written mode".

That is why, an immediate reconsideration and urgent changes must occur on both English language status and the way it is regarded by the Algerian people as being restricted to an international language, which considerably affect their proficiency. However, despite the efforts and the emphasis of teaching this language as an important part of the curriculum, English still remains a foreign language that can not be used in the ordinary social life, so that its learners face many problems to express themselves with. Baker notes that: *"English is often used as an international language rather than as a means of communication with English speakers not from English speaking countries"* (2003: 9).

2.4 Algerian Learners and Teachers' Linguistic Background:

Algerian pupils come from different linguistic backgrounds. Both Arabic –speaking and Berber- speaking Algerians need to learn the official standard Arabic in their early years of schooling .After their second year in schools, they undergo the learning of their first foreign language, i.e., French (Benmoussat: 2003). By the age of 11-12, it is the turn of their second foreign language namely English.

Linguistically speaking, Algerian pupils need to learn both low and high versions of Arabic. This is known as "diglossia". Diglossia is a form of bilingualism in which two languages (dialects) are used habitually for different purposes or in different social (or educational) situations (Lyons, 1970: 319). Two more languages are therefore being learned by Arabic speaking Algerians before learning English. Berber-speaking Algerians (mostly in Aures and djurdjura regions) need to learn three languages before English is learned. Now as Berber has been recognized as an official language, it is introduced in the school system. In   some regions, student needs to learn "Tamazight". Yet, both Arabic and Berber languages share many phonological, morphological and syntactic features by virtue of their cognate socio-linguistic family. On the other hand being Indo European languages and with a rich historical socio-cultural heritage, English and French share many features. It may be surprising to say that Arabic, Berber and English share many features, more specifically phonological.

Algerian middle school teachers have undergone a one-year training period in the technological institution. For many months, they have attended courses in their fields of

specialty   and actual teaching training. Graduation happens as a result of obtaining the average between study and practice. After graduation they all of them are recruited directly to middle schools.

In the Technological Institutions of Education (ITE), middle school teachers are supposed to have attended 6 subjects: Applied Linguistics, Didactics, Grammar, Oral, Phonetics and Written Expression. However, the teachers involved in the experiment have not received any kind of training to teach English to first year middle school pupils. Most of them have received training for 8 AF and 9AF. Thus they lack experience in the field of teaching English to first year middle school pupils since the approach, the textbook and the syllabus are different and many aspects that were not taught before, they are now independent teaching steps, for instance the teaching of pronunciation. It is noteworthy to say that technological institutions have ceased to be the main source of middle school teacher supply. Instead, newly recruited teachers come from the university.

At present, the "licence"- the Algerian licence is roughly equivalent to the English and American 'Bachelor of Arts", (B.A) – in English studies places any holder of this degree at the open doors of the teaching profession in secondary schools. However, become certified to teach English after having passed a regional written exam consisting of related questions to the role of teachers in classroom practices. If the result of the exam is positive, it will be followed by an oral testing (interview) that may attest the mental/cognitive readiness of the candidate. Then, the approved candidate needs to be confirmed as a 'qualifies' teacher by means of the CAPES examination – Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle de l'Enseignement Secondaire, which is equivalent to the British Certificate in Education. At this level, teachers can embrace the teaching career and climb up the promotion scale, acquiring more experience and savoir-faire.

2.5 The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Algeria:

The English language is the most widespread language used in the world. In fact, it is now the dominant or official language in over 60 countries and is represented in every continent (Crystal, 1997: 106). From this fact, it can be understood that the English language is a vital means for communication for millions of people in the world.

In Algeria, English starts to be learned at about 13 of age, which is regarded by many scholars to be the critical age for language learning. The delay in learning English and the little exposure to this language make learners much influenced by their first

language or by French. This influence is revealed at different levels: phonology, grammar, word-for-word translation, etc. At the phonological level, learners find difficulty in articulating some sounds especially in spontaneous speech. The English short vowel / /, for instance, is most of the time replaced by the great majority of the students either by the French open vowel /a/ in words like **a**pproximant, syll**a**ble, **a**cquisition, the**a**tre, **a**ddition, **a**ccording, etc. These examples involve believing that this kind of influence concerns mainly English words which have the same form and similar meaning to those of French.

Researchers believe that the first language influence is more frequent in complex word order and word-for-word translation of phrases. Duskova (1969), for instance, found that interference from the other tongue was plainly obvious in errors of word order and sentence construction when she studied written errors in the compositions of Czech post graduate students (see Krashen, 1981:65).

2.5.1 *The English Language Importance and Use:*

During the twentieth century, numerous technology inventions and developments have been facilitated communication between people from all walks of life and the language that is most used is English, as the following quote proves: " most of the scientific, technological and academic information in the world is expressed in English"(Crystal 1997:106).

At this stage one may enquire about the number of people who speak English, the reasons for which they are learning English and the number of people who are learning it. Drawing on David Crystal's, *Encyclopedia of the English Language*, the British council provides the following figures:

- English is the main language of books, newspaper, airport and air traffic control, international business and academic conferences, science and technology, diplomacy, sport, international competitions, pop music and advertising.

- Over two thirds of the world's population scientists read in English and three fourth of the world's mail is written in English.

- eighty percent of the world's electronically stored information is in English.

- Of the 200 million users of the internet, some thirty-six percent communicate in English.

- At any one time, there are 130,000 students learning English and other skills through the medium of English in the British council teaching centers worldwide.

- Around 700,000 people go to Britain to learn English. They spend 700,000 million pounds-possibly over one billion pounds.

- The British English language centers products are worth 800 million pound yearly.
- English is spoken as a first language and a second language by around 735 million peoples.
- Nearly 750 million people are believed to speak English as a foreign language.
- Algerians among them are twice as many as the natives or second language speakers of English.

Overall, what it comes down to is, language is the vital tool to thinking, social interaction, transfer of knowledge and education. Also, it embraces uses in economic as well as cultural transitions and eventually world common peace and common understanding.

Having brought the English language into the Algerian context one may wonder about the following questions: are the Algerians aware of these figures? And how do they deal with the English language phenomenon? It may be fair to say that the Algerian society at large is conscious towards the importance and uses of English. The true problem, however, is the answer to the second question.

2.5.2 *Foreign Language Teaching Finalities and Goals in Algeria:*

The Algerian decision makers see the teaching of foreign languages, particularly French and English, as a clue to:

- Communicate with different parts of the world.
- Have access to modern sciences and technologies.
- Make pupils autonomous in exploring and exploiting materials having a relation with their field of study and be prepared to successfully seat for examinations.

Along with these finalities, the Ministry of Education states that the goals behind the teaching of foreign languages are to achieve the linguistic, methodological and cultural objectives. Actually, what matters most is that one should remind that these finalities aim at supplying Algerian students with necessary pedagogical tools to develop learning. Accordingly, finalities, pedagogical tools and principles of teaching and learning are combined to reach the already established goals.

Indeed, one should assume that teaching English or any other foreign language or second language in Algerian schools is to enable learners develop their ability to communicate in the target language. What is more, Algerians need English and French as languages of Wider Communication to get in touch with technology sciences.

As regards the English teaching objectives, in the 1976 Ordinance, the Algerian political class states that students are supposed to communicate in the various forms, aspects and dimension of English. Hence, four main categories of goals can be mentioned: socio-cultural, humanistic, educational and academic.

Eventually, the study of English must imperatively be conceived with the objective of helping the Algerian society to get harmoniously integrated in modernity. This means a fully complete participation in a rising linguistic community of people who use English in all types of transactions. This participation must be, therefore, based on sharing and exchanging ideas as well as experiences in the field of science, culture and civilization. This, indeed, will make it possible to know oneself and the other.

2.5.3 *The Teaching of English before 2006 Education Reforms (in Secondary Education Level) :*

English is considered to be the second foreign language in Algeria. Being a former French colony, Algeria has always had French language classes in its school system. After independence (1962), the authorities started the Arabization Process of the Country and State Departments. Arabization started in schools first. On score of that, French classes were started in the third year of the primary school. It is fair to say that French was kept as a tool to teach scientific subjects, while the national language, i.e. Arabic, was used to teach literary subjects.

Later, once the shift from primary to fundamental schools-education occurred, French classes were pushed one year up. As an outcome, Algerian students started in the fourth year of their primary schooling. By 1989, French became a school subject as any other. As for English, it was introduced in the second year middle schools. The Algerian students are to learn English as a subject for the next five years; three of which in secondary schools.

Teachers' training in English could be done in two different institutions. In fact, students (future teachers) interested in teaching in the middle school level are oriented to technological institutions to study for one year. While those whose interest is to teach in the secondary school level, need to undergo four years of studying English in the universities.

Unlike French, English is seen as an additive bilingualism. This means that the foreign language does not pose a threat to the learner's mother tongue or identity. Ideally, foreign language learning is best curried out when prejudices are inexistent or ruled out.

Actually, English has won the hearts and minds of Algerians for the Anglo-Saxon culture does not seem to threaten the local culture or way of life in spite of the west movies and pop music which take the younger generations by storm. Consequently, one may confirm that despite all deficiencies and obstacles, English has a positive attitude from most Algerians and, hence, much is to be done and expected in the learning and teaching phase.

When it comes to practice, instructors often must begin their work in the classroom with little or no guidance to help them appreciate which methods work, how, and why. In response, they may fall back on an outdated model for understanding language teaching and language learning.

- *Older model:* Language learning is a product of transmission. Teacher transmits knowledge. Learner is recipient.

This teacher-centered model views the teacher as active and the student as fundamentally passive. The teacher is responsible for transmitting all of the information to the students. The teacher talks; the students listen and absorb (or take a nap).

The teacher-centered model may be attractive to new language instructors for several reasons:

- It is the method by which they were taught.

- It makes sense: The teacher should be the focus of the classroom, since the teacher knows the language and the students do not.

- It requires relatively little preparation: All the teacher needs to do is present the material outlined in the appropriate chapter of the textbook.

- It requires relatively little thought about students or student activities: All students listen to the teacher's presentation, and then do related exercises.

However, experienced language instructors who reflect on their teaching practice have observed that the teacher-centered model has two major drawbacks:

- It involves only a minority of students in actual language learning.

- It gives students knowledge about the language, but does not necessarily enable them to use it for purposes that interest them.

To overcome these drawbacks, language teaching professionals in the United States and elsewhere have adopted a different model of teaching and learning.

- *Newer model:* Language learning is a process of discovery. Learner develops ability to use the language for specific communication purposes. Teacher models language use and facilitates students' development of language skills.

In this student-centered model, both student and teacher are active participants who share responsibility for the student's learning. Instructor and students work together to identify how students expect to use the language. The instructor models language use, and students then use the language themselves in practice activities that simulate real communication situations. The active, joint engagement of students and teacher leads to a dynamic classroom environment in which teaching and learning become rewarding and enjoyable.

Table: 1 Differences between Teacher-Centered and Learner-Centered Instruction.

TEACHER CENTERED	LEARNER CENTERED
Focus is on instructor	Focus is on both students and instructor
Focus is on language forms and structures (what the instructor knows about the language).	Focus is on language use in typical situations (how students will use the language)
Instructor talks; students listen	Instructor models; students interact with instructor and one another
Students work alone	Students work in pairs, in groups, or alone depending on the purpose of the activity
Instructor monitors and corrects every student utterance	Students talk without constant instructor monitoring; instructor provides feedback/correction when questions arise
Instructor answers students' questions about language	Students answer each other's questions, using instructor as an information resource
Instructor chooses topics	Students have some choice of topics
Instructor evaluates student learning	Students evaluate their own learning; instructor also evaluates
Classroom is quiet	Classroom is often noisy and busy

Language instructors who have never experienced learner-centered instruction can find it daunting in several ways.

• It requires more preparation time: Instructors must consider students' language learning goals, identify classroom activities that will connect those with the material presented in the textbook, and find appropriate real-world materials to accompany them.

• It is mysterious: It's not clear what, exactly; an instructor does to make a classroom learner centered.

• It feels like it isn't going to work: When students first move into small groups, they may be slow to get started as they assess the assigned task and figure out group dynamics.

It feels chaotic: Once students start working in their groups, the classroom becomes noisy and the instructor must be comfortable with the idea that students may make mistakes that are not heard and corrected.

• It sounds like a bad idea: The phrase "learner-centered" makes it sound as though the instructor is not in control of the classroom.

This final point is an important one. In fact, in an effective learner-centered classroom, the instructor has planned the content of all activities, has set time limits on them, and has set them in the context of instructor-modeled language use. The instructor is not the center of attention, but is still in control of students' learning activities.

2.5.4 *The Teaching of English after 2006 Educational Reforms in Algerian Secondary Schools:*

The teaching of English as a second foreign language in Algeria to secondary school pupils in general and third year pupils in particular, after 2006 Education Reforms implies a whole process going through an immense work of plan of designing syllabuses, devising accompanying documents and conceiving textbooks. This is part of a global framework to teaching different subjects in Algerian schools, whose common point is the choice of an appropriate methodology, approach, centered on the learenrs' gradual autonomy. As a matter of fact, the Competency-based Approach has been adopted for English teaching just as to ensure interdisciplinary coherence. An adequate teacher training course is, therefore, undoubtedly the necessary step to implement an efficient educational policy to familiarize Algerian teachers with the innovative method.

The significance of the target language requires that school allow more time for communication so that the language learner acquires abilities (through language activities) to interact with his classmates as well as the adults around him. These abilities, acquired through listening, speaking, reading and writing serve three types of objectives.

1. **Linguistic Objectives:**

-To equip the learner with the basic amount of the language material (grammar, phonetics, vocabulary and the four language skills) that will help him carry on his studies and learn the language adequately.

2. **Methodological Objectives:**

-To promote the pupil's learning strategies aiming at autonomy so he can deepen, develop and increase his knowledge.

-To make the pupil acquire methods for the working and thinking (organizing, coherence and relevance) i.e. study the skills to get the pupils acquire strategies for self-evaluation.

- To get the pupils be able to use and exploit various documents and feel interested in subjects that are not treated in class.

3. Cultural Objectives:

Cultural objectives contribute to make the pupils open up their mind through discovering the context of English civilization and culture. This implies necessity to:

- identify the pupil's real needs.

- regard English as a real tool of communication.

-develop oral communication (listening and speaking skills) and written communication (reading and writing skills).

- set up situations of real communication.

- choose subjects according to the pupil's age and interest.

- Focus on learner-centered- method.

 - use suitable teaching aids (iconographic and audio-visual).

The approach by competencies consists of using knowledge acquired at school in different and significant contexts of use that will make it viable and durable. Indeed, by helping the pupil to give sense to his learning, the approach makes him acquire intellectual competencies and develop processes that are necessary to the assimilation and the use of his knowledge. It also makes the pupil become aware of the resources he develops and teaches him how to re-invest the learning outside or in other disciplines.

2.5.5 *The English Foreign Language Teaching Syllabus:*

The newly build syllabus contains a short introduction making explicit the finalities of the English language teaching, as set by the Ministry of Education. From these finalities derive linguistic, methodological and cultural objectives. It is worth reminding that these finalities aim at supplying Algerian learners in the necessary pedagogical tools to promote learning.

2.5.5.1 *The Third Year English Textbook New Prospects:*

New Prospects is the TEFL textbook intended to teach English for pupils embarking on the third year secondary school level, regardless their streams. It complies with the new English syllabus as laid out by the National Curriculum Committee of the Ministry of National Education in March 2006.

Three major features of the syllabus have been given careful consideration in designing this book:

- ✓ The fact that the Baccalaureate is exclusively of the written code;
- ✓ The emphasis on the thematic orientation;
- ✓ The need to cater for the pedagogical requirements of all Baccalaureate streams.

Naturally the overall approach remains basically competency-based, learner-centered and project-geared.

2.5.5.2 The Competency-based Approach:

The Competency-based Approach is an approach that appeared in America, precisely in Canada and the U.S.A. These parts of the world receive many emigrants each year form different parts from the world. They are of different races, customs, languages, cultures and educational levels. They are in need of special and specific courses in order to behave properly in the society; so a very language policy must be established for their integration both in the new society and to have a positive effect in their work places. It has been developed in the above regions to give a hand to immigrants and refuges to learn and acquire English and skills at the same time. Like the communicative approach, the competency-based approach bases its teaching on interaction; it focuses on developing the language to perform different skills. It is an approach aiming at establishing a link between the learning acquired at school and the context of use outside the classroom. This approach enables the learner to know how to: learn, to share, to exchange and to cooperate with others.

In Algeria, the Competency-based Approach appeared first for economic purposes and a political decision whose objectives are to face the influence of globalization. It was also used to create coherence between school syllabi and makes the Algerian learner reinvest his knowledge while performing at schools as well as at social or professional levels. It is an approach aiming at establishing a bridge between the learning acquired at school and the context of use outside the classroom in the pupils' own environment with his parents, friends and even the teachers of the disciplines. In sum, it is a learner-centered approach that enables the learner to learn how to learn, to share, to exchange and to cooperate with others.

New Prospects, the English textbook, requires the use of the competency-based approach through the development of competencies and communicative skills. Thus, it highlights the characteristics of the aforementioned teaching approach that is based a lot

on the active contribution of the pupil in the process of learning English as a foreign language.

2.5.5.3 *The Main Textbook Characteristics:*

In fact, the current textbook <u>New Prospects</u> is the official textbook designed by the Ministry of Education for all the pupils in their third year of English language study in the secondary school. The manual is a pedagogical document that handles the new official syllabus adopted within the framework of the recent Education Reform. The syllabus is communicatively oriented and thematically organized. The units which the textbook includes are set with various topics and language functions, structures, components, skills and strategies. Thus is ensured the possibility of conveying all aspects of the syllabus within the four units which each stream is expected to engage with. For example, literary stream learners are in charge with the first four units in the manual.

<u>New Prospects</u> contains six units: "Exploring the Past", "Ill-gotten Gains never Prosper", "Schools: Different and Alike", "Safety First", "It's a Giant Leap for Mankind" and "Keep Cool!". Each file is presented with varied colourful illustrations. Every unit comprises two main parts with two sequences each. The units are followed by *the "Listening Scripts", a "Grammar Reference" and a "Resource Portfolio"*.

The first part in each unit is called, *Language Outcomes,* is divided into two sequences: "Listen and Consider" and "Read and Consider". The former contains rubrics which are: *getting started, let us hear it,* and *around the text.* Actually, this sequence is composed of 'grammar explorer', 'vocabulary explorer' and 'pronunciation and spelling'. The latter holds the *getting started, taking a closer look* and *around the text* rubrics. Similarly, this sequence contains the 'grammar and vocabulary explorers' and 'pronunciation and spelling'.

Both sequences close with a rubric entitled *Think, Pair, Chare.* The tasks in this rubric aim at getting the pupils to re-invest in speaking or writing, the thematic and language elements acquired throughout the sequences by foregrounding a particular function (advertising, comparing, informing, etc.). The purpose of these two sequences is to work on the language dimension of the texts by the study of grammatical structures, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling. What is aimed at is getting the learners to internalize the thematic and linguistic 'tools' they will make use of, more naturally so to speak, in the second part of the unite.

The second part of the unit, *Skills and Strategies Outcomes,* is essentially concerned with the structural and discursive aspects of the texts. The interest shifts now to

compositional skills and communication strategies. This part comprises two sequences: *"Listening and Speaking"* and *"Reading and Writing"* focusing on the awareness and practice of primary skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and social skills (collaborative work, peer assessment, responding to problem solving situations...) inside and outside the classroom. They are aimed at getting the pupils to eventually concretize in the *" Saying it in Writing"* and *" Writing Development"* rubrics what is termed in the official syllabus as 'L'objectif terminal d'intégration'. As far as the present research in concerned, one opts for the vocabulary teaching and learning analysis of the first part with its both sequences in every unit within the given textbook.

2.5.6 *The Vocabulary Element in New Prospects:*

The vocabulary element is independently treated in a step called *"vocabulary explorer"* in the sequences "listen and consider" and "read and consider" of every unit. A far as the present study is concerned, the researcher considers the first part in every unit i.e. *Language Outcomes*; the third step in each file named as *vocabulary and sound building* among which the phase of *vocabulary explorer* is highly regarded.

2.5.6.1 *The Vocabulary Teaching Materials in New Prospects:*

The textbook includes six files with various themes and topics. The vocabulary element is shown in the step called *vocabulary explorer*. This latter in both sequences of *language outcomes* throughout all the units in New Prospects includes a range of vocabulary teaching elements and tasks.

- *Unit 1: "Exploring the Past".*

    The vocabulary teaching materials the first unit offers are:

    - ❖ Linking adjectives + prepositions.

    e.g. good at, depend on.

    - ❖ Linking verbs + prepositions.

    e.g. believe in, derives from.

    - ❖ Negative prefixes: e.g. **dis-** and **de-**
    - ❖ Suffixes: e.g. **-tion, -ment, -ed, -able, -ic** and **–ty.**

- *Unit 2: "Ill-gotten Gains Never Prosper".*

    - ❖ Suffix **–ly:** e.g. honest- hones**ty**; responsible- responsibili**ty.**
    - ❖ Prefixes **dis-, il-** : e.g. honest- **dis**honest ; approve- **dis**approve.

⬇ *Unit 3: "Schools: Different and Alike".*

  ❖ Forming adjectives with **–al** and **–ive**: e.g. education**al**, reflex**ive**, innova**tive**, respons**ive**, construc**tive**, effec**tive**…

  ❖ Forming nouns: verb + ing. E.g. teach**ing**, learn**ing**, train**ing**…

  ❖ Forming nouns with –tion. E.g. educa**tion**, comple**tion**.

⬇ *Unit 4: "Safety First".*

  ❖ Verb + Preposition. E.g. **accused** X **of** Y, **protect** X **from** Y, **provide** X **with** Y, **suffer from** X.

  ❖ Forming adjectives with –y. e.g. greed- greed**y**, speed- speed**y**, milk- milk**y**.

⬇ *Unit 5: "It's a Giant Leap for Mankind".*

  ❖ Forming nouns from nouns: e.g. science- scient**ist**, astronomy- astronom**er**.

  ❖ Forming nouns from verbs and adjectives: e.g. weigh (v) – weight (n), hot (adj.) – heat (v and n).

  ❖ Forming singular and plural nouns from verbs: e.g. believe (v) – belief (n. sing.) – beliefs (n. Pl.).

⬇ *Unit 6: "Keep Cool!"*

  ❖ Forming adjectives from nouns with **-ous, -ful, -ic**: e.g. courage - courage**ous**, faith – faith**ful**.

  ❖ Forming new words with **self-** : e.g. **self-**centred.

  ❖ Forming nouns with **–ness** and **–ty**: e.g. kind – kind**ness**, loyal – loyal**ty**.

  ❖ Forming verbs with **–en**: e.g. tight- tight**en**.

2.5.6.2 The Vocabulary Learning Strategies in <u>New Prospects</u>:

The teaching of learning strategies has been extensively discussed in different aspects in foreign and second language teaching (Cohen, 1998; Ellis, 2001; Oxford, 2002). Researchers have pointed out that strategies may help students *learn to learn* (Oxford, 2002; Mariani, 2004; Chamot, 2005), contributing to a better development of linguistic, communicative and pedagogical skill, including autonomy and the management of the learning process. In this sub-title, key strategies in vocabulary teaching will be discussed as far as the textbook under study is concerned.

⬇ **Dictionary Use:**

Dictionaries, both bilingual and monolingual, are an independent word learning strategy which teachers and textbooks require learners to make use of. Actually, it is a strategy of self-learning as pupils would be encouraged by themselves to consult a

dictionary whenever a word looks familiar but the sentence in which it is found makes strange sense, or no sense at all.

In writing, instead of merely underlying the incorrect use of difficult words, the teacher could require the student to look up each of them in the dictionary and practice their use. Such consistent use of the dictionary is likely to develop in the learners an awareness of the pitfalls that words may conceal. Miller and Gildea (1987) criticize the use of a dictionary for word learning for the limitations of this practice. In fact, because definitions provide only a superficial level of word knowledge and rarely show students how to use the words, vocabulary instruction must move beyond the definitional level of word meanings.

For instance task one in page 18, in the step of *vocabulary explorer*, teaches at first learners some targeted words that are related to the theme *"Exploring the Past"* of unit one and the teaching strategy the task requires is dictionary use. These words are verbs among which you would find: emerge, flourish, evolve, develop, collapse, rise, decline, spread, vanish, mature, disappear, bloom…etc. Then, pupils are asked to place the words in a curved line representing the rise and fall of civilizations. This is another learning strategy that helps learners to group words into semantic fields and to facilitate their memorization.

⚜ Thematic Grouping:

One basic strategy in vocabulary learning is *thematic grouping,* or just *grouping.* This strategy involves the selection and grouping of vocabulary in topics or themes. The topics or themes may be situations, places, feelings, subjects, jobs, among many other possibilities. The primary purpose of this strategy is to provide students with basic contextualization and memorization techniques. Thematic grouping has been widely used in coursebooks, dictionaries (monolingual and bilingual) and picture/photo dictionaries, explicitly or implicitly, in a range of teaching methods and approaches. This strategy may be put into practice in a number of techniques, which include monolingual or bilingual lists and theme-based syllabuses.

⚜ Gap-fill:

Gap-fill tests require learners to recall the words already 'learned' from memory in order to complete a sentence or text. Therefore, tasks of this type seek to test the pupils' ability to choose from a list or produce words rather than merely recognizing them. (Thornbury: 2000). In this task, knowledge of a wide range of word types, including the grammar structures mainly tenses is tested. Moreover, the ability to make choices and

omissions among the propositions available and complete the gaps depends on understanding of the context.

The above learning strategy is 'widely' used as far as EFL vocabulary teaching and learning is concerned in <u>New Prospects.</u> Pupils, in all the textbook units, have at least one task in each *vocabulary explorer* step that requires them to fill in blanks in texts with a given set of words (task 2 in pages 18, 26 50 and 110; task 4 in page 57 and task 3 in pages 80 and 88).

For example, the second task in page 18, in unit one / *vocabulary explorer* step, asks pupils to fill in the blanks in a text with appropriate words from the curved line in the previous task and to exclude some of them for being irrelevant.

⚜ Contextual Guessing

One important skill for the learner's future comprehension tasks is guessing unknown words in context. Contextual guesswork means inferring meaning from clues in the context. There are three ways of doing this. Firstly, learners should be explained the theory behind 'guessing', in other words, guess through incidental and intentional reading. Secondly, the proportion of unknown words to be guessed in the text; learners should know 90% of the words in the text. Finally, what can be learned from the context; in other words, learn the part of speech of the word, its collocation and the various forms the word can take. In unit six, the last unit in the textbook, task one in page 178 requires pupils to guess the meaning of some phrases from the context of a given text, to write a definition to each of them and to use them in illustrative sentences of their own.

⚜ Word Formation: Affixes learning

Another popular strategy for learners to develop on is the knowledge of affixes. Most words are made of other words. Unfortunately, the importance of word-formation processes (Carter and McCarthy: 2006) seems to be underestimated in foreign languages teaching. In ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses, in which needs analysis is fundamental (Hamp-Lyons, 2001; Dudley-Evans, 2001), the teaching of some suffixes and prefixes plays a central role in vocabulary teaching and learning, mainly in reading courses. This kind of knowledge could help learners develop strategies to learn vocabulary and to infer possible meanings of unknown words. Understanding the meanings and use of some prefixes and suffixes can make the vocabulary learning process easier and faster. Pupils should know that the suffix *-er* basically means the agent (person or tool) which performs the action expressed by the verb: teacher – the person who teaches; learner – the person who learns.

The reason for this approach to developing basic metalinguistic knowledge of word formation is very straightforward: students must learn reading strategies that will enable them to read in their academic or professional contexts. Besides, this linguistic knowledge provides students with better tools which can accelerate vocabulary learning and develop learning strategies for reading in a foreign language.

Fortunately most tasks, in *vocabulary explorer* step, are related to word affixation (tasks 3 and 4 in page 27; task 2 and 3 in page 57; task 1 on page 110; task 2 page 178 and task 4 in page 170). For instance, task one in page 26 asks pupils to complete a table with the missing member of each word 'family' whenever possible. Actually, they are required to derive a noun, an adjective and adverb from a verb (e.g. invent) or a noun, an adverb and a verb from an adjective (e.g. responsible). The task offers knowledge about word form (spelling and pronunciation), word parts (prefixes and suffixes) and its grammatical behaviour (verb, adjective, adverb or noun) and uses the vocabulary teaching strategy termed 'word formation'. Other learning strategies are summed up in the following. Below are the kind of activities pupils can find in their textbook to learn vocabulary:

- Readings: they are normally followed by true/false/not mentioned statements, or by questions, so that they can use scanning and skimming strategies (in Task 3, p. 16;)
- Completing Lists or Tables: they are very useful exercises to review old vocabulary (in Task 1 p.26).
- Ranking words: from a list of words written at random, and that usually belong to the same semantic field (in Task 1, p. 18).
- Writing the words under the correct category heading (in Task 1, p.57; Task 2, p. 88, Task 1, p. 139; Task 1, p. 169; Task 2, p. 178).
- Circling the odd word out (in Task 1, p. 50).
- Completing the sentences/texts with the words in the box (in Task 2, pp.50-51; Task 2, p. 110).
- Meaning Guessing from context (in Task 1, p. 178).
- Using some words in illustrative sentences (in Task 2, p. 139).
- Choosing the right word (In Task 2, p. 118).
- Filling in the gaps with a suitable word (in Task 3, p. 88).
- Matching the parts to make complete words, set phrases, etc. (in Task 3, p. 19).
- Matching words with their associated words (in Task 2, p. 139).
- Finding adjectives/verbs/prepositions, etc in a text (in Task 1, p. 118; Task 1, p. 139).
- Matching words/phrases with their definitions (in Task 1, p. 147).

- Word building: adding prefixes (in Task 3- 4, p. 27; Task 3, p. 57; Task 4, p. 170).
- Word building: adding suffixes (in Task 3- 4, p. 27; Task 2, p. 57; Task 1, p. 110; Task 2, p. 178).
- Word building: deriving word 'family' (in Task 1, p. 26; Task 2, p. 169).
- Replacing for a synonym (in Task 1, p. 79).
- Looking for word collocations (in Task 2, p. 79).

Having analyzed and discussed EFL vocabulary teaching and learning elements and strategies in <u>New Prospects</u>, one would further this discussion to the other components (the doers) that any teaching and learning situation involves, i.e. teachers and learners.

2.6 <u>The Situation Analysis:</u>

As mentioned previously, during the last decades, the English language has been firmly established as the uncontested international language all over the world. As a result, a great interest in teaching and learning it is increasingly rising.

In fact, learning a foreign language is based on the master of its vocabulary, which exerts a great influence on one's expression in communications. Both teachers and learners need to pay much attention to the learning of English vocabulary because a widely productive vocabulary is essential in enhancing a language learner's skills.

2.6.1 *The Statement of the Problem*

Knowing that most third year secondary school learners have laid a "good" formation of English grammar in their prior English learning, one of most arduous jobs in their last secondary school year is to master so many words as possible so as to be ready to join any given stream in their further studies. Thus, to help pupils enlarge their vocabulary has become one of the most important tasks secondary school teachers have to fulfill in their English teaching.

Those who have experience in learning a foreign language must know that at the beginning or in the end, vocabulary is always one of the biggest problems in language learning. It is possible for almost many foreign language learners after a certain period of learning time, to pronounce many words sufficiently correctly and to know at least some of the basic structures and grammatical rules of the language. Yet it may be more difficult for them to possess a range of vocabulary, which is wide enough to satisfy their needs in communication.

Most teachers of English in general and secondary schools' teachers in Algeria in particular and probably elsewhere, regard English vocabulary as the most difficult a complex, and boring teaching aspect for he huge number of English words, entries and vocabulary knowledge they possess. Indeed, it is noticed that syllabus designers and teachers meet serious difficulties in dealing with the steps of vocabulary selection (which words to teach first and which ones to keep later on), presentation (which techniques and ways to use for the presentation of the target vocabulary) and the retention (which kinds of tasks that teachers can set learners in to help move words in long-term memory).

In dealing with this teaching situation, the application of computer corpus data based on learners' needs should be adopted. It is essential to identify the academic needs before designing a language course (Munby: 1978).Therefore, students' needs and interests and corpus requirements should be taken into consideration when designing teaching materials. Such identification is likely to increase the teachers' awareness to the learners' needs and to the recent technological teaching tools and thus help course designers to design more efficient English courses in general and vocabulary teaching in particular.

2.6.2 *The Research Questions*

Actually, after a careful evaluation of the enquiries course designers face before, while and after teaching English vocabulary, the researcher decided to investigate them, seeking to answer the following questions: What beliefs do EFL teachers and learners hold about English vocabulary learning? What barriers and strategies do EFL teachers and learners encounter while teaching and learning vocabulary in their language classes using the textbook New Prospects? How can data corpus ease the burden and facilitate the processes involved in English vocabulary selection and instruction? What are the EFL teachers' and learners' perceptions regarding the application of data corpus in their EFL language classes? From these questions the following hypotheses are formulated.

2.6.3 *The Research Hypotheses*

As a first attempt to answer the preceding questions the researcher formulated the following hypotheses:

- EFL teachers and learners in Algerian secondary schools would regard vocabulary teaching and learning important to language learning and at the same time a difficult task.

- Both participants might display a lack of interest and motivation to EFL vocabulary teaching and learning. As a consequence, teachers may opt for a range of flexible teaching techniques and learners for learning strategies to go beyond these barriers.

- Data corpus as an informed materials would enhance EFL vocabulary knowledge and selection and may motivate teachers and learners for they can be sure that the language they are practicing is 'modern', i.e. used in everyday situations, and targeted to situations they are likely to find themselves in and corresponds to what they will hear and see in real conversations, movies, radio and TV shows, newspapers, books, Internet texts and magazines.

- Both teachers and learners would welcome the idea of applying corpus data, as an informed material, in their EFL vocabulary teaching and learning materials.

2.6.4 *The Objectives of the Study*

The present theses focuses on the teaching of vocabulary in foreign language classes and attempts to show that vocabulary has an important place in foreign language education. The main aim of the theses is threefold.

1- To give an overview of how the teaching of vocabulary is viewed in literature on foreign language education and bring together the most important ideas and suggestions for teaching vocabulary.

2- To examine the teaching and learning situation of EFL vocabulary in Algerian secondary school level; the case of third year literary stream pupils.

3- To raise awareness and give importance to the application of computer corpus-data in the field of language vocabulary teaching by highlighting some suggestions and recommendations which may overcome to some extent the difficulties teachers encounter as far as vocabulary knowledge, selection and instruction are concerned.

After having described the educational situation the present study is based on; and decided on what data to collect. The researcher would, then, decide about the research methodology i.e. the data collection procedures.

2.7 The Research Methodology

2.7.1 *The Choice of the Method*

The choice of the method is mainly based on the problem of the investigation. In fact, the nature of the problem, the population and the data to be collected make the researcher decide on one of many methods.

As the research work, one undertakes attempts to analyze the English vocabulary teaching in the third year secondary school syllabus and the problems facing the English foreign language teachers and learners, the researcher opted for the descriptive approach. Moreover, knowing the learners' actual needs and drawing the link between English vocabulary teaching and computer corpus data would be more fruitful by means of the descriptive method than registering their past needs and learning tools. Hence, the historical approach does not fit the present research; similarly, the experimental study would be of no usefulness if one considers that nothing new would be tested and that the researcher will only describe, report and analyze conditions of the current situation.

One decided, therefore, to focus on the descriptive status of the method than on the experimental one, influenced by the view that a good understanding of the problem is better gained through a description of the situation rather than speculating about the possible solutions.

The descriptive approach, indeed, would be more adequate for this research because the work is mainly based on definitions, description and analysis. Besides, in order to highlights the impact and the relation between English vocabulary teaching and corpus data, the researcher opted for the use of the aforesaid approach, which will permit one to identify this relation and collect the needed data about the subject under investigation. One would also attempt to provide the language teachers and learners alike with some suggestions for their development in the field of English vocabulary teaching and learning to third year English school pupils.

2.7.2 *The Sample Population*

To obtain the needed data regarding the English vocabulary teaching and learning situation as far as third year secondary school level and literary stream is concerned, the researcher deals with two samples chosen from the two different and meanwhile inter related populations.

Following the requirements of the present research, one needs both a population of learners for the administering of a questionnaire designed for the given English foreign language learners. Along with, a population of English foreign language teachers for the administering of a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview designed for teachers.

The population of pupils concerned by the present paper is third year literary stream pupils. One third year literary stream class (of 35 pupils) is presented as a sample among the 3 classes representing different literary, scientific and technological streams.

The concerned class is mixed between two different streams: third year "Letters and Philosophy" and "Letters and Foreign Languages" in Daoud Mohamed Eldjabli Secondary School at Remchi (Tlemcen) enrolled for the academic year 2009-2010.

The two streams share the same fact, that is, the subject matter of English is a primary one besides Arabic and French. Therefore, both streams are supposed to have an acceptable proficiency in languages since it reflects a personal predetermined choice and fits a given profile before the final orientation.

The pupils sample population stands for learners from "letters and philosophy" and "Letters and Foreign Languages" streams. It is made up of thirty five (35) pupils. There are 29 girls and 6 boys and from the whole 7 are repeaters.

Randomization will be the strategy used to choose the sample. The researcher will opt for this method because in random sampling, according to Brown (2001:72) *"each individual in the populations must have an equal chance of being selected"*, which reduces the effect of bias and enhances objectivity.

The population of teachers for this study is of 10 teachers, those who have taught English for the years, before and after the Educational Reform (2006). There are six female teachers and 4 male ones.

Actually, since the thesis is an analytic study of attitudes, opinions and application both teachers and pupils' perceptions toward the subject under investigation will be of relevance in this research work. The researcher, therefore, will need the use of the sample population of both teachers and pupils. Following this, the more attitudes and opinions the researcher collects the closer one is, to reasonable suggestions and effective solutions.

2.7.3 *The Research Instruments*

After one has limited the intended population and taken the sample, the researcher has decided on the use of questionnaires and structured interview. In order to collect the necessary information for the present research paper and to bring more consistency to the study one has opted for the combination of the two aforesaid research tools.

2.7.3.1 *The Questionnaire:*

Questionnaires are printed forms for data collection, which include questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond. They require subjects to provide information in response to a stimulus provided by the researcher. The answers in questionnaires are usually expressed in a written form. In this sense Brown (2001: 6)

writes "questionnaires *are written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers"*.

In second language acquisition research, questionnaires are used mostly to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed, such as attitudes, motivation and self-concepts as beliefs and preferences. They are also used to collect data on the processes involved in using language and to obtain background information bout the research subjects, such as age, previous background in language learning, number of language spoken and years of studying or teaching the language.

The questionnaires will be designed for the purpose of gaining further insights into the teaching situation in the intended secondary school. In addition, to obtain the teachers and learners' perceptions a questionnaire will be designed for both populations.

A questionnaire might be the only instrument that can serve as a means of collecting considerable data with a minimum of time and effort. In fact, it is used as the main source of data and seems to be the most appropriate tool for many considerations like: the large number of the population under investigation, its guarantee of the respondents' anonymity. Moreover, it allows researchers to obtain accurate relevant information and to collect factual data that can be analyzed quantitatively and systematically. It is not easily administrated, but it also provides a clear and general view of the investigated problem which is difficult to obtain by other means of investigation. Questionnaires, as pointed out by Anderson (1990:207) allow the gathering of reliable and valid data, relatively, in a short period of time.

In the present work the questionnaire will be directly administrated to the teachers and pupils in the given secondary school by the end of the academic year 2008-2009. Questionnaire can vary in their degree of explicitness. The researcher opts for those of a high degree of explicitness, structured questionnaires, in which the subjects are required to mark responses, to check agreements and disagreements or to select among a number of alternatives. Structured questionnaires are considered to be more efficient than open ones and can also be scored by machine. It is possible to use different types of questions, open and closed, in the same questionnaire.

However, one of the main problems with questionnaires is the relatively low response rate, which poses questions about the reasons why certain subjects respond and others do not. A low return rate may therefore influence the validity of the findings. At this level a call for a complementary research tool is needed.

a) The Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire aims to answer the first research question of this dissertation which reads: What beliefs do Algerian teachers hold about EFL vocabulary teaching and learning? Actually, it first surveys the teachers' background information and then reviews their views on EFL vocabulary instruction as far as the third year literary stream pupils in secondary school level are concerned.

There are 40 items, which can be divided into five sections: (1) Teachers' Background Information, (2) Teaching Conditions, (3) Teachers' Beliefs in Vocabulary Instruction, (4) "New Prospects" and English Vocabulary Teaching and (5) Teachers' Difficulties and suggestions in Vocabulary Instruction.

- **The Teachers' Questionnaire Administration and Description:**

The questionnaire begins with a small introduction in which the problem and the aims of the research are stated. The introduction will be followed by a small note assuring the respondents that the information contained in the questionnaire will remain anonymous.

It is generally assumed that the major problem in questionnaire's design is to make it clear and intelligible to all respondents. Consequently, the researcher tries as much as possible be away from leading, hypothetical or embarrassing questions. In fact, before administering the final draft of the questionnaire, the researcher pilots it on at least two doctors at the English language department at the university level to test its validity.

After bringing some relevant correction, the questionnaire was directly administered to the intended sample population of English teachers who have taught the third year literary stream secondary school pupils since 2002 (since the Algerian Educational Reform) or those who actually teaching English for the academic year 2009- 2010.

As mentioned lately, the questionnaire contains 40 items organized in 5 sections. Some of the items are common in both: the pupils' questionnaire as well as the teachers' one in order to compare both viewpoints concerning facts that need to be evaluated and dealt with from both scopes the one pupils and the other of teachers. The questionnaire is a combination of different types of questions. It consists of open form items, closed form of items and multiple choice items.

The first section contains 08 questions. They elicited information about the *teachers' background information*; including educational background (item 1 / 3), years of teaching English in secondary school (item 4), their status in the secondary school they are

teaching in (item 5), views and knowledge about the curriculum guidelines (items 6/7) and workshops attending experience (item 8). The items are in the form of multiple choices.

This section is beneficial in the sense that it determines the teachers' field experience in their English language learning as well as, the training they have undertaken. This data is important for teachers may behave differently depending on the institutions they learned in, their functional status and the number of years of teaching experience. Furthermore, their behaviour may differ from one teacher to another.

The second section, *teaching conditions*, includes 4 items. The questions aim at gathering information about the availability or management of English language teaching facilities and adequacy of language teaching materials and timing as regards to 3rd year literary stream teachers and pupils in the secondary school level. The researcher designs this section in the teachers' questionnaire under the belief that teaching materials and facilities are 'vital' elements in any language teaching and learning process.

The third section has 5 queries. The items in this section are to collect data about the teachers' *beliefs in vocabulary instruction*. Three of them are statements to which respondents are asked to indicate their agreement or disagreements. Following Five-point Likert-type, the informants' choices range from: strongly agree, agree, average, disagree and strongly disagree. However, the first two items are of multiple-choice questions.

The forth section deals with the textbook and the guidelines under use and the vocabulary instruction. It contains 9 items ranging between close-ended questions and multiple choices questions. The items enquire about whether the teachers followed a specific training to teach vocabulary in the Competency Based Approach (CBA) and whether they are provided with the language materials and teaching facilities. Some of which aim at eliciting data about the approach on which vocabulary teaching and learning strategies are based on, the objectives of the syllabus that can be fulfilled as regards vocabulary instruction and on whether the targeted vocabulary knowledge aspects are appropriate to the learners' interests and needs.

The last section is designed to encourage teachers to voice the difficulties they encounter in vocabulary instruction. It opens with 3 multiple choice questions that probe the type of difficulties and problem areas that teachers face while teaching targeted vocabulary to their learners. Eventually, in the last two items teachers are given an open space to provide the researcher with some suggestions, solutions and ways to facilitate and improve the EFL vocabulary teaching and learning situation.

b) The Pupils' Questionnaire

The pupils' questionnaire attempts to identify the pupils' perception on EFL vocabulary learning. It also aims at identifying the factors behind the third year literary pupils' difficulties and facilities in learning English vocabulary in the intended secondary school, hopefully to find a kind of remedy to this problem, by suggesting what would be more interesting and motivating of the problem.

The above objectives, therefore, entail collecting the pupils' opinions and seeing their attitudes and preferences regarding this learning situation.

A questionnaire is considered to be, particularly, adequate for this kind of research. In fact, it allows the researcher to reach a potentially large number of correspondents, thus, one needs to design a questionnaire for the given sample to collect the necessary data for the present research paper.

▪ The Pupils' Questionnaire Administration and Description

The questionnaire will begin with a brief introduction, in which the problem and the aims of the research will be revealed. Then it is followed by a collection of questions which will spread out of four or five sections which will be organized in a deductive order from general facts to more precise and closed elements to collect the needed data.

The pupils' questionnaire will not be piloted on a small sample of the population, since it will be directly administered to them and the instructions will be explained and handed to all third year literary stream pupils in the given secondary school.

In order to reach a better picture of the English vocabulary teaching conditions and practices in secondary school level, it would be vital for the purpose of the study to ask pupils about their vocabulary learning difficulties.

The following is a brief description of each section in the questionnaire. In section one: Pupils' Attitudes towards EFL Learning and Vocabulary, gathers data about the learner's general attitudes towards EFL learning in general and its vocabulary in particular. It allows the researcher to collect general information about the pupils' age, sex and their learning background as regards their pre-secondary school studying background.

Section two: Pupils 'Beliefs on EFL Vocabulary Learning, provides information about the learners beliefs on EFL vocabulary learning. The attempt behind addressing this section's questions in this section is to confirm or reject one's hypothesis concerning the importance and difficulty of EFL vocabulary.

Section three is named: Pupils 'Practices on EFL Vocabulary Learning. This section supplies the researcher with some information closely related to the aspect of English vocabulary in terms of, learners' learning strategies and their motivating and demotivating task while dealing with vocabulary learning.

At last, section four: Learners' Difficulties and Suggestions in Vocabulary Instruction; is devoted to summarize the pupils' difficulties, needs, interests and preferences and permits to offer pupils a free space to give what they think best for a better achievement in the aspect of English vocabulary teaching and learning.

2.7.3.2 The Semi-Structured Interview

Interviews aim at obtaining information by direct contact with the subjects. The interviewer asks questions and the interviewee responds in a face-to-face situation. Therefore, interviews are personalized and permit a level of in-depth information-gathering, free response and flexibility that can not be obtained by other procedures. Interviews can be differentiated by their degree of explicitness and structure, ranging from very open interviews to very structured ones (Herbert, 2000). One makes use of the semi-structured interview whenever uniform and specific information is needed.

The Semi-structured interview is conducted with a fairly open framework which allow for focused, conversational, two-way communication. It is used as one qualitative technique/method of analysis in order to give and receive information. Unlike the questionnaire framework, where detailed questions are formulated ahead of time, semi structured interviewing starts with more general questions or topics (Powney and Watts, 1987). Relevant topics are initially identified and the possible relationships between these topics become the basis for more specific questions, which do not need to be prepared in advance. Not all questions are designed and phrased ahead of time. The majority of questions are created during the interview, allowing both the interviewer and the person being interviewed the flexibility to probe for details or discuss issues (Valentine, 1997). It has several advantages. First, it is administrated individually to the members of the sample and the information is completed by the researcher himself, thus ensuring that all questions are answered by all informants. Second, the interview allows for personal explanations of questions, in case any point(s) need(s) to be clarified.

For all the above reasons, the semi-structured interview may be regarded as another more reliable instrument chosen for this research, especially when dealing with a small sample (teachers).Yet, at the same time questionnaires and structured interview are not always reliable tools of research for complacency; telling lies to please the researcher are

noticed. Hence, the teachers and learners' will of cooperation is the most important instrument.

- ### *The Teachers' Semi-Structured Interview Administration and Description*

The semi-structured interview is designed to collect information about the teachers' practices in the English vocabulary instruction to 3rd year literary stream EFL learners, in secondary school. The researcher takes an *interview schedule* which lists the topics to be discussed out of beforehand determined questions. Yet at the same time one allows elaboration in the questions and answers for better clarification and explanation. In this kind of interviews, the interviewer at the same time supplements the interview with audio taping and takes notes of the main points because the interviewers code switch while speaking. Latter on, the researcher summarizes the gathered data of each interviewer in order to analyze the results in tables and graphs.

The seventeen (17) questions composing the semi-structured interview have been developed on the basics of reviewed data on teachers' questionnaire on their beliefs in vocabulary instruction. Therefore, the semi-structured interview is the approximate counterpart of the teachers' questionnaire. The difference is that, it is to collect data about their practices in English vocabulary instruction and perceptions on computer corpus-data effectiveness in this area.

Five-point Likert-type scale is also used from item 14 to 16 and the topics of the interview questions are oriented towards goals of vocabulary instruction, roles teachers play, content of vocabulary instruction, teaching procedures and computer corpus application in vocabulary instruction.

Question (1) is about the *goals* of vocabulary instruction. Question (2) is about the *roles* teachers play. Questions (3) to (5) investigate the *content* of vocabulary instruction. Questions from (6) to (11) ask about the *teaching procedures*. Question (12) and (16) are designed for raising *awareness about Computer-Corpus Data* and after supplying 'basic' information about corpus data whenever needed. Besides, they seek to gather the informants' perceptions regarding the application of computerized corpus-data in EFL vocabulary instruction. Last, but not the least question (17) gives the interviewees a chance to comment on vocabulary instruction. The following table lists the seventeen (17) questions that the semi-structured interview includes:

Table 2: The Semi-structures Interview Questions.

Issues	The Questions
Goals	1- Do you teach English vocabulary to develop productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing or receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading?
Roles	2- What roles do you think you are to play in EFL vocabulary instruction process in general?
Content	3- When teaching the English language classes for 3rd year literary stream pupils, the focus is made on : a) Presenting information related to the units of the syllabus. b) Presenting grammar and vocabulary. c) Both presented in equal level. d) Both but presented in different levels. 4- Which of the following you consider most useful for teaching about word knowledge apart from its form (spoken and written) and meaning(s)? Please rate them from 1 to 6 for each selection: (1) the most important and (6) the least important. a) The word parts it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form). b) Its grammatical behaviour. c) Its collocations. d) Its register. e) What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning). f) What connotations it has. 5- Which sources do you use for teaching the aspects of word knowledge you are about to teach? a) School textbooks b) language dictionaries c) internet d) Vocabulary books e) magazines f) others ……………
Teaching Procedures	6- Do you integrate English vocabulary teaching into all language skills or only when needed (when learners ask for)? 7- Do you attempt to personalize the learning process by getting learners to relate topics and texts in the textbook to their own lives, views, and feelings? 8- How often do you discuss vocabulary knowledge issues in your English classes? a) often (in almost every lesson) b) sometimes (once a week) c) rarely (once a month) d)never 9- Do you encourage learners to ask questions? 10- Do you test your learners' vocabulary learning in an oral or written way or both? 11- Are you satisfied with the English vocabulary knowledge and selection resources and teaching techniques you are currently using?

Computer Corpus- data Awareness	12- Have you updated your knowledge about EFL vocabulary instruction? 13- Do you have prior knowledge about computer corpus-data? 14- Computer corpus-data is the 'richest' language source that syllabus designers textbook writers and may rely on for presenting both current and authentic language content and practices as regards EFL learners in 3rd year literary stream at secondary school level. a) Agree b) strongly agree c) average d) disagree e) strongly disagree 15- EFL Vocabulary Knowledge is best analyzed, selected and taught with the aid of computer corpus data? a) Agree b) strongly agree c) average d) disagree e) strongly disagree 16- Raising awareness about computer corpus data and recommending its application in EFL teaching situations may improve the language learners and users' proficiency level as a whole. a) Agree b) strongly agree c) average d) disagree e) strongly disagree
Other Issues	17- Are there other opinions / ways regarding English vocabulary selection and instruction that you would like to express?

2.7.4. *The Reliability of the Research Instruments*

The question of reliability of the research instruments is of paramount importance in any research, since the more reliable the researcher is the more valid results he will yield. Thus, one should take much care as far as this issue is concerned, to insure that the instruments are as reliable as possible.

2.8 Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher reveals the teaching of English as a foreign language as regards the Algerian situation and denotes the research methodology the present investigation is based upon. Once the research data have been collected with the aid of different types of data collection procedures as described previously, the next phase of the research is to analyze and interpret those data.

Chapter Three
Data Analysis and Interpretation

Chapter Three: Data Analysis and Interpretation.

3.1 Introduction:

As one of the aims of this dissertation is to examine the teaching and learning situation of EFL Vocabulary in Algerian secondary school level - the case of third year literary stream pupils; questionnaires and semi-structured interviews are chosen as the sources for eliciting data.

Two questionnaires are designed, one for teachers and another for learners, to answer the research question which claims the following: which beliefs do Algerian teachers hold about EFL vocabulary teachers and learning? A semi-structured interview is designed to gather data about the following research questions: what practices and difficulties do EFL teachers and learners encounter while selecting, teaching, assessing and learning vocabulary in their language classes? And, what are the teachers' perspectives regarding the application of data corpus in their EFL language classes in general and vocabulary in particular? By means of these research tools, the researcher will analyze and present, discuss and interpret the data obtained from the different utilized research tools both quantitatively and qualitatively.

3.2 Data Analysis:

In the data analysis phase the researcher analyses and presents the findings gathered from the different research tools opted in the present dissertation. The data is analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. In quantitative analysis, the data collected from the teachers' questionnaires and the teachers and learners' interviews are formulated into statistics and presented in tables, circles and charts. In qualitative analysis, the information that one gathers from the questionnaires and the semi-structured interview, do not deal with numerical data. In fact, it rather deals with linguistic units on written and oral forms. Hence, the researcher summarizes the main ideas and remarks related to the subject under matter.

3.2.1 The Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis and Presentation:

To analyze the data presented in the questionnaire one uses the descriptive statistics. Hence the researcher analyses the questionnaire section by section and item by item using percentages. For the presentation of the results the researcher uses for each item that is presented in a table, a circle divided into sectors, following the percentages of choices presented in the tables.

Section one: **The Teachers' Background Information**

In this section the reader will be acquainted with the teachers' background information of their English learning and teaching.

Item 1: Did you study English at?   a) I.T.E.   b) University

Table 3: The Teachers Graduation

Variables	I.T.E.	University	Total
Number of Teachers	0	10	10
Percentages	00%	100%	100%

To indicate the teachers' graduation they were asked if they study English at I.T.E (institute Technologique de l'Education) or at university. From table 3 it is clear that shows that all the respondents (10/10) are taught at university level of education and consequently hold a license degree at least which aloud them to tackle their language teaching classes with 'average' confidence. These teachers studied English for four years and when they graduate they are oriented to teach either in middle or secondary schools.

Item 2: Your highest level of university education:

a)   License   b) Magister   c) Doctorate   d) other (specify) ....
      Table 4: The Teachers Qualifications.

Variables	License	Magister	Doctorate	Other	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	0	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	00%	00%	100%

To see if teachers have any upgrading studies in English language learning, they were asked to tick the best response from the above propositions. The results obtained reveal that all teachers hold a License degree of high education studies.

Item 3: Are you: a) Part time teacher   b) Full time teacher

Table 5: The Teachers' Status

Variables	Part time teacher	Full time teacher	Total
Number of Teachers	0	10	10
Percentages	00%	100%	100%

In order to identify the teachers'' status they were asked whether they are part time instructor or full time ones. The results in table 5 reveal that all the respondents (10 teachers) are full time teachers.
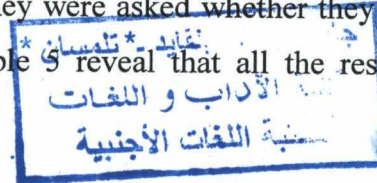
Item 4: How long have you been teaching English in secondary-school?

Table 6: The Teachers' English Teaching Experience at Secondary School.

Variables	4 Years	12 Years	22 Years	Total
Number of Teachers	2	6	2	10
Percentages	20%	60%	20%	100%

To see the experience of teachers in teaching the English language at secondary school; they were asked for how long they taught it. Responses to this item show that two teachers are experienced teachers because they taught for a 'long' period (22 Years). Yet it is not evidence because one can find or meet experiences teachers with a bad quality of teaching. This is due in fact to the teachers themselves, as they did not alter their techniques in their teaching or they remained convinced of the ones they used despite the bad results the pupils get from. The less experienced teachers are those who taught only for only fewer years (4) and are 2/10. The majority of the respondents (6 teachers), however, admit that they have taught for 12 years. This category seems to be between experiences teachers and less experienced ones.

Figure 4: The Teachers' English Teaching Experience at Secondary School.
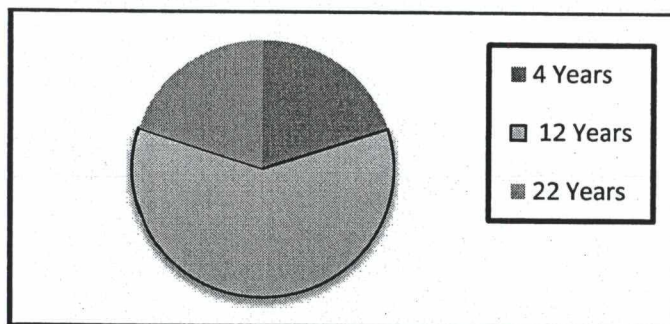
Item 5: Among the school years, when teaching English to 3rd year literary stream learners, how do you evaluate this teaching according to the newly adopted syllabus?

   a) Very difficult   b) Difficult   c) Average   d) Easy   e) Very easy

Table 7: The Teachers' Perceptions on the Competency Based Approach (CBA)

Variables	Very difficult	Difficult	Average	Easy	Very easy	Total
Number of Teachers	2	5	3	0	0	10
Percentages	20%	50%	30%	00%	00%	100%

Most teachers agree on the fact that the teaching of English to ELF learners in literary stream level by means of the competency based approach is 'difficult", in the sense that 5/10 teachers see it as difficult, 3/10 regard this teaching as average and only 2 teachers qualifies it as 'very difficult'.

Figure 5: The Teachers' Perceptions on the C.B.A.
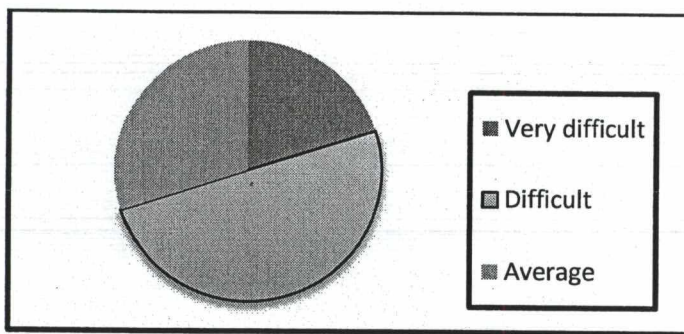
Item 6: Did you have any English language training courses about C.B.A?

a) Yes   b) No

If "yes", was the training a series of: a) Lectures   b) Seminars   c) other (specify)…….........

Table 8: The Teachers' C.B.A. Training

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	100%

The responses to this item allow the researcher to know that all teachers (10/10) have been trained to teach English in the C.B.A. in a form of seminars. Actually, one may underline that in these seminars teachers were informed about the reforms that the C.B.A. brings and did not undergo through specific training in the field of EFL teaching so as to be provided them with the necessary basics and techniques to apply them in their language teaching.

Item 7:   Have you attended any course or seminar on teaching EFL vocabulary?

a) Yes   b) No

If "yes", please specify………………………………

Table 9: The Teachers' Attendance to EFL Vocabulary Courses or Seminars.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	0	10	10
Percentages	00%	100%	100%

This question was designed to see if teacher have updated their knowledge about EFL vocabulary teaching and learning situations since they graduated. The obtained results reveal that all informants (10/10) have not attended seminars about EFL vocabulary teaching and learning situations.

Section Two: The Teaching Conditions.

From The questions in this section the researcher will provide information about the teaching conditions the present study is concerned with.

Item 8: Are you provided with "New Prospects", its guidelines and the teacher's guidebook?

        a) Yes   b) No

Table 10: Material Provided

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	100%

The teachers' responses to this item reveal that all teachers (10/10) are provided with the language textbook and the teachers' guidebook. This question was designed to make sure that the instructors are equipped by these materials, for the period of reforms in the Algerian educational system witnessed a 'big' problem in providing the teachers with the textbooks and guidelines.

Item 9: Do you have any special material designed for 3rd year literary stream learners?
           Yes   No
If "yes", specify: …………………………

Table 11: Specialized Provided Material

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	100%

As it is pointed at in the responses of teachers in item 9, the respondents argue that there is a sort of special material designed to literary stream pupils. They explained that the textbook "New Prospects" is designed to all third year pupils' streams and the only difference is that they make a kind of selections at the level of units, project-works and instruments like: data show and computers.

Item 10: Besides the school textbook and the teacher's guidebook, do you use any other language materials?   a) Yes   b) No

If "yes", specify the form (library or electronic) and the need (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation...).

Table 12: Additional Language Material Use.

Variables	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Yes	7	70%
No	3	30%
Library Books	2	20%
Electronic Books	8	80%
Grammar Needs	2	20%
Vocabulary Needs	6	60%
Pronunciation Needs	10	100%

The table above shows that all respondents use other published books along with the school textbook, "New Prospects", when preparing their EFL courses. Teachers explain that they make use of other books in both forms, i.e. library and electronic references, to answer their needs in pronunciation for most (100%), vocabulary (60%) and grammar (20%). This reflects that the EFL teaching materials and tasks in the school textbook are not adequate and teacher would play roles of researchers, material developer and facilitator in their classes. Actually, they integrate other teaching materials so as to provide much knowledge and practice on the intended course to these pupils who are expected to undertake the baccalaureate exam for further university studies.

Figure 6: Additional Language Material Use
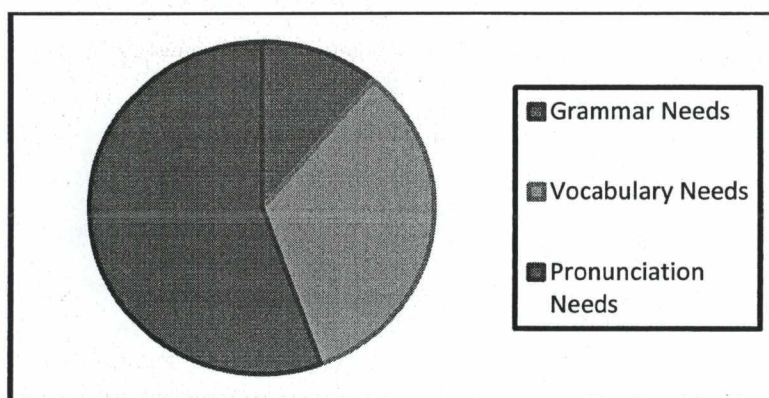
Item 11: Is the time (hours) allotted to teach English as regards to 3rd year literary stream pupils in the secondary school level sufficient?   a) Yes   b) No

Table 13: The Teachers' Perceptions on the EFL Sufficiency Classes Timing.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	6	4	10
Percentages	60%	40%	100%

The question in item 11 seeks information about the teachers' perceptions on the amount of time allotted to teach EFL classes to literary stream learners, who are at the final level and who are expected to pass their baccalaureate exam so as to further their studies at higher education institutions. Responses reveal that the majority of teachers think it is sufficient, in the sense that 6/10 answered 'yes' and 4/10 answered 'yes'.

Section Three: Teachers' Beliefs in Vocabulary Instruction.

In section three of the teachers' questionnaire, the readers will get informed about the beliefs that Algerian secondary school teachers hold about EFL vocabulary teaching.

Item 12: As a teacher of English, how do you evaluate your third year literary stream pupils' level of English language proficiency?

a) Very satisfying   b) Satisfying   c) Average   d) Not Satisfying   e) Poor

Table 14: The Teachers' Evaluation of Learners Language Proficiency.

Variables	Very satisfying	Satisfying	Average	Not Satisfying	Poor	Total
Number of Teachers	0	0	2	3	5	10
Percentages	00%	00%	20%	30%	50%	100%

To see the teachers' perceptions of their students, they were asked the following questions: "As a teacher of English, how do you evaluate your third year literary stream pupils' level of English language proficiency?"According to the results of table 14, 5 teachers evaluate third year literary stream pupils' language proficiency as poor. 3 other teachers estimate it as not satisfying and only 2 see it as average.

Figure 7: The Teachers' Evaluation of Learners Language Proficiency
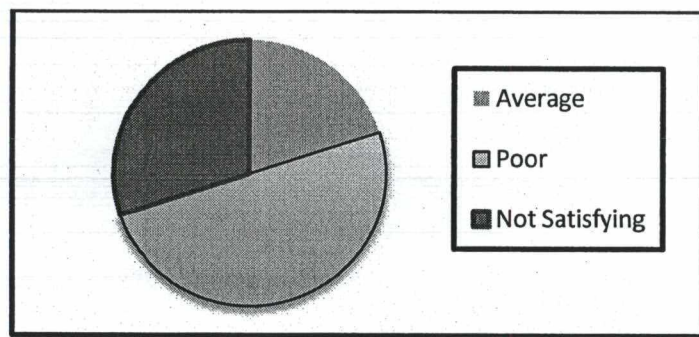
Item 13: Languages are said to have three elements; which language element can promote the learner's level of language proficiency?

a) Sounds (pronunciation)   b) Words (vocabulary)   c) Rules (grammar)

Table 15: The Teachers' Choice of the Linguistic Element for Language Proficiency Improvement.

Variables	Sounds (pronunciation)	Words (vocabulary)	Rules (grammar)	Total
Number of Teachers	3	5	2	10
Percentages	30%	50%	20%	100%

To see which language element teachers regard most important in improving EFL proficiency level; and simultaneously which language component learners are usually week on, teachers were asked the following query: which language element can promote the learner's level of language proficiency?

From the table 15 it is clear that most teachers place their choices on 'words (vocabulary)', in the sense that a rate of 50% represents that choice. Whereas, only 2

respondents answer with 'Rules (grammar)' and 3 answers for 'sounds (pronunciation)'. The results of this item provide a comparison between the language element that pupils need to learn more about for EFL improvement and which one teachers need more knowledge about. The results show that learners need more reinforcement about EFL vocabulary to language proficiency improvements. However, less focus was given to pronunciation and grammars for these elements are embedded in words knowledge.

Figure 8: The Teachers' Choice of the Linguistic Element for Language Proficiency Improvement.
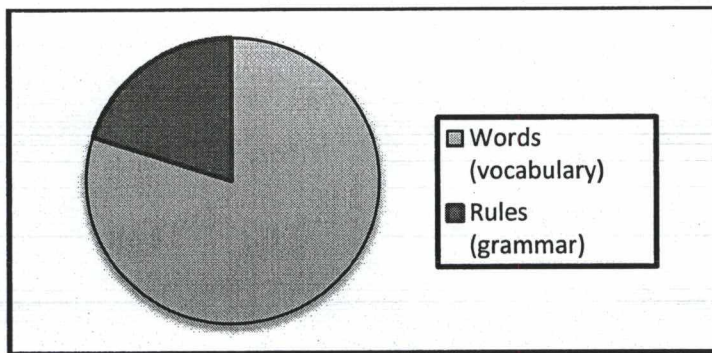
Item 14: Vocabulary knowledge is the most important linguistic element for English teaching and learning proficiency.

a) Strongly Agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 16: The Teachers' Agreement on Statement 14.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	7	3	0	0	0	10
Percentages	70%	30%	00%	00%	00%	100%

To see the extent to which teachers are aware of the role that vocabulary knowledge plays in improving EFL proficiency level and if they change their focus vocabulary; they were asked to state their degree of agreement or disagreement on the following statement which overlaps with the previous question: Vocabulary knowledge is the most important linguistic element for English teaching and learning proficiency. The results obtained reveal that 7 teachers display a strongly agreement with the statement while 3/10 of the informants agree; in the sense that they chose the variable "Agree".

Figure 9: The Teachers' Agreement on Statement 14.
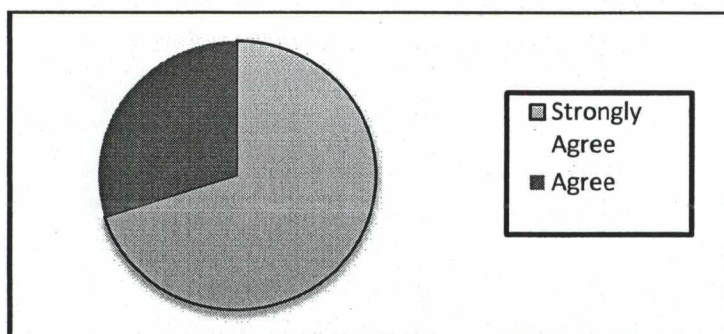
Item 15: Learners' lack in English language proficiency and school failure in this subject accounts for their deficient vocabulary knowledge.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 17: The Teachers' Agreement on Statement 15.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	8	2	0	0	0	10
Percentages	80%	20%	00%	00%	00%	100%

To see if teachers' relate the learners' lack of in English language proficiency and school failure in this subject accounts for their deficient vocabulary knowledge, instructors were asked to give their opinions on this statement: Learners' lack in English language proficiency and school failure in this subject accounts for their deficient vocabulary knowledge. Table 17 shows that most teachers (8/10) strongly agree on the statement while 2 of the informants only agree with. This again proves their awareness about the importance and the roles that vocabulary knowledge plays in ELF teaching and learning classes.

Figure 10: The Teachers' Agreement on Statement 15.
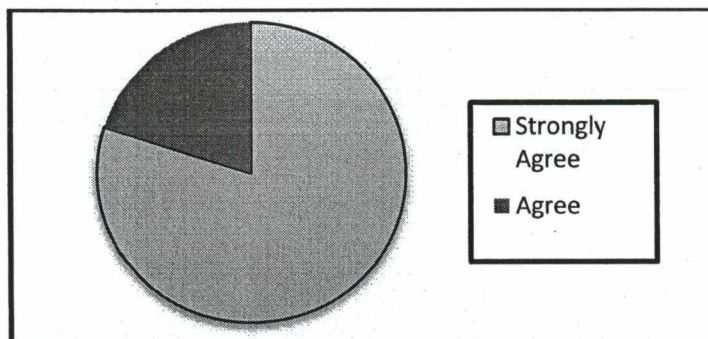
Item 16: Learners are more interested and motivated in learning the language with authentic vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which they are likely to find themselves on.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 18: The Teachers' Agreement on Statement 16.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	0	6	4	0	0	10
Percentages	00%	60%	40%	00%	00%	100%

To see if learners in the eyes of their teachers regard authentic vocabulary that is targeted to situations which learners are likely to find themselves on, as interesting and motivating in teaching and learning; teachers were asked to choose their rate of agreement or disagreement on this statement: Learners are more interested and motivated in learning the language with authentic vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which they are likely to find themselves on. From the obtained results shown in table 18, more than half number of the respondents (6/10) showed their agreement with statement 16. when only 4 of them opted for the variable 'average'.

Figure 11: The Teachers' Agreement on Statement 16.
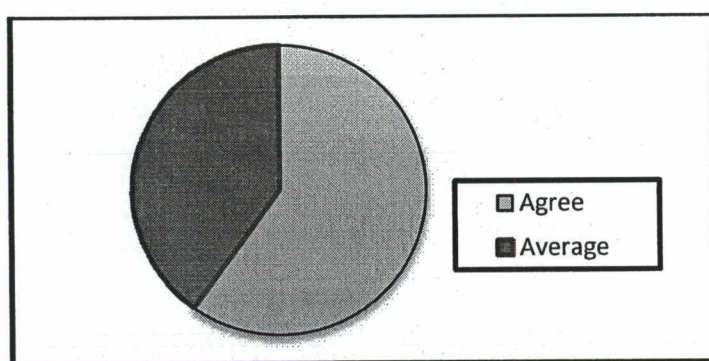
Section Four: *"New Prospects" and English Vocabulary Teaching*

In that section, the researcher brings and analyses EFL vocabulary in relation to the textbook which that the samples (EFL teachers and third year literary stream pupils) chosen in this work are currently using.

Item 17: Have you been trained to teach English vocabulary in the adopted syllabus (CBA)?   a) Yes   b) No

If "yes", was the training a series of: a) Lectures   b) Seminars   c) other (specify).........

Table 19: The Teachers' EFL Vocabulary Training in the C.B.A.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	00	10	10
Percentages	00%	100%	100%

All the 10 teachers reported that they have not been trained to teach English vocabulary and even English in general in the years after the Educational Reforms in 2002. They were also asked to indicate the forms of the training they took. The respondents explained that the only hand given was the seminars where they were informed and not trained about the reforms and the guidelines that the newly adopted syllabus (C.B.A) offers in EFL teaching in general but not to vocabulary teaching and learning situations.

Item 18: The teaching techniques "New Prospects" uses to teach English vocabulary to your learners are: a) Unplanned   b) Planned   c) De-contextualized   d) Contextualized

Table 20: Vocabulary Teaching Techniques in 'New Prospects'.

Variables	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Unplanned (occasions)	3	30%
Planned (lists)	10	100%
De-contextualized	00	00%
Contextualized	10	100%

To indicate the teaching techniques applied in 'New Prospects' and teachers use as far as EFL vocabulary is concerned, they were asked to choose between incidental learning versus planned learning and de-contextualized, i.e. practiced alone versus contextualized, i.e. practiced in context. As the above table shows, three of the responses (30%) claim for unplanned techniques (apart from the targeted vocabulary in a given sequence from a given unit teachers may teach incidental vocabulary knowledge). However, all of the informants (100%) opt for planned vocabulary instruction. Besides, all teachers argue that vocabulary knowledge is presented by means of contextualized techniques in the school textbook they are currently using-'New Prospects'.

Some teachers (9/10) add other ELF vocabulary learning strategies that the school textbook provides to learners in literary stream. These include: word formation (either to form words by adding affixes or to derive adjective and/or nouns from verbs), classifying words in tables in terms of verbs, adjectives and nouns and guessing meaning in contexts.

Figure 13: Other Vocabulary Learning Strategies in 'New Prospects'.
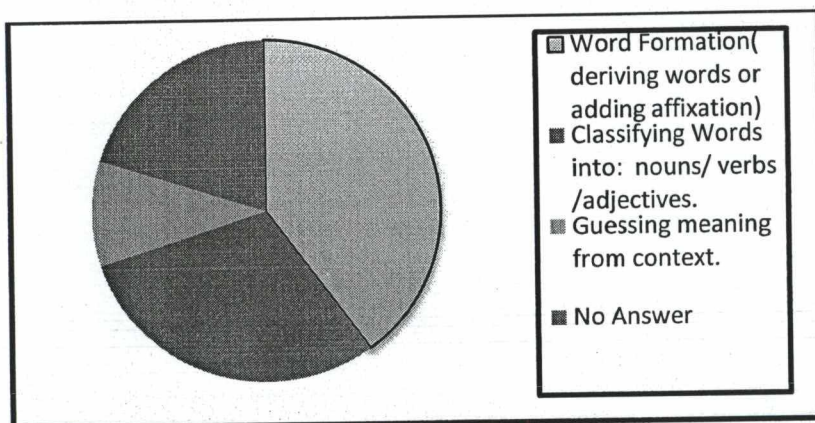
Item 20: In your opinion, does the textbook offer varied and enough material for teaching and discussing vocabulary knowledge as regards 3rd year literary stream learners' interests and needs?

a) Yes, quiet a lot   b) Enough   c) To some extent   d) No

Table 22: Adequacy of EFL Vocabulary Knowledge Aspects.

Variables	Yes, quiet a lot	Enough	To some extent	No	Total
Number of Teachers	0	4	6	0	10
Percentages	00%	40%	60%	00%	100%

The question seeks information on whether or not the EFL vocabulary teaching materials for teaching and discussing vocabulary knowledge in use is enough and varied to cover the interests and meet the needs of third year literary stream learners, a fact that can be seen later in the pupils' questionnaire. Prior to this question teachers admitted that they make use of other teaching materials and that they need more reinforcements in English vocabulary, therefore, one may strongly predict that the textbook teaches and discusses EFL vocabulary to a lesser extent. According to table 22, 6 teachers said that 'New Prospects' offers, to some extent, the needed ELF vocabulary knowledge teaching materials as far as third year literary pupils are concerned. However, 4 teachers out of 10 argued that it presents and discusses enough vocabulary knowledge.

Figure 14: Adequacy of EFL Vocabulary Knowledge Aspects
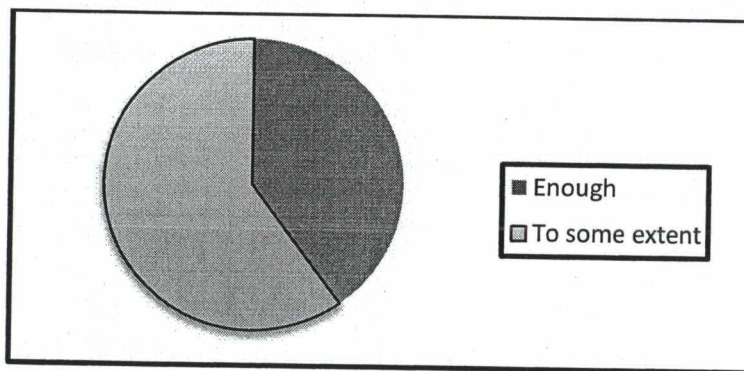
Item 21: With respect to third-year pupils' language proficiency level, textbooks and teachers; does English vocabulary teaching materials fulfilled its meant pedagogical objectives as expected to further studies in university studies?

a) Strongly Agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 23: The Teachers' Evaluation of EFL vocabulary Pedagogical Objectives Fulfillment

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	0	0	7	3	0	10
Percentages	00%	00%	70%	30%	00%	100%

To see if learners, teachers and language materials fulfill the meant EFL vocabulary pedagogical objectives, teachers were asked to give their agreement or disagreement on the question that follows: With respect to third-year pupils' language proficiency level, textbooks and teachers; does English vocabulary teaching materials fulfilled its meant pedagogical objectives as expected to further studies in university studies? From table 23, it is clear that 7 teachers out of 10 state that the meant pedagogical objective fulfillments are average, when 3 teachers out of 10 disagree about the statement 21.

Figure 15: The Teachers' Evaluation of EFL vocabulary Pedagogical Objectives Fulfillment.
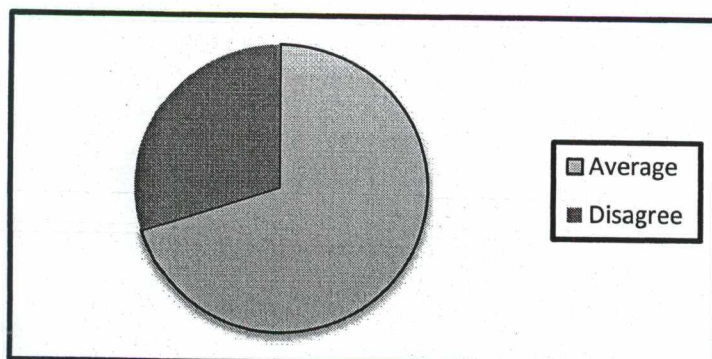
Section Five: Teachers' Difficulties and Suggestions in Vocabulary Instruction.

The last section open space to voice the difficulties teachers meet in teaching knowledge about EFL vocabulary. Moreover, it gathers data about their suggestions in relation to the problems they have identified.

Item 22: Do you regard vocabulary teaching and learning as:

a) Complex   b) Simple   c) Very Simple

Table 24: Vocabulary Instruction Complexity or Simplicity.

Variables	Complex	Simple	Very Simple	Total
Number of Teachers	4	6	0	10
Percentages	40%	60%	00%	100%

To seek information about the teachers' perceptions regarding the complexity or simplicity of the task of EFL vocabulary instruction, the informants were asked the following question: Do you regard vocabulary teaching and learning as: complex, simple or very simple? The results obtained reveal that all teachers find it difficult to teach vocabulary, in the sense that most informants (6/10) chose the variable 'simple' as an answer to the question in item 23, while 4 teacher answered 'complex'.

Figure 16: Vocabulary Instruction Complexity or Simplicity.
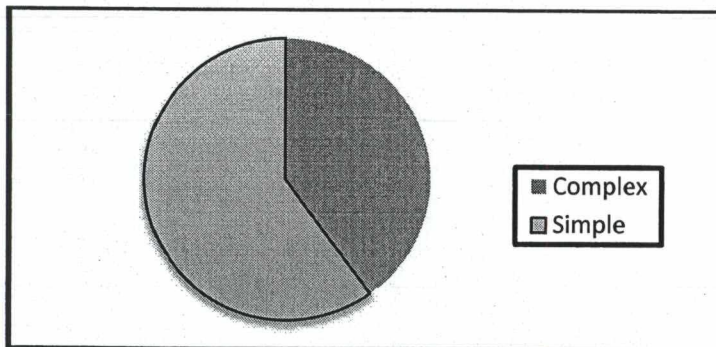
Item 23: Do you find difficulties in teaching vocabulary? a) Yes   b) No

Table 25: Vocabulary Instruction Difficulties.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	100%

The question in item 24 complements and validates the one in item 23 as it gathers data about whether or not both teachers, those who answered "complex" or "simple", face difficulties in teaching vocabulary to their learners. Not a single teacher out of 10 admits

that he or she does not face difficulties in teaching vocabulary, though some regard this teaching as not complex, in the sense that most reported in the previous item that EFL vocabulary instruction is simple. Actually all the respondents (10/10) confess that they meet difficulties in teaching EFL vocabulary to their learners.

Item 24: These difficulties are related to: a) The textbook   b) The vocabulary difficulty itself   c) Pupils' level of language proficiency   d) Teaching Facilities   e) Others……

Table 26: Vocabulary Problem Areas.

Variables	Number of Teachers	Percentages
The textbook	2	20%
The vocabulary difficulty itself	0	00%
Pupils' level of language proficiency	6	60%
Teaching Facilities	0	00%
Others: Lack of Motivation	2	20%

Figure 17: Vocabulary Problem Areas
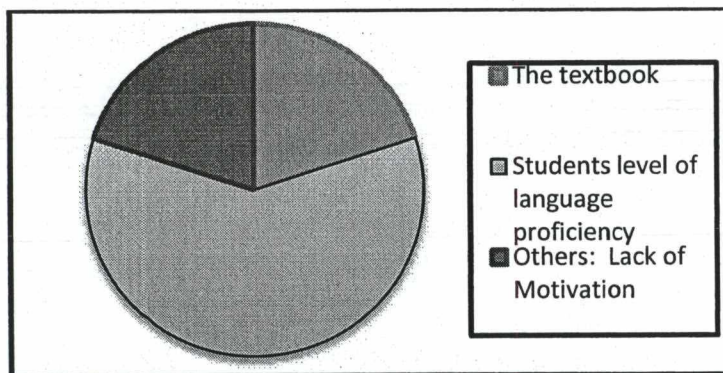
Item 25: Knowing that vocabulary knowledge is embedded and needed in all language skills; what solutions (suggestions and recommendations) can you provide to these problem areas as far as "efficient" English vocabulary instruction is concerned?

Table 27: Vocabulary Instruction Suggestions.

Teachers' Suggestions	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Reinforcing vocabulary teaching materials and its tasks for more practice and better assessment and learning.	3	30%
Raising vocabulary importance awareness among pupils in classes.	2	20%
Having pupils well trained in prior years to their last year.	4	40%
Working with smaller classes.	1	10%

From the previous item most teachers complain from the pupils' level of language proficiency. Therefore, as a suggestion the majority of them (40%) argue that EFL learning in general and vocabulary in particular may be enhanced if learners have been well trained in prior years to their last year. 30% of the informants claim for more reinforcements in vocabulary teaching materials and varied tasks for vocabulary practice and assessment. 20% of the respondents, however, claim for raising a kind of awareness regarding vocabulary importance in EFL learning so as to encourage learning in and outside the classroom while one teacher suggests working with smaller classes. (Figure 29)

Figure 18: Vocabulary Instruction Suggestions.
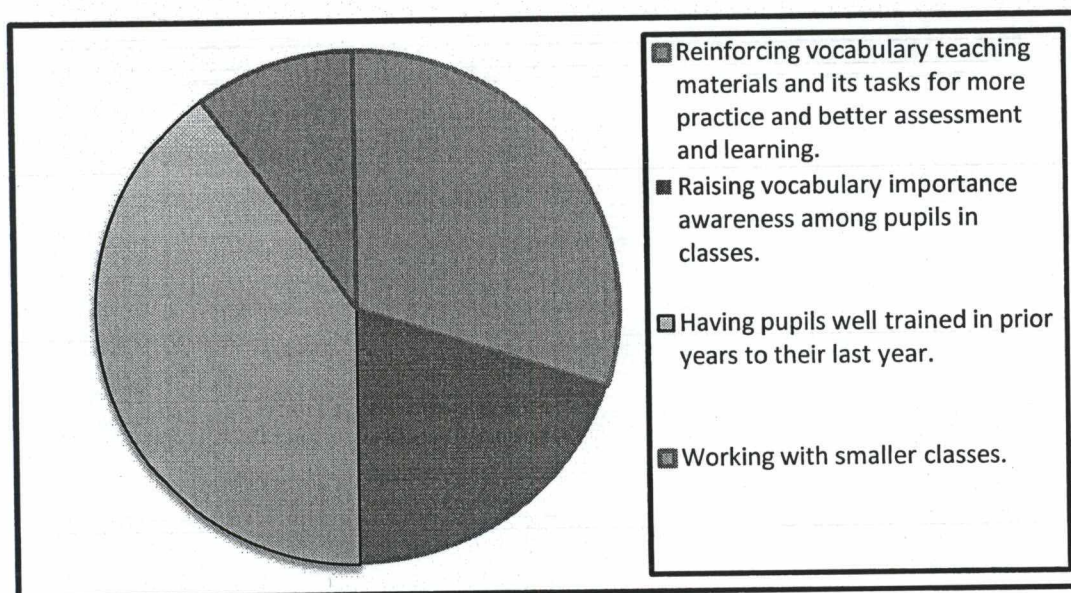
3.2.2 The Teachers' Semi-Structured Interview Analysis and Presentation:

In analyzing the semi-structures interview, the researcher presents the gathered data in tables and graphs. Actually in processing the teacher's interview, both interviewees and interviewer add more questions to the already designed ones for the interviewees leading answers and need for information, mainly when it comes to computer corpus data.

In appendix (B) lies the questions added by both participants and they are written in *italics* mode for distinction.

Item 1: Do you teach English vocabulary to develop productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing or receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading?

Table 28: Goals of Vocabulary Instruction.

Variables (Goals)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
productive skills development	8	80%
receptive skills development	2	20%
Total	10	100%

The table above shows that 8 out of 10 teachers explain that they teach vocabulary basically to improve their learners' receptive and productive skills mainly reading and writing for the fact that these pupils are expected to pass their baccalaureate exam to further studies at higher education institutions.

Figure 19: Goals of Vocabulary Instruction
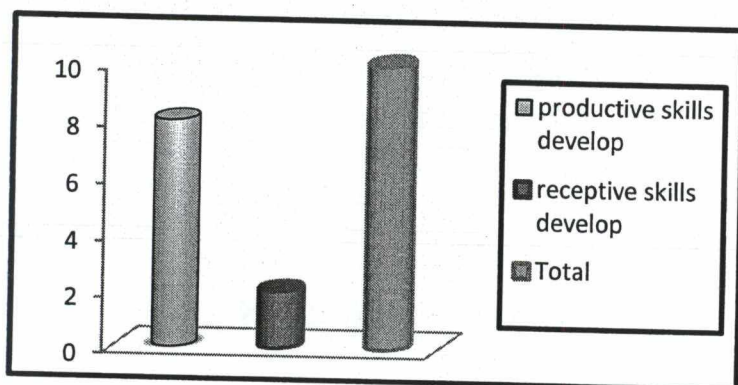
Item 2: What roles do you think you are to play in EFL vocabulary instruction process in general?

Table 29: The Teachers' Roles in Vocabulary Instruction.

Variables (Goals)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Facilitator	10	100%
Material Developer	8	80%
Total	10	100%

The teachers one has interviewed said they do play certain roles to reach what they need to teach about vocabulary knowledge. Most (8/10) admit that they in general play the role of facilitators in their EFL classes, while 8 of material developer.

Figure 20: The Teachers' Roles in Vocabulary Instruction.
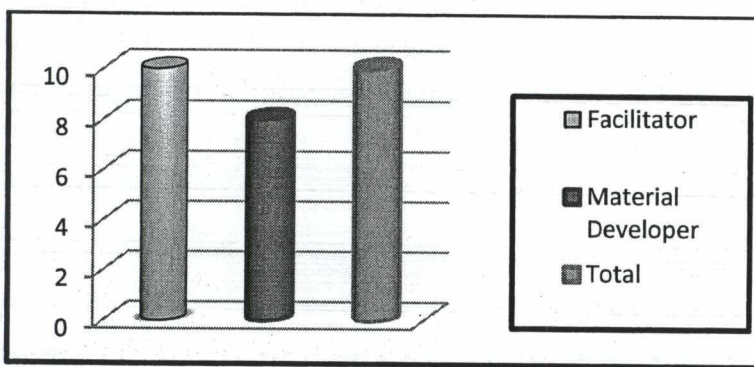
Item 3: When teaching the English language classes for third year literary stream pupils, the focus is made on:

a) Presenting information related to the units of the syllabus.

b) Presenting grammar and vocabulary.

c) Both presented in equal level.

d) Both but presented in different levels.

Table 30: Teachers' Way of Presenting EFL classes:

Variables (Content)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Presenting information related to the units of the syllabus	10	100%
Presenting grammar and vocabulary	10	100%
Both presented in equal level	00	00%
Both but presented in different levels	10	100%
Total	10	100%

All the ten teachers report that there is combination when presenting EFL classes between vocabulary / grammar information and facts related to the units of the syllabus but at different scale.

Figure 21: Teachers' Way of Presenting EFL classes:
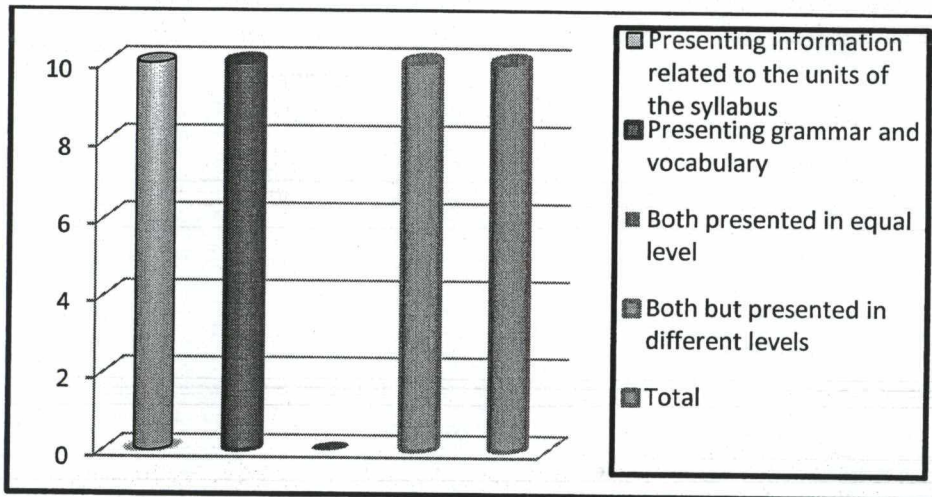
Item 4: Which of the following you consider most useful for teaching about word knowledge apart from its form (spoken and written) and meaning(s)? Please rate them from 1 to 6 for each selection: (1) the most important and (6) the least important.

a) The word parts it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form).

b) Its grammatical function.

c) Its collocations.

d) Its register.

e) What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning).

f) What connotations it has.

Table 31: What Teachers find more interesting to Teach about Word Knowledge.

Variables (Content)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Its word parts	8	80%
Its grammatical function	10	100%
Its collocations.	3	30%
Its register.	2	20%
Its associations	7	70%
Its connotations	2	20%
Total	10	100%

To see what teachers teach most about EFL vocabulary knowledge, teachers were asked the following question: Which of the following you consider most useful for teaching about word knowledge apart from its form (spoken and written) and meaning(s)?

The results in table 31 show that teachers direct their EFL vocabulary teaching to the following vocabulary knowledge aspects which they find more interesting to teach about over presenting spoken and written forms and intended meanings of the targeted words. Actually, 80% of the interviewees' answers are directed to 'word parts', 100% to the word's grammatical behaviour, 30% to its collocations, 20% to its register, 70% to its associations and 20% to its connotations. While the interview teachers admit that they do not only present knowledge about these word knowledge aspects but offer tasks and create occasions to practice and use them, as well.

Figure 22: What Teachers find more interesting to Teach about Word Knowledge.
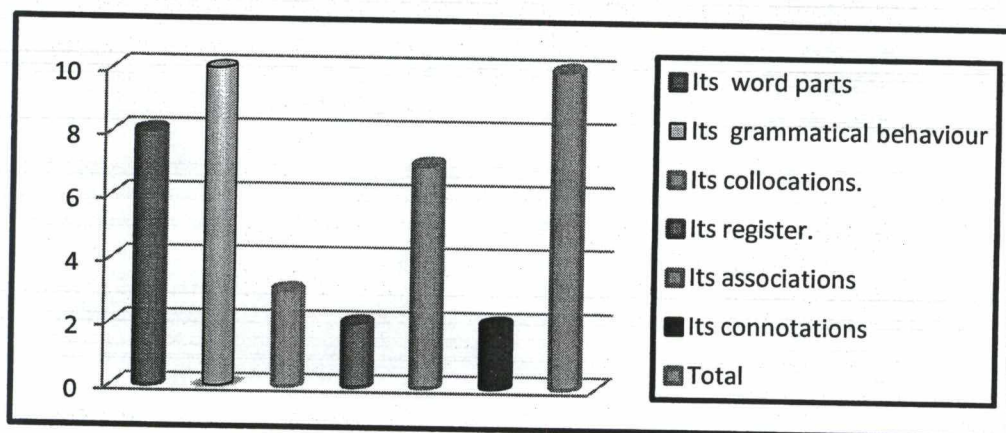
Table 32: The Degree of Each Word Knowledge Aspect Importance According to Teachers.

Degree of Importance	Variables (Content)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Number 1	Its grammatical behaviour	10	100%
Number 2	Its associations	8	80%
Number 3	Its word parts	9	90%
Number 4	Its connotations	9	90%
Number 5	Its collocations	9	90%
Number 6	Its register	10	100%
Total		10	100%

To see what teachers consider and find more fruitful and interesting to teach about word knowledge in addition to its spoken and written form, they were asked to answer the following question: Which of the following you consider most useful for teaching about word knowledge apart from its form (spoken and written) and meaning(s)?

a) The word parts it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form).
b) Its grammatical behaviour.

c) Its collocations.

d) Its register.

e) What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning).

f) What connotations it has.

Figure 34 shows the vocabulary knowledge aspects that teachers consider interesting and give priority to teach. Later, they were asked to rank these different word knowledge aspects in terms of importance from one to six (-1- the most important and -6- the least important). Actually, teachers rank their teaching choices about vocabulary knowledge aspects in the following order: (Figure 32.).

1- Word's grammatical behaviour (10/10 teachers).

2- Its associations (8/10 teachers).

3- Its parts, i.e. affixation (9/10 teachers).

4- Its connotations (9/10 teachers).

5- Its collocations (9/10 teachers).

6- Its register (10/10 teachers).

Figure 23: The Degree of Each Word Knowledge Aspect Importance According to Teachers
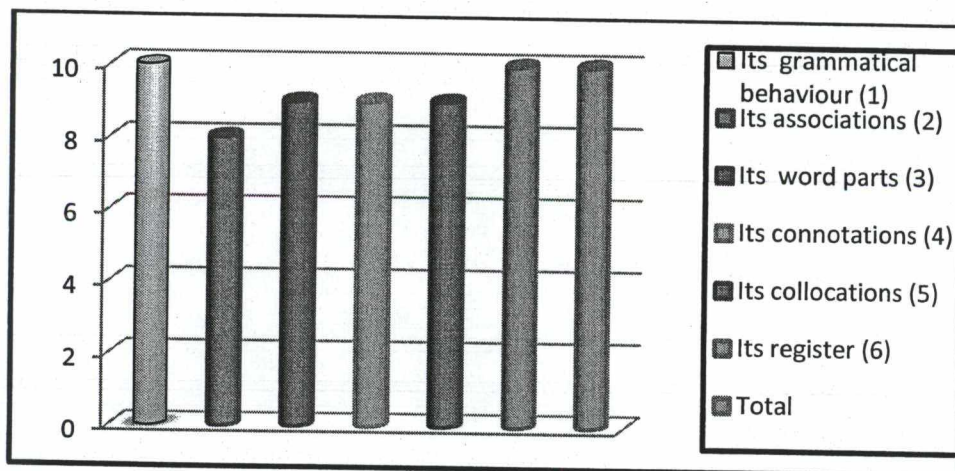
Item 5: Which sources do you use for teaching the aspects of word knowledge you are about to teach? a) School textbooks   b) language dictionaries c) internet   d) vocabulary books   e) magazines   f) others ……………

Table 33: Teacher's Word Knowledge Sources.

Variables (Content)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
School textbooks	10	100%
language dictionaries	10	100%
internet	7	70%
vocabulary books	3	30%
magazines	2	20%
others	0	00%
Total	10	100%

To see what teachers' rely on for getting "enough" informed about vocabulary knowledge aspects, the following question was interviewed with the respondents: Which sources do you use for teaching the aspects of word knowledge you are about to teach?

a) School textbooks   b) language dictionaries c) internet   d) vocabulary book

e) Magazines   f) others………….

Table 33 reveals that all teachers (100%) rely on the school textbook 'New Prospect' and dictionaries as a language material as far as vocabulary knowledge and practice is concerned. Some (30%), however, exceed their access of word knowledge to more specialized references, i.e. vocabulary books. In the other hand, others (70%) complained about the lack and outdating of library references and find the refuge in the Internet and only 2 (20%) make use of magazines for further knowledge about EFL vocabulary teaching techniques and learning strategies.

Figure 24: Teacher's Word Knowledge Sources
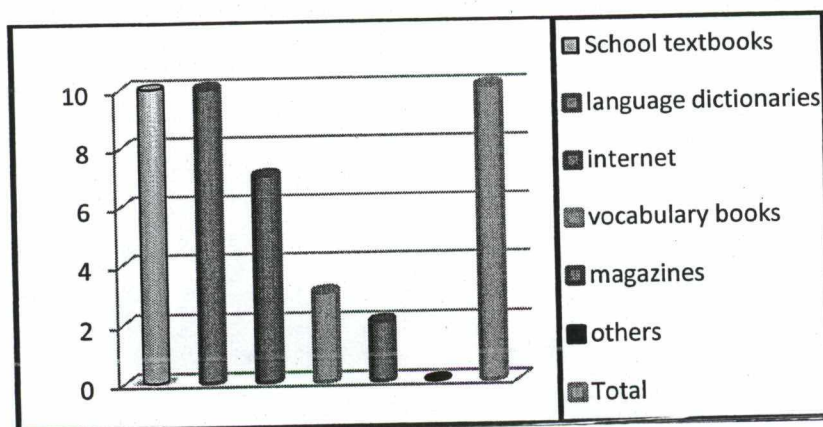
Item 6: Do you integrate English vocabulary teaching into all language skills or only when needed (when learners ask for)?

Table 34: Teachers' Vocabulary Integration in all Language Skills

Variables (Content)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Yes	10	100%
No	0	00%
Total	10	100%

The above table shows that all the interviewees (10/10) integrate the teaching of EFL vocabulary in the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). They also explained that the textbook they are using offers in the second sequence of each unit a space for teaching, practicing and testing the targeted words that are linked with the concepts of each unit concern.

Item 7: Do you attempt to personalize the learning process by getting learners to relate topics and texts in the textbook to their own lives and views?

Table 35: Teachers' Personalization in Vocabulary Instruction and Selection.

Variables (Content)	Number of Teachers	Percentages
Yes	4	40%
No	6	60%
Total	10	100%

To see the teachers' opinion on whether or not learners should have a greater say in the content of the syllabus and selection of vocabulary knowledge aspects, they were asked the following question: Do you attempt to personalize the learning process by getting learners to relate topics and texts in the textbook to their own lives, views, and feelings? From table 35, it is clear that most teachers (6/10) do not personalize vocabulary selection and instruction to their learners' interests, preferences and needs, while just 4 of them personalize it.

Figure 25: Teachers' Personalization in Vocabulary Instruction and Selection.
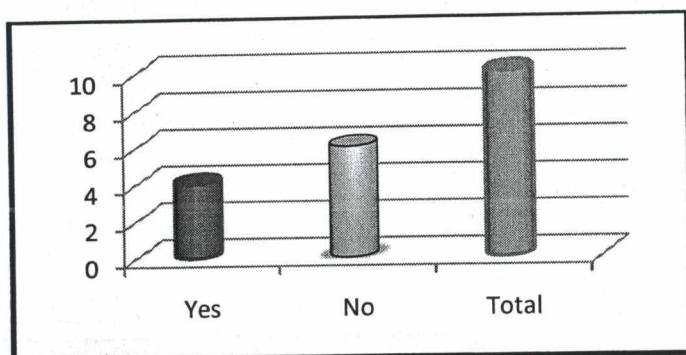
Item 8: How often do you discuss vocabulary knowledge issues in your English classes?

a) Often (in almost every lesson)   b) Sometimes (once a week)   c) Rarely (once a month)
d) Never

Table 36: Discussion of Vocabulary Knowledge Aspects.

Variables	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	0	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	00%	00%	100%

To see how often teachers include in their classes discussions of vocabulary knowledge aspects, they were asked how often they raised the points about them. The outcomes reveal that all the interviewees include discussions about word knowledge aspects in every EFL classes, in the sense that 10 out of 10 teachers answered "often".

Item 9: Do you encourage learners to ask questions?

Table 37: Teachers' Encouragements for Vocabulary Clarifications.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	10	0	10
Percentages	100%	00%	100%

To see whether or not the frequency of vocabulary knowledge discussions in EFL classes is both teacher and learner directed; the instructors were asked the following question: Do you encourage learners to ask questions? As it is mentioned in table 37 all teachers with no exception said "yes".

Item 10: Do you test your learners' vocabulary learning in an oral or written way or both?

Table 38: Types of Testing.

Variables	Oral	Written	Both	Total
Number of Teachers	10	10	10	10
Percentages	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 38 reveals that all teachers (10/10) test their pupils in both spoken and written forms. They explained that they make use of oral testing either on the early stages of word knowledge exposures, i.e. while brainstorming them on new concepts or recalling already learned word knowledge before introducing targeted vocabulary teaching materials. Latter, they explained that they use the vocabulary tasks which the textbook offers and others which they develop themselves to test in a 'more formal' way the targeted words by means of written tasks.

Item 11: Are you satisfied with the English vocabulary knowledge and selection resources and teaching techniques you are currently using?

Table 39: Teachers' Satisfaction with Vocabulary Knowledge Resources and Teaching Techniques at Hand.

Variables	Very satisfying	Satisfying	Average	Not Satisfying	Total
Number of Teachers	0	2	5	3	10
Percentages	00%	20%	50%	30%	100%

To see the teachers' perceptions on the provided and adopted word knowledge resources and instruction techniques, they were asked about whether or not they are satisfied with the EFL vocabulary knowledge and selection resources and teaching techniques you are currently using. From the above table it is clear that half of them share a neutral attitude in the sense they chose the variable 'average' as an answer to the aforementioned question. Only 2 said they are satisfied and 3 admitted their dissatisfaction.

Figure 26: Teachers' Satisfaction with Vocabulary Knowledge Resources and Teaching Techniques at Hand.
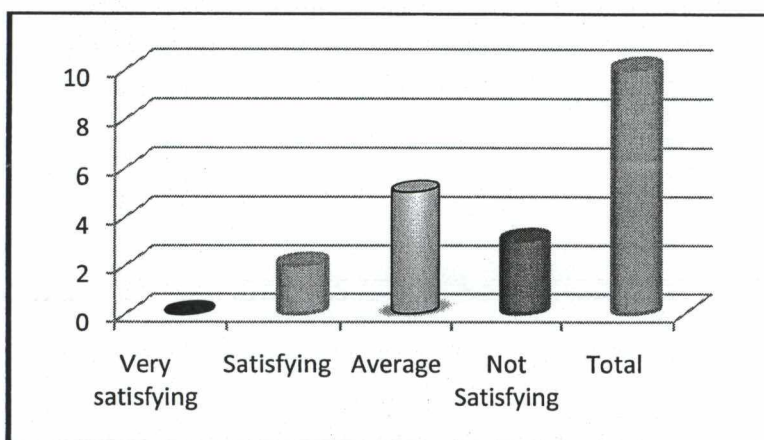
Item 12: Have you updated your knowledge about EFL vocabulary instruction?

Table 40: Teachers' Updating of EFL Vocabulary Instruction.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	0	10	10
Percentages	00	100%	100%

All teachers (10/10) reported that they have not updated their self-knowledge about EFL vocabulary teaching. Actually, they answered the above question by a "no" answer. The aim of this item is to see whether or not teachers renewed their teaching techniques and knowledge about vocabulary teaching and learning.

Item 13: Do you have prior knowledge about computer corpus-data?

Table 41: Teachers' Prior Knowledge about Computer Corpus-Data.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Teachers	0	10	10
Percentages	00	100%	100%

To introduce the notion of computer corpus-data to the informants and to see whether or not teachers have prior knowledge about computerized corpus-data so as to provide them with the basic concepts of this notion. The question in item 13 was asked and the obtained results reveal that teachers are not aware about computer corpus data and even corpus linguistics, in the sense that the answer "no" has a rate of 100%.

Item 14: Computer corpus-data is the 'richest' language source that syllabus designers and textbook writers may rely on for presenting both current and authentic language content as regards EFL learners in 3ʳᵈ year literary stream at secondary school.

a) strongly agree   b)Agree   c) average   d) disagree   e) strongly disagree

Table 42: Teachers' State of Agreement on Statement 14.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	7	3	0	0	0	10
Percentages	70%	30%	00%	00%	00%	100%

First, the researcher has offered the informants with some general concepts about the notion of corpus linguistics and that of computer corpus-data for no prior knowledge is ensured. Second, teachers were asked to give their state of agreement or disagreement, i.e. the teachers' attitudes, towards the qualification of computer corpus-data as the 'richest' language source that textbook writers may rely on for designing both current and authentic teaching materials in ELF classes to these learners (third year literary stream pupils) at their final year in secondary schooling. Eventually, the results show that most teachers 'like the idea' and share a strongly agreement concerning the qualification of computer corpus-data as the 'richest' language source for syllabus designing to EFL learners. Actually, 7 teachers out of 10 strongly agree with the statement in item 14 while 3 confess their agreement by saying 'agree'.

Figure 27: Teachers' State of Agreement on Statement 14.
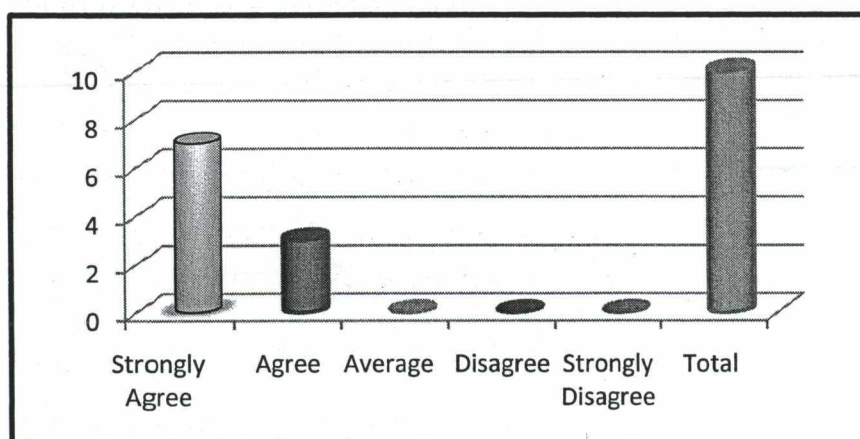
Item 15: EFL Vocabulary Knowledge is best analyzed, selected and taught with the aid of computer corpus data.

g) Agree   b) strongly agree   c) average   d) disagree   e) strongly disagree

Table 43: Teachers' State of Agreement on Statement 15.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	8	2	0	0	0	10
Percentages	80%	20%	00%	00%	00%	100%

To know if teachers exceed the usefulness of computer corpus data to EFL vocabulary situation, they were asked to comment on the statement above. The results obtained reveal that all respondents agree about the fact and share a positive attitude to the 'reliance' on the data gathered from computer corpus, as one of the other many language sources, in EFL vocabulary analyses, selection and instruction.

Figure 28: Teachers' State of Agreement on Statement 15.
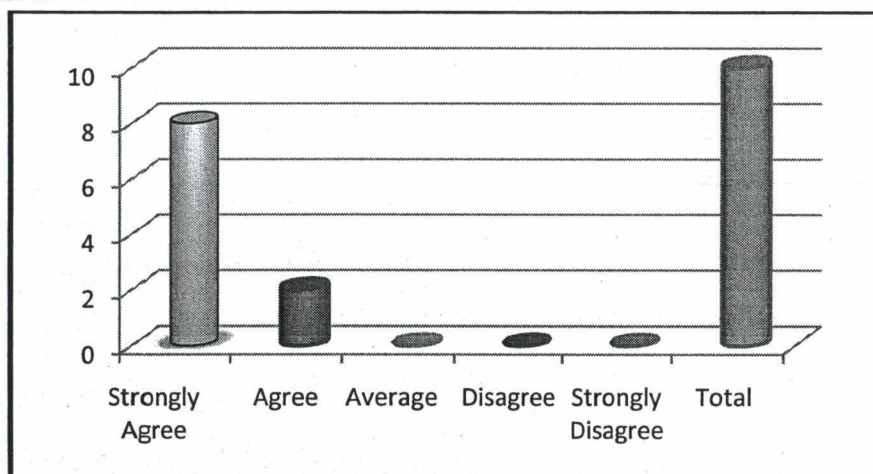
Item 16: Raising awareness about computer corpus data and recommending its application in EFL teaching situations may improve the language learners and users' proficiency level as a whole.

a) Agree   b) strongly agree   c) average   d) disagree   e) strongly disagree

Table 44: Teachers' State of Agreement on Statement 16.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Teachers	6	2	1	0	0	10
Percentages	60%	20%	10%	00%	00%	100%

To see if teachers like the fact of getting aware of the notion of corpus linguistics and computer corpus data and whether on not they recommend its application in EFL teaching situations in the sense that it may bring a 'new and light breath' to the language teachers,

Therefore, although, being provided with motivating techniques and knowledge about new tools; teachers feel demotivated to use them because they regard their pupils as 'poor' language learners.

3.2.3 The Learners' Questionnaire Analysis and Presentation:

In order to arrive to at a better picture of the EFL vocabulary teaching and learning situations in secondary school, it would be vital for he purpose of the study to ask third year literary pupils about their EFL vocabulary beliefs, practice and learning difficulties. Actually, the following section analyses the data gathered from the learners' questionnaire.

Data will be treated in tables and circles. The information is presented and analyzed according to the order of the items in the questionnaire and not according to the obtained rate (not from high to low or vice versa).

Section one: Pupils' Attitudes towards EFL Learning and Vocabulary.

In this section the reader will be acquainted with the pupils' attitudes towards EFL learning and vocabulary its learning.

Item 1: To pass your Baccalaureate exam, carry on your studies at university level and answer your life's needs; you would consider English as being:

a) Necessary   b) useful   c) unnecessary

Table 45: Usefulness of English.

Variables	Necessary	Useful	Unnecessary	Total
Number of Learners	30	05	00	35
Percentages	86%	14%	00%	100%

The first question of the questionnaire aims at finding out whether or not the pupils are really aware of the role of English language as a universal language. Table 45 shows that the majority (86% of the pupils) thinks that the learning of the English language is a necessity mainly in nowadays world, while 14% of them think it is useful and none of them believe in the unnecessity of English learning. This later category is usually the part of the pupils' population weakest in English or those having a stronger negative attitude towards the language.

Figure 30: Usefulness of English.
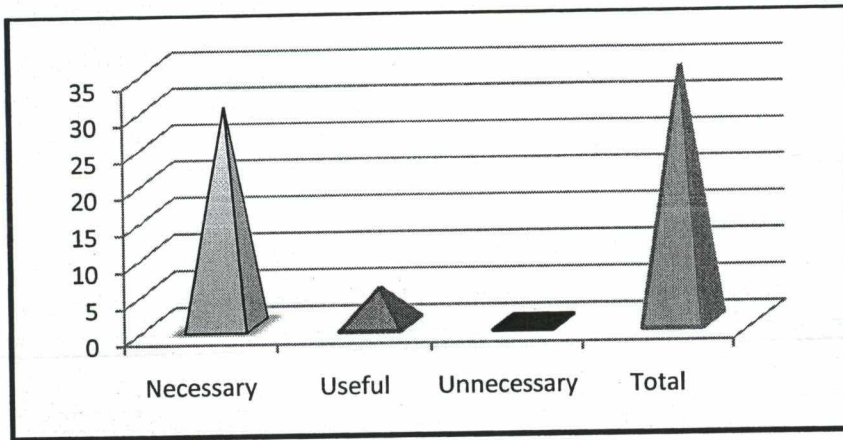
Item 2: How do you evaluate your English language proficiency?

a) Very Satisfying   b) Satisfying   c) Not Satisfying

Table 46: Pupils' Personal Evaluation of their English Language Proficiency.

Variables	Very Satisfying	Satisfying	Not Satisfying	Total
Number of Learners	02	09	24	35
Percentages	05%	26%	69%	100%

09 pupils out of 35 claim that they are satisfied by their language proficiency level, unlike 24 pupils state they are not satisfied; whereas a very small group of 02 pupils only seem very satisfied. (Figure 48)

Figure 31: Pupils' Personal Evaluation of their English Language Proficiency.
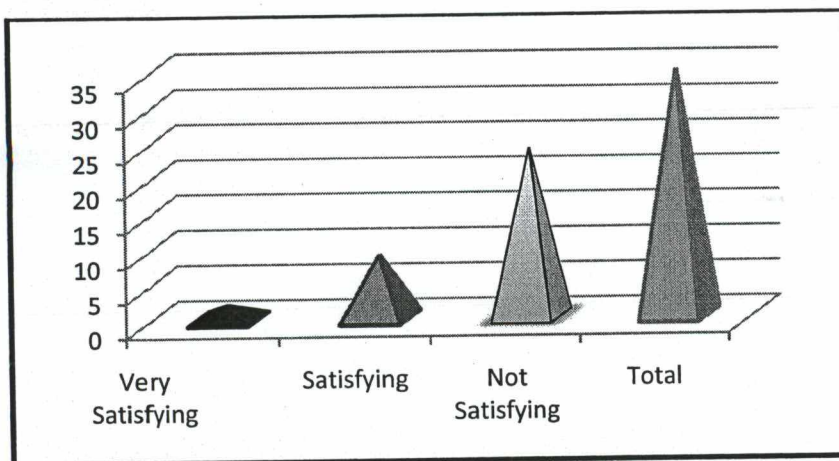
Item 3: In respect to your English proficiency level, which language element you need more reinforcement in?

a) Vocabulary   b) Grammar   c) Pronunciation

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Please, explain: ....

Table 47: Learners' Need of Reinforcement.

Variables	Vocabulary	Grammar	Pronunciation	Total
Number of Learners	23	04	08	35
Percentages	66%	11%	22%	100%

Among the three language elements, i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, vocabulary is pointed out by third year literary stream pupils as requiring more reinforcements in for improvements in their EFL competence. Actually, vocabulary appears on the top of the pupils' choices with 23 (66%) answers. In the second position one may find pronunciation with 08 (22%) answers and in the last one grammar with 04 (11%) answers.

This question has also been asked to teachers because they feel what lacks their learners and moreover to see how close the teachers and learners' answers are. From the obtained results, it is clear that the majority of the pupils said that they need reinforcement in vocabulary rather than in grammar and pronunciation to improve their language proficiency. Moreover, they explained that vocabulary knowledge is needed in all the language skills, because words' knowledge is used and needed in every language task. Moreover, one believes that these pupils need reinforcements in vocabulary learning due to the problems they meet in listening and reading comprehension and their speaking and writing productions.

Grammar and pronunciation, however, appear to have less need of reinforcements from the part of the learners. They argued that reinforcements in grammar can be easily done as there are several grammar books of both theory (lessons) and practice (exercises). For pronunciation some state that they need reinforcements in this language element. However, they estimate that it is not as vital as vocabulary for it is needed mostly in listening and speaking skills over reading and writing in which testing rely on foremost. Therefore, in the eyes of the informants, vocabulary is the 'number one' language element that they need more reinforcement in, over the two remaining elements for reaching improvements in EFL language proficiency and achieving higher scores in exams.

Figure 32: Learners' Need of Reinforcement.
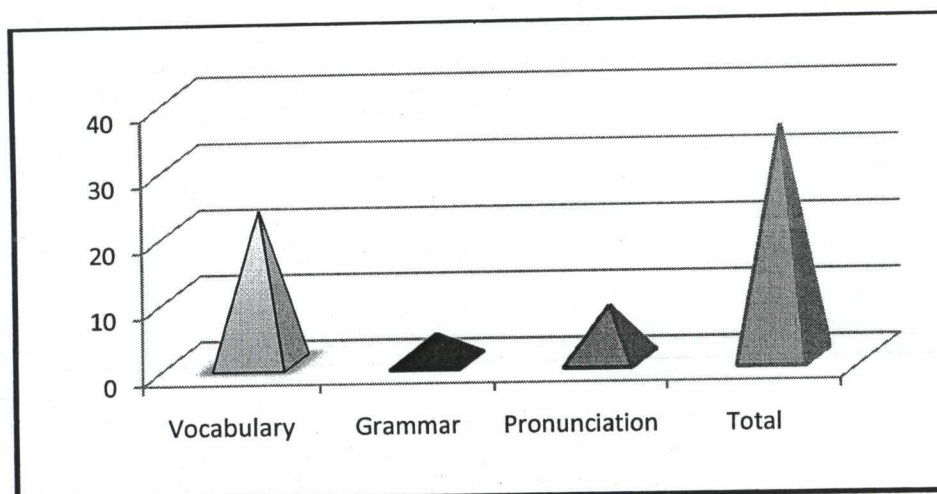
Item 4: To what extent do you give importance to EFL vocabulary learning?

  a) Much   b) Little   c) Not at all

Please, explain why: ………………………………………………………………………………..

Table 48: Importance of EFL Vocabulary Learning.

Variables	Much	Little	Not at all	Total
Number of Learners	31	04	00	35
Percentages	89%	11%	00%	100%

To gather data about the learners' attitudes towards the importance of EFL vocabulary in their language learning, pupils were asked the following question: To what extent do you give importance to EFL vocabulary learning? The results obtained reveal that most pupils (31/35) regard EFL vocabulary learning as very important, in the sense they opted for 'much' as an answer. Whereas, just 04 respondents answer with 'little' (see Table 48).

Besides they were asked to justify their answers, which are summarized in the following points: most say that they give a high importance to vocabulary knowledge learning because words are always used and, thus, needed in both receptive and productive skills. They also explained that most teachers' evaluation depends much on the content (words) and not the form (grammar) especially in productive tasks like writing compositions or participation in classes. Others claim that vocabulary knowledge is important for it is needed in any examination they undertake because texts, comprehension exercises and instructions depend very much on word knowledge. For those who gave vocabulary learning a little importance, they have not justified their choice and thus gave

no reason for qualifying it as such. This may prove their unawareness of it importance or that they do not know why they have chosen that answer.

Figure 33: Importance of EFL Vocabulary Learning.
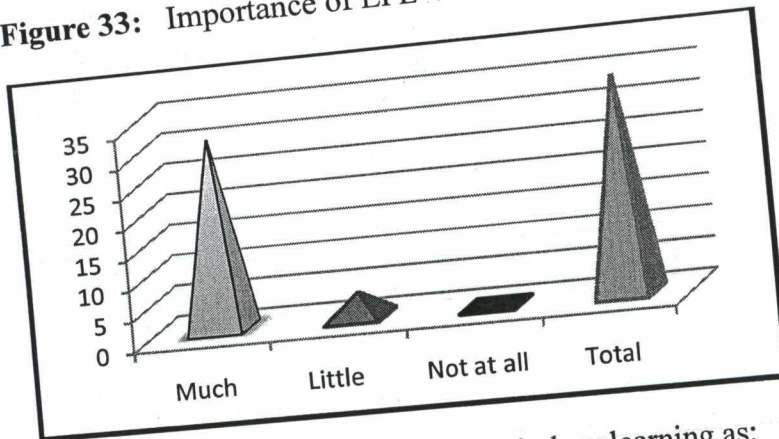
Item 5: Do you regard English vocabulary learning as:

a) Very difficult   b) Difficult   c) Average   d) Easy   e) Very easy

Please, explain why: ....

Table 49: Pupils' Evaluation of EFL Learning Difficulty.

Variables	Very difficult	Difficult	Average	Easy	Very easy	Total
Number of Learners	00	29	06	00	00	35
Percentages	00%	83%	17%	00%	00%	100%

To about the pupils' attitudes towards the difficulty of EFL learning, they were asked the following question: Do you regard English vocabulary learning as: very difficult, difficult, average, easy or very easy.

The results obtained reveal that most pupils qualify EFL vocabulary learning as difficult, in the sense that 83% answered 'difficult'. Then those to whom it is 'average' a rate of 17% is presented; leaving no representations to the variables of 'very difficult', 'easy' and 'very easy' which means that vocabulary learning poses a problem to learners. Therefore, both teachers and learners should not take it teaching and learning for granted.

Chapter Three

Figure 34: Pupils' Evaluation of EFL Learning Difficulty.
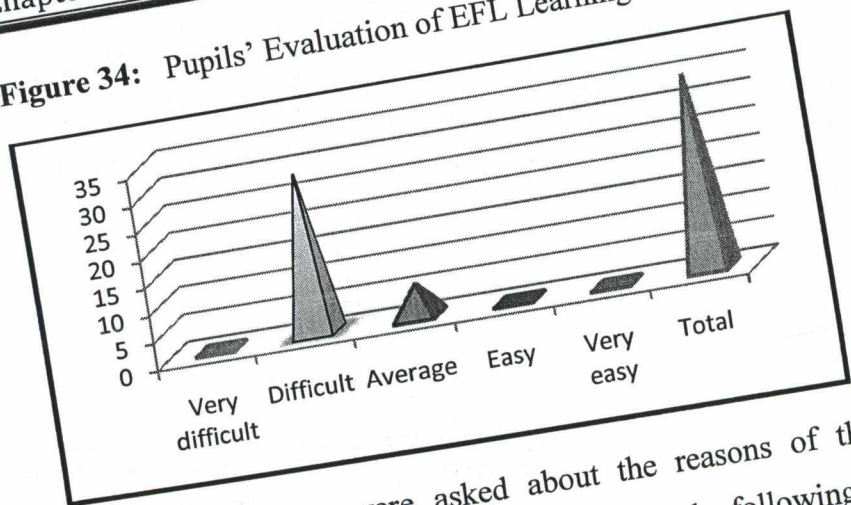
All the informants were asked about the reasons of their EFL vocabulary learning difficulties and their answers are illustrated in the following table:

Table 50: Some Causes of Pupils Difficulty in EFL Vocabulary Learning.

Variables	Textbook (Content)	Poor Language Proficiency	Lack of Motivation	Quickly Forgotten	No Explanation	Total
Number of Learners	03	15	09	06	02	35
Percentages	08%	43%	25%	18%	06%	100%

The results in table 50 reveal that most pupils consider vocabulary learning as difficult because of: first, their poor language proficiency; second, the lack of motivation; third, their easy forgetfulness of what they learn about vocabulary and forth, the content that vocabulary knowledge is represented in. whoever, 2 of the informants give no explanation.

It can be concluded from the table above that 08 % of the respondents argue that the cause of their FLF vocabulary learning is the content presented to them that does not answer their needs and reflect their preferences, 43% say it is the poor language proficiency that makes it difficult to them to learn. 18% admit that it is difficult to learn vocabulary because it is quickly forgotten and this reason proves that their learning is not often recalled, practiced and assessed in their classes. 25% of the informants relate their vocabulary learning difficulties to their lack of motivation.

Figure 35: Some Causes of Pupils Difficulty in EFL Vocabulary Learning.
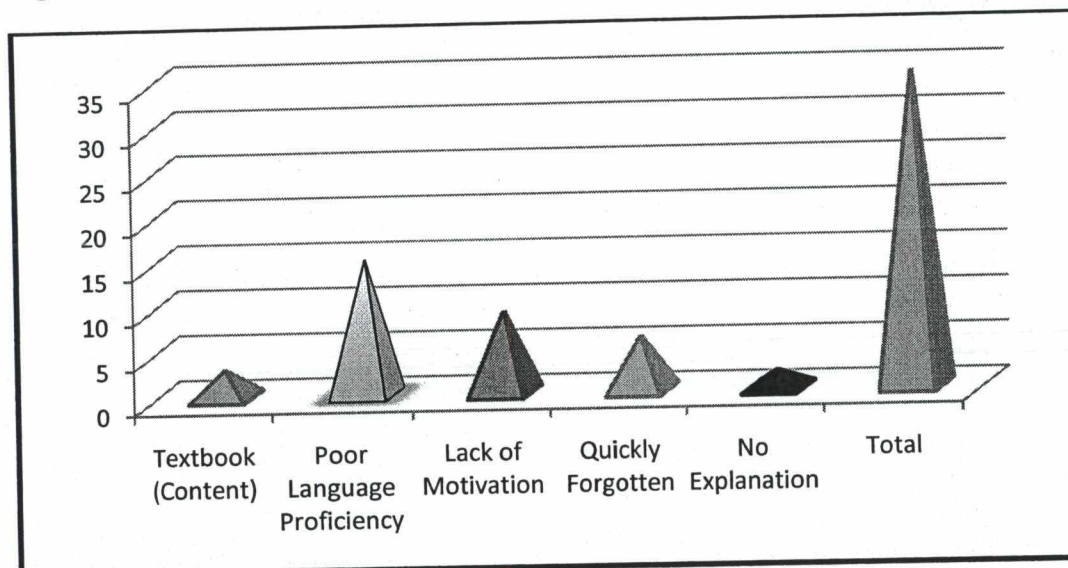
Section Two: Pupils 'Beliefs on EFL Vocabulary Learning.

In this section, the researcher will see the pupils' attitudes or beliefs on some aspects of EFL vocabulary learning which include its importance, its content and teaching techniques and finally the learners' attitudes on the researcher' suggestions on EFL learning in general and vocabulary in particular.

Item 6: Your lack in English proficiency level and school failure in this subject account for your lack of its vocabulary knowledge.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 51: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 6.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Learners	31	04	00	00	00	35
Percentages	89%	11%	00%	00%	00%	100%

To see if learners' poor English proficiency level accounts for their lack in its vocabulary knowledge, pupils were asked to give their state of agreement or disagreement of the statement in item 6 above. Actually, it was also designed in the teachers' questionnaire so as to see how close the teachers and pupils' perceptions are. According to the results presented in table 51, the majority (89%) of the respondents strongly agrees and only a rate of 11% agrees with the statement above.

Figure 36: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 6.
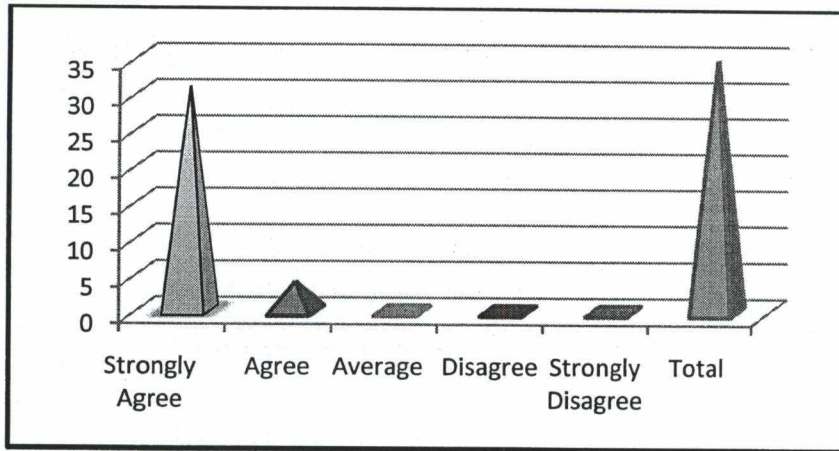
Item 7: Your lack in vocabulary knowledge accounts for lack of interest in the language content presented in your classes.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 52: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 7.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Learners	07	16	12	00	00	35
Percentages	20%	46%	34%	00%	00%	100%

To see if the informants' lack of EFL vocabulary knowledge is related to their lack of interest in the content or the teaching material presented to them, the above statement is designed to gather data about the pupils' degree on agreement or disagreement on it. In fact, it can be concluded from the results presented in table 52 that most pupils agree about statement 7, in the sense that 46 % of the respondents answer 'agree', 34% on them show a neural attitude to the statement and chose 'average', 20% 'strongly agree' and no single pupils disagrees.

Figure 37: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 7.
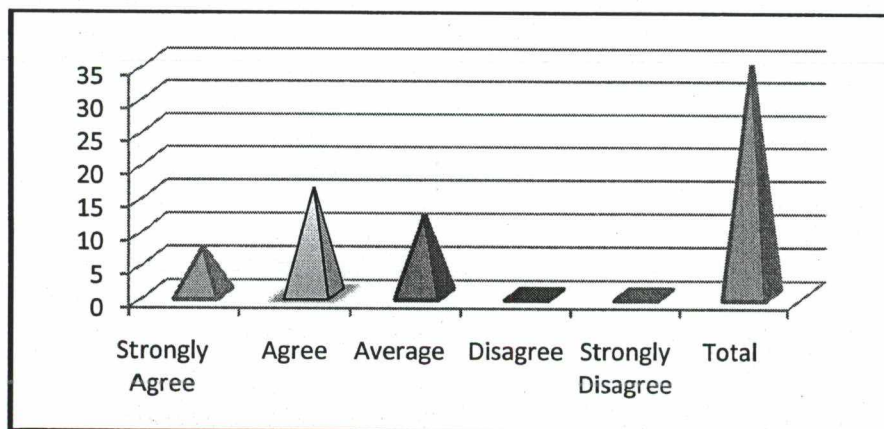
Item 8: The textbook lacks many aspects and offers little importance to vocabulary learning.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 53: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 8.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Learners	03	03	08	19	02	35
Percentages	09%	09%	22%	54%	06%	100%

To see whether or not the pupils complain only from the content of the textbook and/or from the vocabulary knowledge aspects and tasks it offers; they were asked to give their degree of agreement or disagreement on the following statement: "The textbook lacks many aspects and offers little importance to vocabulary learning." The results obtained reveal that the majority of the pupils are satisfied with the EFL vocabulary aspects presented and the tasks designed in it. Indeed, most disagree with the above statement as 19 of the informants disagree, while only 03 strongly agree, 08 show a neutral attitude and answered with 'neutral'. However, 02 of the respondents strongly agree and some 3 agree.

Figure 38: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 8.
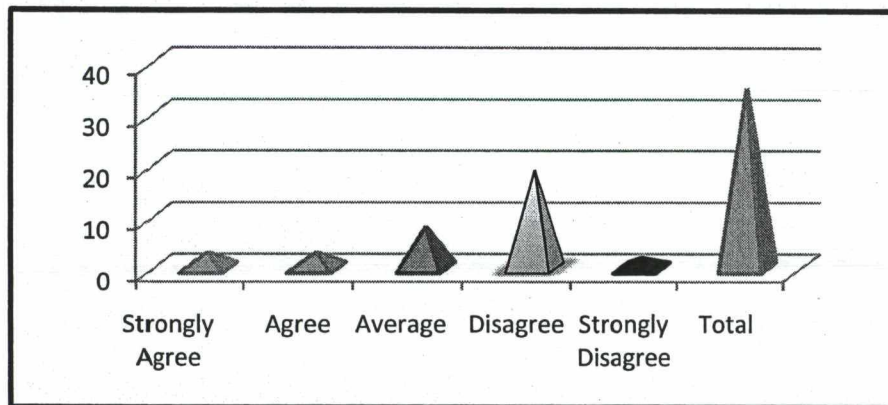
Item 9: The teaching methods offered by the textbook and used by the teacher do not help you to acquire the necessary level about EFL vocabulary learning:

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e)   Strongly Disagree

Table 54: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 9.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Learners	00	02	07	23	03	35
Percentages	00%	06%	20%	65%	09%	100%

To treat the EFL vocabulary learning situation from its crucial angles, learners were also asked to state whether or not they agree on the teaching methods offered by their school textbook and used by their teachers in the area of EFL vocabulary teaching so as to reach the necessary level about EFL vocabulary learning. To gather the needed information, the respondents were asked to give their agreement or disagreement with the above statement. The data obtained from item 9 show that most pupils disagree, in the sense that 23 out of 35 answered with 'disagree' while 07 with 'Average'. This means that the pupils are satisfied with the teaching methods offered by the textbook and applied by instructors as regards EFL vocabulary teaching. Whereas, only 02 out of 35 of the participants agree and only 03 out of the whole sample strongly disagree.

Figure 39: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 9.
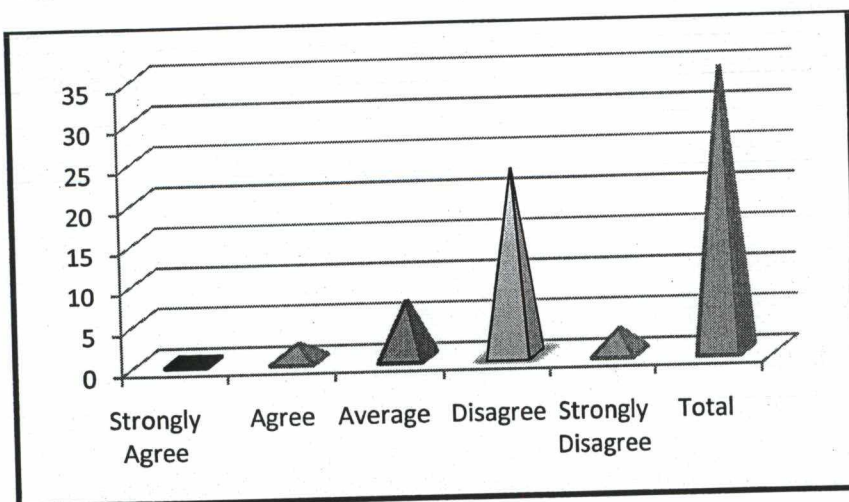
After gathering data about the pupils' beliefs on EFL vocabulary importance to language learning, its content in which it is presented in and its teaching materials and methods. The researcher, then, includes two more statements (items 10 and 11). They seek information about the pupils' beliefs on what the researcher sees a demotivating factor and hypothesizes that changing this factor and raising its awareness and suggesting its application may bring more interest in EFL learning in general and efficiency in vocabulary learning in particular.

Item 10: You would be more interested in the English classes and motivated to learn if teachers change their negative perceptions and practices about your language aptitude.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 55: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 10.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Learners	22	08	02	03	00	35
Percentages	62%	23%	06%	09%	00%	100%

Since language classes are the only space where pupils receive formal learning of any language skill and aspect, it seems important for the researcher to think about the factor that loses the learners' interest in their language classes. To see if the teachers' negative perceptions and practices on learners' English aptitude as low decrease the latter's motivation in learning. The pupils were asked to state their degree of agreement or disagreement on the statement of item 10. The results obtained in the table above reveal that most pupils strongly agree, in the sense that 62% of the respondents answered with 'strongly agree' and only 09% of them disagree.

Figure 40: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 10.
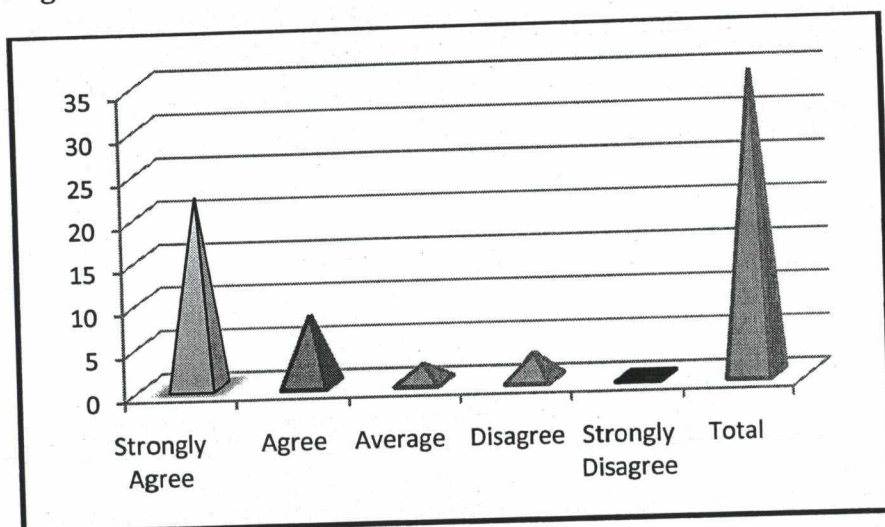
Item 11: You would be more interested in EFL vocabulary learning if its content exceeds knowledge about the written and spoken forms and basic meanings and includes some other aspects like: The word register (whether used in spoken and written discourse) and presents vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which you are likely to find yourselves on.   a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Table 56: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 11.

Variables	Strongly Agree	Agree	Average	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Number of Learners	02	28	05	00	00	35
Percentages	06%	80%	14%	00%	00%	100%

After knowing what raises the pupils' interest in their language classes in general. The researcher, then, hypothesizes what raises the pupils' interest in their EFL vocabulary learning in particular. The statement assumes that learners' interest in EFL vocabulary learning, may rise by inferring other vocabulary knowledge aspects like the word register and frequency and presenting vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which pupils are likely to find themselves on. The results show that all informants support the idea, in the sense that 28 pupils answered with 'agree', 02 'strongly agreed', only 05 pupil answer with 'average' and not a single pupils disagree with the statement. (Table 56)

Figure 41: The Pupils' Agreement on Statement 11.
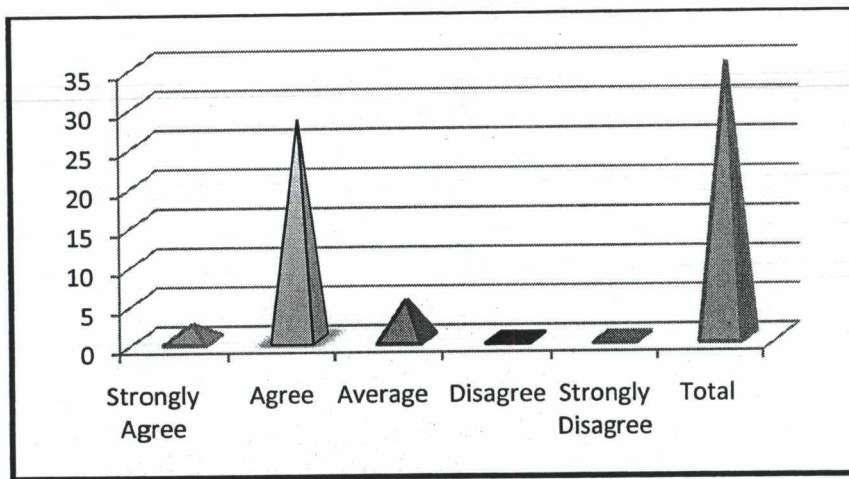
Section Three: Pupils 'Practices on EFL Vocabulary Learning.

In that section, the pupils' practices on EFL vocabulary learning are presented and their opinions on them are also included.

Item 12: For you, the best way to learn about EFL word knowledge in particular and language learning is:

    a) To refer only to your English classes.
    b) To use other language sources.
    c) Both.
    Explain why: ……………………………………………………………………

Table 57: Extra Accessing Sources for EFL Vocabulary Learning.

Variables	English classes only	other language sources	Both	Total
Number of Learners	13	22	22	35
Percentages	38%	62%	62%	100%

To see if the pupils rely only on the teaching materials offered by the teacher and textbook or on extra language sources, they were asked to answer the question in item 12.

Most answers (62%) tend to the choice 'c' which reads that they rely both on the language classes presented by the teachers and other language sources, while 38% admitted that they rely only on their language classes for EFL vocabulary learning (Figure 59). Moreover, the informants were asked to explain these extra sources in terms of forms or need. They explained that they use other resources since the language classes conditions they learn with would not supply them with all knowledge or the practice they need to know or to train themselves on. This further learning is for the lack of time and anxiety that emerges from the Baccalaureate exam which they need to pass.

Figure 42: Extra Accessing Sources for EFL Vocabulary Learning.
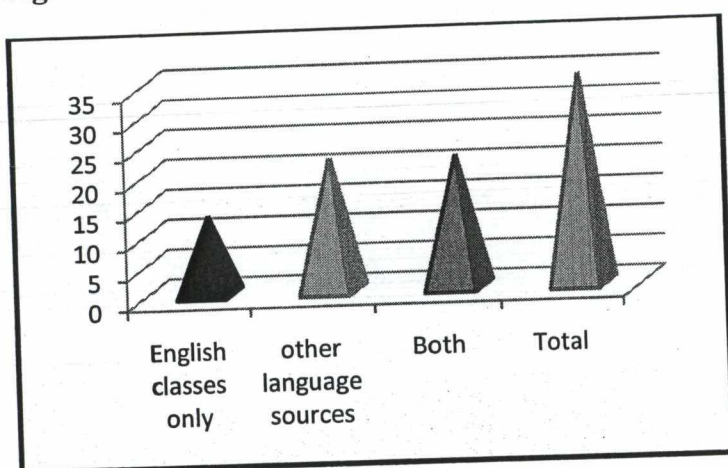
Item 13: with respect to your English proficiency level, have you benefited from the English materials you may encounter outside your English classes (TV channels, songs, video games and the Internet).

a) Yes   b) No

Please, explain how? ....

Table 58: Benefits from Extra English Accessing sources for EFL Learning.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Learners	35	00	35
Percentages	100%	00%	100%

To see whether or not informants have benefited from their access to other English materials apart from their language classes, the pupils were asked to answer the following question: with respect to your English proficiency level, have you benefited from the English materials you may encounter outside your English classes (TV channels, songs, video games and the Internet)? The results show that all the respondents have benefited

from their extra access to other English materials in the sense that the 35 pupils chose 'yes' as an answer to the previous question. (Table 58)

In addition the pupils have admitted that their incidental access to English songs, video games, Internet, titles of films and shows, for most, enlarges their work knowledge mainly. They explained that through these sources they often encounter words or phrases that they have no prior knowledge about their meaning or use. Consequently they check them up in their language dictionaries or ask their teachers if still not clear for them. The pupils also argued that they hardly ever forget about them because these words are of their preferences and interests. In this respect, the researcher assumes that the words they learned in this way may be stored in the pupils' long term memory and then can be easily remembered whenever and wherever needed.

Item 14: During your English classes do you ask questions to your teacher about word knowledge clarifications? a) Yes   b) No

Table 59: Pupils' Questions about Word Knowledge Clarifications.

Variables	Yes	No	Total
Number of Learners	19	16	35
Percentages	54%	46%	100%

Table 59 shows that there is no a considerable difference between the pupils' answers to whether or not they ask questions about vocabulary knowledge clarifications, in the sense that 19 of the respondents said 'yes' and 16 said 'no'. Furthermore, the researcher tries to investigate reasons behind the pupils' refusal to ask questions to their teachers, and for the other group, those who ask questions, one attempts to identify the kinds of questions they ask in terms of need. The results are illustrated in the following table.

Figure 43: Pupils' Questions about Word Knowledge Clarifications.
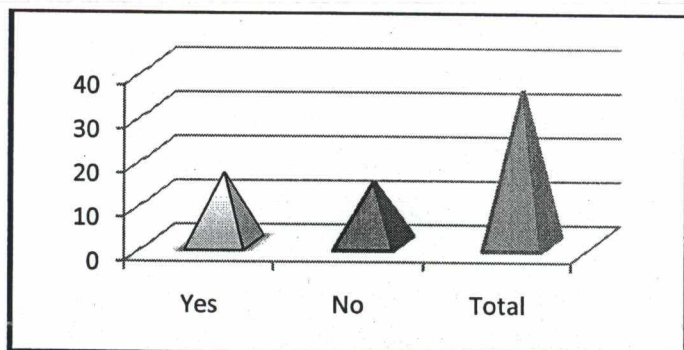
If 'yes' your questions are mainly related to:

Variables (Content)	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Word forms (spoken and written).	07/19	37%
Its meaning(s).	16/19	84%
Its associations (Synonyms / Antonyms).	09/16	47%
Its word parts (Prefix /Suffix).	06/19	31%
Its collocations (Words that come after it)	04/19	21%
Its register (Spoken Code / Written Code).	02/19	10%
Others	00/19	00%

Table 60: The Areas of Pupils' Questions.

Within the group of pupils who ask questions, the leading majority is formed by the pupils who ask questions related to the meaning(s) and are 16 out of 19 and 07 on the word forms. Next is the group of pupils (09) who ask question about word' synonyms and antonyms. Subsequently, comes the group of learners (06) who inquire about the word' affixation. Eventually, only 02 pupils out of 19 wonder whether a given word is used in spoken code or written one and 04 out of 19 question about the word collocations.

Figure 44: The Areas of Pupils' Questions.
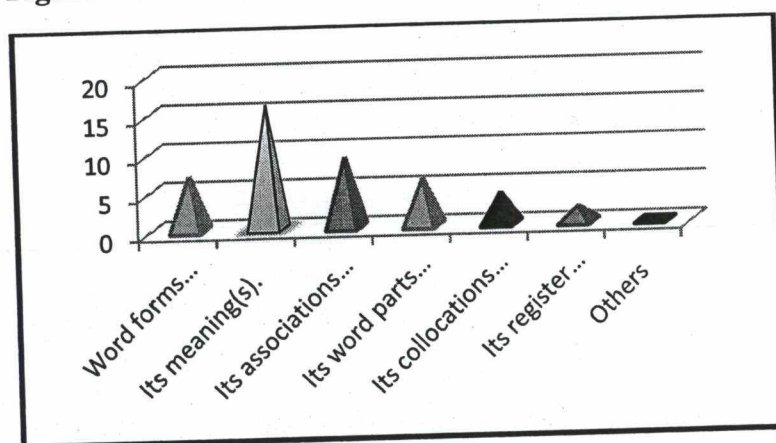
If 'no' it is because:

Table 61: Causes of Pupils' Refusal to ask Questions.

Variables (Content)	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Targeted words are easy	02/16	12.5%
You are a shy person	10/16	62.5%
your inability to express yourself	04/16	25%
Targeted words are well explained	05/16	31.25%

Teachers' Negative Perceptions and Expectations on you.	13/16	81.25%
Others	00/16	00%

According to the results obtained in table 61 variant reasons lay behind learners who avoid asking questions. Actually, just few pupils regard EFL target vocabulary leaning as easy since 02 out of 16 stated that the targeted words are easily learned and find it useless to ask questions to teachers. Other 05 pupils assume that EFL targeted vocabulary is well explained and leave no chance to ask for explanation or clarification. However, a considerable number of the informants (13/16) do not ask questions because of their teachers' negative perceptions and expectations on them. Some 04 avoid asking questions about word clarifications because they are unable to express themselves, whereas 10 of participants refuse to ask because they are shy persons.

Figure 45: Causes of Pupils' Refusal to Ask Questions.
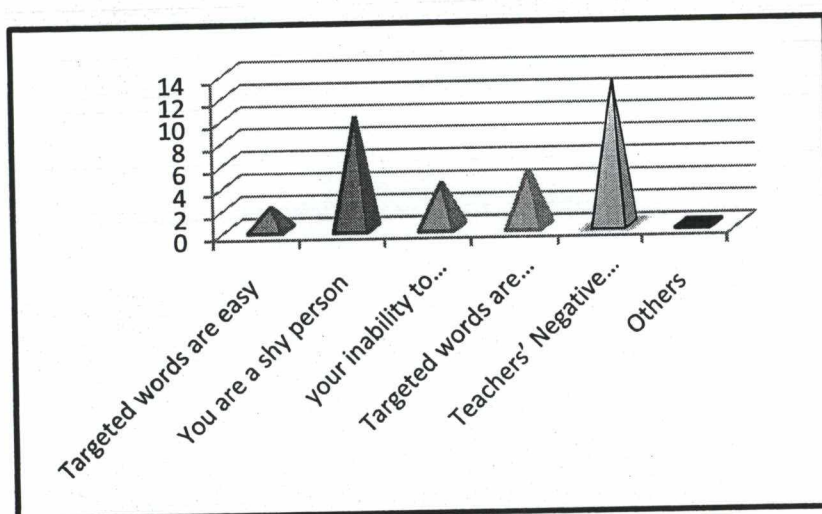
Item 15: The most boring task in your vocabulary learning process is:

a) To learn words by heart   c) to put words in gaps
b) To find the odd word   d) to match words with definitions.

Table 62: The Most Boring task to Pupils in Vocabulary Learning.

Variables	Learning Words by Hearts	Finding Odd Words	Putting Words in Gaps	Matching	Total
Learners' Numbers	32	03	19	02	35
Percentages	91%	39%	54%	06%	100%

Concerning pupils' evaluation about what demotivates them in EFL vocabulary learning; they were asked what the most boring task to them was. The results in table 62

reveal that the leading majority (32/35) dislike learning words by heart in lists and 19 admit putting words in gaps. The remaining tasks (finding the odd word and match words with definitions) appear to be enjoyable in the sense that no one from the respondents qualified them as boring. Actually, the next item will provide further data about what motivate learners in EFL vocabulary learning situation.

Figure 46: The Most Boring task to Pupils in Vocabulary Learning.
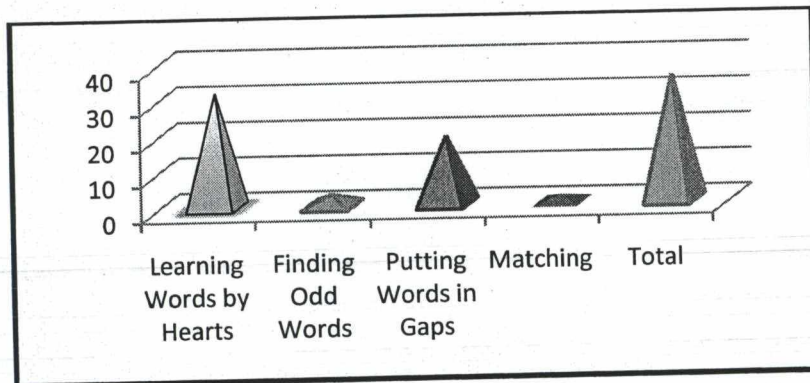
Item 16: Which of the following type of activities do you think of as the most motivating to practice vocabulary?

      a) Filling the gaps with vocabulary given.
      b) Reading texts.
      c) Matching (words or situations with pictures/words with definitions, antonyms/ synonyms).
      d) Completing vocabulary lists or columns.
      e) Writing compositions.
      f) Others ……………………………..

Table 63: The Most Motivating task to Pupils in Vocabulary Learning.

Variables	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Finding the Odd Word	17	49%
Filling the gaps with vocabulary given	13	38%
Matching	26	74%
Completing vocabulary lists or columns	16	46%
Reading texts	07	20%
Writing compositions	03	09%
Others	00	00%
Total	35	100%

      To see what teaching technique is the most motivating to learners in their EFL vocabulary learning, they were asked the following question: What motivates you most,

the following type of activities, in your EFL vocabulary learning situation? From table 63, it is clear that the majority like matching and finding the odd words in lists, in the sense that 26 of the participants answered by "Matching" and 17 by "finding the odd word", 13 answered by learning through "Filling the gaps with vocabulary given" and 16, 07, and 03 pupils enjoy completing vocabulary lists, reading texts and writing compositions respectively. For the researcher the rate of these tasks due to the pupils' lack of vocabulary knowledge which makes the task of adding words in columns and lists, understanding and using words in reading and writing harder to them.
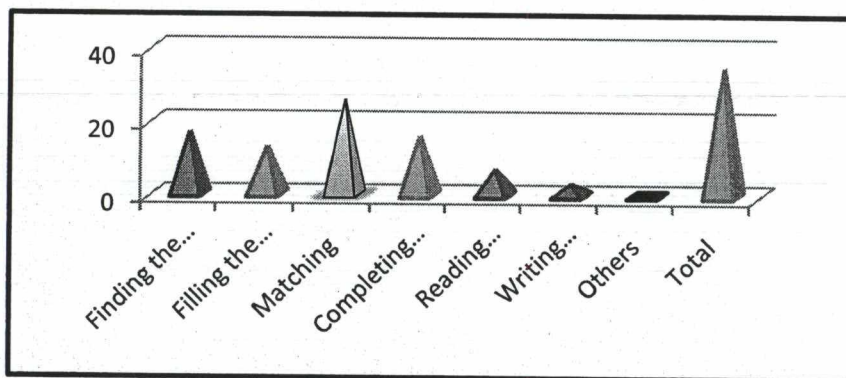
Figure 47: The Most Motivating Task to Pupils in Vocabulary Learning.

Section Four: **_Learners' Difficulties and Suggestions in Vocabulary Instruction._**

Item 17: During language tasks and examinations, the most difficulty you meet is:

a) To understand the questions.   b) To answer the questions because of your lack of vocabulary.   c) To answers the questions because of your inadequate feedback. d) Others.

Table 64: The most Difficulty Pupils meet in Exams.

Variables	Number of Pupils	Percentages
To understand the questions	10	29%
To answer the questions because of your lack of vocabulary.	22	62%
To answers the questions because of your inadequate feedback	03	09%
Others	00	00%
Total	35	100%

During language tasks and examination 22 pupils reveal that they have problems to answer the questions because of their lack of vocabulary. However, 10 pupils admit that they are incapable to understand the task instructions and the exam questions and just 3 of the respondents confess that they find difficulties for their inadequate feedback. (Table 64)

Figure 48: The most Difficulty Pupils meet in Exams.
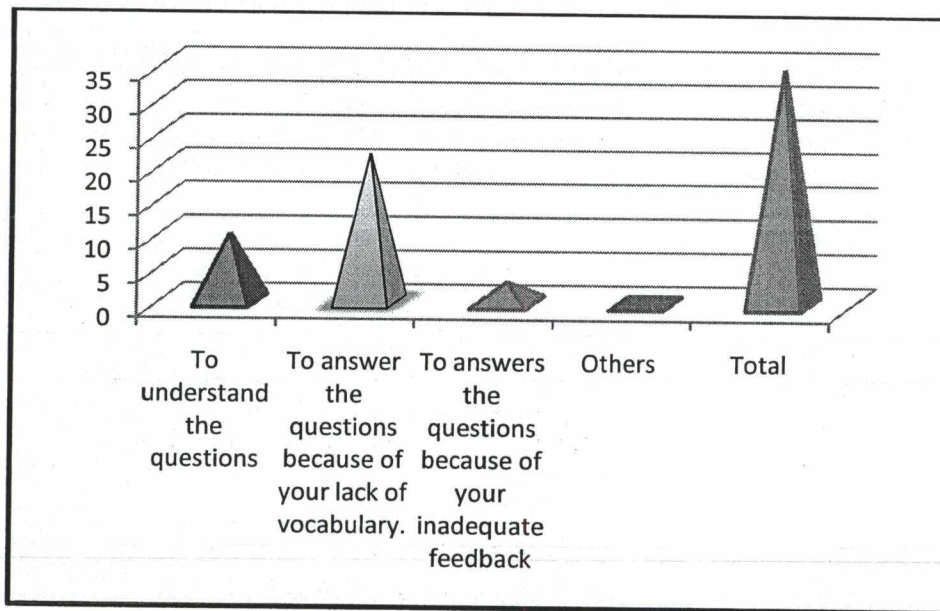
Item 18: After your exam on the English subject, your marks reflect:

    a) Your 'good' / 'poor' writing skill.
    b) Your misunderstanding of the content (text and questions).
    c) Your bad preparation.
    d) Other reasons: ………………………………….
       Please, justify your choice: ……………….......

Table 65: Pupils' Exam Marks Reflection.

Variables	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Your 'good' writing skill	03	09%
Your 'poor' writing skill	19	54%
Your misunderstanding of the content (text and questions)	10	29%
Your bad preparation	03	09%
Other reasons	00	00%
Total	35	100%

Most pupils (19/35) explain their marks in relation to their poor writing skill and only 3 to their good writing skill. Yet, 10 students interpret them in terms of their misunderstanding of the content (text and questions) that logically affect in its turn the kind of answers that they would provide during exams. However, 3 of the informants confess their bad preparation and no one of the respondents refers to other reasons. Furthermore, the respondents were asked to justify the reasons that lay behind their choices. Most pupils admit that their lack of vocabulary accounts for their 'poor' writing skill (19/35) and

misunderstanding of the content (10/35). Those who answer 'good writing skill' (03/35) relate this fact to their adequacy knowledge of both grammar and vocabulary, while the category which relates its exam marks to its bad preparation (03/35) confess that 'stress' is the reason behind their 'bad' preparation and   scores. (Table 65)

Figure 49: Pupils' Exam Marks Reflection.
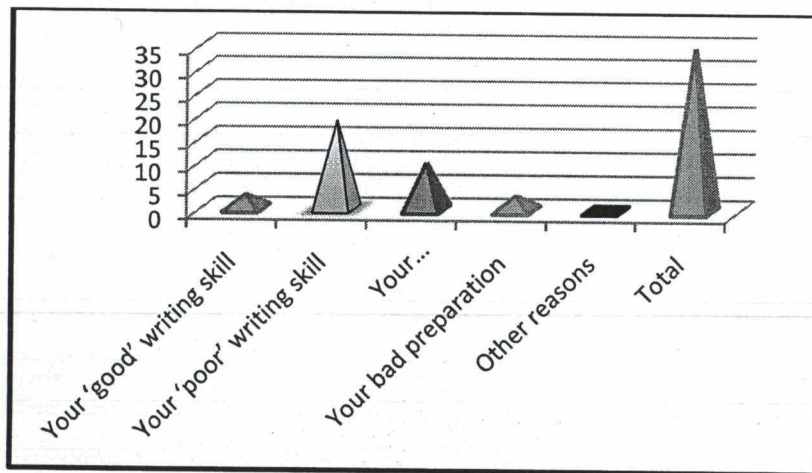
Table 66: Some Pupils' Justifications.

Pupils Justifications	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Lack of Vocabulary	22	62%
Adequacy of Vocabulary and grammar.	3	09%
Stress	10	29%

Most pupils justify their 'poor' writing to their lack in vocabulary. Others relate their misunderstanding to the stress that evokes from the fact of having an exam and some add that their deficiency in word knowledge also accounts for this misunderstanding. Whereas, the ones who reflect their exam scores to their 'good' writing argue that it is their adequacy of vocabulary knowledge and grammar that betters their process and improves their product (Table 66). Therefore, vocabulary knowledge adequacy and shortage appear to be responsible for both, efficient and deficient language process and product.

Figure 50: Some Pupils' Justifications.
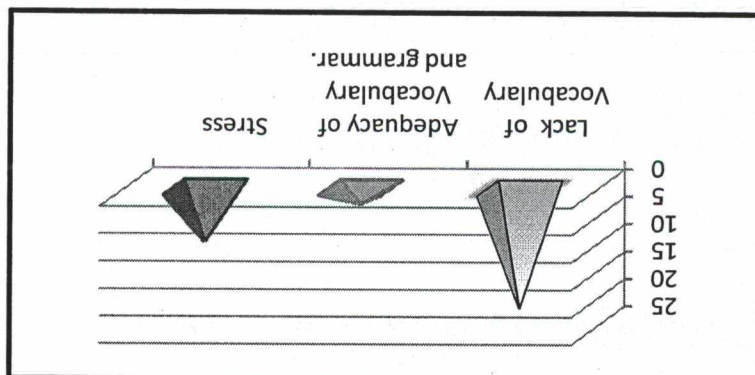
Item 19: What are your problems in learning EFL vocabulary?

Table 67: Pupils' Difficulties in Learning EFL Vocabulary.

Pupils' Difficulties	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Quick Forgetfulness	31	89%
Mistakes in the Word Forms (Spoken and Written)	29	82%
Diversity of Word Entries	16	46%
Misunderstanding in use	19	54%

Question 19 seeks information about the pupils' difficulties encountered when learning EFL vocabulary. Not a single pupil out of 35 admits that he or she does not face difficulties in learning EFL vocabulary. Results in table 67 show that 31 pupils think that the difficulty they encounter for most is that they easily forget about the words they have learned. Others (29/35) confess they have problems at the level of word spoken and written forms (pronunciation and spelling). 16 of the informants link their vocabulary difficulty to the varied entries that English words have and 19 pupils admit that their EFL Vocabulary learning difficulty lies in the fact that they misunderstand the occasions in which to use it.
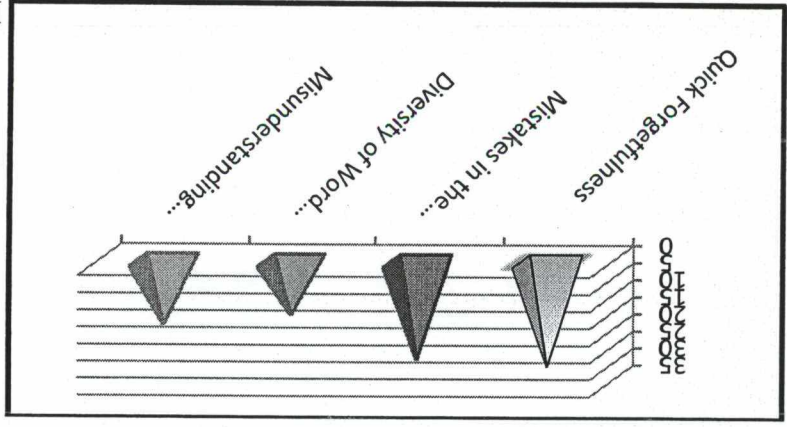
Figure 51: Pupils' Difficulties in Learning EFL Vocabulary.

Item 20: What do you suggest for an easier learning and high achievement in EFL learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular as a pupil at final level of secondary school level?

Table 68: Pupils' Suggestions.

Pupils' Suggestions	Number of Pupils	Percentages
Reinforcements in Practice	29	82%
Reinforcements in Testing	32	91%
Reading (Texts, short stories)	18	51%
Checking any Encountered Word in Dictionaries	34	98%
Making Web Research	09	26%

In order to gather data about the pupils' needs in EFL vocabulary they were asked what would be done to meet and improve their needs and achievements in their EFL vocabulary learning. Their suggestions include: Reinforcements in practice - Reinforcements in testing. Reading (Texts, short stories).Checking any encountered word in dictionaries Making web research.

3.3 Interpretation of the Results:

The research instruments used in this dissertation aims at analyzing the EFL Vocabulary teaching situation in secondary school from he angles of teachers and learners beliefs and practices on the current situation and the problems they can identify and the suggestions they can derive, to help the researcher make some 'reasonable' recommendations.

By designing the teachers and learners' questionnaire the aim was to show what beliefs EFL teachers and learners hold about vocabulary teaching and learning. These

questionnaires were also meant to detect as much as possible the causes of the lack of interest in teaching and learning from both teachers and learners perceptions. More importantly some items in the questionnaires aim to gather data on comment about what the researcher consider as motivating for EFL vocabulary learning and to obtain suggestions from the part of both participants.

The hypotheses one discusses in this dissertation are the following:

1. It is assumed that EFL teachers and learners in Algerian Secondary Schools regard vocabulary teaching and learning as important to language learning and difficult.

2. It is thought, however, that they may display a lack of interest and motivation to English vocabulary teaching and learning.

3. Nowadays computer technology in general and data corpus in particular are considered as motivating tools. Since successful learning is all about motivation; one supposes that data corpus as informed materials *may* enhance EFL Vocabulary Knowledge analyses and selection and *may* motivate because teachers and learners can be sure that the language they are practicing is modern, used in everyday situations, targeted to situations they are likely to find themselves in and corresponds to what they will hear and see in real conversations, movies, radio and TV shows, newspapers, books, Internet texts and magazines. It is not artificial or invented language, but consists of the most widely used words, phrases and grammar.

4. It is also assumed that this lack of interest is caused by the teachers' negative perceptions and expectations of their learners.

The first hypothesis is valid. If one refers to section one in items 3 and 4 in the pupils' questionnaire, section two in item 6 and section four in items 18 and 19; he or she would notice that pupils qualify vocabulary learning as important to improvements in language proficiency level and high achievements in language tasks and exams. Further more results in the pupils' questionnaire confirm that pupils regard EFL vocabulary learning also as difficult. (Section one: item 5 and section 4: item 20). The same hypothesis is also valid in teachers 'questionnaire outcomes, in the sense that teachers in the second section and more precisely in item 10 admit to refer to other language materials so as to provide more knowledge and offer more practice on EFL vocabulary. This, indeed, reflects vocabulary importance in language teaching and learning. Furthermore, the items 13, 14 and 15 in section three on the teachers 'questionnaire clearly reveal how much importance teachers give to EFL vocabulary learning. Their answers argue that vocabulary

knowledge is the number one language element responsible for promoting the pupils' level of language proficiency. Besides, they relate its deficiency to the pupils' lack in language proficiency level and school failure in learning English.

The second hypothesis and the last one are also confirmed in both participants' questionnaires. While referring to the pupils' questionnaire in section two in items 7 and 8, one would note that pupils display a lack of interest to EFL vocabulary though stressing its importance to English learning. They relate this lack of interest to their demotivation to learn. They explained that their teachers' negative perceptions on their language aptitude as low decrease their interest in the language classes and motivation to learn English in general. As far as EFL vocabulary is concerned, they admit their lack of interest in vocabulary learning accounts for their lack of interest in the content in which vocabulary is presented. However, they confess that the textbook offers enough importance to vocabulary learning for the varied tasks it provides. Along with, they admit that the teaching methods presented in the textbook and used by the teacher help them acquire the necessary level about vocabulary.

In the teachers 'questionnaire, too, the second and forth hypotheses are valid, in the sense that teachers as pupils complain about a lack of motivation in teaching English in general and vocabulary for the pupils' low level in English language proficiency (in section five: item 24). They confirm that the pupils' low language aptitude stands as an obstacle or barrier against the proceeding of any language teaching and learning material and, thus, demotivating teachers to proceed teaching and offer any related knowledge. Consequently, they lose interest to personalize EFL vocabulary learning process by getting learners to relate topics and texts in the textbook to their own lives and views, which proves to be more fruitful and efficient. (The teachers' semi-structured interview: question 7).

The results in both teachers' questionnaire (Section three: item 16) and interview (questions 14 and 15) verify the third hypothesis. It assumes that the application of computer corpus data as informed materials may enhance EFL Vocabulary knowledge analyses and selection and motivate teachers and learners in their EFL vocabulary teaching and learning; in the sense that the participants are dealing with vocabulary knowledge and language materials that meet their everyday needs in the sense that they are targeted to situations in which they find themselves embarked on. Furthermore, teachers strongly agree on the fact that computer corpus-data is the 'richest' language source that syllabus

designers and textbook writers may rely on for presenting both current and authentic language content as regards EFL learners in secondary schools for being in their final year of schooling.

Not only teachers prove to agree about the application of computer corpus data in EFL vocabulary learning, but language learners as well. The obtained results in the pupils' questionnaire (section two: item 11) confirm that the pupils agree to exceed the content of vocabulary learning to aspects like word register and word frequency and to present vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which pupils are likely to find themselves on. Moreover, pupils confess that vocabulary learning is better processed while referring to self learning mainly outside the classroom (section three: item 12) and prove to have benefited from the English materials as regards vocabulary knowledge they may encounter outside their English classes (section three: item 13).

3.4 Conclusion:

This dissertation is conducted to analyze the EFL vocabulary teaching situation in secondary school Daoud Mohamed El-Djabeli in Remchi – Tlemcen. The analysis of the situation is done by referring to two groups: the third year literary stream EFL learners and their English language teachers for the academic year 2009-2010 using a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview to teachers and questionnaire to learners.

The findings from the aforesaid research tools reveal that both teachers and learners' share beliefs on EFL vocabulary importance and difficulty, therefore any improvement in education quality presupposes taking into account the teachers and learners' needs and interests. Both questionnaires and interview give the researcher insights about some causes of both teachers and pupils' lack of interest and motivation to learn English in general and its vocabulary and highlights what the researcher thinks will both motivate teachers and capture learners interests and improve the teaching and the learning of EFL vocabulary and English as a whole.

To conclude this chapter, two points have to be stressed:

At first, the teachers' responses perfectly correspond to the pupils' ones which clearly highlight the existence of the problem under study. Therefore, there is a need for a reconsideration of any aspects of the teaching of this 'crucial' language element, ranging from the where (the sources of words analyses and selection), the what (which aspects of word knowledge would teachers give priority to be taught) and the how (techniques and

strategies to teach and learn about them) to the teachers and pupils' training, motivation and needs.

Second, a confirmation of the researcher's hypotheses is obtained via both teachers and pupils' unanimity, mainly concerning the items closely linked to the research questions and hypotheses under study.

Eventually, the findings discussed and derived from the research tools utilized in this study will lead the researcher to draw some suggestions and recommendations and to include them in the next chapter.

Chapter Four
Suggestions and Recommendations

Chapter Four: Suggestions and Recommendations.

4.1 Introduction:

Teaching and learning English as a foreign language is a highly complex task that should consider, teachers and learners' requirements, needs and wants so as to help them accomplish and reach their expectations and objectives. Based on the researcher's literature reading and the obtained results from the teachers and learners' attitudes, perceptions and preferences and the insightful opinions and propositions of experts, the researcher will list of some recommendations and suggestions to teachers and learners, alike.

From the participants' questionnaires in the present study it is assumed that third year literary stream pupils have a set of problems at the level of word forms and use and word knowledge recalling. Teachers also find it difficult to teach about the language as a whole for their negative perceptions on their pupils' low level of language proficiency and about vocabulary itself for its complexity to their learners. Teachers, then, confess their lack of motivation to teach. For a better exploitation from EFL vocabulary teaching and learning achievements, the following recommendations and suggestions are given.

4.2 Teachers' Recommendations and Pupils' Suggestions:

Based on the difficulties EFL teachers and learners encounter in secondary schools before, during and after vocabulary teaching and learning courses, the following recommendations are proposed for the improvements of EFL vocabulary teaching and learning:

- Rising awareness about vocabulary importance among pupils in classes.
- Reinforcements in vocabulary teaching Materials selection and tasks for more practice and better assessment and learning.
- Having pupils 'well trained' in prior years to their last year.
- Working in smaller classes.
- Advocating extensive reading.
- Encouraging self-learning.

    Their suggestions are gathered in terms of relationships and developed by the researcher in the light of what research in the field has brought up.

4.2.1 _Rising Awareness about Vocabulary Importance in Classes:_

It is suggested to give vocabulary a high profile in the syllabus and the classroom so that learners can see its importance and understand that learning a language is not just about learning the grammar of that language (O'Dell 1997).It may be worth teaching learners an easier formulation of Wilkins' view (1972:111) _" without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"._

One of the first vocabulary learning strategies for any classroom is to teach learners how to ask for words they do not know in English and how to ask for the meanings of English words they do not understand. Therefore, phrases like "what's the word for_____ in English"?, "how do you say____"? and "what does ____ mean"? are useful to teach at a basic level. As learners progress, another useful strategy they can use is to paraphrase:" it's a kind of_____", "it's like a _____", and "it's for ___ ing X".

An important vocabulary acquisition strategy in the one which Nation (2001) calls _"noticing»._ Its main concept is seeing a word as something to be learned. Teachers can help learners get into the habit of noticing by making clear in classroom instructions and homework tasks in which they should determine which items should be learned, what each item is (a single word, a phrase, a collocation etc.) and for what purpose (active use or passive recognition). And materials can help teachers on this, in the following ways:

▶ Providing clearly marked vocabulary lessons.

▶ Making the target vocabulary set stand out, including focused practice and regular review.

▶ Giving lists of vocabulary to be learned for the lesson.

Structured vocabulary notebook exercises which are designed to make students focus on a particular vocabulary set or feature are a good way of developing this noticing strategy.

4.2.2 _Reinforcements in Vocabulary Teaching Materials and Tasks:_

Research advocates that prior to reinforcement in vocabulary teaching tasks, teachers need to be selective in terms of vocabulary teaching materials. Actually, there is a lot to learn about vocabulary in terms of its range, the sheer number of words and phrases to learn, and the depth of knowledge students need to know. Materials can help students in two broad areas. First, they need to present and practice in natural contexts the vocabulary that is frequent, current, and appropriate to learners' needs. Second, materials should help students become better learners of vocabulary by teaching different techniques and

strategies they can use to continue learning outside the classroom about each vocabulary item. In fact, there is a vast amount of research into how learners learn best and teachers might best teach. Next, some key principles that teachers may follow to help pupils learn more effectively are listed.

4.2.2.1   *Suggested Vocabulary Selection Techniques:*

Actually, there is no special course to learn vocabulary. Vocabulary list usually appears with a reading text. Teachers should make full use of the vocabulary list to help students to obtain the necessary lexical knowledge. At this point, teachers may ask two questions. First, among the words in the vocabulary list what words should be selected to spend time on? And is the first consideration the teacher has to make? According to Harmer (1991) a general principle of vocabulary selection has been that of *frequency*. To focus learners' attention on the high frequency words of the language gives a very good return for learning effort.

Methodologies can decide which words they should teach on the basis of how frequently they are used by speakers of the language. The words which are mostly commonly used are the ones teachers should teach firstly. Another principle that has been used in the selection of vocabulary is that of coverage. A word is more useful if it covers more things than if it only has one very specific meaning. Thus, teachers should select the words with the ability to combine with other words, the ability to help to define other words and the ability to replace the other words.

Preparing the vocabulary component of a language course, teachers should have the basic words to refer to and they need to judge whether a particular word deserves attention or not (Nation, Warning, 1997). Giving description of word lists suggest that large vocabulary word lists, as the major source of vocabulary learning, are preferable in the teaching and learning of English vocabulary.

➢ *Word Lists at an Early Stage:*

Word lists are of great help because they are derived from different corpora developed from millions of words. An example is the General Service List (1953) by West and the Academic Word List by Coxhead (1998), see Appendix F.

The facts about word lists show that they can not only help teachers to select those words worth attention and teaching but also enable learners to have a systematic study of academic words they need for academic purposes.

➢ *Awareness of Criteria in Selection*:

It is a good start to refer to word lists when teachers prepare a vocabulary teaching programme for the learners. However, it is not motivating to utilize the word list mechanically. Some criteria should be taken into account when words are selected for teaching. Firstly, the word lists must contain words that are representatives of the varieties of words that are intended to reflect. For example if teachers are to teach vocabulary of speech, they must first make sure that the word list they select for teaching should be based on the corpora with spoken data which show the representativeness of the words to be taught or learned. Secondly, the words selected should occur across a range of different text types. The occurrence of a word in a wide range of text types will be beneficial to learners who major in different subject areas for academic purposes. Thirdly, special concern should be shown to some vocabulary items with multi-units whose meaning is not deducible from the meaning of the individual words. Examples are: *so for, good morning, all right* …etc. they should be regarded as a whole and included in the teaching list.

➢ *The Use of Concordances:*

The use of concordances (see appendix E) in selecting words is a good way to promote vocabulary learning because of several advantages. Learners can meet the vocabulary in real contexts with a variety of aspects of knowing a word including collocates, grammatical patterns, word family members, related meanings and homonyms presented. *'The use of concordance can challenge the learners to actively construct generalizations, note patterns and exceptions'*. (Nation, 2001:111).

4.2.2.2   *Suggested Vocabulary Teaching Materials and Tasks:*

It is clear that there is a far more to a vocabulary item than just meaning. In teaching vocabulary, teacher should look at words from the perspective of their meaning, their use, their formation and their grammar. (Nation 2001).

The first decision to make when teaching a word is to decide whether the word is worth spending time on or not. If the word is a low frequency word and is not a useful technical word and not one that is particularly useful for the learners, it should be dealt with as quickly as possible. Usually, when words come up in the context of a reading or listening text, or of learners need a word or phrase when speaking or writing, they need quick help which does not interrupt the activity too much. The following subtitle lists ways of quickly dealing with words. The small amount of research on such teaching indicates that it has a strong effect on vocabulary learning.

➤ *Ways of quickly giving Attention to Words:*

1 Quickly give *the meaning* by (a) using an L1 translation, (b) using a known L2 synonym or a simple definition in the L2, (c) showing an object or picture, (d) giving quick demonstration, (e) drawing a simple picture or diagram, (f) breaking the word into parts and giving the meaning of the parts and the whole word (the word part strategy), (g) giving several example sentences with the word in context to show the meaning, (h) commenting on the underlying meaning of the word and other referents.

2 Draw attention to *the form* of the word by (a) showing how the spelling of the word is like the spelling of known words, (b) giving the stress pattern of the word and its pronunciation, (c) showing the prefix, stem and suffix that make up the word, (d) getting the learners to repeat the pronunciation of the word, (e) writing the word on the board, (f) pointing out any spelling irregularity in the word.

3 Draw attention to *the use* of the word by (a) quickly showing the grammatical pattern the word fits into (countable/uncountable, transitive/intransitive, etc), (b) giving a few similar collocates, (c) mentioning any restrictions on the use of the word (formal, colloquial, impolite, only used in the United States, only used with children, old fashioned, technical, infrequent), (d) giving a well known opposite, or a well known word describing the group or lexical set it fits into.

Nation argues that teachers need to take the following principles in presenting knowledge about vocabulary.

1. Keep the teaching simple and clear. Do not give complicated explanations.

2. Relate the present teaching to past knowledge by showing a pattern or analogies.

3. Use both oral and written presentation - write it on the blackboard as well as explaining.

4. Give most attention to words that are already partly known.

5. Tell the learners if it is a high frequency word that is worth noting for future attention.

6. Do not bring in other unknown or poorly known related words like near synonyms, opposites, or members of the same lexical set.

Sometimes however a teacher may want to spend time on a word. In general, time should be spent on high frequency words or words that fill a language need that the learners have. The subtitle below lists a range of vocabulary activities that require very little preparation by the teacher. Note that these activities have been organized according to the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word. Many of these activities involve learners working together in pairs or small groups.

➤ *Useful Vocabulary Learning Exercises that require little or no Preparation:*

<u>Word Meaning</u>

▶ *Find the core meaning*: The learners look at dictionary entries and find the shared meaning in the various senses of the word.

▶ *Word card testing*: The learners work in pairs. Each learner gives their pack of cards to their partner who tests them on their recall of the meaning by saying the word and getting them to give the translation. This can also be done by giving the translation and getting them to give the word form.

▶ *Using the dictionary:* When a useful word occurs in a reading text, the teacher trains learners in the strategy of using a dictionary.

▶ *Guessing from context*: Whenever a guessable word occurs in a reading text the teacher trains the learners in the guessing from context strategy.

<u>Word Form</u>

▶ *Spelling dictation*: The teacher says words or phrases and the learners write them.

▶ *Pronunciation*: The teacher writes words on the board and the learners pronounce them getting feedback from the teacher. Each learner picks what word to say.

▶ *Word parts:* The teacher writes words on the board and the learners cut them into parts and give the meanings of the parts.

<u>Word Use</u>

▶ *Suggest collocates:* The learners work together in pairs or small groups to list collocates for a given word.

▶ *Word detectives*: A learner reports on a word he or she has found in their reading. They talk about the meaning, spelling, pronunciation, word parts, etymology, collocates and grammar of the word.

➤ *Useful Prepared Exercises for Vocabulary Learning:*

Some vocabulary exercises need to be carefully prepared in advance. These may be part of a course book and may be planned to systematically cover a certain area of vocabulary. Below one lists the most useful of these. The major values of prepared exercises are that they can be made to systematically cover an area of vocabulary, and learners can do them independently of the teacher. Most published books of prepared vocabulary exercises use the *Teach, test, and mark* format. That is, some aspects of the words are taught, and then the learners do labeling, completion, rewording, classifying, correcting or matching activities which they later mark using an answer key (McCarthy

and Dell, 1994). If such exercises are done in pairs or small groups, then there is the added opportunity for learners to learn from each other.

Meaning

- Word and meaning matching.
- Labelling.
- Sentence completion.
- Crossword puzzles.
- Semantic analysis.
- Completing lexical sets.

Form

- Following spelling rules.
- Recognising word parts.
- Building word family tables.

Use

- Sentence completion
- Collocation matching
- Collocation tables
- Interpreting dictionary entries

Nation (2001) confesses that a good vocabulary exercise:

1. focuses on useful words, preferably high frequency words that have already been met before;

2. focuses on a useful aspect of learning burden. It has a useful learning goal;

3. gets learners to meet or use the word in ways that establish new mental connections for the word. It sets up useful learning conditions involving generative use;

4. involves the learners in actively searching for and evaluating the target words in the exercise; and

5. does not bring related unknown or partly known words together. It avoids interference.

Many of the presented vocabulary teaching materials and activities are developed by Morgan & Rinvolucri (2004). They included activities to introduce vocabulary; text based activities; writing activities for Communicative Output (Nation, 2005, Beglar & Hunt, 2005); L1/L2 activities; suggestions for using corpora and concordances; multisensory activities; word personalization tasks; as well as suggestions for dictionary and revision exercises.

Besides, the researcher strongly suggests more flexible teaching materials that may answer the learners' needs and desires. Based on the belief that, the classroom may be the 'only' place where learners formally learn and use English. Thus, it is important for teachers to include teaching materials as *strategic vocabulary* and foremost the one made up so much of spoken language (see chapter one), in language classes. In other words, if the textbook does not include this as part of the syllabus it will be up to the teacher as the most experienced user of English to find ways to introduce this type of vocabulary in class.

4. 2.2.3 Some Guidelines Prior to Vocabulary Task Design
> **Offer Variety in Exercises:**

Tomlinson (1998) suggests a number of principles for developing successful teaching material. The first of these is that *"materials should achieve impact"*. He suggests that this can be done with appealing content, attractive presentation and variety. Indeed, he argues that teachers should use different ways to present vocabulary including pictures, sound recordings and different types of texts which learners can identify: stories, conversations, web pages, questionnaires and news reports. Besides he notes that in each of these variant contexts, topics should be relevant to the learners' interests and needs.

Similarly practice activities should vary so as to engage learners at different levels and should range from simple listen and repeat type of practice to opportunities to use the vocabulary in meaningful way. In addition, offering variety also means catering to different learning styles and as Tomlinson notes, some learners may use different learning styles in different learning situations. In short, offering variety also means offering activities that sometimes appeal to learners who are "analytic" or "studial" (those learners who need to analyze the language and to be accurate on their use of it); as well as to learners who are "global" or "experiential" (those who are less concerned with accuracy) and catering to learners who prefer to learn either by seeing, hearing or doing things.

> **Provide opportunities to organize vocabulary:**

Organizing vocabulary in meaningful ways makes it easier to learn (Schmitt 1997; Sökmen 1997). Textbooks often present new vocabulary in thematic sets as an aid to memory, but there are other types of organization and these can be described under three broad headings: real-world groups, language groups, and personalized groups.

Real-world groups: occur in the real world; for example to gather the vocabulary regarding countries, continents, parts of the body, foods and expressions of every day use.

Language-based groups: draw on linguistic criteria as ways of grouping, for example, the different parts of speech of a word family; words that have the same prefix or suffix, or the same sound; verbs and dependent prepositions; collocations of different kinds (verb + noun; adjective + noun, etc.).

Personalized groups use students' own preferences and experiences as the basis for the groups. It might include grouping vocabulary according to likes and dislikes, personal habits or personal history, for example, foods that you like and don't like, or eat often, sometimes, rarely, or that you ate for breakfast, lunch, and dinner yesterday. Making vocabulary personal helps to make it more memorable.

> *Make vocabulary learning personal:*

Related to the point above, materials should provide opportunities for students to use the vocabulary meaningfully, to say and write true things about themselves and their lives. Students should be encouraged to add vocabulary they want to learn, too. One note of caution is that personalization may be more appropriate for some students than others. In a large study of vocabulary learning strategies used by students at different ages, Schmitt (1997) reports that younger (junior high school) students found that personalization was less helpful to them than the older students in university and adult classes.

Potentially this range of teaching guidelines discussed in this concern for language teachers, may lead learners correspondingly to use a broad range of strategies. This would allow for a range of individual approaches to learning but also hope to expand the range of strategies available to students. Thus, effective teaching may be based more on the development of skills and practices than on knowledge and content (Bialystok 1985), and help students towards metacognitive awareness of strategy choices. As Sternberg (1987) maintained, a main function of teaching vocabulary should be to teach students to teach themselves. He said:

> *No matter how many words we teach them directly, those words will constitute only a small fraction of the words they will need to know, or that they eventually will require. They truly constitute a drop in the vocabulary bucket. It doesn't really matter a whole lot how many of those few words students learn, or how well they learn them. What matters is*

how well they will go on learning long after they have exited from our lives, as we have exited from theirs (p. 97).

Moreover, Morgan and Rinvolucri (1986) found out that learners in interviews claimed they used many techniques that are not very commonly used in classrooms. They concluded that learners *"recognized something that their teachers did not: for learning to be effective, attention must be paid to the student's own process of learning"*, and effective teaching is to *"work with that process" (p. 5).* There is therefore a need to look at students' own learning, so that more effective help can be given in classrooms.

4.2.2.4 Suggested Techniques for Vocabulary Presentation:

✓ *Make students incorporate new words into language that is already known*

The best way to help students to remember new words is to incorporate them into language that is already known. According to Baddeley (1990, p. 145), the principle of incorporating new knowledge into the old is so widely accepted as a basic requirement of learning, that learning itself can in some respects be considered a "problem-solving exercise in which one attempts to find the best way of mapping new learning onto old" (1990, p.198). Old-established words are part of rich network of interwoven associations. If new words can be integrated into this network, those associations can strengthen the learner's existing schemata and at the same time make the new word more accessible. Words do not exist in isolation. Their meanings are defined through their relationships with other words and it is through understanding these relationships that students can arrive at the understanding of words. Words that are presented can be related by subject matter (e.g. "looking for a place to live", "human rights"); by similarity of meaning features (e.g., pretty, beautiful, handsome, lovely, attractive); by lexical relations: synonyms (shallow, superficial), antonyms (cry, laugh), subordinates (animal, dog), superordinate and cohyponyms (vehicle, car, train).

✓ *Make students interact with words*

Experiments on vocabulary seem to suggest that students remember best when they have actually done something with the words they are learning. There is a definite advantage in getting students to do more than just repeat them. Tasks such as changing them to mean their opposites or making a noun an objective, putting words together, etc. help to fix the words in the learner's minds (Harmer, 1991, p. 160). We should get students to interact with words. Teachers should get them to "adopt" words that they like and that

they want to use. They should get them to do things with words so that they become properly acquainted with them.

✓ *Make students use the mental processing*

Vocabulary learning needs a deep experience. The deeper the mental processing used when learning a word, the more likely, that a student will remember it. The "Depth of processing hypothesis" states that mental activities which require more elaborate thought, manipulation, or processing of a new word will help in the learning of that word (Craik and Tulving, 1975). Deeper, richer semantic processing, such as creating a mental image of a word's meaning, judging the formality of a word, or grouping the word with other conceptually associated words, will be more likely to enhance learning than shallower processes such as rote repetition (Schmitt, 1995).

✓ *Avoid teaching similar words at the same time*

According to Nation (1982), new items are better retained if unrelated in meaning while new words sharing features of meaning are likely to be confused. Although organization can facilitate learning, teaching words together which are too similar can be counter-productive. With a pair like "left" and "right", students often confuse which word applies to which direction. In addition to learning the meanings of the two words, the student has the additional burden of keeping them separate. This "principle of interference" applies to formal similarities as well. If "affect" and "effect" are taught together, they are likely to become cross-associated in the learner's mind. Higa (1963) found that words which were strongly associated with each other, such as antonyms, were more difficult to learn together than words which had weak connections or no relationship at all. One way to avoid interference between two similar words is to teach the more frequent word, and only introduce the second item after the first has been firmly acquired.

➢ *Getting Repeated Attention to Vocabulary: (Repeat and Recycle)*

Useful vocabulary needs to be met again and again to ensure it is learned. In the early stages of learning the meetings need to be reasonably close together, preferably within a few days, so that too much forgetting does not occur. Later meetings can be very widely spaced with several weeks between each meeting.High frequency vocabulary needs to be met across all four strands of a course - meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development. Some low frequency vocabulary may not need to become part o learners' output and so it is not important for it to be part of the meaning-focused output strand.

When teaching vocabulary, language learners usually need to see, say and write the newly learned items many times before they can be said to have learned them. Most researchers agree on the point that repetition is an important aid to vocabulary learning.

In this concern, they have suggested various numbers of encounters with a word for learning to take place, ranging from five to up to twenty [see, e.g., Nation (1990); Rott (1999); Ghadirian (2002)]. Some suggest that an impressive amount of learning can take place when various numbers of encounters of learning can take place when students learn lists of paired items (English word and translation equivalents); others suggest that this method of learning does not aid deeper understanding of the words or help develop fluency. However, most agree that repetition is an important aid to learning and that having to actively recall or "retrieve" a word is a more effective way of learning than simple exposure or just seeing a word over and over (Sökmen 1997). Researchers also agree that repeating words aloud helps students remember words better than repeating them silently.

Another area of research is how long students can remember words after first learning them, and again researchers agree that forgetting mostly occurs immediately after one first learn something, and that the rate of forgetting slows down afterward [see Gu (2003)]. In sum, the implications for the vocabulary classroom should be self-evident: Review vocabulary as often as possible in activities that have students actively recall words and produce them rather than merely see or hear them. Below are lists of various ways of getting learners to meet the same vocabulary again and again.

1- Spend time on a word by dealing with two or three aspects of the word, such as its spelling, its pronunciation, its parts, related derived forms, its meaning, its collocations, its grammar, or restrictions on its use.

2- Get learners to do graded reading and listening to stories at the appropriate level.

3- Get learners to do speaking and writing activities based on written input that contains the words.

4- Get learners to do prepared activities that involve testing and teaching vocabulary, such as: *same or different, find the difference, word and picture matching.*

5- Set aside a time each week for word by word revision of the vocabulary that occurred previously. List the words on the board and do the following activities.

a) Go round the class getting each learner to say one of the words.

b) Break the words into parts and label the meanings of the parts.

c) Suggest collocations for the words.

d) Recall the sentence where the word occurred and suggest another context.

e) Look at derived forms of the words.

The direct teaching approach suggested by Nation is based on the following guidelines:

1- If the word is a high frequency word or one that will be of continuing importance for the learners, a) give it attention, preferably focusing on its learning burden, b) make sure the learners will come back to it again. If the word is a low frequency word, pass over it without comment or give some brief attention to it focusing on what is needed in that instance.

2- Direct teaching should be clear and simple, relies on repeated meetings to develop an understanding of the complexities of a word and do not try to deal with the complexities by intensive teaching.

4.2.3 *Having Pupils 'Well Trained' in Prior Years to their Last Year:*

The basic foundation of language learning is vocabulary acquisition. Individual words and phrases are the building blocks of communication. Grammar, sentences, and syntax come later and, while important for effective communication, serve primarily to add structure to a solid base of vocabulary. Therefore, it is necessary to give serious consideration to strategies for successful learning of vocabulary and language as a whole.

Teachers should become familiar with a variety of vocabulary instruction tools and should train their students to use them, so that students will be able to learn vocabulary more efficiently. Such training can best be accomplished by weaving it into normal classroom activities. A training sequence is as follows: (1) determine learners' needs by exploring expectations and current vocabulary learning techniques; (2) choose relevant techniques to teach; (3) find ways to integrate these techniques into everyday language instruction; (4) consider issues of student motivation toward and anxieties concerning learning vocabulary; (5) prepare materials and activities; (6) conduct completely informed training, in which learners are explicitly told how to use a particular technique to learn a given word, how to evaluate the success of the technique, and how to transfer it to a new word or set of words.

4.2.3.1 Language Learning Strategies:

It has been suggested that one way to accelerate the learning of a second or a foreign language is to teach learners how to learn more efficiently and effectively. To this end, teachers are recommended to train their students in different learning strategies. Learning strategies instruction can help *"EFL learners become better learners. In addition, skill in using learning strategies assists students in becoming independent, confident learners"* (Chamot, 1999:1).

Several language learning strategies have been made in the literature. According to Cook (1991), a learning strategy is a choice made by the learners while learning or using the second language. O'Malley and Chamot (1990:1) define learning strategies as *'the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information.'* Stern (1992: 261) states that *'the concept of learning strategy is based on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals, that they exercise a choice of procedures, and that they undertake some form of long-term planning.'*

Wenden (1987:7 cited in Stern, 1992:261) treats strategies as equivalent to what other writers have called *'techniques', 'tactics', 'consciously employed operations', 'learning skills'*, and so on. The consensus of opinion in the above definitions seems to be that learning strategies are skillfully exploited by the learners to acquire learning in a self-directed manner. Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are the tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communication ability.Appropriate learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self–confidence in many instances (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Various classifications of learning strategies are found in literature. Oxford (2001) states that major varieties of language learning strategies are: cognitive, mnemonic, metacognitive, compensatory, affective, and social. Learning strategies have also been differentiated into three categories: (1) Metacognitive Strategies, (2) Cognitive Strategies, (3) Social/affective Strategies (O' Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Students are not always aware of the power of consciously using language learning strategies for making learning quicker, easier, more effective, and even more fun (Nyikos, 1987, cited in Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Skilled and experienced teachers help their students develop an awareness of learning strategies so that they can use a wider range of appropriate strategies because learning to learn has become enormously important.

According to Cohen (2002) strategy training aims to provide learners with the tools to do the following:

· Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning

· Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently

· Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills

· Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies

· Make decisions about how to approach a language task

· Monitor and self-evaluate their performance

· Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts

Studies have shown that the most effective strategy training is explicit: Learners are obviously told that a particular behaviour or strategy might be helpful, and they are taught how to use and transfer it to new situations. *'Blind training'*, in which students are oriented to employ strategies without realization, is found less successful. Research also shows that strategy training is more fruitful when it is woven into regular class activities (Oxford, 2002: 126).

Strategy training may be helpful, however, as Williams and Burden (1997) note, if it is more beneficial to help learners develop strategies that are personally relevant to them. It should not be forgotten that different characteristics such as age, sex, motivation, learning style, life experience and cultural background may influence the students' learning (Williams and Burden, 1997). When researchers consider vocabulary learning strategies, it seems that many learners do use strategies for learning vocabulary, especially when compared to more integrated task (Schmitt, 1997). According to Schmitt (1997) higher strategy use may be a result of learners' awareness of the importance of the vocabulary.

4.2.3.2 Taxonomies of Vocabulary Learning Strategies:

Vocabulary learning strategies are one part of language learning strategies which in turn are part of general learning strategies (Nation, 2001). Language learning strategies encourage greater overall self-direction for learners. Self-directed learners are independent learners who are capable of assuming responsibility for their own learning and gradually gaining confidence, involvement and proficiency (Oxford, 1990). So is the case with vocabulary learning strategies. Thus, students need training in vocabulary learning strategies they need most. Research has shown that many learners do use more strategies to learn vocabulary especially when compared to such integrated tasks such as listening and speaking. But they are mostly inclined to use basic vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 1997). This in turn makes strategy instruction an essential part of any foreign or second language program. Gu and Johnson (1996) list second language (L2) vocabulary learning strategies as metacognitive, cognitive, memory and activation strategies.

Metacognitive strategies consist of selective attention and self-initiation strategies. F/SLL who employ selective attention strategies know which words are important for them to learn and are essential for adequate comprehension of a passage. Learners employing self-initiation strategies use a variety of means to make the meaning of vocabulary items clear.

Cognitive strategies in Gu and Johnson's taxonomy entail guessing strategies, skillful use of dictionaries and note-taking strategies. Learners using guessing strategies draw upon their background knowledge and use linguistic clues like grammatical structures of a sentence to guess the meaning of a word.

Memory strategies are classified into rehearsal and encoding categories. Word lists and repetition are instances of rehearsal strategies. Encoding strategies encompass such strategies as association, imagery, visual, auditory, semantic, and contextual encoding as well as word structure (i.e., analyzing a word in terms of prefixes, stems, and suffixes).

Activation strategies include those strategies through which the learners actually use new words in different contexts. For instance, learners may set sentences using the words they have just learned. All these suggested strategies can be summarized in a table as follows:

Strategies			
Metacognitive	**Cognitive**	**Memory**	**Activation**
➢ Selective Attention: Identifying essential words for comprehension. ➢ Self-initiation: Using a variety of means to make the meaning of words clear.	➢ Guessing: Activating background knowledge, using linguistic items. ➢ Use of dictionaries. ➢ Note-taking.	➢ Rehearsal: Word lists, repetition, etc. ➢ Encoding: Association (imagery, visual, auditory, etc.)	➢ Using new words in different contexts.

A comprehensive inventory of vocabulary learning strategies is developed by Schmitt (1997). He distinguishes the strategies into two groups: The ones to determine the meaning of new words when encountered for the first time, and the ones to consolidate meaning when encountered again. The former contains determination and social strategies and the latter contains cognitive, metacognitive, memory and social strategies. Schmitt includes social strategies in both categories since they can be used for both purposes.

To Schmitt, determination strategies are used when *"learners are faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's experience"* (1997: 205). Hence, learners try to discover the meaning of a new word by guessing it with the help of context, structural knowledge of language, and reference materials.

For Schmitt, the second way to discover a new meaning is through employing the social strategies of asking someone for help with the unknown words. Beside the initial discovery of a word, learners need to employ a variety of strategies to practice and retain vocabulary. Learners thus, use a variety of social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies to consolidate their vocabulary knowledge.

Cooperative group learning through which learners study and practice the meaning of new words in a group is an instance of social strategies for consolidating a word Memory strategies, traditionally known as Mnemonics, involve relating the word with some previously learned knowledge by using some form of imagery or grouping.

Cognitive strategies in this taxonomy are similar to memory strategies but are not focused on manipulative mental processing. They include repetition and using mechanical means such as word lists, flash cards, and vocabulary notebooks to study words.

Finally, metacognitive strategies in Schmitt's taxonomy are defined as strategies used by learners to control and evaluate their own learning, by having an overview of the learning process in general. Testing oneself is an instance of metacognitive strategies which provides *"input to the effectiveness of one's choice of learning strategies, providing positive reinforcement if progress is being made or a signal to switch strategies if it is not"* (Schmitt, 1997:216).

In a more recent attempt, Nation (2001) proposes taxonomy of various vocabulary learning strategies. The strategies in the taxonomy are divided into three general classes of 'planning', 'source' and 'processes', each of which is divided into a subset of key strategies. The taxonomy separates different aspects of vocabulary knowledge (i.e., what is involved in knowing a word).

The first category (i.e., planning) involves deciding on where, how and how often to focus attention on the vocabulary item. The strategies in this category are choosing words, choosing aspects of word knowledge and choosing strategies as well as planning repetition.

The second category in Nation's taxonomy involves getting information about the word. This information may include all the aspects involved in knowing a word. It can come from the word form itself, from the context, from a reference source like dictionaries

or glossaries and from analogies and connections with other languages. Process is the last category in Nation's (2001) taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. It includes establishing word knowledge through noticing, retrieving and generating strategies.

According to Nation, noticing involves seeing the word item to be learned. Strategies at this level include putting the word in a vocabulary notebook or list; putting the word onto a word card and orally and visually repeating the word. He argues that although these strategies are all of recording type, they are useful steps resulting in deeper processing of words. Retrieval involves recalling the items met before. It contains recalling knowledge in the same way it was originally stored. Generating strategies include *"attaching new aspects of knowledge to what is known through instantiation (i.e., visualizing examples of words), word analysis, semantic mapping and using scales and grids"* (Nation, 2001: 222). Generating strategies include rule-driven generation, as well; such as, creating context, collocations and sentences containing the new word. Besides, the mnemonic strategies and using the word in different context through four skills are also defined as generating strategies.

In general, although the taxonomies cited above may slightly differ in terms of strategies they categorize, they all provide a list of widely applicable vocabulary learning strategies. There are many words on which teachers may not be able to spend time within the class time limits. Thus, if students are equipped with a number of the strategies mentioned in the taxonomies, they can deal with these words on their own and as a result have access to a large number of target language words.

4.2.3.3 Some Considerations to be taken Prior to Strategy Training:

Before strategy training can be carried out, several issues need to be addressed: First, teachers need to find out what strategies and in particular what combination of strategies should be taught. Second, the learning strategies known and preferred by learners should be identified and taken into account. Third, some learners may need to be convinced that strategy training is to their own benefit (Ellis, 1994). Fourth, after deciding what strategies to give attention to, teachers should decide how much time to spend on training the learners in strategy use, and they should work out a syllabus for each strategy that covers the required knowledge and provides enough independent practice (Nation, 2001). Fifth, when considering which vocabulary learning strategies to recommend to students, teachers should notice not to take strategies as inherently good. They should bear in mind that effectiveness depends on the context in which strategies are used (Schmitt, 1997). The effectiveness with which learning strategies can be both taught and used

depends on such variables as "proficiency level, task, language modality, background knowledge, context of learning, target language and learner characteristics" (Chamot & Rubin, 1994).

Finally, teachers should bear in mind that learners need to understand the goal of each strategy and the conditions under which it works best. Learners also need enough practice to feel confident and proficient in using strategies. Therefore, teachers should provide ample time for strategy training (Nation, 2001).

4.2.3.4 A Framework for Vocabulary Learning Strategy Training:

Recommending a fixed framework for strategy training does not seem to be tenable as it was already pointed out that a number of variables like learners' proficiency level, language modality, task, text, etc. have an impact on the effectiveness of strategies that can be taught and used. Thus, what follows is a series of options which EFL teachers can have access to but need to sequence in an appropriate way to best fit their classroom context.

Teachers should decide which strategies to give attention to and how much time they need to spend on training. In order to catch a glimpse of the strategies learners need and the ones they are currently using, students should be asked to draw up a list of strategies they employ to learn English words in small groups. They report their lists to the class. The students and the teacher can then, collaboratively construct a list of strategies the learners employ. After this brainstorming session, the teacher can decide what strategies learners lack and need most. The teacher should model the strategy for the learners. Then the steps in the strategy should be practiced separately. Learners are asked to apply the strategy in pairs while helping each other. They report back on the application of the steps. The teacher monitors and provides feedback on learners' control of the strategies. She or he also systematically tests learners on strategy use and gives them feedback. Learners report on the difficulty and success in using the strategy outside classroom and they ask for teachers' help and advice on their use of strategy (Nation, 2001).

Learners should be given opportunities to examine the effectiveness of their vocabulary coping strategies. For instance, in activities like guessing from context, teachers can see what learners do (Porte, 1988), and learners can assess how effectively they can apply the inferring strategies they were taught. Moreover, teachers should be cognizant of the interaction between learners' awareness of their own learning style and their ability to take charge of their own learning. Teachers have two options at their disposal to foster this interaction: They can provide learners with opportunities to do different vocabulary exercises. This will in turn expose them to different strategies, and

learners will discover which one feels right for them. Teachers can provide learners with questionnaires to help them gain insight into what strategies are more suitable for them. The questionnaire might include such questions as: *"Do I learn vocabulary more easily in doing speaking activities with my classmates?, Am I comfortable with analyzing word parts?, Does it work better for me to collect words on index cards or make word lists?"* (Sokmen, 1997: 256).

Teachers should also recognize that some typical vocabulary learning strategies such as using notebooks, dictionary and expansion exercises like semantic mapping are highly beneficial and could be introduced as early as possible. Learners can write the words they encounter on their vocabulary notebook and add L2-L1 translation or other knowledge they gradually acquire about the words such as collocations, semantic associations, frequency tallies, roots and derivations. Learners can be reminded to go through their notebooks regularly in order to add more information and rehearse what they already recorded. (Schmitt, 1995). The vocabulary notebook could then serve as a valuable resource.

Semantic mapping is also a useful strategy that can be introduced to learners at any level of proficiency. It involves drawing a diagram of the relationships between words according to their use in a particular text. Semantic mapping has the effect of bringing relationships in a text to consciousness for the purpose of deepening the understanding of a text and creating associative networks for words. It is best introduced as a collaborative effort between the teacher and the class (Stahl & Vancil, 1986, cited in Nation and Newton, 1997). Such a diagram *"visually shows how ideas fit together. This strategy incorporates a variety of memory strategies like grouping, using imagery, associating and elaborating and it is important for improving both memory and comprehension of new vocabulary items"*(Oxford, 1990: 62).

In a guided semantic mapping, learners work with the teacher to develop a semantic map around a topic, the teacher deliberately introduces several target vocabulary items and puts them on the map as well as elaborating on them with the learners who then use the semantic map to do a piece of writing. If the writing is done in a group, a learner in the group can be assigned to ensure that the target words are used (Nation, 2001).

In general, teachers need to decide what framework and strategies they should choose to focus on based on their student's needs, learning styles, proficiency level as well as the task's requirements. Thus, frameworks are not fixed and can vary from context to context.

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4.2.4 _Building Independent Learners in and outside Class:_

A lot of Vocabulary research points to the relative success of learners who are independent, devote time to self-study by means of incidental reading, to use a variety of learning strategies and keep good vocabulary notes. As Gu (2003) summarizes his own and other studies by saying _"good learners seem to be those who initiate their own learning, selectively attend to words of their own choice, studiously try to remember these words and seek opportunities to use them"._

In that sense teachers can help their learners be "better" learners and acquire good learning habits by setting structured learning tasks which can be done out of class. These might include encouraging students to some reading and helping students construct a vocabulary notebook, using resources such as dictionaries and the internet and finding opportunities to use English.

4.2.4.1 _Research Tools:_

It is a fact that learners now have access to vast sources such as the internet and the wealth information in learners' and online dictionaries. If learners are learners are trained how to use these resources and understand how they can provide information on formally, collocation, grammatical patterns and other word and language knowledge they can exploit these resources more effectively and become more independent in their language learning in general and vocabulary in particular.

4.2.4.2 _Incidental Reading and Vocabulary Acquisition:_

Based on the research outcomes, both teachers and learners acknowledged the way incidental vocabulary learning is important and efficient to their language learning in general and word knowledge in particular.

Indeed, good vocabulary instruction is based on extensive and intensive reading experiences in which word-level awareness is nurtured and extended through discussion, modeling, and wide exposure to a diversity of richly written texts. In this respect, earlier work by Nagy, Anderson and Herman (1985) confess that incidental learning mainly through reading is the only logical explanation for the exponential growth in vocabulary. Later work by Nation further contributes to the discussion on incidental vocabulary and second language reading (see Waring and Nation, 2004; Nation, 2001, 2004). Waring and Nation write,

Most research we have looked at suggest that learners will learn about 3–6 words per hour of reading. If we assume that a student in school has 3–4 hours of exposure to English each week for 40 weeks a year, and one third of that is reading, this totals about 50 hours of reading per year, or vocabulary growth of between 150 to 300 words per year, not counting natural forgetting from the reading alone. Of course, different programs will have different learning rates and these figures would have to be amended as such . . . . Learners would benefit from some combination of direct intentional study to build a larger vocabulary. This would have to be accompanied by adequate reading at the right level and in the right amounts to consolidate and enrich the vocabulary learned from direct learning. (2004:106–107)

Indeed, the review of the literature along the research findings on the effect of incidental leaning in vocabulary acquisition indicate that in English as a foreign language or additional language reading may be a major source of exposure to English. After having known and gathered some vocabulary knowledge. Learners need to arrange these data using their own strategies.

4.2.4.3 Vocabulary Notebooks:

In fact, vocabulary notebooks encourage learners to continue learning outside of class for it is personal (Thornbury: 2002). Very often learners' own vocabulary note-taking consists only of writing translations of single words in lists. Others, however, appear to include labeling pictures and diagrams, completing charts, writing sentences and creating short dialogues. Indeed, vocabulary notebook activities how learners what is worth writing down and give ideas for various ways of organizing vocabulary notes using different grouping ideas.

4.2.4.4 Everyday Use:

Materials can also provide learners with ideas to activate and practice vocabulary in their daily life; and this is especially useful for learners who live in non-English speaking environment (. Activities might include for instance labeling items of furniture in English, in a room. As mentioned earlier, the act of retrieving vocabulary seem to be an effective of learning, and such activities can take place at any point in a day and not just at times designated for studying English.

4.2.5 *Suggested Activities for EFL Vocabulary Practice and Assessment:*

I. Oldies but goodies:

1. Matching synonyms

2. Matching opposites

3. Fill in the blank sentences

II. Variations on the above:

1. **Choose *all* the possible answers**

We ate lunch in the _____.

Cafeteria, restaurant, snack, snack bar, salad bar, diner.

2. ***Where* would you find . . . ?**

an MD _____ a) in the British or Canadian Parliament

a Ph.D. _____ b) on a ruler

an MP _____ c) on a engine

in. _____ d) in a hospital

hp _____ e) in a university

3. **Compete the phrases**

to achieve _____ a) a secret

to reveal _____ b) an idea

to grasp _____ c) a goal

4. **Correct the mistakes**

He felt exhausted after a long nap. E.g., *refreshed* for *exhausted or running to school* for *a long nap*

5. **Label a picture**

Monitor, keyboard, mouse ,screen.

6. **Draw a picture** (Works for a limited number of words)

Draw a *target*.

Draw a *bow and arrow* and label each one.

7. **Cross out the word that doesn't belong with the others in the group.**

uncle father ~~aunt~~ brother

EST pm ~~Ph.D.~~ BC

meadow ~~river~~ yard field

8. **Categories** - You give the example; students give the category. Or vice versa.

Examples: gun, knife, club: *weapon*

Category: weapon: *gun, knife, club*

9. Complete the sentences

I was exhausted after _____

III. Distinguishing shades of meaning & near synonyms

1. Analogies - Good even at low levels

This exercise allows those with limited English to do something on a more sophisticated level than they are usually able to do.

easy : hard :: cold : hot

skyscraper : city :: tree : forest

warp : wood :: peel : paint

shatter : glass :: crumble : stone

2. Choose the *two* possible answers that can complete each sentence.

Semantic: She *longed for* . . .

(a) her freedom.

(b) her lover who was far away.

(c) some ketchup for her French fries. *(only a joke; not serous enough)*

Grammatical: He pondered . . .

(a) his future.

(b) that he didn't know what to do. *(only followed by a noun, not a clause)*

(c) the meaning of life.

Good source for incorrect answers: student errors

3. Semantic categories - e.g., break, damage

He *dented* the . . . *car's bumper* / tree branch / glass of water

She *splintered* the . . . can / *board* / mirror

He *shattered* the . . . *mirror* / water / curtains

She *shredded* the . . . can / tree branch / *curtains*

4. Arrange the words on a scale (most to least, largest to smallest, etc.)

hot > warm > lukewarm > cool > cold

despise > hate > dislike

This is nice to do when possible, but it's not possible all that often. New words are usually presented and defined with one or two known words. Focus on how the new word differs from the one they already know.

For example:

5. Which word in each pair is *stronger, more forceful,* or *more intense?*

___ to surprise ___ to boil ___ to toss ___ to hurl

___ to astound ___ to simmer ___ to throw ___ to throw

6. Which word in each pair is *slang?*

_____ a kid _____ disgusting _____ to fail

_____ a child _____ gross _____ to flunk

7. Which word would be *more polite* when talking about a person?

or Which word has a more *positive connotation?*

_____ thin _____ fat _____ frugal

_____ skinny _____ overweight _____ miserly

8. Complete the definitions - *How* are these actions performed?

thrust = to push _____ *(forcefully, hard)*

shatter = to break _____ *(into many pieces)*

tap = to hit _____ *(lightly, softly)*

IV. Things to do with the vocabulary in a reading passage

1. Guessing word meaning from context - See suggestions in Section V.

But make sure it is really possible to guess the meaning from context. A lot of textbooks give students context exercises using unclear or ambiguous examples. This just convinces them that it's not really possible to do.

If you have a reading with a lot of vocabulary words whose meanings you cannot reasonably expect students to get from context, try some of these techniques.

2. Give students the definitions; let them find the words.

     e.g., find a word in paragraph 5 that means *angry.*

A good way to deal with a difficult article without simply giving students the vocabulary. This also teaches them to focus on context and can be a good complement to work on guessing meaning (section V below).

3. Teach students when *not* to look up a word.

    - Can you get a general sense of the word? e.g., a person? a feeling? a job? something good/bad?

    - Find all the words on a page that refer to *movement* (or *speaking).*

- Do you really need to know exactly what each word means to understand the action of the story? How much can you understand *before* you use a dictionary?
- Take a magic marker and block out all the words you don't know. Can you still tell what the passage is about?

Follow-up/reinforcement

4. Parts of speech

With a corpus of words you've already studied, give sentences that require a different part of speech. (Dictionary use)

5. Different meanings of familiar vocabulary

e.g., *toll*

[while driving on the highway] There's a *toll* bridge ahead. Do you have any quarters?

The highway death *toll* has declined sharply since police began to enforce the drunk driving laws more aggressively.

The bell in the old church tower *tolled* four o'clock.

V. Teaching students how to guess word meaning from context

Types of context clues:

1. Cause & effect - Label the sentence C & E; then make a guess.

Because we *lingered* too long at the restaurant, we missed the beginning of the movie.

The door was *ajar*, so the dog got out of the house.

2. Opposite/contrast - Underline the two words or phrases in contrast to one another, then make a guess.

Even though I studied for hours, I *flunked* the test.

My last apartment was really small, but my new place is quite *spacious*.

3. General sense - Focus on SVO, actor & recipient of action. What type of word is it?

If it is a noun: a person, place, thing, abstract idea

If it is a verb: an action (e.g., movement?), or feeling/emotion, etc.

If it is an adjective: what is it describing? good or bad? size? color? shape? emotion?

Each summer thousands of tourists *flock* to the beaches of Cape Cod.

The father *tossed* the ball to his little boy.

4. Synonyms or paraphrases - Found elsewhere in the sentence or paragraph

Samuel was *deaf*, but he didn't let his handicap get in the way of his success.

Sally's flower garden included dozens of *marigolds*, which she tended with great care.

5. Examples - if you know the example, you can often figure out the category; if you know the category, you can get a general idea of what the example is.

The *baboon*, like other apes, is a very social animal.

6. Recognizing definitions - Common in college textbooks, newspaper & magazine articles

Many children of normal intelligence have great difficulty learning how to read, write, or work with numbers. Often thought of as "underachievers," such children are said to have a *learning disability*, a disorder that interferes in some way with school achievement. [from *Ten Steps to Improving College Reading Skills*].

VI. Miscellaneous

1. Word sheets

A simple but effective way to review vocabulary from a given unit is to post a sheet of paper with the words under study and talk about them. You can practice pronunciation, conduct oral mini-quizzes, answer students' questions, etc. Do this as a warm-up for two or three minutes each day.

For example:

- Which words have +/– connotations?
- Which words refer to people?
- Which words are verbs?
- What's the opposite of X?
- I'll give you a word; tell me what the opposite is in the list.
- What's a more polite way of saying X?
- X is a verb. What's the noun form?

2. Look for words that mean . . .

When using a magazine or newspaper in the class, you can have students look for words in a certain category while they're doing other reading and scanning activities.

One issue of *Time Magazine* yielded the following:

- Words for *go up*: soar, rise, raise, increase, push up
- Words for *go down*: fall, plummet, sink, decrease

Other categories of words that might work:

- Words that describe *movement, travel*

- Words related to *crime*
- Names of *government positions* or *occupations* (president, mayor, etc.)
- In a work of fiction or a profile of a famous person:
- Adjectives that describe the main characters, both what they look like and how they act

VII. Fun & games

1. Act out/pantomime (Charades)

Give students cards with instructions like the examples below. Have them perform the actions without speaking. The other students try to guess the word or expression that the student is pantomiming.

- Open the door *fearfully*.
- Walk across the room *cautiously*.

2. Crossword Puzzles (a number of software programs exist that allow you to create your own).The clues can be synonyms, antonyms, complete the sentences. Helps focus on spelling as well as meaning.

3. Categories Game ($25,000 Pyramid)

Divide the class into teams. One person from a team sits in front of the class. The rest of the team members are given a card with a category, For example: *Things that are red.* The team members take turns giving examples of the category until the person in the "hot seat" guesses it or all the team members have given a clue. If the person in front cannot guess, the other team can confer and try to guess.

NOTE: The clues must be *examples*, *not definitions*. In the above example, *ketchup, blood*, and a *stop sign* are all acceptable clues. *Color* is not.

Examples of categories:

Things that are . . . yellow, expensive, fragile, made of glass, found on a farm

American authors, state capitals, things in a woman's purse, winter clothing things that are sold in bottles, places where you have to stand in line, people who wear uniforms

4. Password

Divide the class into two teams. One person from each team sits in a chair in front of the class. Those two people receive a card with a vocabulary word. The first person gives a one-word clue to his/her team. If no one from the team can guess, the second person gives a clue to his/her team. This alternates back and forth until someone from one of the teams guesses the word, or until a specified number of clues has been given.

5. Drawing pictures (Win, Lose or Draw)

This works well if you have an empty classroom nearby. Divide the class into two groups. Give each one a list of vocabulary words (idiomatic expressions also work well for this). The students draw pictures—but no words—on the board so that the students in the other group can guess the words or expressions they're trying to represent. This is a fun way to review some vocabulary and break up the class routine.

A note on keeping score

You can keep score in most of these games, but I've found things actually go more smoothly   when you don't. No one disputes points, and students don't seem to mind that there's no clear "winner" or "loser."

Occasionally, a student will ask why I'm not keeping track of who won and lost. I usually tell him (it's never a 'her') that we're just learning how the game is played now, so I'm not going to bother this time. I never bother keeping score any subsequent times, either, but I've never been asked about it a second time.

VIII. Miscellaneous examples
1. A follow-up to a radio interview of a psychologist who discussed money and people's attitudes towards it.

Money Talks

> *Below are some words used to describe people and their attitudes towards money. Working with another student, put them into the proper category.*

a miser	an overspender	generous
cheap	a cheapskate	giving
tight	a tightwad	thrifty
frugal	a spendthrift	stingy

	Spend Money	**Save Money**
positive connotation	*generous*	
negative connotation		*a miser*

A follow-up to an article on health

> Match these medical terms with the parts of the body they involve.

1) to clot
 2) asthma   a) brain
3) a stroke a) brain   b) lungs
4) hemorrhaging b) lungs   c) blood
5) a migraine c) blood
6) leukemia
7) respiration

4.3   Pedagogical Implications:

4.3.1 Pedagogical Implications for EFL Teachers:

In the present chapter, it is argued that vocabulary is an important ingredient of language and vocabulary learning is an essential part of second or foreign language learning. Language learners need a wide array of target language words to be able to tackle successfully both production and comprehension activities in the second or foreign language. One way to help learners to enhance their knowledge of L2 vocabulary is through equipping learners with a variety of vocabulary learning strategies. Different taxonomies have thus been proposed, and some of which were discussed in the present paper. The significance attributed to vocabulary learning strategies and to training students in those strategies they lack may have the following implications for EFL teachers:

Teachers should think of ways to provide less successful learners with vocabulary learning strategies. This should be done by making them aware of the need to become independent learners by recognizing the strategies they possess and those they lack. Learner's attention should also be directed toward the strategies successful learners benefit from. EFL teachers should make learners practice a wide range of vocabulary learning strategies ranging from decontextualized and mechanical strategies to contextualized ones. This enables learners to deal with any unknown vocabulary they may encounter both in and out of class context.

Teachers need to bear in mind that individual learners may vary on the basis of which strategies they consider more useful and they apply more frequently. Thus, teachers may first need to have an appraisal of learner's belief regarding vocabulary learning strategies and then try to help them gradually realize the value of other types of strategies.

To sum up, learning new vocabulary is a challenge to foreign language students but they can overcome by having access to a variety of vocabulary learning strategies. Learners should then be trained in strategies they lack. To this end, teachers should consider the learners' willingness and readiness to receive trainings and think of the most appropriate way to introduce the strategies.

4.3.2 *Implications for Teaching Vocabulary to Second Language Learners:*

In light of the current discussion about Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition (SLVA) in chapter one, certain key guidelines are evident for classroom instruction. First, extensive reading and listening can be a key in successful incidental vocabulary acquisition (Nation, 2005). Constant recycling of vocabulary is essential to offer the repeated exposures required to commit words to memory.

Moreover, a key component in effective SLVA is the teaching of metacognitive strategies to increase learner autonomy, heighten motivation, and ensure a greater probability of success. Finally, vocabulary activities which require deep rather than shallow processing of words lead to better retention (Ellis, 1996, Morgan & Rinvolucri, 2004).

A synthesis of the researchers findings discussed in this chapter suggests the following implications for teaching vocabulary to L2 learners:

At early stages of language development decontextualized vocabulary instruction has been found to be more effective in building a fundamental vocabulary base than has contextual reading. This suggests that teachers of beginner-level learners need to include greater amounts of decontextualized vocabulary instruction (e.g. word lists), gradually increasing toward more context-based vocabulary learning (e.g. extensive reading) as the language ability of their learners develop.

Second language teachers need to think of ways of exposing 'poorer' learners to the ways that 'good' learners approach lexical learning. That is, making 'poorer' learners more conscious of the need to develop a more independent and structured approach to vocabulary learning, which research has shown to be most associated with success in vocabulary learning.

Introducing and having learners practice using a variety of alternative vocabulary learning strategies can be considered an effective way of enabling learners to achieve more effective independent vocabulary learning in the future. Research has shown that strategies involving deeper elaboration (i.e. more active processing of information) result in better retention of words. However, many mnemonic and non-mnemonic semantic elaboration strategies assume a reasonable L2 vocabulary base from which associations can be made. For this reason, instruction in such strategies should be considered largely ineffective for beginner-level L2 learners, but would benefit learners of higher proficiency levels.

In attempting to introduce vocabulary learning strategy training into a second language classroom, research alerts us to the following potential pitfalls: Certain cultural groups are likely to have quite different opinions regarding what vocabulary learning strategies they consider useful, which may result in resistance to learning some types of alternative vocabulary learning strategies. In addition, there may be some resistance to vocabulary learning strategies involving deeper elaboration, because of the cognitive effort required in memorizing words in this manner.

4.4 Conclusion :

Vocabulary acquisition plays a key role in successful second language learning. Therefore it requires careful consideration and systematic instructional approaches ground in reliable and informative research. This presentation sought to equip and inspire second language educators in their quest to implement effective and innovative approaches to teaching vocabulary.

The General Conclusion

It is a fact that learning a foreign language is strongly based on the learning of its vocabulary, because a widely productive vocabulary is essential in enhancing a learner's language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Hence, learning how to master vocabulary is a basic in the study of a foreign language and challenging at the same time.

Through literature reading, the attempt along this study is to raise awareness about both the importance and the complexity of the task of English vocabulary teaching and learning to teachers and learners likewise. Furthermore, it reveals the efficient contribution that computer corpus application displays in the selection and instruction of the teaching materials designed for that language element (chapter one). Later, by means of a descriptive and analytic study, one describes and analyzes the EFL teaching and learning in Algeria in general and the EFL vocabulary teaching learning situation as regards EFL literary stream ELT textbook New Prospects (chapter two).

From the third chapter, the aim is to analyze the EFL vocabulary teaching and learning situation among third year literary stream pupils in their language classes. It seeks data about the teachers and learners' conditions, barriers and strategies in dealing with the subject under investigation and, thus, to investigate on the possible solutions suggested by both participants which concern the last chapter in this dissertation. Mainly, the aim from data analysis and interpretation in the third chapter is to know what attitudes teachers and learners hold about the application of computer corpus data, as a reliable source of description for vocabulary that provides an updated and motivating content to language learners in the area of EFL vocabulary selection and knowledge respectively.

As far as the study is concerned, the research subjects (learners) display a lack of interest to learn the English language and its vocabulary though stressing its importance to language learning. Thus, the researcher with the help of teachers should find ways to capture their interest and sustain their motivation. Indeed, they can not possibly do so unless the factors that demotivate teachers and learners are known and what motivates them is likewise known.

From the obtained results, it is noticed that learners qualify vocabulary knowledge as the first language element to promote their language proficiency level and achievements in EFL classes and exams. Moreover, they relate its deficiency to their lack of language proficiency and furthermore, to their school failure in language learning. These research

subjects, however, regard vocabulary learning difficult because of their lack of interest in their EFL classes, partly for the task complexity itself and partly for their teachers' negative perceptions and expectation on the basis of their level of language proficiency.

At the beginning of the research one hypothesizes that learners would display lack of interest and motivation in learning vocabulary, though being quite aware of its importance in their language achievements and proficiency. Thanks to the learners' questionnaire, it has been proved that they complain from lack of interest to EFL vocabulary, which they relate to their demotivation to learn and explained that their teachers' negative perceptions on their language aptitude as low decrease their interest and, thus, their motivation to learn English in general. However, some admit that their lack of interest in vocabulary learning accounts for their lack of interest in the content in which vocabulary is presented. On the other hand teachers confirm that the pupils' low language aptitude stands as an obstacle or barrier against the proceeding of any language teaching and learning material and, thus, demotivating teachers to proceed teaching and offer any related knowledge. A fact widely confirmed thanks to the obtained results from the teachers semi-structured interview.

Again thanks to the questionnaires and interview outcomes, it has been concluded that both participants appreciate the effectiveness of computer corpus data as a reliable source of description and selection for EFL vocabulary that provides a content which motivate teachers and learners in their EFL vocabulary teaching and learning; in the sense that both participants may be sure about dealing with vocabulary knowledge and language materials that meet their everyday needs as they are targeted to situations in which they find themselves embarked on.

One would like to say that teaching English vocabulary to foreign language learners is one of the most important and difficult tasks in the teaching and learning processes in which much has been written about its instruction and learning operations. Until recently, however, it has been difficult to determine the most important words and phrases needed to establish a suitable vocabulary for conducting conversations most effectively. The corpus' massive collection of texts has given language researchers access to a wealth of information regarding spoken and written English that was previously unavailable.

The task at hand, therefore, is to take this 'new' information and apply it in the classroom. Since there are so many things to learn about each piece of vocabulary (meaning, spoken/written forms, collocations, connotations and grammatical behavior) it is important that we as teachers only introduce a little at a time, starting with the most

frequent, useful, and learnable vocabulary, and returning later to more difficult vocabulary and less frequent uses of previously learned items. Teachers need to repeat vocabulary often, because learners must work with a word or phrase many times before acquisition takes place, and language instructors must offer variety to keep the exercises fresh and to cater to different learning styles. Finally, they need to help pupils understand that learning is a gradual process that takes place in small, manageable increments over time, and to encourage them to seek additional information on their own, personalizing the learning experience and tailoring it to their own specific needs.

If teachers adjust those teaching principles in their English vocabulary teaching, they will be satisfied by their teaching. Similarly, learners will get interested by their learning for dealing with words and expressions (content) that are targeted to situations in which they are more likely to find themselves on. Indeed, this motivates and attracts their attention to language learning as a whole for having benefited from the considerable vocabulary knowledge they have gained and grasped in and out their language classes. Consequently, as a long term goal, learners would be more likely to improve their English proficiency level during their schooling, lay a solid foundation of vocabulary in their further English learning and better their chances for general social and economic success.

Although the present research does not pretend to be exhaustive, it fulfilled its main aims and gave the researcher an insight into the situation of vocabulary teaching and the complexity of the task. It also became evident that the topic requires further research as well as more diverse research methodology (for example: classroom observation, testing). This would give a better overview about the EFL vocabulary situation in 3 AS literary stream classes and about other reasons behind the demotivating mood (apart of 'content' the present research undertakes) in these EFL classes. Furthermore, it would give feedback about the kind of motivating factors (apart of 'computer corpus data' this work considers) teachers and learners need.

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Further reading

On corpus issues

- For an introduction to the use of a corpus in *Touchstone* and other materials, read *Touchstone: From Corpus to Course Book,* by Michael McCarthy, in this series.

- See also *Explorations in Corpus Linguistics* for papers by Michael McCarthy and Ronald Carter on fluency, clusters in conversation, and spoken grammar, also in this series.

- To read more about how corpus information can inform classroom materials and teaching, see *From Corpus to Classroom* by Anne O'Keeffe, Michael McCarthy, and Ronald Carter, published by Cambridge University Press.

On vocabulary

- *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy* edited by Norbert Schmitt and Michael McCarthy, *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language* by Paul Nation and *Vocabulary in Language Teaching* by Norbert Schmitt, all published by Cambridge University Press give excellent coverage of vocabulary teaching and learning issues.

- For a general overview of vocabulary learning research see Peter Gu's article: Vocabulary Learning in a Second Language: Person, Task, Context and Strategies. TESL–EJ 7: 2 http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/ tesl-ej/ej26/a4.htm

APPENDICES

The Teachers' Questionnaire

This is a questionnaire designed for the purpose of collecting data for a research aiming at analyzing the EFL vocabulary teaching and learning situations in secondary-school level: the case of third year literary stream pupils.

Please have the kindness to provide us with the necessary answers to the following questions either by ticking the appropriate boxes or by making full statements:

Section One: Teachers' Background Information.

1- Did you study English at?   a) I.T.E   b) University

2- Your highest level of university education:

   License   b) Magister   c) Doctorate   d) Other (specify).....................

3- Are you :

            a)   Part-time teacher   b) Full-time teacher

4- How long have you been teaching English in secondary-school?

        ....

5- Among the school years, when teaching English to 3rd year literary stream learners, how do you evaluate this teaching according to the newly adopted syllabus?

        a) Very difficult   b) Difficult   c) Average   d) Easy   e) Very easy

6- Did you have any English language training courses about C. B. A.?

        a) Yes   b) No

        If "yes", was the training a series of: a) Lectures   b) Seminars   c) Other

        (specify)................................. ......

7- Have you attended any course or seminar on teaching English vocabulary?

        a) Yes   b) No

        If "yes", please specify ....

Section Two: Teaching Conditions.

8- Are you provided with "New Prospects", its guidelines and the teacher's guidebook?

        a) Yes   b) No

9- Do you have any special material designed for 3rd year literary stream learners?

        a) Yes   b) No

        If "yes", specify: ....

10- Besides the school textbook and the teacher's guidebook, do you use any other language materials?

        a) Yes   b) No

    If "yes", specify the form (library/electronic) and the need (grammar/vocabulary/ pronunciation/others ....).

11- Is the time (hours) allotted to teach English as regards to 3rd year literary stream pupils in the secondary school level sufficient?

        a) Yes   b) No

Section Three: **Teachers' Beliefs in Vocabulary Instruction.**

12- As a teacher of English, how do you evaluate your third year literary stream pupils' level of English language proficiency?

a) Very satisfying   b) Satisfying   c) Average   d) Poor   e) Not Satisfying

13- Languages are said to have three elements; which language element can promote the learner's level of language proficiency?

a) Sounds (pronunciation)   b) Words (vocabulary)   c) Rules (grammar)

14- Vocabulary knowledge is the most important linguistic element for English teaching and learning proficiency.

a) Strongly Agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

15- Learners' lack in English language proficiency and school failure in this subject accounts for their deficient vocabulary knowledge.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

16- Learners are more interested and motivated in learning the language with authentic vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which they are likely to find themselves on.

a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Section Four: "New Prospects" and English Vocabulary Teaching

17- Have you been trained to teach English vocabulary in the adopted syllabus (CBA)?

a) Yes   b) No

If "yes", was the training a series of: a) Lectures   b) Seminars   c) other (specify)...........................

18- The teaching strategies "New Prospects" uses to teach English vocabulary to your learners are:

a) Unplanned (occasions) b) Planned (lists) c) de-contextualized d) contextualized

19- The learning strategies "New Prospects" offers to teach vocabulary to these learners are:

a) Sentence gap filling   b) odd word   c) matching   d) completing vocabulary lists

e) Others (specify)................................

20- In your opinion, does the textbook offer varied and enough material for teaching and discussing vocabulary knowledge as regards 3rd year literary stream learners' interests and needs?

a) Yes, quiet a lot   b) Enough   c) To some extent   d) No

21- With respect to third-year pupils' language proficiency level, textbooks and teachers; English vocabulary teaching materials fulfilled its meant pedagogical objectives as expected to further studies in university studies.

a) Strongly Agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

Section Five: **Teachers' Difficulties and Suggestions in Vocabulary Instruction.**

22- Do you regard vocabulary teaching and learning as:

    a) Complex   b) Simple   c) Very Simple

         Please, justify your answer: ....

23- Do you find difficulties in teaching vocabulary?

    a) Yes   b) No

24 - These difficulties are related to: a) The textbook. b) The vocabulary difficulty itself.

      c) Pupils' level of language proficiency.   d) Teaching Facilities.   e) Others............

25- Knowing that vocabulary knowledge is embedded and needed in all language skills; what solutions (suggestions and recommendations) can you provide to these problem areas as far as "efficient "English vocabulary selection and instruction is concerned?

      1- ....

      2- ....

      3- ....

      4- ....

Please give some information about yourself and the secondary school you are teaching in:

    1) I am: a) male   b) female

    2) Age: a) 22-30   b) 31-40   c) 41-50   d) 50+

    3) How many classrooms of third (3rd) year literary stream level are there in this secondary school?

        ....

        ....

    4) How much time (hours) is allotted to teaching English per-week to 3rd year literary stream pupils in the secondary-school?

        ....

        ....

    5) What is the average size of each class?

        ....

      .

                                 THANK YOU FOR YOUR COLLABORATION

The Teachers' Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1- Do you teach English vocabulary to develop productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing or receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading?

2- What roles do you think you are to play in EFL vocabulary instruction process in general?

3- When teaching the English language classes for 3rd year literary stream pupils, the focus is made on :

 a) Presenting information related to the units of the syllabus.

 b) Presenting grammar and vocabulary.

 c) Both presented in equal level.

 d) Both but presented in different levels.

 Please, explain?...

4- Which sources do you use for teaching the aspects of word knowledge you are about to teach?   a) School textbooks   b) Language dictionaries   c) Internet

 d) Vocabulary Books   e) Magazines   f) Others ....

5- Which of the following you consider most useful for teaching about word knowledge apart from its form (spoken and written) and meaning(s)? Please rate them from 1 to 6 for each selection: (1) The most important and (6) The least important.

 a) The word parts it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form).

 b) Its grammatical behaviour.

 c) Its collocations.

 d) Its register.

 e) What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning).

 f) What connotations it has.

6- Which sources do you use for teaching the aspects of word knowledge you are about to teach? a) School textbooks   b) language dictionaries c) internet   d) vocabulary books

 e) Magazines   f) others ....

7- Do you integrate English vocabulary teaching into all language skills or only when needed (when learners ask for)?

8- Do you attempt to personalize the learning process by getting learners to relate topics and texts in the textbook to their own lives and views?

9- How often do you discuss vocabulary knowledge issues in your English classes?

a) Often (in almost every lesson)   b) Sometimes (Once a week)

c) Rarely (Once a month)   d) Never

9- Do you encourage learners to ask questions?

10- Do you test your learners' vocabulary learning in an oral or written way or both?

11- Are you satisfied with the English vocabulary knowledge and selection resources and teaching techniques you are currently using?

12- Have you updated your knowledge about EFL vocabulary instruction?

13- Do you have prior knowledge about computer corpus-data?

14- Computer corpus-data is the 'richest' language source that syllabus designers textbook writers and may rely on for presenting both current and authentic language content as regards EFL learners in 3rd year literary stream at secondary school.

   a) Agree b) strongly agree c) average d) disagree   e) strongly disagree

15- EFL Vocabulary Knowledge is best analyzed, selected and taught with the aid of computer corpus data?

   a) Agree b) strongly agree c) average d) disagree   e) strongly disagree

16- Raising awareness about computer corpus data and recommending its application in EFL teaching situations may motivate and improve the language learners and users' proficiency level as a whole.

   a) Agree   b) strongly agree   c) average   d) disagree   e) strongly disagree

17- Are there other opinions / ways regarding English vocabulary selection and instruction that you would like to express?

Appendix: C

The Learners' Questionnaire

Dear pupils,

        This is a questionnaire aiming at analyzing the EFL learning situation as far as third year literary stream pupils in secondary school are concerned. Please, have the kindness to provide us with the necessary answers to the following questions either by ticking the appropriate boxes or by making full statements when necessary.

N.B. *We rely on your collaboration as far as your honesty. Thank you.*

Section One: Pupils' Attitudes Towards EFL Learning and Vocabulary.

1- To pass your Baccalaureate exam, carry on your studies at university and meet your life's needs; you would consider English as being:

        a) Necessary   b) useful   c) unnecessary

2- How do you evaluate your English language proficiency?

        a) Very Satisfying   b) Satisfying   c) Not Satisfying

3- With respect to your English proficiency level, which language element needs more reinforcement in:

        a) Vocabulary   b) Grammar   c) Pronunciation

4- How much importance do you give to EFL vocabulary learning:

        a) Much   b) Little   c) Not at all.

Please, explain why: ……………………………………………...................................

5- Do you regard English vocabulary learning as:

        a) Very difficult   b) Difficult   c) Average   d) Easy   e) Very easy

Please, explain why:……...

Section Two: Pupils 'Beliefs on EFL Vocabulary Learning.

6- Your lack in English proficiency level and school failure in this subject accounts for your lack of its vocabulary knowledge.

        a) Strongly agree   b) Agree   c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

7- Your lack in vocabulary knowledge accounts for lack of interest in the language content presented in your classes.

        a) Strongly agree   b) Agree c) Average d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

8- The textbook lacks many aspects and offers little importance to vocabulary learning.

        a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Average d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

9- The teaching methods presented in the textbook and used by the teacher do not help you to acquire the necessary level about vocabulary:

        a) Strongly agree   b) Agree c) Average   d) Disagree e) Strongly Disagree

10- You would be more interested in the English classes and motivated to learn if teachers change their negative perceptions and practices about your language aptitude.

        a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Average   d) Disagree   e) Strongly Disagree

11- You would be more interested in EFL vocabulary learning if its content exceeds knowledge about the written and spoken forms and basic meanings and includes some other aspects like: The word register (whether used in spoken and written discourse) and presents vocabulary that is targeted to situations in which you are likely to find yourselves on.

a) Strongly agree b) Agree c) Average d) Disagree e) Strongly Disagree

Section Three: Pupils 'Practices on EFL Vocabulary Learning.

12- For you, the 'best' way to learn about EFL word knowledge in particular and language in general is:

a) To refer only to your English classes.
b) To use other language sources.
c) Both.
Explain why: ....

13- With respect to your English proficiency level, have you benefited from the English materials you may encounter outside your English classes (TV channels, songs, video games and the Internet).

a) Yes   b) No

Please,   explain   how?
....

14- During your English classes do you ask questions to your teacher for word clarifications?

a) Yes   b) No

If 'yes' your questions are mainly related to:

a) The word spoken and written forms.
b) Its meaning(s).
c) Its associations (Synonyms / Antonyms).
d) Its word parts (Prefix /Suffix).
e) Its collocation (the words that come after or before it).
f) Its register (Spoken Code / Written Code).
g) Others ....

If 'no' is it because:

a) Targeted words are easy.
b) You are a shy person.
c) For your inability to express yourself.
d) Language classes are well explained.
e) Other reasons: please, explain..............................

15- The most boring task in your vocabulary learning process is:

a) To learn words by heart   c) to put words in gaps
b) To find the odd word   d) to match words with definitions.

16- Which of the following type of activities do you think of as the most motivating to practice vocabulary?

a) Filling the gaps with vocabulary given.
b) Reading texts.

c) Matching (words or situations with pictures/words with definitions, Synonyms /Antonyms.

d) Completing vocabulary lists or columns.

e) Writing compositions.

f) Others ....

Section Four: Learners' Difficulties and Suggestions in Vocabulary Instruction.

17- During language tasks and examinations, the most difficulty you meet is:

    a) To understand he questions.

    b) To answer the questions because of you lack of vocabulary.

    c) To answer the questions because of your inadequate feedback.

    d) Others...

18- After your exam on the English subject, your marks reflect:

    a) Your 'good' / 'poor' writing skill.

    b) Your misunderstanding of the content (text and questions).

    c) Your bad preparation.

    d) Other reasons: ....

        Please, justify your choice:

19- What are your problems and needs in learning EFL vocabulary?

    1- ....

    2- ....

    3- ....

20- What do you suggest for an easier learning and high achievement in EFL learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular as a pupil at final level of secondary school level?

    1- ....

    2- ....

    3- ....

Please give some information about yourself and the secondary school you are teaching in:

1- Sex: a) Male   b) Female

2- Age: ....

3- You are: a) Literature and philosophy stream pupil.

                b) Literature and foreign languages stream pupil.

Some Well-known Corpora

- ✓ **The BROWN corpus**
- ✓ **The BNC corpus**

The BROWN Corpus

• First major computational corpus project began by Francis and Kucera at Brown University (1961–1964).

• Designed in co-operation with grammarian Quirk and others.

• One million words drawn from randomly selected material written in American English in a variety of genres.

The British National Corpus

• one of the largest corpora ever created

• 100 million words in length

• 90% written British English

▪ Imaginative, natural science, social science, world affairs, commerce, arts, belief and thought, leisure, other.

• 10% spoken British English

▪ Individual interviews, educational, business, institutional, leisure, other.

BRITISH NATIONAL CORPUS The frequency data is based on the British National Corpus. The BNC project was carried out and is managed by an industrial/academic consortium lead by Oxford University Press, of which the other members are major dictionary publishers Addison-Wesley Longman and Larousse Kingfisher Chambers; academic research centres at Oxford University Computing Services, Lancaster University's Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language, and the British Library's Research and Innovation Centre.

Examples of Selected Corpus-data Statistics

Some Computer Corpus-data Statistics on Grammar

A corpus can provide very useful statistics to help textbook writers present grammar items in the best way. If one takes the example of the model *'must'* and looks at hundreds of uses of *must* in the spoken corpus, you find that on average, 5% of all its uses are connected with *obligation* (e.g. You *must* have a visa to enter to the United States). Another 5% are in expressions like: *I must admit* and *I must say.* Yet, the overwhelming majority of uses of *must* are in *predictive* (90%) statements like: *that must be nice, you must be hungry. (See Figure 2)*

Figure 71: An analysis of the uses of *must* from the **C.I.C**. (Spoken Corpus):
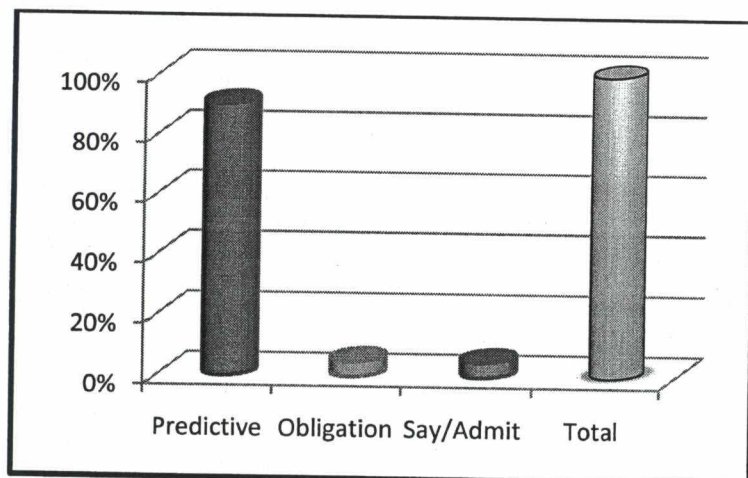
Statistics of this kind help textbook writers set priorities in grammar teaching and find the most natural contexts for teaching grammar. One can find out what the most frequent grammar structures and grammar words are, and how they are used in speech and writing.

Some Computer Corpus-data Statistics on Vocabulary:

1.Collocations:

A collocation is a meaningful co-occurrence of two words next to or near each other.

Figure 72 is a sample of the top 20 adjectives that follow the adverb *pretty* (e.g. *it was pretty good*), and how often they occur in a five million word sample of the spoken North American Corpus.

Figure 72: The top 20 adjectives that follow the adverb *pretty,* from the **C.I.C.**

Pretty +	Frequency	Pretrty +	Frequency
1- Good	939	11- Easy	41
2- Nice	96	12- High	37
3- Bad	87	13- Busy	28
4- Cool	80	14-Tough	28
5- Big	72	15-Small	28
6- Close	58	16-Expensive	27
7- Neat	58	17-Scary	27
8- Sure	52	18-Hard	24
9- Interesting	46	19-Far	22
10- Funny	43	20-Lucky	21

2. Concordance:

A concordance is a screen display or printout showing a key word or phrase in many different contexts of use, in which the key word or phrase is usually arranged in a vertical column in the center of the display along with the text that comes before and after it.

Figure 73 shows an example of a concordance for the word *yet* in the Spoken Corpus. This is typical of what people who study corpora see on their computer screen. The user can look at screen after screen, and see *all* the different occasions in which the speakers in the Corpus have used *yet,* all together in one concordance. This screen shows a random sample of contexts for *yet.* Each line represents a different occasion of use, by a different speaker, at a different time and in a different place.

At first, the picture looks confusing. We see codes such as <1>, <2>, etc. Each speaker in every conversation is numbered one, two, three, etc. But as we look down each of these uses we see a clear pattern emerging. The overwhelming majority of uses of *yet* are in negative contexts (we have marked these here in bold), and question marks are also apparent. So the use of *yet* in negatives and in questions is an important piece of information that materials writers can take away and use in grammar materials. In this way, the materials can focus on the most central, frequent, and consequently useful aspects of a word or phrase.

Figure 73: A concordance of *yet* from the **C.I.C.**

1 that. <2> I **don't** have an apartment yet but I will starting in October.

2 Washington that's why I **haven't** applied **yet** because because of the competition.

3 If you **haven't** fleshed out the argument **yet** you know then that's what we'

4 in the morning and I **wasn't** even awake **yet** and uh someone who was staying over

5 <2> Hmm. Did you play the Carmen CD yet mom at all or..? <3> No. <2> N

6 you just I don't know. **Not** comfortable yet but then I became very comfortable t

7 And uh prices **don't** seem much different yet but you just wait 'til January and w

8 s well. <1> Did you have your dinner yet Thelma or not? <5> No. Not yet.

9 re. <1> We're **not** ready to do dinner yet are we? <2> No. <1> Do you wan

10 ade it. I **didn't** look at the directions yet but... <1> Oh okay. <4> It loo

11 ke every you know. <1> He **didn't** eat yet did he? <2> No I'm holding him.

12 gets gets bigger but it **doesn't** explode yet because all that energy hasn't been

13 hat one **doesn't** get the get the flowers yet either. <1> No. <2> Maybe it's

14 hem in a dark room. And it **didn't** grow. Yet my bagels on the counter molded wit

15 ix of the teachers because there **hasn't** yet been one and... <2> Is there a li

16 even know but we're here now and I have yet to eat anything. <5> Or whatever

17 me constraint. We **don't** know what it is yet cause we don't know how long it's go

18 out yet and they **don't** know what it is yet cause it could mean that something's

19 omen's size eight. I'm **not** done with it yet though. I've got to do the other one

20 gned it yet. <2> He **hasn't** signed it yet and I'd like to add that clause abou

21 now if... I **don't** think she'll start it yet. I don't know. She may. If she says

22 happen. You don't... I **haven't** seen it yet but it doesn't mean I never will. If

23 m **not** ready to give up on the idea just yet because it seems like there's someth

24 mini write up for those who **don't** know yet is like two paragraphs. Let's say yo

25 b things to these two but we **don't** know yet right? <2> Yeah. Well we... He di

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***Frequency List*:**

A frequency list is an arrangement of words, non-words *(uh, huh)*, phrases or grammatical items in order of how often they occur in a corpus, usually starting with the most frequent. **Figure 10** is a frequency list for the top 200 words in spoken North American English, based on a sample of four and a half million words of spoken data from the **Cambridge International Corpus**. The most frequent word – *I* – is at the top of the list.

Figure 74: The top 200 words in conversation from the Cambridge International Corpus.

1. I	41. with	81. they're	121. even	161. five
2. and	42. he	82. kind	122. those	162. always
3. the	43. one	83. here	123. over	163. school
4. you	44. are	84. from	124. probably	164. look
5. uh	45. this	85. did	125. him	165. still
6. to	46. there	86. something	126. who	166. around
7. a	47. I'm	87. too	127. put	167. anything
8. that	48. all	88. more	128. years	168. kids
9. it	49. if	89. very	129. sure	169. first
10. of	50. no	90. want	130. can't	170. does
11. yeah	51. Get	91. little	131. Pretty	171. need
12. know	52. about	92. been	132. gonna	172. us
13. in	53. At	93. things	133. stuff	173. should
14. like	54. Out	94. an	134. come	174. talking
15. they	55. had	95. you're	135. these	175. last
16. have	56. then	96. said	136. by	176. thought
17. so	57. because	97. there's	137. into	177. doesn't
18. was	58. go	98. I've	138. went	178. different
19. but	59. Up	99. much	139. make	179. money
20. is	60. she	100. where	140. than	180. long
21. it's	61. when	101. Two	141. year	181. used
22. we	62. them	102. thing	142. three	182. getting
23. huh	63. can	103. her	143. which	183. same
24. just	64. would	104. didn't	144. home	184. four
25. oh	65. as	105. other	145. Will	185. every
26. do	66. me	106. say	146. nice	186. new
27. don't	67. mean	107. back	147. never	187. everything
28. that's	68. some	108. could	148. only	188. many
29. well	69. good	109. their	149. his	189. before
30. for	70. Got	110. our	150. Doing	190. though
31. what	71. OK	111. guess	151. cause	191. most
32. on	72. people	112. yes	152. off	192. tell
33. think	73. now	113. way	153. I'll	193. being
34. right	74. going	114. has	154. maybe	194. bit
35. not	75. were	115. Down	155. real	195. house
36. um	76. lot	116. we'	156. why	196. also
37. or	77. your	117. any	157. big	197. use
38. my	78. time	118. he's	158. actually	198. through
39. be	79. see	119. work	159. she's	199. feel
40. really	80. How	120. Take	160. Day	200. course

Figure 75: Rank frequency list for the whole **British National Corpus** (not lemmatized)
PoS =Part of speech (grammatical word class)
Freq=Frequency per million words (in order from the most frequent word to a minimum
frequency of 75)

Word	PoS	Freq	Word	PoS	Freq	Word	PoS	Freq
The	Det	61847	there	Ex	2532	new	Adj	1145
of	Prep	29391	would	VMod	2551	may	VMod	1135
and	Conj	26817	what	DetP	2493	well	Adv	1119
a	Det	21626	will	VMod	2470	should	VMod	1112
in	Prep	18214	all	DetP	2436	her*	Pron	1085
to	Inf	16284	if	Conj	2369	like	Prep	1064
it	Pron	10875	can	VMod	2354	than	Conj	1033
is	Verb	9982	her*	Det	2183	how	Adv	1016
to	Prep	9343	said	Verb	2087	get	Verb	995
was	Verb	9236	who	Pron	2055	way	NoC	958
I	Pron	8875	one	Num	1962	one	Pron	953
for	Prep	8412	so	Adv	1893	our	Det	950
that	Conj	7308	up	Adv	1795	made	Verb	943
you	Pron	6954	as	Prep	1774	got	Verb	932
he	Pron	6810	them	Pron	1733	after	Prep	927
be*	Verb	6644	some	DetP	1712	think	Verb	916
with	Prep	6575	when	Conj	1712	between	Prep	903
on	Prep	6475	could	VMod	1683	many	DetP	902
by	Prep	5096	him	Pron	1649	years	NoC	902
at	Prep	4790	into	Prep	1634	er	Uncl	896
have*	Verb	4735	its	Det	1632	've	Verb	891
are	Verb	4707	then	Adv	1595	those	DetP	888
not	Neg	4626	two	Num	1561	go	Verb	881
this	DetP	4623	out	Adv	1542	being	Verb	862
's	Gen	4599	time	NoC	1542	because*	Conj	852
but	Conj	4577	my	Det	1525	down	Adv	845
had	Verb	4452	about	Prep	1524	're	Verb	835
they	Pron	4332	did	Verb	1434	yeah	Int	834
his	Det	4285	your	Det	1383	three	Num	797
from	Prep	4134	now	Adv	1382	good	Adj	795
she	Pron	3801	me	Pron	1364	back	Adv	793
that	DetP	3792	no	Det	1343	make	Verb	791
which	DetP	3719	other	Adj	1336	such	DetP	763
or	Conj	3707	only	Adv	1298	on	Adv	756
we	Pron	3578	just	Adv	1277	there	Adv	746
's	Verb	3490	more	Adv	1275	through	Prep	743
an	Det	3430	these	DetP	1254	year	NoC	737
~n't	Neg	3328	also	Adv	1248	over	Prep	735
were	Verb	3227	people	NoC	1241	'll	VMod	726
as	Conj	3006	know	Verb	1233	must	VMod	723
do	Verb	2802	any	DetP	1220	still	Adv	718
been	Verb	2686	first	Ord	1193	even	Adv	716
their	Det	2608	see	Verb	1186	take	Verb	715
has	Verb	2593	very	Adv	1165	too	Adv	701

Figure 76: The top 40 words of the First Frequency List from **Brown Corpus**

The Most Frequent Word Lists built from the Brown Corpus are based solely on word counts using the Unique Words Profiler which lists the instances for each word (the Brown Corpus comprises 1,015,945 words with 47,218 unique words). The first list contains the first 2000 most frequent words (1-2000). The top 40 words of the first list are as follows:

	Word	Instances	% Frequency
1.	The	69970	6.8872
2.	of	36410	3.5839
3.	and	28854	2.8401
4.	to	26154	2.5744
5.	a	23363	2.2996
6.	in	21345	2.1010
7.	that	10594	1.0428
8.	is	10102	0.9943
9.	was	9815	0.9661
10.	He	9542	0.9392
11.	for	9489	0.9340
12.	it	8760	0.8623
13.	with	7290	0.7176
14.	as	7251	0.7137
15.	his	6996	0.6886
16.	on	6742	0.6636
17.	be	6376	0.6276
18.	at	5377	0.5293
19.	by	5307	0.5224
20.	I	5180	0.5099
21.	this	5146	0.5065
22.	had	5131	0.5050
23.	not	4610	0.4538
24.	are	4394	0.4325
25.	but	4381	0.4312
26.	from	4370	0.4301
27.	or	4207	0.4141
28.	have	3942	0.3880
29.	an	3748	0.3689
30.	they	3619	0.3562
31.	which	3561	0.3505
32.	one	3297	0.3245
33.	you	3286	0.3234
34.	were	3284	0.3232
35.	her	3037	0.2989
36.	all	3001	0.2954
37.	She	2859	0.2814

a	art	box	common	Die
A	article	boy	company	difference
about	as	branch	compare	difficult
above	ask	bread	complete	direct
accept	association	breadth	concern	discover
accord	at	break	condition	disease
account	attack	bridge	connect	distance
across	attempt	bright	consider	distinguish
act	average	bring	contain	district
actual	away	brother	content	divide
add	back	build	continue	do
address	bad	burn	control	doctor
admit	ball	business	corner	dog
adopt	bank	but	cost	door
advance	bar	buy	could	double
advantage	base	by	council	doubt
affair	battle	call	count	down
afford	be	can	country	draw
after	bear	capital	course	dream
again	beauty	car	court	dress
against	because	care	cover	drive
age	become	carry	creature	drop
ago	bed	case	cross	dry
agree	before	catch	crowd	due
air	begin	cause	cry	during
all	behind	centre	current	each
allow	being	certain	custom	ear
almost	believe	chance	cut	early
alone	belong	change	dance	earth
along	below	character	danger	east
already	beneath	charge	dare	easy
also	beside	chief	dark	eat
although	best	child	date	edge
always	better	choose	daughter	effect
among	between	church	day	effort
amount	beyond	circle	dead	either
ancient	big	city	deal	else
and	bill	claim	decide	employ
animal	bird	class	declare	end
another	bit	clean	deep	enemy
answer	black	clear	degree	English
any	blood	clock	deliver	enjoy
appear	blow	close	demand	enough
apply	blue	club	describe	enter
appoint	board	coast	desert	entire
arise	boat	cold	desire	equal
arm	body	college	destroy	escape
army	book	color	detail	even
around	born	come	determine	Evening
evil	follow	he	keep	march
example	food	head	kill	mark
exist	form	heavy	land	matter
expect	former	hello	language	may
expense	forth	help	large	me
experience	fortune	her	last	mean
experiment	forward	here	late	measure
explain	free	hide	law	meet
express	friend	high	lay	member

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exist	form	heavy	land	matter
expect	former	hello	language	may
expense	forth	help	large	me
experience	fortune	her	last	mean
experiment	forward	here	late	measure
explain	free	hide	law	meet
express	friend	high	lay	member
extend	from	hill	lead	memory
eye	front	his	learn	mention
face	full	history	least	mere
fact	further	hold	leave	metal
factory	future	home	left	middle
fail	gain	honor	length	might
fair	game	hope	less	mile
faith	garden	horse	let	mind
fall	gate	hot	letter	mine
familiar	gather	hour	level	minister
family	general	house	library	minute
famous	gentle	how	lie	miss
farm	get	human	life	modern
fashion	give	hurrah	lift	moment
fast	glad	husband	light	money
father	glass	I	like	month
favorite	go	idea	likely	more
favor	God	if	limit	moreover
fear	gold	impossible	line	morning
feed	good	in	listen	most
feel	great	inch	little	mother
fellow	green	include	live	motor
few	ground	increase	local	mountain
field	group	indeed	long	mouth
figure	grow	independent	look	move
fill	guard	influence	lose	much
find	habit	instead	lost	music
fine	half	intend	lot	must
finger	hall	interest	love	my
finish	hand	into	low	name
fire	handle	introduce	machine	narrow
first	hand	iron	main	nation
fish	happen	it	make	native
fit	happy	its	man	nature
near	owe	production	rich	she
necessary	own	program	ride	shine
neck	page	progress	right	shoe
need	pain	promise	ring	shoot
neighbour	paint	proof	rise	shore
neither	paper	proper	river	short
never	part	propose	road	should
new	party	protect	roll	shoulder
next	pass	prove	room	show
night	past	provide	rough	side
no	pay	public	round	sight
none	peace	pull	rule	sign
nor	people	purpose	ruler	silence
north	perfect	put	run	silver
not	perhaps	quality	rush	simple
note	permanent	quarter	safe	since
nothing	permit	quiet	sail	single
notice	person	quite	same	sir
now	picture	race	save	sister
nowhere	piece	raise	saw	sit
number	place	rank	say	situation

object	plan	rate	scale	size
observe	plant	rather	scarce	skill
occasion	play	reach	scene	sky
of	please	read	school	sleep
off	point	ready	science	slight
offer	political	real	sea	slow
office	poor	reason	season	small
often	popular	receive	seat	smile
oil	population	recent	second	so
old	position	recognize	secret	society
once	possess	record	secretary	soft
one	possible	red	see	soil
only	post	reduce	seem	some
open	pound	refuse	seize	son
operation	poverty	regard	sell	soon
opinion	power	regular	send	sort
opportunity	practical	relation	sense	sound
or	prepare	religion	separate	south
order	present	remain	serious	space
ordinary	preserve	remark	serve	speak
organize	press	remember	set	special
other	pretty	reply	settle	speed
otherwise	prevent	repeat	several	spend
ought	price	report	shadow	spirit
ounce	print	represent	shake	spite
our	private	respect	shall	spot
Stage	teach	until	winter	Spread

stand	tear	usual	table
standard	term	valley	take
start	test	value	talk
state	than	various	taste
station	that	very	turn
stay	the	view	type
steal	their	village	under
steel	them	visit	understand
step	then	voice	union
stick	there	vote	unite
still	therefore	wait	university
stock	these	walk	unless
stone	they	wall	wide
stop	thing	want	wife
store	think	war	wild
storm	this	warn	will
story	though	waste	win
straight	thought	watch	wind
strange	through	water	window
stream	throw	wave	wing
street	thus	way	wise
strength	time	we	wish
stretch	to	weak	with
strike	today	wear	within
strong	together	week	without
struggle	too	welcome	woman
study	top	well	wonder
subject	total	west	wood
substance	touch	what	word
succeed	toward	when	work
such	town	where	world
sudden	trade	whether	worse
suffer	train	which	worth
suggest	travel	while	would
summer	tree	white	write

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Appendix: G

The Academic Word List: a corpus-based word list for academic purposes

By Averil Coxhead

The Academic Word List (Coxhead, 1998) was developed by examining the range (in all 4 disciplines and 15 of the 28 subject areas), frequency (over 100 occurrences) and uniformity (over 10 occurrences per discipline) of words outside the first 2,000 words of English (West, 1953) in a corpus approximately 3,500,000 running words of written academic English (see the Table below).

Art	Commerce	Law	Science
Education	Accounting	Constitutional	Biology
History	Economics	Criminal	Chemistry
Linguistics	Finance	Family and Medico-legal	Computer Science
Philosophy	Industrial Relations	International	Geography
Politics	Management	Pure commercial	Geology
Psychology	Marketing	Quasi-commercial	Mathematics
sociology	Public Policy	Rights and Remedies	Physics

Headwords of the Academic Word List

This list contains the head words of the families in the Academic Word List. The numbers indicate the sublist of the Academic Word List. For example, *abandon* and its family members are in Sublist 8 of the Academic Word List. (Coxhead, A.J. (1998). *An Academic Word List*. English Language Institute Occasional Publication Number 18. Wellington: Victoria University of Wellington.)

abandon	8	acknowledge	6	behalf	9	cease	9
abstract	6	acquire	2	benefit	1	challenge	5
academy	5	adapt	7	bias	8	channel	7
access	4	adequate	4	bond	6	chapter	2
accommodate	9	adjacent	10	brief	6	chart	8
accompany	8	adjust	5	bulk	9	chemical	7
accumulate	8	administrate	2	capable	6	circumstance	3
accurate	6	adult	7	capacity	5	cite	6
data	1	foundation	7	major	1	react	3
debate	4	found	9	manipulate	8	recover	6
decade	7	framework	3	manual	9	refine	9
decline	5	function	1	negate	3	regime	4
deduce	3	fund	3	network	5	region	2
define	1	fundamental	5	neutral	6	register	3
definite	7	gender	6	nevertheless	6	regulate	2

decline	5	function	1	negate	3	regime	4
deduce	3	fund	3	network	5	region	2
define	1	fundamental	5	neutral	6	register	3
definite	7	gender	6	nevertheless	6	regulate	2
demonstrate	3	generate	5	nonetheless	10	reinforce 8	
denote	8	generation	5	norm	9	reject	5
deny	7	globe	7	normal	2	relax	9
depress	10	goal	4	notion	5	release	7
derive	1	grade	7	notwithstanding	10	relevant	2
design	2	grant	4	nuclear	8	reluctance	10
despite	4	guarantee	7	objective	5	rely	3
detect	8	hence	4	obtain	2	remove	3
guideline	8	hierarchy	7	obvious	4	scenario	9
deviate	8	highlight	8	occupy	4	schedule	8
device	9	hypothesis	4	occur	1	scheme	3
devote	9	identical	7	odd	10	scope	6
differentiate	7	identify	1	offset	8	section	1
dimension	4	ideology	7	ongoing	10	sector	1
economy	1	ignorance	6	option	4	secure	2
edit	6	illustrate	3	orient	5	seek	2
element	2	image	5	outcome	3	select	2
eliminate	7	immigrate	3	output	4	sequence	3
emerge	4	incidence	6	overall	4	series	4
emphasis	3	incline	10	overlap	9	sex	3
empirical	7	income	1	overseas	6	shift	3
enable	5	incorporate	6	panel	10	significant	1
encounter	10	index	6	paradigm	7	similar	1
energy	5	indicate	1	paragraph	8	simulate	7
enforce	5	individual	1	parallel	4	site	2
enhance	6	induce	8	parameter	4	so-called	10
enormous	10	inevitable	8	participate	2	sole	7
ensure	3	infer	7	partner	3	somewhat	7
entity	5	infrastructure	8	passive	9	tape	6
environment	1	inherent	9	perceive	2	target	5
equate	2	inhibit	6	percent	1	task	3
equip	7	job	4	period	1	team	9
equivalent	5	journal	2	persist	10	technical	3
erode	9	justify	3	perspective	5	technique	3
facilitate	5	label	4	phase	4	technology	3
factor	1	labour	1	phenomenon	7	temporary	9
feature	2	layer	3	philosophy	3	tense	8
federal	6	lecture	6	physical	3	terminate	8
fee	6	legal	1	plus	8	text	2
file	7	legislate	1	policy	1	theme	8
final	2	levy	10	portion	9	theory	1
finance	1	liberal	5	qualitative	9	thereby	8
finite	7	licence	5	quote	7	thesis	7
flexible	6	likewise	10	radical	8	topic	7
fluctuate	8	link	3	random	8	trace	6
focus	2	locate	3	range	2	tradition	2
formula	1	logic	5	ratio	5	transfer	2
uniform	8	vehicle	8	vary	1	voluntary	7
unify	9	version	5	visible	7	welfare	5
unique	7	via	8	vision	9	whereas	5
utilise	6	violate	9	visual	8	whereby	10

الملخص بالغة العربية

ينصب اهتمام هذه الأطروحة حول سبل تطوير وتسهيل عملية اقتناء وتلقين المفردات بواسطة معطيات المدونة الالكترونية
يقدم البحث وصفا تفصيليا حول إسهام ومدى أهمية معطيات المدونة المعتمدة على الحاسوب في تعليم وتعلم مفردات اللغة
الانجليزية كونها مرجعا مهما ودو دور فعال لها. هذه الدراسة التجريبية تحلل وتصف تدريس وتعلم مفردات اللغة الانجليزية
كلغة أجنبية ثانية لتلاميذ السنة الثالثة من التعليم الثانوي في الكتاب المدرسي المخصص لهم New Prospects وذلك بثانوية
داود محمد الجبلي بدائرة الرمشي ولاية تلمسان.

كلمات مفتاحية : المفردات ، معطيات المدونة الحاسوبية، تقنيات التدريس، إستراتيجيات التعلم والكتاب
المدرسي New Prospects

Résumé en Français

Le présent travail de recherche s'articule autour des moyens de développement et de facilitation de la
sélection et l'instruction du vocabulaire avec les données du corpus basées sur l'ordinateur. Il fournit,
donc, une étude détaillée dans la contribution et l'importance du micro-corpus data en l'enseignement
du vocabulaire d'Anglais. Cette dissertation expérimentale analyse et décrit l'enseignement et
l'apprentissage du vocabulaire d'Anglais en situation de deuxième langue étrangère sur l es élèves
littéraire de la troisième année secondaire avec leur manuel New Prospects, a Daoud Mohamed El-
Djabli à Remchi - Tlemcen.

Mots Clés: vocabulaire, données du corpus basées sur l'ordinateur, techniques du l'enseignement,
stratégies du l'apprentissage et manuel New Prospects.

Summary in English

The present dissertation revolves around the way computer corpus-data develops and enhances target
vocabulary selection and instruction materials. It provides a detailed account of an investigation at the
level of computer corpus-data input and impotence into EFL vocabulary teaching and learning
situation. The empirical study analyses and describes the EFL vocabulary teaching and learning
situation as far as the third year literary pupils and the textbook New Prospects are concerned. The study
took place at Daoud Mohamed El-Djabli secondary school, Remchi - Tlemcen

Key Words: Vocabulary, Computer-corpus Data, Teaching Techniques, Learning Strategies, and the
EFL Textbook New Prospects.