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DEVELOPING VOCABULARY THROUGH THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS: CASE OF 1ST YEAR EFL STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TLEMCEN

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"Without syntax meaning is hindered but without vocabulary meaning is impossible"

Folse (2003)

DEDICATION

Lovely, to my family;

Indebtedly, to my teachers;

Respectfully, to my friends and colleagues.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Key to Abbreviations

CBA: Competency-based Approach.

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching.

EFL: English as a Foreign Language.

ELT: English language Teaching.

FLA: Foreign Language Acquisition.

MCQ: Multiple-Choice Question.

LMD: Licence-Master-Doctorat.

PET: Preliminary English Test

SLA: Second Language Acquisition.

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign.

VLS:Vocabulary Learning Strategies.

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Abstract

The issue raised in this research work at length below constitutes the field of inquiry into vocabulary development. The main question, however, in this research work is how can an adequate planned programme of vocabulary development enhance the learnability of a foreign language through the receptive skills first. For this reason, the plight of vocabulary is put into question as a sub-skill in reading as well as in the listening skill. The overall presentation of the importance of vocabulary in the English language learning is represented through a general linguistic view of the situation of a non-Anglophone speech community where the target language mirrors the status of a foreign language. Though the English is gaining merits within the newly-established educational system of LMD, the social functions of that language are rather lacking and making the exposure to the input somehow limited to language classrooms.Arguably, the aim of this research is to provide a rich input through reading and listening all along the language programme as a source whereby, EFL learners can retrieve the necessary vocabulary for a better comprehension. However, to use Krashen's term, the input should be comprehensible fitting the learners' level of comprehension, first. Then, another stage of language input can be indorsed with more difficulty a little beyond the learners' actual level of understanding. Back to Krashen's input hypothesis, if 'i' represents previously acquired linguistic competence and extra-linguistic knowledge, the hypothesis claims that we move from '*i*' to '*i+*' by understanding input that contains '*i+*'. Extra-linguistic knowledge includes our knowledge of the world and of the situation, that is, the context. The '**i+**' represents new knowledge or language structures that we should be ready to acquire. The assumptions made a triangulation investigation in then established. The first tool of research (open-ended interview) put forward, initially, represents the visions of the teachers teaching the discourse comprehension modules; namely reading and listening. In effect, the states of the arts of the teaching of the two skills counseled a special treatment where input resources are worked out with more variety, context richness and comprehensibility as *sine quanon* conditions in respect to Krashen's hypothesis. The latter claim is measured through a language proficiency test to give evidence for or against the proposed hypothesis.

General Introduction

The importance of vocabulary in language acquisition goes uncontested. It is evident that vocabulary is indispensable for successful (understanding and interacting) communication in any language. However, the evolution towards recognition of the importance of lexical competence within second and /or foreign language learning has gained interest. In this research study, however, we will not make distinction between second and foreign language acquisition and we will not go into that particular terminology discussion. In due occasion, the discrepancy will be laid out to refer to the status of each term according to the target community as shown in (2.3.).So, gradually, Foreign Language Acquisition (henceforth, FLA) researchers have come to recognize the central, or even, pre-conditional role of the lexical dimension for fluent language use and usage, whatever skill concerned.It is arguably demonstrated (Anderson and Freeboy, 1975 and; Laufer, 1989- 1992) that learners whose target vocabulary is not large enough to have 95 per cent coverage do not reach an adequate level of comprehension of the texts. Furthermore, Ellis (1997) has shown that vocabulary knowledge is indispensable to acquire grammar. That is to say, knowing the words in a text allows learners to understand the discourse, which in turn allows the grammatical patterning to become more transparent. In this sense too, Nation (1990, 1993 and 2001) underlines the critical importance of developing an adequate lexical approach since learners' skills in using the language is heavily dependent on the number of words they know, particularly in the early stages of learning a foreign language. He states that a systematic, principled approach to vocabulary development results in better language learning. It is de facto that developing lexical competence in the target language is now seen as the crucial factor in language acquisition and there is general agreement that there is threshold vocabulary below which learners are likely to struggle to decode the input they receive (Alderson and Banerjee 2002). Relatively, since the high-frequency words play so important and prominent role in vocabulary learning, a big question, then, arises: to what extent this group of high-frequency words is stable? According to

Nation, frequency lists may differ in frequency rank order of particular words, in particular contexts and at specific community usages and uses. There is, generally, agreement that if a corpus has been well designed for a particular community of language usersthen a threshold level of proficiency could be reached towards that target language.

Relatedly, having no proper designed corpus for our English Foreign Language (EFL) learners in the Algerian communitynecessitates a great deal of effort to be done in this sense; and then, elaborate research on this basis. More than that, with reference to word counts, Nation (2001) holds that knowing a word involves knowing the number of its word family and surely the number of members of the word family will increase as proficiency develops. This is the rationale, exactly behind the present research where a learner may be familiar with the word "rich", "richly" and "richness"in due time when sufficient input is forwarded to him in a variety and multitude of ways sustainingEFL learners' ability to understand. Simply put; a frequency-based approach to vocabulary learning hinges upon the assumption that frequency is strongly related to the probability that a word will be known. One might expect that the most frequent words are known by the majority of students, if not all, whereas infrequent words are known only by particular learners depending mainly on their exposure to language through readingand listening. In the same vein, Hazenberg (1994) and Hulstijn (1996) conclude that the relationship between word frequency and word knowledge appears to depend on vocabulary size. Schmitt (2000) advocates that vocabulary should bebest taught to foreign language learners according to a cost-benefit perspective. He claims for intense and varied stock of vocabulary to be taught keeping a threshold level proximity as a level-testing procedure for EFL learners at all stages: beginners, intermediate or advanced. This is the consensus among applied linguists (Nation, 2001; Krashen; 2004).

When learners move on to read or listen to authentic texts in the target language, the consensus among language users, it is rather the knowledge of word family that would suffice, though explicit vocabulary instruction cannot convey the

need. It is rather individual vocabulary learning that fits the required sum of lexical items in any comprehension. In other words, it is the intense exposure to different kinds of input through a variety of general, academic and professional and technical domains of language, including the modules taught (course books, articles, hands out, lectures, etc.). Such endeavour could only provide the required vocabulary strategies in learning word-building processesin the target language, such as: guessing from context, applying mnemonic techniques and other referential and inferential procedures helping in increasing awareness of vocabulary learning strategies. Consequently, EFL learners can expand their vocabularies far beyond the threshold level (Nation and Waring, 1997).

Aside from the philosophical parody that can be raised concerning the issue of what it means to 'know' a word, the many taxonomies of word knowledge hypothesize about degrees of knowledge. Expressed differently, word knowledge is not an all-or-nothing-phenomenon. To use McKeon's term, vocabulary knowledge is "incremental", i.e., a word is seen as a continuum from not knowing to rich knowledge of a word's meaning, its relationship to other words, and its extension to metaphorical use (in literature). Equally important is the amount of vocabulary for more language proficiency. In this sense, Meara stresses the idea in what follows:

All other things being equal, learners with big vocabularies are more proficient in a wide range of language skills than learners with smaller vocabularies, and there is some evidence to support the view that vocabulary skills make a significant contribution to almost all aspects of foreign language proficiency. (Meara, 2000: 37)

Along with the above quote, vocabulary knowledge persists in a continuum of expansion. In other words, vocabulary knowledge in the mother tongue as well as in a foreign language continues to deepen throughout lifetime.

In Richard's (1976) view, knowledge of words is framed like follows:

- Knowing the probability of encountering the word in speech or print

- Knowing the limitations imposed on the use of the word according to function or situation
- Knowing the syntactic behavior associated with the word
- Knowing the underlying form of the word and the derivations that can be made of it
- Knowing the associations between the word and other words in the language
- Knowing the semantic value of the word, and
- Knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word.

Applied linguists converge to the common resolution that the same continuous idea of incremental expansion of vocabulary also applies to the transfer from receptive to productive. This means that a word that can be correctly used is assumed to be understood by the user when heard or seen. The opposite is, however, not true. From that common resolution, the first research hypothesis claims for the priority of gaining the receptive vocabulary so as to pave the way to later productive vocabulary since passive or receptive vocabulary size is, thus considered to be larger than the active (productive) vocabulary. This is why the receptive knowledge will be stressed and much valued in this research. Subsequently, if vocabulary is considered a priority area in language learning, then it needs to be assessed in some way and test formats are needed to monitor learners'progress in vocabulary learning. Therefore, before setting a test, there should be, naturally, enough exposure to the target language input involving a whole varied chemistry of lexical items which, at least, should guarantee a threshold level of comprehension, and which in turn establishes an anxiety-free environment among EFL learners in their task of decoding a text, be it written or spoken.If enough exposure to the target language is provided to EFL learners and if the degree of difficulty is kept just a little bit beyond the learners' ability to read and/or listen at ease for possible comprehension, then testing is arguably made in favour of vocabulary development. The latter statement constitutes, then the second hypothesis.

As every investigation has a starting point, the present research work adapts Krashen's design idea- 'the Input Hypothesis'- to verify the suitability of a rich, varied and comprehensible input for a better comprehension of the target language. The objective is the exposure of our EFL learners to a sufficiently rich input, preferably at the reach of (or a little bit beyond) their level of comprehension. The potential significance can be measured through a probable development and expansion in vocabulary acquisition that surely leads to texts comprehension and then, to language proficiency. To narrow down the research purpose, the following research questions are set to translate specifically the aim behind the study.

- Does a rich, varied and comprehensible input really help enhancing our EFL learners' comprehension?
- Is comprehension of discourse mainly related to vocabulary knowledge?
- Is receptive vocabulary larger than productive one?
- Does context constitute a key factor for retrieving new lexical items?
- Does the precedence of the reading skill over listening guarantee a better comprehension of the discourse?
- Is the listening skill more difficult to approach than the reading skill?

These are but a few questions that arise when one poses the problem of discourse comprehension of a foreign language. Indeed, these elements govern the general layout of this research work through which we will try to provide evidence for the following research hypotheses:

- We acquire language in only one way: when we understand messages, that is, when we obtain comprehensible Input.
- A well-designed input where context is rich and vocabulary is at the reach of the EFL learners may lead to vocabulary acquisition and then, to discourse comprehension.

- When EFL learners engage voluntarily to receive the F.L. input in-and-out the class, in a friendly, motivating way, their vocabulary acquisition develops and language proficiency betters.

- The more comprehensible input, the greater the L2 proficiency. Evidence shows that a large amount of exposure to L2 leads to proficiency.

- When Reading precedes listening, EFL learners perform much better in comprehension activities because of the opportunity to meet the lexical items visually (spelling recognition) then, a possible sound-meaning combination can be performed easily.

The premise upon which these hypotheses are based is the mere assumption that English endorses the status of a foreign language whereby functions in the target community are rather lacking. About a situation like this, it is perhaps not an overhasty response to claim that to provide instances for meeting the language, intense exposure to a rich, varied and, conditionally, comprehensible input should be provided so as to create an anxiety-free atmosphere with appropriate levels of difficulty.

Many issues arise from the above claim. In fact, many dissecting voices on this matter of developing vocabulary lead us to check the efficacy of the proposal through typical proficiency language tests. These tests could measure if any progress is made after a treatment period, naturally, and then, implement the comprehensible input hypothesis.

The other favour of testing, beyond providing estimates of the learners 'abilities, is that it shapes the way learners perceive the content of a course and the degree of easiness in decoding and understanding a text accordingly. Another good argument for including vocabulary in the course programme of any language classroom is the necessity to incorporate vocabulary assignments in tests and exams every time and then; and raise awareness of language learners of the perennial role vocabulary plays in language acquisition; hence, creating a positive attitude towards vocabulary learning. Vocabulary test or exam results provide useful information on how

vocabularies (academic, literary, technical) grow and how these factors are related to other aspects of their (EFL learners') linguistic competence. Objectively stated, Cameron (2002) puts forward that measuring vocabulary knowledge through objective tests is a valid indicator of language ability in a broad sense.

Nevertheless, if vocabulary levels do reflect language development, then, vocabulary testing might offer a relatively quick and easy way to researchers and language teachers to really monitor progress in language development. The deeper reason why word knowledge correlates with comprehension cannot be determined satisfactorily without improved methods.Likely, vocabulary tests can serve different purposes:

- They can assess whether learners have acquired the words they were taught,(i.e., achievement testing)
- They can detect if there are gaps in the vocabulary knowledge of learners, (i.e., diagnostic testing)
- They can aim at placing learners in the appropriate language-class level, (i.e., placement testing); or
- They can form part of a more globallanguage proficiency test in order to arrive at an estimate of the learners' skills to perform in the target language, (i.e., proficiency testing) (Nation, 2001)

However, within the present research work achievement and diagnostic testing formats are required to bridge the gaps of comprehension of the target language input first, and then analyse learners' capacity to recognize the vocabulary they have been exposed to during the experimental period of study. Up till now, the vocabulary measure tool that is under scrutiny in this study, namely the 'multiple choice questions' (MCQ), has been mainly used as an achievement test, or at least, as a diagnostic means after intense and varied exposure to the target language's input through reading and listening texts. The rationale behind, is to verify if the projected claim of Krashen theory of comprehensible input is effective for our first year EFL learners.

From a pedagogical point of view, it is useful to know how much vocabulary instruction is needed before learners have reached the vocabulary threshold level which is necessary for the comprehension of texts. Additionally, vocabulary researchers believe that qualitative measures of vocabulary could shed light on the relationship between vocabulary growth and different input conditions so that it becomes clear at what stage to prefer comprehension-based rather than production-oriented. The plain objective of the study is rather directed towards proficiency in comprehending input in the target language, primarily, by applying Krashen's theory of intense, varied and comprehensible input as a source of enriching and expanding the vocabulary stock of EFL learners. This procedure will, hopefully, lead to vocabulary development and consequently, if the hypothesis is positively confirmed, the transfer of that receptive knowledge would serve as a source for production. In here, the distinction between recognition and recall vocabulary is more than elementary. As aforementioned, it is generally mentioned that words are known receptively first and only later become available for production use (Read, 2000). This iswhy it is most useful to think in terms of a receptive to productive continuum, and in accordance to the scope of the present study, receptive skills (listening and reading) are highlighted within vocabulary development rather than the productive skills.

For these and other issues, chapter one delineates the literature review of the main components of the study; hence, vocabulary and the receptive skills. The issue of comprehension and vocabulary has always generated continuous and indeed quite heated debates over many years in many parts of the world. In like manner, the chapter tries to dissect the logical and academic principles of teaching and learning the two receptive skills as sources of input where reception and understanding conjure up with the amount of known vocabulary. This is why a lexical approach is of perennial importance to achieve the aim of comprehending messages in the target language.

Chapter two describes the linguistic scenery of the Algerianspeech community. The actual situation can serve a springboard elucidating the environment in which the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) occurs. The status of English as a foreign language is defined in contrast to the other languages in use, mainly Arabic- the national language- and French, the other non-national language. Unlike English, French fulfillsmany social functions, hence acquiring the status of 'second language'. Contrastively, English justifies the status of 'foreign language' since it is not used in the community where is it taught unless in very limited spheres; like: schools and universities. Then, a brief introduction to the new 'Licence-Master-Doctorate' (henceforth, LMD) system is portrayed in the Algerian educational system in general, and typically, in the English department. Within the programme of English language teaching (ELT), a special jargon comprising the 'literature' module is sampled to show that typical vocabulary repertoire in the overall formation of English language proficiency. At the end, a holistic survey of the main vocabulary teaching methods that has characterized the teaching of vocabulary so far.

Chapter three is purely investigative. It put into evidence Krashen's input hypothesis and the extent to which it serves as an alternative for better achievements incomprehending messages in the target language. If evidenced, it will help increase the vocabulary stock of our English language learners (EFL). To measure such hypothesis, the researcher adopted a proficiency language test (hereafter, t-test) sequenced in two stages. First, a pre-test to diagnose the ability to retrieve the requested lexical items is administered to two groups of EFL-first year students with similar sequence (listening, then reading), same level of difficulty and with arbitrary choice of the testees to avoid any bias. Then, one group will constitute the experimental group receiving a special treatment advocated in Krashen's theory. However, the other control group institutes the measurement-bar for any probable progress after the treatment period. To back up the results of the post-test, testees themselves will act in commenting on the conclusions of the study. So, if there is agreement between the researcher findings and t(he participants, the study's validity is, indeed, reinforced.

Chapter four, correlates with a sum of suggestions and recommendations towards a better embodiment of a lexical syllabus of a foreign language, hence English.The first outcome altering the weaknesses so far diagnosed in the language tests, is the teaching of vocabulary through context to equip EFL learners with sufficient clues to dissect the meaning of unknown words. This context includes the reading script, the spoken language or generally any real situation where language is used as a means of interaction. This alternative calls for promoting certain criteria in selecting EFL classroom activities. This promotion is, fortunately, relevant in nowadays technological accessibility and different resources availability. In due concern, language teachers should act in favour of promoting effective learning procedures that can elaborate better strategies for receptive vocabulary acquisition. The other significant parameter to remedy is the sound-perception difficulty that EFL learners do suffer from. So, continuous exposure to the foreign sound with theoretical cognition of the main components of the phonology of the language, constitute the tips to overcome these hindrances. Naturally, diversity in the input and different perspectives clearing up varieties, registers, and domains of use are the corner stone for a rationale behind a successful vocabulary learning strategy training.

In conclusion, it is worth noting that the departing point of the advanced ideas in this research work emanates from the desire to carry on the investigation on vocabulary development as a crucial element towards language proficiency as already grown out of a Magister thesis presented by the researcher in 2007.

Chapter One:

VOCABULARY AND THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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VOCABULARY AND THE RECEPTIVE SKILLS: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1.1. Introduction

Vocabulary used to be offered to learners in the form of lists; however, nowadays, the tendency is to present lexical retrieval in texts. For vocabulary purposes, texts (whether spoken or written) have enormous advantages over learning words from lists. For a start, the fact that words are in context increases the chances of learners appreciating not only their meaning but their typical environments, such as their associated collocations, grammatical structures, topic-oriented selections and other linguistic and supra-linguistic features decoding the type, the format and the lay-out of the text. Moreover, it is likely that the text will display topically-connected sets of words (or lexical fields); i.e., evidence suggests that words connected by topic are easier to learn than unrelated vocabulary. The latter claim is supported, pedagogically, by the polysemic aspect of words. This calls, certainly, for a variety of texts dealing with various topical texts that are required in extending the lexical stock, hence conducting to progress and development in vocabulary. What is sure, a varied selection of situations in listening and a multiple selection of texts in reading can only help learners engage for out-of-class activities to postulate as independent learners.

Our aim in this chapter is to shed light on the two receptive skills: listening and reading as representing the core source of input in the learning of English as a foreign languagein a community where production of the target language is very limited to the language classroom, on the one hand. On the other hand, a deep concern of vocabulary is manifested through the establishment of tight links between vocabulary knowledge and comprehension of discourse.

The chapter exposes, by and large, the importance of vocabulary as an essential tool needed to ensure comprehension of the available input provided via a

spoken text (listening) or a written script (reading). The tight relationship is rather emphasized between vocabulary and comprehension if the input is set at the learners' reach, i.e. a threshold level of comprehensibility should be equating learners' capacity of receiving, analyzing and being able to interpret the messages, not frustrating them with complexity and difficulty. To do so, first, any vocabulary instruction should be contextualized, topics should reflect learners' interest to enhance motivation and create friendly-like atmospheres in classes to encourage later contacts with the language outside the academic sphere

1.2.   The Central Importance of Vocabulary

It seems almost impossible to overstate the power of words; they literally have changed and will continue to change the course of world history. Perhaps the greatest tools we can give students for succeeding, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary and the skills for using those words. Our ability to function in today's complex social and economic worlds is mightily affected by our language skills and word knowledge. In addition to the vital importance of vocabulary for success in life, a large vocabulary is more, specifically, predictive and reflective of high levels of reading achievement and discourse comprehension. *The Report of the NationalReading Panel* (2000), for example, concluded, "The importance of vocabulary knowledge has long been recognized in the development of reading and listening skills. As early as 1924, researchers noted that growth in reading power relies on continuous growth in word knowledge." The American Heritage Dictionarydefines vocabulary as "*the sum of words used by, understood by, or at the command of a particular person or group*." However, it seems important to point out that, in almost all cases, there are some differences in the number of words that an individual understands and uses. The terms "uses" and "understands" need clarification, however. For example, the major way in which we "use" vocabulary is when we speak and write; the term *expressive vocabulary* is used to refer to both since these are the vocabularies we use to express ourselves. We "understand" vocabulary when we listen to speech and when we read; 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 listening and speaking vocabularies, and *literate vocabulary* refers to the combination of our reading and writing vocabularies. Are our listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabularies all the same? Are they equally large? Is our *meaning vocabulary* larger or smaller than *literate vocabulary*?

We tend to have a larger group of words that we use in reading and writing than we use in our own speech. This is because written language is more formal, more complex, and more sophisticated than spoken language. Young children naturally learn to communicate by means of listening and speaking. In order to make the transition to the other way of communication(reading and writing), they need a large meaning vocabulary and effective decoding skills. There is an abundance of research evidence to show that an effective decoding strategy allows students not only to identify printed words accurately but to do so rapidly and automatically (Pikulski and Chard, 2003). Most children acquire reading and writing skills upon entering school. They need to acquire a basic knowledge of how printed letters relate to the sounds of spoken words. Being able to translate or transcode print into speech allows them to use what they know about *meaning/oral* vocabulary for their *literate* vocabulary. So for very young children, their *meaning* vocabularies are much larger than their *literate* vocabularies. The acquisition of decoding skills leads to rapid expansion of *literate* vocabularies by allowing learners to transcode their meaning vocabularies into their *literate* vocabularies. This is so much the case that for older students and for adults; our literate vocabularies are probably larger than our potential for fostering improvement in another. Therefore, one responsibility of teachers is to help children transfer vocabulary skills from one form to another.

1.2.1.The Need to Improve Vocabulary Instruction

In a recent text, Beck et al. (2002) draw the following research-based conclusion: "*All the available evidence indicates that there is little emphasis on the acquisition of vocabulary in school curricula.*" The effects of the lack of attention to vocabulary instruction, however, may not manifest themselves in the earliest grades

where tests of reading and listening achievement tend to contain passages that have simple content and common vocabulary. Research has shown that many learners will not automatically become proficient comprehenders in later grades. This drop off in achievement seems very likely due to weaknesses in language development and background knowledge, which are increasingly required for discourse comprehension beyond the early grades and for reading/listening informational and content-area texts.

The most recently released study of intentional comprehension (reading and listening) achievements provides some strong evidence that the weakness in students' performance is not the result of decoding problems or inability to comprehend narrative texts. Instead, it seems to be due to weakness in the ability to comprehend 'high-frequency' vocabulary which refers to those words that are used over and over again in our communications—they are important to both our meaning and literate vocabularies. A mere 100 words make up about 50% of most English texts; 200 words make up 90% of the running words of materials for intermediate grade; and 500 words make up 90% of the running words in materials for superior grade (Nation, 2003). If a reader is to have at least a degree of fluency, it is critical that these words be taught systematically and effectively. The research of Ehri (1994, 1998) is particularly informative. Her research strongly suggests that high-frequency words should be introduced without written context so that students focus on their visual composition, that they should be practiced in materials that are at an appropriate level of challenge, and that they should be practiced several times in order to allow developing readers/listeners to recognize them instantly. She also makes the important point that although many of these words do not conform, completely,with phonic generalizations or expectations (e.g. *was*), they nonetheless, very frequently, do have elements that are regular. For example, the *'w'* in *"was"* is regular and the *'s'* at the end of that word sometimes does have the /z/ sound. Ehri's research strongly suggests that these phonic regularities are powerful mnemonics for remembering the words and should be pointed out, rather than expecting that

students will remember the vague shape of the word, as was the tradition with flash-card instruction for many years.

There is no question that people who have large speaking vocabularies generally tend to have large listening, reading, and writing vocabularies; likewise people who are limited in one of these aspects are likely limited in other aspects as well. We have seen that this close relationship does not exist in pre-literate children. Also, some children who develop large reading vocabularies may not use that vocabulary in their writing without teacher help and guidance. However, in the years during which children develop as readers and writers, there is an increasingly high relationship among all four aspects of vocabulary—listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Fostering improvement in one aspect has the concluded idea that although these children were exposed to much oral language stimulation in school, it was too incidental and insufficiently direct and intense to have a major impact. The amount of vocabulary that children need to acquire each year is amazing in scope, estimated to be about 3,000 words a year (Ehri, 1998). Therefore, according to Ehri,a comprehensive approach consisting of the following components needs to be in place:

• Use "instructional" read-aloud events.

• Provide direct instruction in the meanings of clusters of words and individual words.

• Systematically teach students the meaning of prefixes, suffixes, and root words.

• Link spelling instruction to reading and vocabulary instruction.

• Teach the effective, efficient, realistic use of dictionaries, thesauruses, and other reference works.

• Teach, model, and encourage the application of a word-learning strategy.

• Encourage wide reading and listening of the target language.

• Create a keen awareness of and a deep interest in language and words.

1.2.2. Vocabulary Teaching

When teaching vocabulary, teachers, methodologically, follow certain steps to make learners able to recognise, know, understand and use the new introduced words. This process is sketched out by using different techniques depending on the difficulty of the new lexis and on the level of the class. There are numerous ways of conveying the meaning of a new introduced word. These include a definition, a demonstration using gestures, pictures or a diagramme presentation, a real object, some contextual clues revealing meaning of other difficult words, or an L1 translation. In terms of the accuracy of conveying meaning, none of these ways is intrinsically better than any of the others. It all depends on the use of the estimated item. However, studies comparing the effectiveness of the various techniques for teaching vocabulary, always, come up with the result - a shared feeling among learners- that an L1 translation is the most effective (Lado, Baldwin and Lobo1967; Mishima1967; Laufer and Shmueli1997). This is, probably, because L1 translations are usually clearer, shorter and less effort and time consuming. Concerning the use of dictionaries, it is largely observed that learners prefer using bilingual ones, though; monolingual ones usually contain a wealth of useful and additional information. So, there should be an attempt to make them accessible for lower proficiency learners within a controlled vocabulary. Most learners of English strongly favour bilingual dictionaries in reference to surveys of dictionary preference (Laufer and Kimmel 1997; Atkins and Varantola1997).

It is public knowledge that L1 translation provides familiar and effective way of quickly getting to grips with the meaning and context of what is conveyed in the target language. Here, some teachers do avoid using this technique. They simply opt for maximising foreign language use during classroom management. Accordingly, classroom management should involve things like telling the class what to do (*take your books, turn to page seven*), controlling behaviour (*sit down, be quiet*), explaining activities (*read the text, get in pairs…*) in the target language. However, though it is very beneficial to maximise the foreign language use in classroom management, it is too foolish to arbitrary exclude this proved and efficient

(translation) means of communicating meaning. To do so would be parallel to saying that pictures or real objects should not be used in foreign language class (Nation, 1978). All the arguments for or against the use of a given technique are to be tested and clearly stated for specific situations rather than others. It is the teacher's role to develop the learners' proficiency in English, bearing in mind that there are several reasons why learners use their L1 when they should be using the target language. These reasons are of different range that cover the affective, cognitive and resource alternatives. These include low proficiency in the target language, shyness in using the target language or simply a lack of interest in learning that particular language. Thus, a balanced approach is needed which sees the complementarities of all the techniques at hand and seeking for new ways that are of significance to our learners.

The gaps pointed in the analysis vary in their importance. However, insightful observations of the already existing techniques should apply to the needs of learners in realistic situations. Hence, learners' language needs are to be seen as a useful tool like other tools which should be used as a means to an end and surely not be over-used.

The study of vocabulary is an integral part of the process of language learning-be it native or foreign. Therefore, the use of a language is partly related to the amount of words that a person knows which refers to vocabulary. In fact, it is the 'Everest of a language' to use Crystal's terms (1995) and constitutes the basis in the use of a language. The teaching of vocabulary seems very important since without it, learners of a language cannot succeed in using the language. The knowledge of vocabulary is necessary for conveying messages, understanding a text, meeting academic and individual needs and learning the target language and culture. The business of teaching a foreign language will be quite difficult to the teacher because he is the only one who is responsible for widening the learners' knowledge of vocabulary. The difficulty rises, essentially, in the problem of selection and choice of vocabulary, then presentation.

1.2.3. Purposes for Teaching Vocabulary

One reason teachers are concerned with teaching vocabulary is to facilitate the comprehension of a text that students will be assigned to listen to or read. If students do not know the meaning of many of the words that they will encounter in a text, their comprehension of that selection is likely to be compromised. When the purpose of vocabulary instruction is to facilitate the comprehension of a text, it is obvious that this instruction must take place as an introduction before the decoding of the text. As a rule, new words in narrative texts are not as critical to the overall understanding of the type as are new words in informational types. Before guiding students' reading or listening of a particular narrative, teachers should determine if there are any new words that represent concepts that are critical to understanding the selection *and* which are not adequately defined in context. If there are, then these words should be presented and discussed before the students listen or read. While a "narrow" or superficial treatment is often sufficient for these, on other occasions it is necessary to develop "deep" understandings. The study by Elley (1989) strongly suggested that vocabulary growth was much greater when teachers discussed, even if briefly, the meanings of the words. The recent study by Juel et al. (2003) showed that while teachers in kindergarten and first grade spent considerable time reading and discussing books to children with below average vocabularies, these activities had minimal impact on the progress of the children. Only when teachers spent focused time on the vocabulary did significant growth occur. However, which words should be taught? In deciding which words to teach, we have found it helpful to think about "levels" of vocabulary, which is similar to what Beck et al. (2002) refer to as "layers" of vocabulary. Let's consider the following sketching as a sample representing word levels as follows:

*-Level I Words:*These are words that are used over and over in everyday speech. Since they are so frequently used in a variety of contexts, virtually all learners learn them. Some examples of these words would be *house*, *girl*, *cat*, *up*, *umbrella*, etc. Level I words are sometimes referred to as "conversational speech." Students who are learning English as a second or foreign language will sometimes make progress

with this level of vocabulary but have difficulty making progress with words at levels beyond this one.

-*Level II Words:*These are words that are likely to be learned only through reading or continual listening. They have been referred to as the vocabulary of educated persons, as "academic vocabulary," and as "instructional vocabulary." They are words that are necessary for general success in school. Words such as *perspective*, *generate*, *initiate*, *intermediate*, *calculation*, etc. are possible examples.

-*Level III Words:*These are words associated with a particular field of study or profession. These words make up the technical vocabulary.

The majority of English words have been created by the combination of morphemic elements, that is, prefixes and suffixes with base words and word roots (see appendix 9). If learners understand how this combinations work, they possess one of the most powerful understandings necessary for vocabulary growth (Anderson and Freebody, 1981). This understanding of how meaningful elements combine is defined as morphological knowledge, because it is based on an understanding of morphemes-the smallest units of meaning in a language. In the intermediate grades and beyond, most new words that students encounter in their reading and listening are morphological derivatives of familiar words (Aronoff, 1994). In recent years, research has suggested some promising guidelines for teaching the meanings of prefixes, suffixes, and word roots as well as for the ways in which knowledge of these meaningful word parts may be applied (Templeton, 2004). Very good instances could be those word roots such as '*dict*', '*spect*', and '*struct'* which are meaningful parts of words that remain after all prefixes and suffixes that have been removed but that usually do not stand by themselves as words, such as: *prediction*, *inspection*, and *contract*. As a primary step, students should begin to explore the effects of prefixes such as *un-*, *re-*, and *dis-* on base words. Later on, students may continue to explore prefixes and an increasing number of suffixes and their effects on base words: *govern* (verb) + *-ment* = *government* (noun). In the same direction, common Greek and Latin roots begin to be explored, along with the effects of prefixes and suffixes that attach to them (Templeton, 1989). These include, for example, '*chron'*

("time," as in *chron*ology), *'tele'* ("distant, far" as in *tele*vision), and *'fract'* ("break," as in *fract*ure). A large proportion of the vocabulary of specific content areas is built on Greek and Latin elements. As this morphological knowledge develops, teachers can model how it may be applied to determining the meanings of unfamiliar words encountered in print.

Informational selections (texts) usually carry a higherload of new words than narratives, and themeanings of these new words are quite oftenimportant for understanding the selection. Someauthors of informational texts make it a point to useartificially enhanced contexts to facilitate wordlearning. If new words are defined appropriately inthe selection, they may not need to be discussedbeforehand. However, it is important to keep inmind the research finding that in naturallyoccurring contexts, it is more difficult to usecontexts for word meanings in informational textsas compared to narrative texts. Thus new wordsthat are critical to an understanding of the majortopic or theme should be introduced and discussedprior to reading or listening because the exploration of theseprerequisite terms and concepts will establish astrong foundation for subsequent learning.A second major reason for teaching the meaningof words is to increase the number of words thatstudents know and can use in a variety ofeducational, social, and eventually work-relatedareas. These are very likely to be what we havetermed 'Level II words'. To increase the number ofwords the students learn, it is often helpful to teachthese words in morphological or semantic clusters.Morphological clusters refer to what Nagy calls"the word formation process." These clusters willoften build around a base or root word. Forexample, if a teacher were teaching the word *'arm'*not as a body part but as a verb meaning *"toprovide with a weapon,"* then it would probably beuseful to teach the morphologically related words:*arms* (noun), *armed* (adjective as in a*rmed guard*),*disarm*, *rearm*, *unarm*, *armor*, *armory*, *armament*, etc.Semantic clusters, however, refer to words that are relatedin meaning or relate to the same field of study. So, teaching words in semantic clusters is particularlyeffective since vocabulary expansion involves notjust the acquisition of the meaning of individualwords but also learning the relationships amongwords and how these

words relate to each other.A very effective way to present semanticallyrelated words is to build word webs around somecentral concepts.

Moreover, spelling knowledge applies not only to the ability to encode words during writing; more importantly, it also underlies individuals' ability to *decode* words during the process of reading and listening (Templeton, 2003a, 2003b). Students' spelling knowledge is, therefore, a powerful foundation for their reading/listening and their vocabulary development. This latter aspect is linked to the role that morphological knowledge plays an important part in gaining comprehension of either discourse. Words that are related in meaning are often related in spelling, despite changes in sound. To get a sense of how the connection works between spelling and meaning, examine the following words: '*bomb/bombard*'; '*muscle/muscular*'; '*compete/competition*'. Because the words in each pair are related in meaning, the spelling of the underlined sounds remains constant; although the sound that letters represent may change in related words, the spelling usually remains the same because it preserves the meaning relationship that these words share. Thus, once students understand the spelling-meaning relationships among words, they can learn how the spelling or structure of familiar words can be clues to the spelling and the meaning of unknown words, and vice-versa. For example, a student who spells '*condemn*' as '*condem*' in his/her spontaneous writing may be shown the word '*condemnation*': This not only explains the so-called "silent" /n/ in '*condemn*' but expands the student's vocabulary at the same time.

Exploring dictionary entries is one important and effective component of understanding a word. The entries can also help students determine the precise meaning of a word. Dictionaries can also provide helpful information about the history of a word and reinforce the interrelationships among words in the same meaning "families." For example, a discussion of run-on entries illustrates how one word's entry can include information about related words—the entry for '*entrap*' also includes '*entraps*' and '*entrapment*'. The usage notes in dictionaries often explain subtle but important differences among words—usually the appropriateness of one word over another in a particular context. Words for which the dictionary is

essential may be entered in a student's vocabulary notebook. Dictionaries can also contribute to an interest in and attitudes toward words that teachers and the students explore. The usage notes in dictionaries reflect a powerful and consistent research finding: every word/concept we know, and the degree to which we really know it, depends on the relationship of that word/concept to other words/concepts. The thesaurus, another resource for word learning, also helps learners make fine distinctions among concepts and words. This differentiation of learners' conceptual domains is the essence of vocabulary development and growth.

As noted above, written texts contain richer vocabulary and, therefore, more opportunities for expansion of vocabulary through reading as compared to the word challenge in oral language (listening). However, the probability of learning a new word's meaning through encountering it in listening or reading is not gained *per se.* There is research evidence that shows that students can be taught strategic behaviours to improve their ability to learn the meaning of words (Kuhn and Stahl, 1998). While skills such as application of morphological clues, reference works, and spelling clues to word meanings are all useful, they become more powerful and functional when combined with the use of context clues in a deliberate strategy.

The importance of wide reading in the growth of students' vocabulary is quite critical too (Nagy and Anderson, 1984). Given the amazing number of new words that learners must add to their vocabularies each year, it would be impossible to directly teach all of them. Anderson (1996) estimates that it would require teaching about twenty new words a day each day of the school year! Through wide independent reading and free exposure to the language, students come in contact with vocabulary that rarely occurs in spoken language but that is much more likely to be encountered in printed language. Cunningham and Stanovich (1998) present evidence that vocabulary used in oral communication such as television shows or adult conversation is extremely restricted. Research shows that some learners enter school with many more language skills than others. It seems reasonable to suggest that they also come with varying degrees of interest in words. Therefore, it is important that every teacher attempts to develop such an interest. It seems important

that every teacher be interested in words themselves. It is highly recommended, therefore, that each teacher becomes a certified "Linguaphile" (one who loves language!). We also recommend that every teacher develop a "*word-a-day*" routine wherein there is a focus on an interesting, challenging word. These words should be introduced and discussed; students should be encouraged to look for them and use them in and out of school. If a word a day seems too fast a pace, a word every other day or even a word a week will still be beneficial. Again, the main purpose is to create an interest in words; a secondary but highly important purpose is to teach the meaning of the words themselves. In the beginning of the year, the teacher will probably need to select the words, but later students should be encouraged to nominate the words.

As students continue to explore and think about words, they can be encouraged to keep vocabulary notebooks in which they jot down interesting words they come across in their readings or through their meetings with the (spoken) language (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, and Johnston, 2004). As they become comfortable with this technique, they can add information to each word as appropriate recording of the sentence in which it occurred so they gain a sense of the context in which it is used, its word parts and its meaning, and the appropriate dictionary definition. Students' interest and curiosity about words are also stimulated when they learn the logic behind word origins and the many stories that underlie how words came about and came to mean what they do. And it is also important to realize that learning these aspects about words reveals that words' learning and teaching is given via different techniques.

1.2.4. Techniques Used in Teaching Vocabulary

The introduction and presentation of the new lexical items is done, generally, during warm up sessions. The new items are, first, presented within a context; and this is particularly done to fit the thematic approach the teacher follows. However, this is not always efficient since a word can have various meanings according to different contexts. That is why learners should be exposed to different kinds of

contexts in which a word may be used to ensure its proper usage. Most of the time, teachers present a word and ask their pupils to use strategies; for example, the guessing ability or the use of a dictionary if available. Sometimes, the word is presented to fulfil a specific role in the sentence, eliciting its function, i.e. to state if it is a verb, a noun or an adjective, e.g. (consider, consideration, considerable). Hence, an understanding of the structure of English words facilitates learning and enhances recall. Thus, the presentation of the form is necessary for making the learners establish a relationship between form and meaning. In a more practical way for reaching the use of the new vocabulary, some teachers group the explained words and write them down on the board and ask pupils to recall and use them in meaningful sentences. So, the learners should use the words they have learnt in order to remember and grasp their meaning in different contexts. These steps are widely undertaken through the use of various techniques.

Among the various techniques used in teaching vocabulary in an EFL situation, the following are the most commonly observed and used by teachers in our language classrooms:

i)   Verbal Explanation

This technique requires a considerable knowledge of the language from the teacher since he has to use a variety of examples and illustrations aiming at clarifying the meaning of the new introduced words. It is, by far, the most common used technique where the teacher has to explain words through different devices. If available and clear enough, a synonym may solve the problem (clever = intelligent, amount = quantity); otherwise, an opposite of the word can easily facilitate the comprehension of the new item (easy # difficult, short# long). Some words, however, need a longer explanation which may be provided by a whole definition. In some cases, the derivational device may be used to clarify the root of the word and its affixes (write: re-write, necessary: un-necessary, home: home-less, function: mal-function…). In order to further the knowledge of vocabulary, it is arguably advisable to present the new items, when possible, through word-class. Thus, words are better

grasped and recalled when given through activities of derivation, like: (noun/verb, noun/adjective, verb/adverb, adverb/noun…etc.). Another well-planned and restricted device is the use of translation. In fact, it is the most appraised among learners but there should be a restriction to avoid dependence on a word-to-word equivalence.

ii)   Use of Pictures and Realia

Departing from the idea that teaching is used to facilitate learning, pictures can ease the burden. Pictures are used to explain unknown words which have roughly a synonym or an equivalent even in the learners' language. As an example, the following words can be best explained only through images and pictures, e.g.: tree/ flower/ computer and can be effortlessly presented to learners without looking for long, ambiguous definitions. The use of pictures will lead learners to distinguish between differences and concepts and will help them use words in the right way and appropriate contexts.

Vocabulary items can be presented quickly and easily by using realia, which is the use of real objects and materials to make learning more explicit to the learners. Teachers use realia to make vocabulary more meaningful and beneficial; and the main reason is that it is helpful for eliciting the meaning of vocabulary items, e.g. a mobile, a floppy disk, a lighter, a fountain pen, switch on/ off etc. By using objects that learners can see and touch, the vocabulary becomes more concrete and will, therefore, be retained and better understood than if a teacher just explains using words. Undoubtedly, the use of concrete objects and materials simplifies the task of the teacher and makes it easier for the learners to identify and understand these words.

iii)   Use of Dictionaries

Though it has been long criticised (the use of dictionaries interrupts the run of the course), it is one of the techniques used to find out meanings of unknown words. Teachers use this technique to check the guessability of learners and provide them the opportunity to search for personal investigations later on. Moreover,

teachers argue that the use of a dictionary can add interest and motivation for the learners being able to confirm their guessing ability and will broaden their vocabulary stock. Thus, the dictionary is very useful for learners since it gives them definitions and examples about the word they want to explain not only in given activities but in further uses. Moreover, pupils are allowed to make use of the bilingual dictionary for consolidation and reinforcement.

1.3. Using Texts

The receptive skills have always been displayed through the presentation of (written and/or oral) texts that incorporate a content carrying meaning and information and a form showing a structure and style. Above all, texts offer much to both teachers and pupils in terms of involvement and motivation. For teachers, there is the simulation of finding interesting texts and bringing them into the classroom; for the students, there is the perception that the foreign language has a reality outside the classroom. Moreover, pupils may realise that foreign language texts have something to say, can be interesting and mean something more than just a structure or some new words that have to be learned as an unpleasant consequence of being heard or read.

The use of texts is probably one of the defining characteristics of classroom language teaching. An overview is taken both of the types of texts that may be used, and the exploitation activities that may be based on them. In reality, texts have a much wider range of purposes than just the transmission of information, and their 'message' can be more than simply factual. Texts are also used to provide samples of the language in action. i.e., through analysis and imitation of certain texts, such as showing how to complain, apologise, ask for information, etc., students are encouraged to use these texts as models for their own language performance. Texts may serve a quite different purpose from that set out before. In this case focus is not on process or model, but rather on the content of the text itself. The rationale for the choice of the text has to do with the subject-matter involved. The hope is that by

choosing texts that are inherently interesting, the teacher will motivate pupils to involve themselves in work in a particular topic area and that the foreign language will be naturally used as the medium of work.

1.3.1. Factors for Successful Use of Texts

It is arguable that a large part of the language teaching that takes place in the classroom in a country where the target language is not spoken must follow a contextual typology and must, in deed, be given the gloss of our suggested approach (comprehensible input). After all, classroom foreign-language teaching always involves working with simulated situations. Yet, surely there must be room for something less controlled, more authentic, more involving and motivating.

It is clearly now time to suggest the principal factors associated to a successful use of texts. These factors seem to us, in our context, central and interconnected as follows:

- *Authenticity*

This certainly involves 'authenticity' of the text in the sense of using material taken from 'real life', not produced specifically for foreign language learners. Though it is important to seek for the notion of 'authenticity of response', we would argue, as stated above, for a less controlled response for the sake of being flexible and more encouraging learners to be involved even with their own native language or with their own terms. This means that the starting point for the teaching/learning must be the response of the learners to the text, and this response must be that of the learner as an individual, perceptive human being. Whenever we read texts in real life, we have reactions or responses to them; we may be interested, indifferent, excited or disgusted. The reaction may be intellectual, emotional or aesthetic (i.e., it may include cognitive or affective factors). Nobody ever listens or reads anything without some reaction to it and it is this reaction that we feel is the essence of communicating truly a comprehensible input. The latter, is probably administered through a simplified version where the reader finds room for

acquaintance with and reference to an already established prerequisite lexical knowledge.

- *Involvement*

A response to a text is, by evidence, the result of an involvement with it on the part of the reader or the listener. Involvement may be of the following kinds:

-Informational; e.g.: Does this text tell the reader/listener anything about…that he did not know before?

-Emotional; e.g.: What does the reader/listener feels about?

-Opinion-seeking; e.g.: Does the reader/listener agree with…?

-Character / Behaviour; e.g.: Does he identify with any of the characters? Would he behave in the way they do?

-Familiar Wording; e.g.: Do the words contained in the text reveal a certain reference to or relation with a pre-requisite knowledge? (Here, there is reference to recognition of word forms, sounds and real life uses).

It will be clearly observable through different reading/listening texts that such involvement is open-ended and brings about subjective reactions on the part of the listener/reader. In the same way, Grellet, clearly, relates the fact to what follows: "*it is obvious that the ideas expressed in the passage should be discussed and judged at some point. Whatever way these opinions were expressed, one cannot help reacting to them and questions leading students to compare their own views to those of the writer are necessary components of any comprehension syllabus*" (Grellet, 1981:25). The point of focus should remain a complete free interaction between the sender and the receiver.

- *Choice*

A key factor underlying involvement in a text is the personal choice of the reader or the listener. In general, in the real world, nobody forces us to read, or listen anything in particular. What we read, listen to or watch is the result of a conscious choice to engage in the activity. How can we mirror this in the classroom use of texts?

Departing from the idea of sharing responsibilities in the learning process and equipping the learner with a certain autonomy, we opt for a very obvious way through which we offer the learner a range of texts to choose from rather to attempt to impose a single text upon the whole class. In the words of Nuttal (1985: 199), there is emphasis on the claimed approach: "Quantity of reading geared to individual tastes".

The application in the classroom of the ideas outlined above means offering the learner the opportunity to develop authentic response, personal involvement and a shared responsibility in choosing a piece of textual material. For the sake of simplifying the task for language users, a well-planned vocabulary programme should check to see that the high frequency vocabulary is being covered and repeated. However, there has been a long history of frequency counting of vocabulary and the application of this to the teaching of vocabulary. In spite of this, course designers and teachers still take a largely *laissez-faire* approach to vocabulary selection, leaving it to be guided by topic selection and expediency. This is important because there is a big difference in the value of learning high frequency words compared to low frequency words. Furthermore, since both learners and teachers see vocabulary knowledge as being very important for language use, it needs to be balanced by communicative opportunities to put this knowledge to use and to gather more vocabulary for such learning. Put another way, it is arguably attested that there are possible ways of presenting texts containing words already heard (phonological familiarity), usually seen (acquaintance with spelling forms) and quickly mastered (semantic reference).

- *Simplification.*

Clearly, the nature of the text itself is a vital element. In this context, we should note that the emphasis throughout is on developing a personal response to the text on the part of the learner. Thus, we have to ensure that the range of material available is suitable, since teaching itself is aimed at facilitating the process of learning. What does this imply? There is a general feeling that material that has been specially prepared for language learners is not as good as authentic material intended for native speakers. The best argument against this was put forward by Widdowson (1976). He argued that authenticity does not lie in the material itself, but in the way it used. That is when a foreign language learner with a small vocabulary listens to or reads a text written for native speakers, the foreign language learner does not have an authentic comprehending experience. If the learner reads or listens to a simplified text at a suitable level, the learner can respond to that text in an authentic way, by getting enjoyment from the reading and/or listening, by learning some new ideas, by being critical about some ideas in the text, or by experiencing ease in comprehending. Arguably, '*without simplified texts learners cannot experience authentic comprehension (reading and/or listening) in the foreign language at all levels of their development'.*   (Nation: 2003:16)

It is clearly stated that graded reading needs to be seen as a means to an end. There is, now, plenty of evidence of the substantial benefits of the simplification of the texts as the main component of an extensive comprehension programme.

Yet, texts should be examples of 'authentic' English and can be of any kind, from any source. The prime criterion is that they should be in subject matter, potentially, of interest to the F.L. learner. Admittedly, one can easily imagine situations where the cultural contrast is much more marked (this is an attribute for the authenticity of text-the cultural parameter). But, the general point remains that the source for texts should be English-language versions of the reading matter which the students would normally themselves practise in their own already acquired language. It may be claimed that such an attempt of simplifying an original text would affect its quality. However, the aim here is not to improve pupils' literary

sensibilities. Furthermore, 'difficulty', in language terms, is only a marginal criterion. Basically, the aim is to offer pupils texts, involvement with texts which will arouse their interest and motivation to work out meanings. If difficulty can be overcome through the simplification of the words contained in the text (language factor), there are other factors from which it can arise: Background cultural assumptions and references are much more difficult for non-native speakers. At this level, texts should be very carefully considered and/or glossed in some way. In accordance to the prerequisite language background, learners may find their way to recognising words of a text, written in English, through a cognitive strategy. The exploitation ideas, put forward, imply an approach which stresses the promotion of learning, the development of the learners' involvement and above all facilitate general comprehension of proposed texts through a simplified version at the reach, hopefully, of the majority of learners if not all.

1.4. Using Dictionaries

The continued unnatural banning of the use of dictionaries- both monolingual and bilingual- and the mother tongue (L1) and/or (L2)from language classrooms is no more claimed. The emphasis is that dictionaries and translation both have a place in learning. Simply because, dictionary activities as well as word games may well be the most important activities if they are well conceived and creatively used. However , one comes to a point where , sometimes, a teacher is confused at the level of choice making: whether to use a monolingual dictionary where everything is displayed in the target language, or to use a bilingual one through which equivalents are clearly presented into the learner's pre- requisite language (in our case, it is either Arabic or French).

1.4.1. Monolingual vs. Bilingual Dictionary.

Monolingual dictionaries for foreign-language learners tend to be unquestioningly regarded as being more helpful than bilingual dictionaries. Generally, bilingual dictionaries are lowered on, or at least not specifically included in the training of the foreign-language learners. Is this an overall truism for all levels

of learners (beginners vs. advanced) and with a mixed-ability group of learners? Certainly, the answer needs a careful and thorough examination of both kinds of dictionaries. This will be put straight forwardly in the table below:

Dictionaries	Advantages	Disadvantages
Monolinguals	-Monolinguals avoid drawbacks in the ordering of meanings. -They contain a vast range of information about the language, particularly the syntactic behaviour of words. -They fit into the methodologies which lay emphasis on working exclusively in the foreign language. -Users will benefit from being exposed to the foreign language through definitions.	-Learners will often not know which word to look up; and even when they do, the definitions in the foreign language may not help them very much. -If the defining words are not known by the users, definitions are unnecessary. -Difficulty of getting into the dictionary makes learners reluctant to make use of it.
Bilinguals/ Trilinguals.	-For beginners, they are potentially more efficient and more motivating sources of information. -Getting into the dictionary is easy since the learner starts from a word in his own language.	-For beginners, they reinforce the learner's tendency to translate from one language to another. -They reinforce the belief in a one-to-one relationship at word level between two languages. -Failure in describing adequately the syntactic behaviour of words. -They base, generally, the ordering of meanings on e.g. historical development rather than on

		principles such as frequency of wide range use.

Table: 1.1. Drawbacks and advantages of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries (adapted from: Thompson, 1987)

The main differences between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries are two: -The monolingual dictionary has head words in the foreign language.

- The monolingual dictionary defines words in the foreign language.

It is evident to mention other features of monolingual dictionaries which can equally be given in bilingual ones, such as: information about grammatical behaviour, semantic or stylistic restrictions, idioms, collocations, abundant examples, etc. The best way of getting benefit from both is to combine the search of words via both dictionaries, i.e., the best alternative is to go back and forth between the two. Getting into a dictionary is facilitated through the use of a bilingual one, and through the use of a monolingual a great deal of information is reached. Though this circulatory takes too much time and effort, it is well considered as far as the role of dictionaries is concerned in the language learning process, particularly around the intermediate level.

Given the difficulties cited above, it is hardly surprising that learners tend to be reluctant to make proper use of monolingual dictionaries. Repeated surveys of my own classes have shown that very few pupils claim the use of monolingual dictionaries only when supervised. They may use it with certain regularity for comprehension rather than production, and the majority of them admit to making hardly any use of them either. On the other hand, there is a tendency, from our learners, to rush towards the use of frequent recourse, to the least satisfactory kind of cheap, pocket bilingual dictionary.

1.4.2. Efficient Dictionary Use

What is required is a kind of dictionary which follows the general principles that are now accepted as basic for most other language-learning materials. Such a dictionary should be based on an analysis of the needs of individual learners and it should take account why and how learners use dictionaries. Some of the specifications are set up by (Thompson 1987) to help build an efficient bilingual dictionary:

- The dictionary should, like monolingual dictionaries, be aimed in one direction (not like most of bilingual dictionaries: bi-directional).

- It should be easy to get into (involvement of a section giving equivalents in the foreign language for the learner's language).

- It should be easy to understand: Some of the definitions containing information in the foreign language should be given in the learner's language.

- It should give full information about foreign-language headwords, not for learner's language terms.

- It should avoid reinforcing the belief in a one-to-one relationship at word level between the two languages. This includes copious examples in the foreign language with equivalent learner's language through giving explanations and stating differences (mainly cultural and contextual) between the two languages.

Undoubtedly, it cannot be denied that monolingual learners' dictionaries have very important role to play at the advanced levels. Basically, for learners below this level, bilingual dictionaries can do all the useful, efficient and motivating things. Thus, there are already dictionaries which match at least some of these specifications listed above. More importantly, it should be conceived that any learning of the language components must be integral part of a whole process. No grammar rules are taught on their own, nor individual words are presented alone; but the rationale target

in the teaching of any language is to integrate the language skills and components to provide a holistic approach of the language as it is naturally used.

1.5. Integrating the Skills

The general tendency in teaching, so far witnessed, has been the clear-cut separation of the main four language skills into pedagogically separate convenient units of learning. This compartmentalized view of the natural aspects of any language has by and large been superseded as a basis to all courses designers to set skills as closer to real worldusage as possible and not isolated from each other.

Back to the traditional model of language teaching, the skills are oftenlinked sequentially within a unit of learning, hence the course design so far pictured and practiced with middle and secondary text books. For example, a reading passage may precede a listening task, or written homework may be set to recapitulate the grammar points so far taught. The whole process presented in such a way, calls for reinforcement and makes the important points consolidated through the exercise of one skill and perhaps extended further in other skills through a variety of activities.

However, with the development of the principles of communicative methodology, a quite different perspective on the integration of skills came to the fore; namely, its concern goes with the replication of reality in the language classroom. This is quite relevant to the approximation of language use in real-world contexts. Therefore, the startingpoint is to examine contexts of use of the target language by establishing a natural occurrence and sequencing of language skills appropriately to specific situations .i.e. not all the skills are activated every time, in every situation. (Phone calls: speaking and listening, note taking: writing, transmitting information from a book or leaflet: reading).

Being aware of the hegemonies of the communicative development in the methodology of teaching, practitioners have incorporated an integrated-skill perspective directly into teaching materials and classroom tasks. This up-to- date picture of the recent textbooks is clearly shown through present course books in

Middle and Secondary Education. It has been advocated by the advent of the newly adopted method of CBA where competencies of the learner are exposed to a real practice of the language. All four skills are practiced in the context of topic-focused units (such as sport, jobs, and holidays) and are also broken down into a wide range of component sub- skills within the overall goal of providing realistic learning frameworks. Thus, writing covers letters, notes, instructions, descriptions, reports and so on. Further examples of a methodology based on skills integration are role plays, simulation and project work.

Nevertheless, language classroom is by no means the mere replications of reality and it is quite difficult to argue in such a belief. Classroom is simply a pedagogic construct, with its own objectives and own reality, by no means to be entirely equated with the outside world. However, the input of the target language provided in the classroom should be intensified, varied and presented circularly in a way to equate the real-like use of the language and also substitute the lack of opportunities of using the foreign language outside the class. Subsequently, this intensification of the receptive skills in foreign-language classrooms could only help in increasing the F.L. learners' occasions to be exposed to the target language the more possible since the instances of exposure to the foreign language outside the classroom are scarce in deed.

1.6. The Receptive Skills

The receptive skills are listening and reading, because learners do not need to produce language to do these, they receive and understand it. These skills are sometimes known as passive skills. They can be contrasted with the productive or active skills of speaking and writing. The relationship between receptive and productive skills is a complex one, with one set of skills naturally supporting another. For example, building reading skills can contribute to the development of writing.

Yet, the first natural skill humans develop from an early age for the communication needs is listening. Any new-born child is equipped by a sense of

reception of sounds, signals and other sources of interaction. The ear is the organ that perceives the sounds of the language, be it the mother tongue or, later on, a second or foreign language. Situations differ and many factors may determine the reception of the message. In this sense Richards (1985: 189) explicates the process of listening as follows: *"Current understanding of the nature of listening comprehension draws on research in psycholinguistics, semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis and cognitive science."*

The above quote has, by and large, gone above the traditional classical view of skills in general (Active vs. Passive) and that of the listening skills in particular. This dual perspective has explicitly cleared up the notion of "text"-whether written or spoken-as a vehicle for the acquisition and practiceof grammar and lexis on the one hand. One the other hand, the linguistic input has undergone considerable changes to specify the type of listening materialsavailable to set the listening comprehension skill as an active process.

The other receptive skill is by excellence, reading. Here, the eye and the brain couple the efforts ofdecoding any written message.Literacy requires knowledge of the language mechanisms first. Then, other skills are also required to reach comprehension of different types of texts, like: referencing, inferencing, guessing, use of background knowledge and basically knowledge of the language (grammar and vocabulary).

As aforementioned, listening is considered in terms of 'text' and 'process', i.e. the nature of the input and the mechanisms of comprehension. The main concern is, however, how to examine the implications of these two principles for foreign language learners (henceforth; FLL) and for the design of instructional materials. When it comes to set comprehension skills altogether, listening and reading have, self evidently, much in common: **discourse** (as input), **comprehension** (as purpose) **reception** (as a medium). However, the difference of medium will generate a range of input styles that differ from material intended to be read and another to be

received aurally. Still, key distinctions are clearly listed between the two receptive skills:

1.6.1. Listening versusReading

In listening, the medium itself is *sound,* not *print*, and it, therefore, has anephemerality that the written medium had not (unless with some exceptions such as the reading aloud for a formal speech or a news bulletin, for instance). Moreover, the listener has little, if any, control over the speedof input. Information presented in spoken form tends to be less '*dense'* and more *redundant* than in written form. It may be more *repetitive*, too. There is also evidence to show that its (listening)*grammatical*and *discourse structure* tends to be *less complex*.

At the more informal level, speech is typically characterized by such phenomena as: hesitation, pauses, false starts, half-completed sentences and changes of direction and even topic. It is also frequently ungrammatical.

Speech is usually accompanied by a number of supra-segmental, non-linguistic and paralinguistic features such as: intonation, tone of voice, gesture and the like which may act as 'a*ids'* to comprehension, and which are anyway integral to the formulation of speech acts. However, message uptake is/may be interfered and obstacled with different kinds of noise. Conversational speech is cooperative, i.e. it is constructed jointly between speaker and listener as roles shift and meaning develops interactively. Let's represent the two receptive skills otherly:

- **Spoken discourse**: spoken communication is widely regarded as typically time-bound, ephemeral, and informal and produced in a particular situation for particular participants. Spoken discourse (mode) utilizes sound. Spoken interaction involves many essential non-linguistic features such as the paralinguistic use of voice, eyes, face and body and the mutual perception of the actual physical situation.

- **Writtendiscourse**: is regarded as typicallyspatial, static, permanent and displaced in time and frequently aimed at a wide and unknown audience. It is visual.

As there are typical differences between the two, there is considerable overlap and frequent mixture. Concerning the contrast, there are lexical differences in that some words being more likely to occur in speech than in writing or vice versa, e.g., deixis (Language of the immediate situation) is more prominent in speech. A the discoursal level, clausal structure is more complex in writing and the discourse in the spoken form is considered to be typically less formal, more loosely and collaboratively organized with frequent repetition and repair. However, written discourse which both demands and permits processing and reflection is considered to be more concentrated, organized and dense.

Twentieth-century technology has thus blurred the clear differences between spoken and written discourse. Vivid examples can be listed below:

- Ambiguity about whether the many discourseswhich involve reading aloud or which mix speech and writing should be regarded as spoken or written.

- New technologies (sound recording, telephone, radio, and video) have fundamentally altered the nature of distinction, making spoken discourse recoverable, repeatable and transmissible over long distances.

- In the case of radio and TV, it is also often monologue allowing no response from the receiver.

- Electronic mails have given some written discourse an informality and interactivity more usually associated with speech.

- The wider availability of printing has made some written discourse far less prestigious and permanent but highly ephemeral.

In the contemporary world, it is better to think of a continuumrather than a clear-cut difference between the two prototypes.There is, surprisingly, little work on the relation between speech and writing in many communications which make use of both together. In this vein and to a large extent, the degree to which speech and writing do actually differ is still hardly known, and speculation has been widely used instead of logic evidence. It may be, for example, that the grammar of spoken discourse is substantially different from that of writing. Rigorous evidence from the British National Corpora can provide legitimacy for the sake of comparing and distinguishing the two prototypes (Crowdy, 1995).

While the analysis of written discourse allows direct access to the object of study, the analysis of spoken interaction leads merely to an analysis of a transcript (a piece of writing) rather than analysis of the interaction itself. It is so, just because spoken interaction involves many essential non-linguistic features such as the paralinguistic use of voice, eyes, face and body, as well as the mutual perception of the physical situation.Moreover, these non-linguistic features cannot be passed over as they are often crucial to an understanding of the interaction. This is why, and thanks to the technological advances, there should be, first, a growing awareness of the inseparable nature of spoken discourse, para-language and non-linguistic context; and, second, the analysis of this continuum between the two discourse prototypes.

1.6.2. -Activating Schemata in Listening and Reading

It is general truth that the use of pre-existing knowledge providesmotivation and allows our students to anticipate content. Given that, we propose six practical ways about how to activate the knowledge (linguistic/world) background to help students predict what they will hear or read. The six activities include 1) brain storming 2) visuals 3) realia; 4) texts and words; 5) situations; and 6) opinions, ideas and facts.

1.6.2.1. Brainstorming: The first objective targeted through barnstorming is to help generate a large number of ideas and elements related to a topic or a problem. As a first step, all attempts and assumptions around the topic are largely accepted without

criticism. Then, as a second step, the given ideas are shaped down to those which may be logically and practically applicable. This is particularly useful when done before listening to or reading factual passages with one main topic. The way it is/should be done in language classrooms, as will be shown, will activate students' schemata.

These various forms vary from 'one to many', where the individual learner works alone, takes notes; then he shares his own personal ideas with the group. This kind of brainstorming is probably the most common form, leading to peer and/or grouplearning. The process of group work can be enhanced through 'poster display' where a group of learners are involved to make a poster based on a given topic. As known, posters on the wall need explanation and guidance from the presenters to show their capacity of comprehending the listeningor readingpassage and in turn being able to transmit their comprehensibility to the whole class. This poster-based display asks for brain walking, where the presenters and other students are requested to add and enlarge all the ideas from both interlocutors. Another form could also be suitable for the class as a whole to recall a necessary amount of schemata by using the board. Therefore 'board writing' is a space of competition where each group of students is writing his own summary and ideas on a paper, then a member of each group comes up and writes down his group's ideas on the board to be checked and compared with other scribes. A final outcome-form is the teacher's contribution. He writes down correctly (in spelling and grammar) to save time and enable students to copy down a final chosen set of ideas.

1.6.2.2.Visuals: Visuals have many advantages and are manifold: pictures, film clips, picture story, students' drawing, and guided visualization and diagrammed data. Convincingly, as the axiom states,*a picture is worth a thousand words*. More than that, according to multiple Intelligences theory, many students have a visual learning style, i. e. they learn better when seeing images that correspond to the things being taught. Thus, visuals can help activate the schemata relating to any theme and any type of listening passage or reading text. Pictures can be used to help students

recognize the lesson's theme by sending out a message about the topic of the lesson. Simply done, students look at the picture and guess what the text will be about. Actually, pictures that contain some kind of mystery and ambiguity urge students to provide multiple interpretations possible and this makes students dive into creativity of thinking and generate as many ideas as they can, sharing and contrasting views among other peersto, finally, find out what is really happening after listening to and/or reading the passage. Through a 'film clip' students watch the sequence without sound, try to explain what is going on and guess what is being said.Or, students may be given a story told in pictures, generally, in a wrong sequence, to be re-arranged so that the story becomes clear. Once they hear or read the story, they link the images with the hard facts and comprehension becomes enjoyable. Yet, there could be a directed activity where learners are given the topic around and asked to be drawing any representation in relation to it. Then, all illustrations are displayed for all to activate their schemata. Of course, all the above pre-listening/reading activities are enough good for helping students use their schemata before listening or reading. Another pre-activity technique used as a prediction activity is the use of diagrammes. This provides students with a conceptual framework for their later listening and coming reading. The task is to complete, correct or add necessary information through a chart, table or graph. The best example is the Venn diagramme. In here 2 elements are described, compared and contrasted showing differences and common qualities.

1.6.2.3.Realia: It acts as a link between the '*world of the classroom*' and the outside '*concrete*' world. Generally approved, objects bring with them memories and associations that can spark off student's ideas. Yet, these associations and representations are aspects of our schemata. An amusing activity is to bring photos of different ages showing people in varied fashion and hairstyles are representing the change. The realia here can be a rich source of language. Guesses can go beyond what is seen; they (students) are involved in making guesses about the type of person, favorite things, hobbies, food, etc. Still, other types of realia are available for classroom use, among which maps, brochures, menus, calendars, etc. For example,

maps and guides can be used as stimuli for conversations about places and travel or features of towns and cities. Brochures, too, are particularly useful.

1.6.2.4.Texts and words: Throughout many occasions, people may proceed for reading before listening to get information needed. This is the case of television viewers or even radio listeners who consult reviews of some special shots or story cases before setting the listening and watching process. Even at the level of university lectures, students may read before any proposed lecture within the programme. This anticipatory endeavour may give hints of the main traits of a listening passage which in turn gives us vital information or motivate us to investigate a topic further. Also short-reading texts can also be useful as an introduction to the topic in question; to highlight any controversial themes or to pose a question that gets students thinking. Examples of such are many: Let's take the case of a court affair where students are given extracts to be read with some details but without revealing the final judgment. Here, students can read the first part of the text, predict the judgment and then listen to find out. Another example is instructing students to fill gaps of some transcripts. This is a purely pre-listening activity and effective exercise to make students listen for details after trying to complete a text with blanked-out words or phrases. The same activity is given through songs and poems where some rhyming words are deleted, or, put simply, a text containing incorrect phrases voluntarily to be read, and then corrected after listening to the right script. Eventually, any linguistic background of students should be stimulating. As a matter of fact, students' mother tongues(L1) can be used for a listening experience where some pieces of news are given in that language, hence comprehension is assured. The goal of such an activity is to lighten the cognitive load. Afterwards, students are asked to listen in English where focus will be mainly on language issues rather than on content, and accuracy of guessing will profoundly deepen than usual. A final trial of visual reading of texts or parts of a text is the presentation of some key words to the students. These may constitute the pillars upon which the students build up the story as a whole starting from prediction to final composition after listening.

1.6.2.5.Situations: Developing a story or simply a dialogue can be rooted from certain familiar situations that students already experienced in their short-term life, like answering to the phone or ordering in a restaurant. This familiarity with the context is quite revealing as representations in people's minds of routine situation, hence guessing and prediction of any script containing these typical situations is easily reached. The other complex, stillambiguous situations are within the setting up of headlines, and students make guesses.In here, the students' task is to unravel theambiguities to work out what happened, before listening to check. From another angle of analysis and to challenge students' easiness and facility, a problem-solving situation is given to students as a pre-listening stage where the task is to come up with ideas for solving it or a list of questions to ask. A pleasant, tricky list of lateral thinking problems attracted the researcher who would like to introduce it as a brain-teasing activity for any potential reader of the present paper. The examples are below:

a. Mickey gets home. Lola is dead, lying in a pool of water. Tom is sitting in an armchair, looking pleased with himself. There is broken glass on the floor. Tom killed Lola, but he is not charged with murder. **Why not?**

b. A: What are you doing here you who are not from here?

B: The one who brought me here is not far from here

If you eat ne, he'll eat you too. **What are A and B and what is the setting?**

Answers: 1) - Lola is a gold fish and Tom is a cat

2) - A is a fish and B is a worm, both are in a river.

1.6.2.6. Opinions, Ideas and Facts: Back to Schemata and its perennial role in solving comprehension matters, the use of student's views and opinionscan not only activate but broaden their Schemata in return. This reciprocal relationship can be exploited positively through the KWLcharts as a profitable context. The latter stands for what students know (k), what they intend or want to know (w) and just after the

listening task, students put down what they have learnt (L). Another anticipatory task can generate through the provision to students with the subject of the listening passage; then students; in pairs or groups write down a piece of summarizing passage to be compared, peer corrected and presented as a pre-listening task.Finally, a class correction is done after listening to the passage in a collaborative way.

Below, are some propositions of high-level thinking directed to upper-intermediate learners requiring analysis, evaluation and interpretation. There could be some factual data, personal ideas and sustained opinions to revolve around the use of schemata and establish logical reasons for listening.

If you think education is expensive, try ignorance

Good teaching is part preparation and part theatre

The goal of 'Education' is to replace empty minds with open minds.

1.6.3. Establishing Reasons for Listening and Reading

Once our students' schemata have been activated, we need to give them a purpose for listening and reading. Doing so, there must be a few principles shaping the procedure: 1) - make the purpose realistic; 2) - make the goal achievable; and 3) get students involved.

The most common way of establishing a reason for the students to listen or read is setting questions beforehand. Among the useful types of questions we may pose is the type called "signposting questions." This type points the students to the right directions just like a real signpost. It also makes listeners aware of the key points of the text. This practical method is generally undertaken through a title that encapsulates a text. The teacher, then, asks his students to ask as many questions as possible to bring about the main ideas from it. This way, students generate a simple signposting question. So, what about the other types of questions posed by teachers and materials? Certainly, there is a need to be aware of the difference between '*high-order questions*' (refection and thinking), '*low-order questions*' (basic, factual

information) and the least authentic set '*display questions*' (simple and correct answers needed). In whatever scale of difficulty, any type of questions can be useful for students as a way to activate their schemata and merely invite them to think.

1.6.3.1. Pre-Teaching Vocabulary

As stated in many linguists' findings and through valid pedagogic instructions, teachers are requested to pre-teach a number of the unknown words which constitute the basic of comprehending a text or the key elements for completing a task. That way, learners feel preliminarily involved and the goal nearly achievable. Being an essential step towards the understanding of a passage, pre-teaching words gives surely confidence to the students and enlarges their knowledge about the suggested topic. Such an eadeanour should be undertaken in respect to certain constraints that decide upon the value, the number and utility of the words to be introduced with a suitable lap of time accordingly.

So, decision upon a given vocabulary itemto be taught or not, is the teacher's task. First, time is one of the several factors to be taken into account in pre-teaching vocabulary. Another factor is whether the word itself is worth the effort. If the word has a very limited use to learners, it is probably not worth teaching it. However, if the teacher decides it is worth the effort, then, efficiency is the key. The undertaken procedure is somehow simple and easy. The item in concern is taught in a familiar context, students check the concept to be grasped, pronunciation is controlled and then a following instruction gives the opportunity to make some practice, like: "put it in a sentence and personalize it". To a very ideal extent, students will have the opportunity to say the word, recognize its sound, but still, more ideally, the goal is to be able to recognize the same word in connected speech and in different contexts. For this goal to be reached, the more the new word is processed, the more likely students are able to recognize it during sequences of listening and reading. The other factor is the number of words to pre-teach, because the fewer, the better. The claimfor the limitations depends mainly on students' memories, the previous exposure to English, the memorability of the words (easy to remember or not) and

the practicability that follows the presentation of the words, i.e. the amount of processing the students do with the words.

Some critics (Chang and Read) claim for non-effectiveness of pre-teaching vocabulary among other pre-listening/reading activities. They back up their position by the fact that the newly-learned vocabulary is usually not accessible to the student in mid-phases of their listening to or reading of the passages. Put otherly, most students cannot think quickly enough because they simply need to process the spoken and written form of the word and simultaneously its meaning. The culminating point raising this problem lies on the fact that if students have come across the lexical item for the first time (just a few minutes before listening or reading)they may neither recognize the word in connected speech nor be able to recall its meaning during a given real-time processing of the comprehension phase. Once again, opportunities to process the word over time are the utmost successful element helping vocabulary items to be automatized.Chang and Read, through their study, reveal that pre-teaching of vocabulary is a way to deviate students' attention toward typical words rather the focus on the meaning of the passage as a whole. Moreover, the guessing ability that student should practice regularly will be endangered if the pre-teaching of vocabulary takes over.

The Middle ground solution between pre-teachings or not of vocabulary is to take logical and pedagogical right decisions about which words to pre-teach, how to pre-teach them and whether the meaning of unknown words can be inferred and checked in the post-listening/reading phases. Still, there are other points to completely avoid. These are:

-Don't let the pre-listening or pre-reading stage drag on (take over other activities). Make it short and fast paced.

-Don't give away too much information to the students because part of the interest of listening or readinglies in receiving new information. The pieces of information caught when listening and reading will be used to solve a problem to confirm an

idea, develop a thesis. So, the rationale behind any pre-stage is to introduce merely the topic rather than to give all the answers.

-"Don't do a listening before the listening". If the teacher says too many things for the sake of explanation and easing the burden of comprehension then he is talking and the students are listening to him before the listening passage is read. Simply put, students will be listening twice in the pre-listening stage (teacher talk) and during the listening phase. The same is valid for reading if done similarly.

-In sum, any preamble should be short, not giving away too much information, students are allowed to contribute and focus is mainly on what the students will hear or read.

1.6.3.2. Tuned Input

The consistency of the input, being of central importance to the elevation of Listening and reading, has been raised as a prominent question in language learning. The input in question could be any aspect of the language in general and mainly some of the target grammar and vocabulary for the language class. To a more natural level of language use, input may contain discourse markers, examples of pragmatic use of language, features of intonation and features stipulating the use of different styles, forms and modes. Doing with input, there are huge opportunities of incidental vocabulary learning. This is to say that when students pick up on words and phrases by chance (simply listening or reading), and by circumstance rather than by the design of materials, unconscious acquisition takes place.

Incidental vocabulary learning occurs very often when the topic and the vocabulary introduced are of personal interest to the listener. This type of vocabulary learning happening beyond any demands of a course book but tightly related to individual necessity or interest is often more memorable for students. So, they are more likely to retain these words in the long term (Wilson, 2008: 19).

The input can be controlled at different levels depending mainly on the student's level of understanding and the objectives behind. We can make a distinction between 'roughly-tuned' input and 'finely-tuned' input. The first kind of input, though it is blended with many aspects that elude comprehension, it permits listeners to understand the message. The other 'finely-tuned' input is more carefully controlled. It does not contain complex grammatical constructions or vocabulary far beyond the students' current level. It is, on purpose, designed not to distract the students from the target grammar/vocabulary. In practice, however, learners benefit from a combination of both types of input. Simply commented, one type is used for more natural examples of language use, the other is to provide crystal clear examples of target grammar and vocabulary.Coming back to the more natural way of presenting the language, the communicative language Teaching(henceforth, CLT) promotes the use of language to real-life use rather the contrived pieces of language. CLT claims authenticity of materials contexts and responses. CLT incorporates new findings from pragmatics discourse analysis and sociolinguistics. This way, language is shown through real communication instances instead of 'idealized' versions. In sun, CLT in general and comprehension in CLT, particularly, requires from the students to use the information they hear or read just as we do when we interact outside the classroom. Still, too many pros and cons on the matter of authenticity and simplification of the message are held, each camp arguing intelligibly and convincingly according to different contexts and objectives. In classroom context, the teaching of language is targeted by grammar, vocabulary and other language components to be displayed, explained and mastered. Tuned-input is set to alleviate the numerous difficulties faced when listening to real-life contexts, or reading for a survival objective. Listening practice and reading engagement, therefore, in class can help to overcome these fears. There is an element of safety in language classes. Any listening deficiency in the class privacy is nothing, but a learning procedure. As for reading, any lack of fluency or inability to grasp meaning is temporal and enhancing proficiency. This is to certify the teacher's role in preparing students to succeed in any listening or reading task, thereby building his students' confidence.

1.7. Teaching Listening Comprehension

People never listen without a purpose, except perhaps in a language class (Gary Buck)

Listen a hundred times, ponder a thousand times, speak once" (Turkish proverb)

The teaching of listening in FL programmes has gained positive steps forward. Among these, there has been the use of pre-listening activities to enable learners apply their prior knowledge during the listening phase. Accordingly, listeners should continually be trained for better perception within the context of listening to comprehensible input and clear-enough class activities. Necessarily, and most importantly, teachers should focus more on the process of listening rather than just the possible (right) outcome of listening activities. That is why a focus on both cognitive and metacognitive aspects of learning to listen can better help learners to self-regulate their comprehension. Ways of processing the spoken language for understanding by listeners and the design and use of teaching materials for the teaching of the listening skill constitute the principles of that skill. There is a relatively tight link between these principles and pedagogy leading to a full development of listening comprehension skills. These skills can fold into a whole chemistry of variables having a direct pedagogical impact.

Unlike native speakers, F.L. listeners will not be able to activate the full range of strategies in comprehending a spoken discourse. First of all, proficiency level is all but primary to reach approximately full competence though other factors, such as: motivation, age, aptitude and others may interfere. Concerning the skills of listening comprehension, this kind of impediment may have a variety of manifestations: Firstly, a learner, for instance, may have insufficient grammatical knowledge rendering him somehow reluctant at engaging in higher-order skills of guessing meanings or anticipating. That specific learner with low grammatical proficiency will certainly have the focus at a much localized sentence or clause to decode syntactically its main components (morphemes). Admitting that this step (grammatical decoding) is successful, then very little of the utterance will be

understood. In here, we may have a vivid recall of Wilkin's (1974) statement: "….Without grammar very little is conveyed..." Secondly, the lack of lexical knowledge is a particular aspect in F.L. comprehension. The gist is proved by mere evidence of nonsense words in oral as in written discourse. Instead of using all the discourse clues (topic, their own knowledge, the context……), they try to make sense of what they have heard as completely new sounds having new echoes with guessing. This may lead any F.L. listener to focus only on phonological features. Overall, these problems point to a tendency to play safe by over-using low-order strategies rather than risking the apparent insecurity of attempting to listen for gist and process meaning. Yet, there are many plausible reasons that go beyond the syntactic-lexical barriers and other kinds of obstacles to efficient listening comprehension. These are summed up by Underwood (1989) as follows:

-The learner/listener cannot control the speed of delivery.

-He cannot always have things repeated.

-He has a limited vocabulary.

-He may fail to recognize signals.

-He may lack contextual knowledge.

-It can be difficult to concentrate in a foreign language.

-The learner may have established certain learning habits (wish to understand every word).

Such a questioning about the ways leading to successful listening encompasses the availability of certain teaching practices coupling not only learner's current competence but taking into account listening itself as a skill. Coming to the kinds of teaching materials now generally available, they reflect two main aspects, namely: a) - the nature of the spoken language and, b) - the micro-skills identified as

components of efficient listening. In the same line of thought, Richards (1985) has converted these features into a set of criteria for evaluating listening activities.

-content validity: Whether the tasks are representative of the micro-skills involved in listening (as opposed, for example, to being closer to activities that require reading skills, or perhaps external knowledge not dealt with in the text).

-Comprehension Vs. memory: Whether the tasks activate Learner's processing mechanisms, or merely require them to retrieve information from memory store. This is closely related to the testing-teaching dichotomy, where exercise material may require evidence of understanding without a concern for the steps by which that understanding might be achieved.

-Purposefulness and Transferability: Whether the tasks at least approximate real-world listening goals, so that skills learnt are then transferred to comparable situations.

-Authenticity: Whether input, at least, resembles natural discourse. The natural spoken language features include sentence stress patterns, strong and weak forms and make use of the supra-segmental features.

These features, once analyzed and related approximately to their connected dichotomic parallels, should incorporate the process features or fairly the conventional sequence of tasks classified as :i) Pre-listening, ii)-while-listening and iii)-Post-listening-activities. Each stage should be representative of a subset of the whole listening skills and strategies.

-Pre-listening activities: The principle function of tasks and exercises at this stage is to provide orientation to the input topic and to activate learner's own knowledge and frames of reference. This may be done in a variety of ways: with pictures, open discussion, a reading text on the same theme, prediction of context, or with more specific language practice such as the identification of relevant lexis or a set of pre-listening comprehension questions.

-While-Listening: Another dichotomic relation looms in both parallels, i.e. the lower/higher order spectrum should parallel with the intensive/extensive listening. The latter, in fact, was presented differently by Richards (1985) as 'global/partial' comprehension (listening for gist as opposed to picking up on specific points). The same paralleled items are shown differently as mechanical/meaningful and communicative responses. In other words, there could be another way of ranging from, say sound discrimination to overtly expressed personal response. Depending on proficiency levels, listening tasks may be placed on a scale of 'closed' to' open' where the degree of control and support ranges from providing a detailed frame work for listening through to the point where learners are expected to construct such frameworks for themselves, by organizing the incoming data, making inference, interpreting attitudes and assessing relevance (Rost, 1990).

-Post listening: Activities, in this stage, are mainly intended as language remediation or reinforcement rather than as skills development. This is to say that post-listening activities comprise a range of possibilities, including lexical and grammatical remedies. It can even go beyond the role play, writing practice and other language components' consolidation. Besides the purely pedagogical matter, a methodological aspect can be reached where students may have taken notes in a transactional lecture-style and context. The reinforcement then comes out by using those notes to construct a written assignment.

Though the three stages outlined above trace a clear picture about the process usually followed in listening comprehension tasks, there remain unfathomable points of encoding the messages heard. And, many of the listening materials exploit the skill from the already shown stages by following concordance steps: alongside pre-listening activities, there is some of written input to be expanded later on by intensive listening.

1.7.1. Processing the Spoken language

Actually, the listener should not be a mere, passive recipient of a given input, but instead as an active processor who interprets and creates meaning as utterances unfold. In fact, a listener can/should activate a range of perceptual and cognitive strategies which could only help in perceiving, analyzing and comprehending the given discourse. Accordingly, models of comprehension processing recognize a role for linguistic analysis of a text as well the background knowledge which greatly assists the listener with interpretation. In like manner, Garman (1990:305) notes that a number of terms are used in the literature in association with comprehension. These, include *perceptions* (initial processing of input), *understanding* (the end product), *recognition* (stored memory element) and i*nterpretation* (a creative process going beyond the strict properties of the signal). Therefore, more emphasis has been placed on the listener's own contribution to the interpretative aspects of processing comprehension. In Anderson and Lynch's words: '*the listener has a crucial part to play....by activating various types of knowledge, and by applying what he knows to what he hears and trying to understand what the speaker means'*. What the listener has in his possession as information goes beyond the strictly linguistic one. Simply, because this background knowledge is divided into general knowledge: Subject-specific knowledge and cultural knowledge. Thus our knowledge of a given topic will be activated by mention in the text, and that knowledge will play an important and significant role in how we interpret the text. We, characteristically, short-cut a lengthy interpretative process by using background knowledge to select the most likely interpretation, without, perhaps, being aware that other interpretations are available.

An example taken from Anderson and Bower (1973) shows clearly the direct incorporation of world knowledge into what has been delivered in the text: "*George Washington had good health.*" Subjects (listeners) who know that *George Washington* was the first president of the United States will certainly receive the full information as follows. "*The first president of the United States had good health.*" Special problems, however, still face any F.L listener in reading comprehension of a spoken text; these are not only those mentioned above (phonological, supra-

segmental and the like) but partly due in some cases to lower relevant knowledge (associated with the F.L. culture and world) and also perhaps to higher comprehension collocated by teaching procedures that place emphasis on word-by-word understanding. Moreover, the everlasting problem of second language (L2) transfer (from French to English in our case) puts the listeners through two systems to work with.

In a down to earth analysis and at the most basic level, a listener needs to be able to segment the incoming stream of sound into recognizable component units such that word and phrase boundaries are identified. Within the case of English, comprehending this language is complicated by the phenomenon of linking sounds, where a word may be perceived as running into the next and thus misidentified; simple examples are:, '*heal eyes*' or '*he lies*', '*might rain*' or '*my train*' and ' *all the time…*'' or '*all that I'm*'…'. It is also necessary to recognize a number of other localized features of the spoken language, particularly clause and sentence boundaries, contracted forms (*I'd've done it if I'd time*), patterns of stress at both word and sentence level including so-called 'marked' stress (e.g. heavy-`handed and `heavy-handed 'sentence) and supra-segmental aspects (such as: elision. Linking…)

At the semantic level, the listener is, therefore, requested to organize speech (when processing) into meaningful segments. This processing includes the use of linguistic clues to identify discourse boundaries, recognize redundancy and use the processing time in anticipating and thinking ahead.

The table below shows a simple list of the two levels aforementioned.

Processing sound	Processing Meaning
Phonological	Semantic
-Lower order/automatic skills	-High Order skills of organizing and interpreting.
-Recognition of sounds, words	-Comprehension.
-Localized: the immediate text	-Global: the meaning of the whole.

-Decoding what was said	-Reconstruction after processing meaning.
-Perception	-Cognition

Table: 1.2. Processing Sound and Meaning (adapted from McDonough and Show, 1993:135)

As aforementioned above, comprehension not only takes place along the various deep and surface parameters of context but knowledge, be it linguistic or world knowledge as well. Other parameters may be looming largely in the form of strategies which are not activated merely in a cognitive vacuum, but also depend on the number of speakers, their role relationships, the setting and the overall purpose of the discourse. The interpretation of meaning is, hence, all dependent on the different ways and procedures undertaken by the listener. The comprehension of the spoken message goes through a dimensional aspect prompting out pragmatics, semantics and, of course, syntax. As quoted in Richards (1985) and Leech (1977) ' *the semantic structure of a sentence specifies what that sentence means as a structure in a given language, in abstraction from speaker and addressee; whereas pragmatics deals with that meaning as it is interpreted interactionally in a given situation* ' . All listeners have knowledge and experience (regardless to the degree and quality) which they will bring to bear in the process of comprehension. Though frames may be divergent, listeners will have certainly a given frame of reference for, say, holidays, sports within completely contrasted cultural backgrounds.

1.7.2. **The Teaching Approaches to Listening.**

During the communicative Language era, Listening was gaining its right position and eventually earned its rightful place. Actually, within this trend, Language was taught for face-to-face communication, and listening was rendered as an important skill. It was, mainly, the channel for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) and, for Swain (1985) an important aspect of inter-language communication necessary for Language acquisition.

Many developments and changing perceptions concerted the efforts (Anderson, Lynch) whose recital insights from different disciplines sustained the basis of the main characteristics of listening and how to teach it. These cognitive and metacognitive theories (psychology, education, communication studies, linguistics…) provided an important framework for describing foreign language listening (Goh, 2002, 2005; Vandergrift, 2003a) and instructional methods and techniques (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005, Goh, 2002b, Vandergrift, 2003b, 2004).

1.7.2.1. Cognitive Approaches to Listening

In the process of text comprehension, meaning is not simply extracted from the input; it is constructed by listeners based on their knowledge of the language. Furthermore, in conversational listening, comprehension is an outcome of joint action where listeners and speakers carry out individual acts of communication in a coordinated manner (Clark, 1996). This kind of pragmatic view of listening is echoed by Rost (2002), who asserts that *''listening is an intention to complete a communication''* and most appropriately, listeners, during the listening act, are required to make inferences and assumptions about speakers' intention, amongst other things. (Rost, 2002: 40).

Anderson's (1995) model of perceptual processing, parsing and utilization was one of the cognitive models to be applied in foreign language listening research. It goes systematically into the interactive processing that takes place in short-term memory all along with listening strategies and listening problems. In fact, it is the connection of multiple elements (connectionist model) that practically proposes processing through a spreading activation of interconnected, or simply, associative neutral networks (Bechtel and Abrahamsen, 1991). Indeed, the creation of such networks in the brain of learners, help in building parallel processing of language (Hulstijn, 2003).

That illustrative model above accounts for the integration of audio and visual information and makes connection between working memory and long-term memory. This typical kind of processing can bring a new perspective where multiple modalities of input are increasing well for both in-class and out- of- class listening experiences (e.g. Gruba, 2004). The different models of cognitive processing models are tightly linked to cognition and may have common implications for foreign language listening. These are as follow:

(a) For processing information to take place, attention must be directed at the input and some amount of decoding and analysis of the signals must occur. In other words, listeners must perceive and recognize words in a stream of speech and at the same time parse it into meaningful units or "chunks". While these processes are automatized in competent language users, lower-proficiency learners depend a great deal on controlled processing of the linguistic information. Accordingly, one of the key objectives of listening instruction is to help learners recognize and parse linguistic input quickly. However, when visual input (e.g. facial expressions, gestures, illustrations, videos, slides) is available, it is often an integral part of the message, so the information will have to be processed simultaneously with auditory input (Gruba, 2004). For instance, gestures and facial cues can facilitate the comprehension of videotaped lectures.

(b) When processing new information, an existing knowledge is acted upon. The use of prior knowledge (known commonly as top-down processing) assists learners (listeners) in constructing interpretations that are complete and meaningful. Top-down processing can help F.L. listeners bridge gaps in comprehension and construct a reasonable interpretation without depending too much on linguistic features (Izumi, 2003). Prior knowledge can be generated from parallel activities (reading, viewing) that accompany a listening event, such as watching a live debate or attending a lecture. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) refer to this as the "inter- textual dimension" of comprehension. Needless to assert that prior knowledge facilitates quieter

processing. As a matter of fact, when listeners have access to the topic, differences in working memory consumption between 'native' and "experienced non-native" listeners are not statistically significant (Tyler 2001). So, top-down processing is obviously important; however, learners (listeners) miss opportunities to apply prior knowledge because their attention is focused entirely on trying to decode and construe the speech stream.

(c) Success in speech processing depends on the pace of processing information, i.e. during listening, information is processed under severe time pressure, hence the inability to process speech successfully. So, processing that demands fewer intentional resources would clearly be advantageous and this is often referred to as automatic processing. The latter, in listening, can occur at the phonological and grammatical levels. Backing up the matter, Jefferies, Ralph and Baddeley (2004) state that "automatic Lexical recognition can have a significant effect on listener's understanding and recall". In the same line of thought Segalowitz (2003) adds that " *automaticity can vary both quantitatively (speed of processing) and qualitatively (restructuring of information)* ", i. e. in the case of non-proficient listeners, many comprehension processes are controlled; that is they take place under the learners' conscious attention. Because when hearing the input, listeners try to match sounds to the contents in their mental lexicon. Doing so, they combine top down and bottom up strategies, along with metacognitive strategies to direct their attention, monitor their interpretation and solve the problem. In general, skilled listeners apply various strategies in an orchestrated and harmonious manner (Goh, 2002b; Vander grift, 2003a).

1.7.2.2.**Metacognitive Approaches to Listening**

The listening process never occurs in vacuum, aural texts and utterances need to be interpreted in their wider communicative contexts. This is why in face-to-face communication and interactive (speaker-listener) processing is in focus to determine the real communicative aspects of a given conversation cautious of the fact; the learning process can take place, which is completely integral to successful

comprehension. In natural out-of-class discussions no prior preparation is enhanced to activate the world/topic knowledge unless the listener is well-versed in the given chosen topic. Even when pre-listening activities (in-class-discussions) are used to activate prior knowledge, the focus is merely limited to that prior knowledge of the introduced contents and topics. From such a practical issue and in light of the importance of learners' awareness and control in learning, the listening instruction should offer platform learning experiences to help listeners discover and review listening processes. Put differently, if learners are not taught how to listen, listening activities become nothing more than disguised forms of testing learners' existing listening abilities which only serve to increase anxiety about listening.

In sum, listening should be approached within the broad frame work of bottom-up vs. top-down approaches. The matter concerns all process about lexical segmentation and word recognition; however, the latter is all about metacognitive awareness-raising approaches. There should be, then, an integrated pedagogical model that may/can develop automatic and self-regulated comprehension process of the skilled listeners. Also, it is needless to stress the social dimensions of listening that involve the use of communicative strategies for meaning negotiation.

1.7.2.3. **Bottom-up vs. top-down approaches to listening**

The reasons behind the difficulty of the listening skill are diverse. As prescribed by researchers, these difficulties could be included under two separate models: the bottom-up and the top-down. The first model puts stress on the decoding process of the smallest units of sounds: the phonemes and syllables, hence leading altogether to meaning. On the other side, the top-down model emphasizes the use of background knowledge to predict content. This type of knowledge may refer to world knowledge, knowledge of the speaker or content. That's why, globally, the top-down model is dependent on the listener; however, the bottom-up model depends more on the sounds heard.

Though there has been much debate about which model is most salient when we listen to foreign languages, we may assert ,from recent research findings, that we

use both processes simultaneously when we listen; Hence, something that is known as the '*interactive model*'. Simply stated through research on both models, assumptions of errors in listening can be bi-sidedly valuable. It could be assumed that listener's errors in listening comprehension were caused by mishearing individual sounds (words) eg. a report from an academic listening study states 'one student hearing "communist" when the lecturer said "commonest". As it could, also, be assumed that listeners make mistakes in listening tasks, especially if they know the topic, hear some familiar vocabulary and make wild guesses about the content. So, the interactive model is, to a great extent, the utmost model to bridge the gap from both cited models.

a. Bottom-up Approaches:

Bottom-up processing in listening includes the perception (listening is a receptive skill per se) of sounds and words in a speech delivery. So, when an adequate perception of lexical information does exist, listeners can easily use their background knowledge to interpret the input. The bottom-up approach to teaching listening stresses the primacy of the acoustic signal and focuses on helping learners develop critical perception skills. A major challenge facing, especially FL listeners (for SL listeners, the challenge is less acute, since second language status provides never the less, suitable acoustic ear-training familiarity at the level of use in the community) is word segmentation listeners, unlike readers, do not have the luxury of regular spaces that signal the beginnings and ends of words. They (the listeners) must parse the stream of sound in to meaningful units, and word boundaries are often hard to determine. Even if they know a word, FL listeners may not always recognize it in concatenated speech. Word-segmentation skills are language specific and make integral part of bottom-up processing. These procedures are so solidly engrained in the listeners' processing system (acquired early in life) that they are involuntarily applied when listening to a new language; but still making listening to a rhythmically different language particularly difficult.(Culter, 2001). This problem is particularly heightened for lower-proficiency listeners (Goh, 2000; Graham, 2006). This is why, pedagogically, listening instruction must help learners cop with these difficulties, so

that they can identify words in the stream of sound. The prosodic features such as stress and intonation and others, like elision, assimilation and the use of weak forms constitute important cues that can help identify words in a stream of speech (Field, 2005). According to Hulstijn (2003), FL listeners can learn to use segmentation cues through appropriate instructions giving these learners opportunities to "accumulate and categorize acoustic, phonemic, syllabic, morphological and lexical information"(Hulstijn, 2003:422). In sun, these processes are amenable to instruction, as suggested by Hulstijn, as follows in a six-step procedure: (1) listen to the oral text without reading the written version; (2) determine your level of comprehension; (3) replay the recording as often as necessary; (4) check the written text; (5) recognize what you should have understood; and, finally, (6) replay the recording until you understand it without written support. In order to develop word-segmentation skills, learners need to be made aware of these phenomena (aspects of connected speech), pay attention to them, and, during listening practice, replay them so that they can puzzle them out themselves (Field, 2003).

Word-recognition training can take many forms. Some possibilities include: analysis of parts of text transcription,, dictation, and analogy exercises. A very good illustration is introduced through the listening to "i-1 level" texts, i.e. , aural texts where most words are known, can develop automaticity in word recognition when FL listeners not the slight discrepancies between the aural form and written form of the text (Hulstijn, 2001). Another case in point, Wilson's (2003) proposal of using 'the dictoglos technique' as a tool to alleviate the listening burden, hence comprehension. It is, clearly put forward that after listening, FL listeners are guided to notice the differences between their reconstructed text and a written transcription of the original. This technique has the potential to improve perceptual processing because if forces listeners to focus on their listening problems, consider the reasons of their errors, and evaluate the importance of those errors (Wilson, 2003). Still, another technique for teaching FL listening proposes exact repetition and reduced rate. According to Jensen and Vinther (2003), when FL listeners are exposed to

verbatim repetitions of videotaped dialogues in different modes can help in detailed comprehension and acquisition of phonological decoding strategies.

The advent of digital technology has further enhanced the use of audio and video texts for out-of- class and individual listening practice, and, even for class instruction (Gruba, 2004; Hoeflaak, 2004). With the latest pod casting technology, FL listeners can not only listen to any chunk of text they choose, but can listen to a wide variety of media broad casts in and out class whenever they feel live (Robin 2007).

b. Top-down Approaches.

The top-down parameter in Foreign Language listening includes mainly teaching learners to reflect on the nature of listening and to self-regulate their comprehension processes. The principal aim behind is to develop learners' metacognitive knowledge (Goh, 2008). The latter refers to an individual's understanding of the ways different factors act and interact to affect the course and outcome of learning (Flavell, 1997). In the same line of thought, Aaron (2003) states that this procedure if well followed, it can contribute to effective self-direction and can have positive effects on the outcome of learning. Thus, the procedure itself can greatly help if fatherly divided into three components of knowledge. Below is a briefing of some metacognitive knowledge as adapted from Goh (2002b).

Person knowledge: knowledge concerning the personal factors that might support or hinder one's listening, e.g., anxiety, or problems during listening.
Task knowledge: knowledge concerning the purpose of a listening task, its demands, text organization and structure, factors that could hinder the listening purpose (e.g., listening for details, listening for gist.)
Strategy knowledge: strategies useful for enhancing listening comprehension, e.g.,

strategies for dealing with listening problems and checking ones interpretation.

Table: 1.3. Metacognitive knowledge about listening (adapted from Goh, 2002)

Learners' metacognitive knowledge about listening can be developed in several ways. One method that is easy for both teachers and learners to use is listening diaries (Goh, 1997). Diaries with selected prompts can direct learner's reflections on specific listening events so that they can evaluate their performance and take positive steps to improve their listening skills. In this regard, teachers can plan process-oriented activities as part of their listening lessons (Liu and Goh, 2006; Vandergrift, 2002; Zeng, 2007), a method which has also proved to be even with young learners. Also, in small groups and teacher-led discussion, learners share personal observations recorded in their listening diaries. In this sense, they can learn about new listening strategies through these collaborative dialogues which can be a pulse be for met a cognitive awareness-raising. However, individual met a cognitive reflections can be further enhanced through the use of introspective instruments, such as questionnaires. There are indications (Zhang and Goh, 2006) that the use of such questionnaires may encourage listeners to apply strategies they consider to be useful.

A recently developed questionnaire, as instrument to help both learners and teachers in listening comprehension success and positive achievement is the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ). It is grounded in research and theory about SL/FL listening and scores are significantly related to listening success (Vandergrift et al; 2006).

MALQ questionnaire can be used by: 1) - SL/FL listeners to evaluate their own understanding process; 2) - teachers to diagnose student awareness of those processes; 3) - researchers to track the development of metacognitive knowledge about listening as a result of instruction in listening processes.

Raising metacognitive awareness through listening diaries, process-oriented discussions, and questionnaires are indirect methods for improving listening performance. Is it possible for learners to step back from real-time listening, examine

their listening processes and develop their own thinking? what it takes to be an effective listener?

In a way to answer the above question, an effective listening curriculum should be put forward as active, strategic and constructive process. Since the listening process is an individual mental process, its teaching should also be led by individuals. However, the task is so hard to achieve on one hand, and the teachers are unable to manipulate learners' mental processes during listening on the other hand. The solution is provided through tasks and activities that can strengthen their ability to control those processes for themselves (Goh, 2002; Vander grift, 2002, 2003a). In this sense, listening (as an individual process) can be backed up by collaborative activities in which students put their focus on the nature and demands of a listening task. This is why activities that include the application of strategies during listening lessons should/must enable listeners to experience these processes themselves. One way is to include/incorporate strategies in a lesson sequence (Field, 2001; Liu and Goh, 2006; Vander grift, 2002, 2003 b). In here, listeners are guided at specific stages to use the metacognitive processes underlying successful listening to regulate their comprehension. Below is the figure where stages of listening instruction and related metacognitive processes are set accordingly with Vandergrift's (2004) model:

Stages of listening instruction	related metacognitive processes
1-Planning/predicting stage: *Once students know the topic and text Type, they predict types of information And possible words (lexis) they may hear.	1- planning and directed attention

2- First listen/verification stage *Students listen to verify initial hypotheses, Correct as required, and note additional Information understood.	2- Monitoring
3- Students compare what they with peers, modify as required, establish what needs resolution and decide on the important details that still need special attention.	3-Monitoring, planning and have written selective attention.
4-Second listen/verification stage: *Students selectively attend to Points of disagreement make corrections And write down additional details understood.	4- Monitoring and problem solving
5-Class discussion in which all class Members contribute to the reconstruction	5-Monitoring and evaluation.

Of the text's main points and most pertinent Details, interspersed with reflections on how Students arrived at the meaning of certain Words or parts of the text.	
6- Final listen/verification stage: *Students listen for the information Revealed in the class discussion which They were not able to decipher earlier And/or compare all or selected sections Of the aural form of the text with a Transcription of the text.	6- Selective attention and monitoring.
7-Reflection stage: based on	7- Evaluation
the earlier discussion of Strategies used to compensate For what was not understood, Students write goals for the next Listening activity. A discussion of Discrepancies between the aural And written forms of the text could	

Also take place at this stage.

Table: 1.4. Stages of listening instruction and related metacognitive processes (Adapted from Vandergrift, 2004)

This pedagogical cycle develops both top-down and bottom-up dimensions of listening, and metacognitive awareness of the processes underlying successful FL listening. If hypothesis formation and verification initially orchestrated and prior knowledge judiciously applied to compensate for gaps in understanding, the listener may/ will acquire implicit knowledge of listening processes. Besides, if all or parts of the aural and written forms of the text are matched, the listener will become aware of form-meaning relationships and will gain word-recognition skills. It is important, however, that the exposure to the written form takes place only after listeners have engaged in the cognitive processes that underlie real-life listening. Because, if listeners are permitted to have access to the written form too early in the cycle, they risk developing an inefficient online translation approach to listening is little (Eastman, 1991).

Guiding learners through the process of aural comprehension as part of regular listening activities can help them to improve overall as listeners (Field, 2001; Goh, 2002a; Vander grift, 2002, 2003a; Wilson, 2003). Moreover, students read repeated and systematic practice with a variety of listening tasks that activate the

metacognitive processes used by skilled listeners; however, all tasks should be grounded on the same metacognitive cycle. More importantly, at an initial step in the listening process, students may be requested to set a plan for their undertaken procedure before they embark on the task. This recommended pedagogical cycle has strong theoretical supporting that it closely parallels the research findings demonstrating implicit learning through task performance (Johnston and Doughty, 2006). It is also has empirical support. The case in point shows the successful gains obtained by less skilled listeners taking benefit from this kind of guided listening practice (Vander grift, 2002). In the same line of thought, advanced-level FL listeners can also benefit from this kind of listening practice? Marshal (2007) found that a low-proficiency and a high-proficiency group of learners exposed to this listening pedagogy during intensive right-week language training were better able to regulate listening processes. More than that, the finding of the procedure shouted significant results of how the listening training impacted the learners/listeners' self-regulatory ability, strategy use, metacognitive knowledge, and listening success, particularly for the low-proficiency group. Also, the Aural-written verification stage proved to be particularly valuable for developing auditory discrimination skills that may lead, later on, to more refined word recognition skills.

1.7.3. Listening Myths: Conceptions and Assumptions

In the teaching of the listening skills many of issues relatedly are still unresolved and constitute the grey areas because of their difficulty or simply due to misconceptions in understanding them. As a matter of fact, it is generally assumed that listening, being internal and individual cannot be taught. Yet, truth is, to a certain extent, there; since any listener maps what he hears or listens to against his own knowledge or his expectations. In here, teachers can intervene by providing continual exposure to appropriate listening material with carefully sequenced practice activities. These types of drills may give the students opportunities to listen successfully and build confidence. If reinforced with other strategies, teachers can also guide their students towards more efficient listening. Another misconceived matter, is the passivity of listening. Actually, listening is not passive but extremely

active. The activity in question happens in the mind, the mind of the listener who guesses, predicts, infers, and criticizes and more than that interprets.

Guessing, predicting, interpretation and inference are the many levels indicating the receptive rather than passive attribute of the listening skill. How and why do listeners act when listening? So, when we listen, the acoustic signal (the sound wave) is analyzed according to a mental checklist of multi-faceted sound which varies from recognizable, semi-recognizable to completely unrecognizable. Hence, if the acoustic signal is unclear, it is perhaps due to background noise or to the speaker's accent. In such a situation, the listener makes guesses using context to reach the information needed for comprehension. Listeners, accordingly, imagine the word (s) based on context. This to say that our background knowledge sometimes dominates the acoustic signal we hear. On another scale, listening can be a process of hypothesizing in real time. As an utterance (a unit of speech; for example, a sentence) is made, we hypothesize (predict) about its meaning. And, as the next utterance is following, we may be able to confirm or revise our prediction. Sometimes a hypothesis is confirmed or negated even before an utterance is complete. As a case in point, we hear: '*the packets of*' and we already prepare ourselves for a noun completion, 'of what?' but, the sentence continues: '*the packets have been delivered*'. Here, the revision is simultaneously done about the hypothesis made beforehand. Furthermore, at some point of the listening process, we may be able to finish someone else's utterance before being completed by the speaker himself. This is a pure prediction in action which is based on knowledge of either the speaker, the context or simply of how language works. Departing from the point that speakers do not always say what they mean or mean what they say, listeners are always trying to extract the truth from what they hear by using inference or interpretation.

What makes listeners facing difficulty when listening, though using interpretation and inference, is the fact that utterances are always in a context (cultural, personal, situational). Another parameter of consideration is listening to foreign speakers (foreign talk) or to original version speeches (native speaker's talk). In monolingual

classrooms; it is easier for students to understand their teacher and/or each other than a native speaker. These students share the same first language (L1) and are more likely to deal with certain problems in similar ways. A good example could be 'consonant clusters' as found in words like «through, synchronize". Moreover, other conditions should be analyzed, such as: the speed at which a speaker talks, experience of and exposure to the target language. With more evidence, most interactions in English now occur between non-native speakers who may have leant the language using similar syllabus, methods and techniques and would, therefore, be familiar with common structures. Another point to make is that our learners should be exposed to varieties of English as it is spoken here and there all along the circles of use (Kashru, 1972). Still, some of the strategies used in listening to L1 can be transferred to F.L listening. The problem, however, lies on the amount of concentration and the use of compensation strategies. This is to say, that F.L listeners need to guess more than L1 listeners and rely more on context in order to compensate for gaps in their knowledge of the language, though highly proficient. Apart from formal speeches and scripted passages, words may exceed the necessary input for comprehension. Effectively, it is the case of redundant words (um, er, well) which in return may greatly help in making listening easier. Redundancy gives listeners time to assimilate new information. And, while listening, certain types of words are more important than others for the comprehension of messages. This could not be realized or reached unless students have reached a basic level of competence in the language. Simply put, content words can be revealing as function words can be. Put otherwise, the two examples below show the importance:

Word categories: (content/function) 1- It is easy to understand this sentence:

President Algeria announced new law, without, the-of—a--.

2- However, in the following two sentences:

-I took the gun <u>for</u> her.

-I took the gun <u>from</u> her.

Here, there is a huge difference of meaning. So, it is too simplistic to say that articles, prepositions, etc. are unimportant. Therefore, students can recognize which words are significant and which they can ignore once they have a command of the basics of grammar and vocabulary, hence reaching automaticity. So, in other terms, the competent listener, automatically ignores certain words and keeps on others to reach understanding. The other last assumption is made on the use of scripted passages. Though it is considered as an invaluable resource, it should by no means be introduced while listening. If done so, it will create a divided attention situation. As a procedural issue, the script could be used at the final stage of listening sequence, i.e. students should already have heard the recording at least twice. As a means too, the script is used to solve language/listening problems and to confirm or infirm their ideas (hypotheses, inferences, guessing) about what they heard.

1.7.4. Listening Facts (principles)

It is not easy to make students familiarize themselves with discourse patterns: intonation, pronunciation, rhythm, etc. While listening, this could create some fears. However, listening practice in class can help to overcome these fears. There is an element of safety in language classes-most of the mistakes our students make and the problems they have in comprehending English will not cost them anything in the privacy of the classroom. From that principle, the role of the teacher is to prepare students to succeed in any listening task in class and still motivate them to carry on listening out of class to simply help them build their confidence. This could be one of the ways (facts) showing the grey areas and unresolved issues that abound on the topic of listening and how to teach it. Such problematic issues stem from an incomplete understanding and false perceptions of the main principles that should be, first analyzed:

-The first principle is how to make (teach) people (students) listen.

In fact, listening is an internal skill based on mapping what we hear against our expectations and what we know. Back to the role of teachers, they can provide continual exposure to appropriate listening material with carefully sequenced

practice activities which give the students opportunities to listen successfully and build confidence. They can also guide students towards more efficient listening through the teaching of strategies

-The second principle is that listening is not passive, but it is extremely active.

Yet, all the activity of listening happens in the mind by guessing, predicting, inferring, criticizing and, above all, interpreting. Guessing occurs by analyzing the acoustic signal according to mental checklists. These checklists include three-fold aspects of recognition. Some sounds are recognizable, others are semi-recognizable and some others unrecognizable. The most problematic issue is when the sound is completely unclear. This is due perhaps to background noise or to the speaker's accent.

Nonetheless, there are some peculiar realities that go hand in hand with the teaching and learning of the listening skill. These are mainly incorporated in the degree of difficulty of perceiving the foreign sound and the means to minimize the burden through pedagogic alleviations in the form rendering foreign listeners able to well perceive the foreign sound. This can be done by means of a well-known receptive tool- dictation. The procedure however should be undertaken in and outside the classroom and necessarily through well-designed texts that exhibit learners interest and motivation.

1.7.4.1. Enabling more than Teaching

Teachers should enable the listening skill rather than teach it. Exercises designed to build decoding skills are necessarily integrated into foreign language instruction. Beginners learn the sounds, meaning and written form of common words and phrases. As learners progress, they are more able to identify sounds within words and content within phrases. In classroom exercises, we stress listening for meaning enabling the listener to discard irrelevant information in a message and concentrate on the relevant portion. Within vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation exercises, we introduce the spoken from of the word or phrase and warn apt listeners that it is

reduced from the written form. Through repetition, the learner's decoder is enabled to attribute meaning to the reduced signals. As decoding signals are refined, confidence increases and learners become enabled to identify sounds and meaning outside the controlled classroom environment.

A functioning internal decoder allows the skilled listener to understand or predict the main topic of the message. The skilled listener draws from his memory bank of previous experience with the spoken language to assist in decoding the message. Previous experience provides confidence. A skilled listener needs to recognize that 100% understanding is not needed to derive meaning from the message. The learner gradually becomes able to filter the extra sounds and missing sounds that may or may not affect the message.

A skilled listener can recognize a reduced language where native speakers reduce the clarity of speech signals to the minimal required for comprehension. Language is most often reduced by contraction and elision (dropping of sound).

1.7.4.2.Why Listening is Difficult?

The difficulties in listening are manifold. They can be purely phonological, environmental or typical and acoustic. Let's start exposing an anecdotic illustration of the acoustic/receptive pattern of a foreign language, typically the English Language's phonic disparity and specificity. In the 1980, "A speech recognition Technology device" has been proposed by a software company. Its objective was to convert a spoken message into written form after being recognized by the computer. Keeping to the topic, the participant (in front of the computer) uttered 'It's hard to recognize speech'; the computer promptly flashed up, 'It's hard to wreck a nice beach'. It is a small illustration of the problems involved in listening because of connected speech aspects. It's needless to explain to homophonic similarity between the two utterances, unless for one specific case of assimilation of voicing affecting to voiced consonants/z, b/ in words (recognized and beach). Admittedly, knowing the form of a word is no guarantee that students will recognize the spoken form. As known, recognizing word boundaries is problematical, but also the irregular spelling

system of English does not help matters. Another example (still from Wilson, 2008) such as: 'Mr. Clough from Slough bought enough dough' would probably cause problems to pronounce, even if they knew the words because of the variety of ways in which one combination of letters (ough) can be pronounced. The remedy is sometimes those tricky "brain teasing oral drills in and out classrooms, but they don't cover the gap definitely.

There are also other types of hindrances in listening, like the slips of the ear or simply called mishearing. The other type could be purely linguistic, including unknown words, lexical density and complex grammatical structures. Yet, other non-linguistic factors could be related to familiarity of the topic, text type and mainly cultural accessibility.

Listening could be very encouraging if the listener has enough opportunities to adjust the situation according to his capacity. This is 'reciprocal' listening that involves interaction, i.e. conversation. It allows the use of repair strategies. In other words, a listener can ask for clarification, ask the speaker to slow down, etc. The 'Non-reciprocal' listening gives no opportunity to the listener to contribute, for example while watching television or listening to the radio. In these situations the listener's lack of control over the input is a crucial issue. The listener has no influence over factors such as the speed at which the speaker talks, the vocabulary and grammar used and no recourse to asking for repetition of a word if the speaker makes it difficult to grasp and understand. For all the reasons cited above, non-reciprocal listening is usually regarded as more difficult than reciprocal listening; and that the mode of delivery is a vital factor for reaching ease and understanding.

At a more practical level, teacher's experience can reveal another outstanding factor, which is the learner's (listener) style and ability. As some students get demotivated easily and lack the ability to sustain concentration, some others learn better. According to Multiple Intelligence Theory, people possess different intelligence; such as linguistic, logical mathematical, spatial, bodily kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalist. These can be related to different

preferred modes (styles) of learning. Most people at some unconscious level realize they are more predisposed to one way of learning than to another. Someone with musical intelligence may choose to learn a language through listening to songs. Besides students' individual dispositions; some temporary characteristics that affect listening might include anxiety, tiredness, boredom, etc. At the other end of the scale, some environmental conditions may affect listening performance such as: the temperature of the room, background noise or defective equipment which affects the clarity.   Another crucial factor is the role of memory in listening. In other terms, as we process a word, another word is incoming; and there, the mind gets flooded with words. This can lead to 'overload' which is one of the reasons why students switch off. Therefore the memory load can be reduced if the listener activates his prior knowledge. We describe this process as activating schemata. Thus, activating the student's schemata allows them to tune in to the topic and helps them to develop their expectations of the input, a crucial factor in getting them to predict content.

1.7.4.3.Dictation: An entirely receptive activity

To initiate learners for an intensive listening session, there is no way better than dictation though somehow rear- placed by the advent of the Communicative approach. The reason for that neglect is that it is a teacher-controlled investment, no communicative is done during and it is a mere transcription of sounds into morpheme. Nonetheless, it rests on some teacher's view that dictations still have/will have benefits. Among some of the researchers, Davis and Rinvolucri included, tem good reasons for using dictation in class are listed where active-responses are held by students during and after the task. The gist taken from is dictation is that is deals with mixed-ability and large classes on one hand, and provides access to multiple interesting texts on the other hand. Also, a multitude of tasks is presented through listening first, writing then, reading later on and speaking at the end. All of over-animated and show/lazy students are kept with the task. But, before scheduling any dictation tasks, teachers should plan thoroughly and carefully the dictation process

by putting forward and beforehand some questions shoes answers are provided on the spot.

-How long the text is? : *long enough to be complete and not too long to get bored.

-Are there any unknown words? *the probability of existing new words necessitates a pre-teaching, or inferring if essential to meaning; otherwise they will distracting.

-What speed should be used? *Normal speed to join the two ends (quick and slow learners).

-Where will be the pause? *At natural breaks (sense groups/units of meaning)

-How to know when are students *simply by watching them to clarify ready to continue? Any ambiguity or carry on.

-How to deal with punctuation? (by stating it loud: comma, full stop, etc.)

Otherly given, a common approach for using dictation in class is sketched as follows:

1- Read the passage at full speed. The students listen only.

2-Read the passage in chunks, leaving time for students to write

3-Allow a few minutes for students to check individually

4-Read the passage again

5-Allowa few minutes for students to check in pairs or groups

6-give feed back to the whole class (hand out the passage or write in on the board)

To avoid problems in dictation, like writing down without actually thinking about the content, the activity should be set through activities demanding interaction and decision-making or the parts of students. Here, are a number of dictation-mentioned principles.

*Interactive dictation: taking initiative to ask questions while listening, makes shy students willing to interrupt, ask for spelling of some (new) words and forces them into action. This is possible if the teacher begins dictation by encouraging his students to take part interactively.

*Dictoglos: The culminating element through full speed reading is primarily to force our students to face the hardships of connected speech, if possible, with all its aspects. A after a few readings on the behalf of the teacher from an original text version, students altogether try to collaborates, using their taken notes on areas of grammar, link words and sentence structure, to compare their own version with the original. They join meaning to form rather than relying only on their memory.

*gapped dictation: this is to make short pauses during the reading of a text to let students find out the word marking the pause. Any word is accepted if it makes sense, though it is not correct. It may begin individually, then in pairs or groups to be confronted at the end, with the teacher's version.

*False Facts dictation: This is like a beguiling game where deliberate factual mistakes are done in the dictated passage. Generally, the erroneous facts relate to an already learnt context or something of general background knowledge. This activity asks students to be very attentive in their listening so as to detect the faulty data. The same activity can be practiced in grammar, writing or phonology.

-Other starting elements for dictation as a tool to raise awareness of the ability to understand an oral passage is still linked to word recopion and phonological recognition leading to semantic com apprehension. These elements, like: graded dictation, running dictation, translation dictation and transcribing are not completely focused on listening only, but generate procedures and processes in students (listeners) to reach an overall meaning using different keys provided by every and each activity that surely may provide psychological support for engaging to listen to native speakers, though hard the first time(s).

1.7.4.4. . Listening in and out Classes

The primary purposes of listening to humans are information gathering and pleasure; and certainly there are other reasons, such as: identification, duty and need. Then, it is necessary to look at the reasons for listening specifically to English. The major reason is access to the world per se. It goes without saying that the spread of international news has been dominated by Britain and the US. Today, although there are a number of large media organizations growing rapidly throughout the world, most foreign news on the world's television screens come from either Reuters (UK) or APTN (a US company). (Wilson, 2008: 16). Besides these media giants, the BBC was founded in 1922, after which the label of, standard/formal English has started emerging as BBC English. As a case in point, the English language has spread through this "pleasure/leisure" canal, primarily Hollywood and pop music. For many students, music is a common contact point with English as it may/ can constitute a great motivator, especially for teenagers. In fact, these young learners, who have shorter concentration, span and little experience of the world to apply in their learning process of the foreign language (English), enjoyment is one of the main criteria for any activity.

Another evident criteria for any tourist to be equipped with is the means of communication, hence English. In this sense, English is very often called the lingua Franca, i. e. wherever you go, if you use English, you are understood. Simply stated, it is a tool for international communication. Eventually, when crossing borders for work purposes or academic requirements, communicating and comprehending English becomes mandatory. Examples are diverse, such as: conferences on modern field of inquiry (biotechnology, quantum, physics…) sailing (sailors have their own dialect called 'sea speak' based on a simplified version of English) Business (where in the age of globalization, English is seen as the common language for people from disparate nations). Adding to these implicit requirements, job prospects, status financial reward, opportunity for travel, business expansion beyond borders and many individual and personal reasons need to operate in that "common" language of the world. It has become a sine qua non condition to enter global issues of 'real world' reasons.

The centrality of listening as a skill has fluctuated historically from grammar-translation method to audio- lingualism; listening was the least valued. After the popularity of Chomskyan approach (generative grammar), more humanistic methods were established; emerged, then, the work of Stephen Krashen who reinforced the central role of listening as a key to 'knowing' a language. According to Krashen (1983), *Languages are acquired when people understand messages* (he called these messages 'comprehensible input'). Listening then was at the fore front of Krashen's Input Hypothesis. Accordingly, the consistence of the hypothesis is known from LAD (language acquisition device). A child, during the silent period, is taking in the language, storing it up, categorizing words, parsing verbs, examining meaning (simply said, listening); then begins to speak. Krashen's input hypothesis and other theories were put into practice and were designed to constitute the Natural Approach which, convincingly appealed to common sense, became extremely influential in the field of SLA and F.L. and mainly, placed Listening at its centre preoccupation.

1.7.4.5. Good Listening Texts in the Language Classroom

What makes a good listening text for language classes?

The answer can be summarized into four factors: believability, relevance to the listener, new information and appropriateness in terms of language level (Wilson, 2008: 25). These four factors, in the context of language classroom, can be divided into two separate groups, which are content and delivery.

a. Content
Interest and entertainment, cultural accessibility, speech acts, discourse structures, density and language level constitute the main parameters of consideration of a given content of Listening a text in classrooms

- Interest Factor (entertainment)

Perhaps the most vital factor of all is interest. According to Wilson; '*If the text is intrinsically interesting, and particularly if the students have a personal stake in it, they will listen attentively.*' (Wilson, 2008: 26). The best way to ensure interest of

students at the level of texts introduced for listening, teachers opt for the presentation of a selective list of topics and subtopics to their classes to choose from. They (texts) will be intrinsically interesting to their students and at the same time matching their needs, hence raising the interest factor. Still and relatedly linked to the notion of interest and '*having a stake in the text'* is the factor of entertainment. If texts are somehow funny enjoyable and gripping, a built-in interest factor in guaranteed.

- Cultural Accessibility

Accessibility as a general issue is required. More specific issues include certain concepts which do not exist in some cultures. Given that situations and contexts differ largely from one cultural setting to another, some recordings (listening texts) may be incomprehensible. For example, a recording which describes gangs of children in 'Witch costumes' celebrating a typically Western (American) ritual would be of very little sense in an African context. However, if the aim of presenting such a listening text is to teach new cultural information, it works; but, if the aim was a pure Listening practice, then the passage would be unsuitable. Such presentations of texts out of the reach, knowledge and interest of the students would leave them confused. This is because the number of words they had never heard before may be considerable, certain other words that the listener may have heard but constitute specialized terms in this specific context, and some straight forward-sounding expressions which make no sense unless students know what happens in that particular context. In sum, teachers need to make sure that the students have the content knowledge to make to text accessible, and this knowledge extends to cultural issues.

- Speech Acts

A speech act represented in a listening text may be fixed or dynamic. Fixed speech acts may include airport announcements, buying stamps in the post office or

transactions in shops. A fixed or static speech act is predictable in structure and less variable. It refers to unchanging states or objects which are easy to be kept in mind. The dynamic speech act is represented through narratives, extended discussions, and lectures on abstract ideas (existentialism) which tend to flow, twist and turn. This is why static speech acts tend to be easier to grasp and that abstract texts are difficult as asking the listener to keep in mind a number of (obscure) concepts. Thoroughly to the point, for lower levels, the more predictable and familiar the speech act is the more easily it will be understood.

- Discourse Structures

They are related to the organization of a text or a piece of it. Let's give the organizational pattern of a funnel paragraph as a sample where a text begins by describing a general trend and then goes to specific details; or, another common pattern in cause effect writing, where the organization (discourse structures) goes on giving the cause to be followed logically by the effect. In such a pattern, for instance, the listener, after hearing some causes of a given act/phenomenon, may anticipate in predicting what the effects will be. Hence, prediction is an extremely important part of listening and still indicating the receptive rather than passive attribute of the Listening skill.

- Density

It refers to the amount of information in the text. Some typical questioning may come with: Does the speaker repeat main ideas, back track, clarify points? Why such a questioning, then? Simply because, if the speaker continually moves on to the next point without stopping to clarify, expand or exemplify, this may constitute a burden on the listener's perception and understanding. Redundancy, surely, gives listeners a better chance to help him process the content of the previous utterance. So, the less redundant is the speaker the more demanding listening is on the behalf of the listener.

- Language level

It is a linguistically related pattern: Lexis and grammar. A listening text containing many new lexical items and high-level grammatical structures will

constitute difficulty. Besides grammar and Lexis; long sentences full of noun phrases, packed and over loaded with meaning, present another level of complexity and makes it hard for listeners to process. Therefore, levels of formality need to be considered as far as students' level is concerned accordingly. However, very informal texts (containing slang and idioms) may still cause difficulties

b. Delivery

The listening input in classrooms comes, generally and primarily in two codes: live talk and recordings. Live talk is vivid and real interaction of student-to-student, teacher-to-student, or guest speaker (lecturer) -to- student. One of the benefits of this kind of interaction is that the listener may have the opportunity to influence the delivery through body language, facial expression, gesture, interruption or verbal interaction. As for the second type, it may vary in the modes of delivery, like: CD or DVD, audio or video and cassettes. Through these means, the delivery is not influenced at all.

Both codes, for sure, have benefits and drawbacks, but the rationale behind such expository facts is as follows: what aspects of delivery do we need to take into consideration when it comes to choosing good listening texts? These required aspects are grouped in the following list: length, quality of recordings, speech and number of speakers and accent.

✓ Length

Most FL listeners can only cope with a limited amount of input. The reason is that, every time they listen to an utterance (a piece of speech, or a sentence) they need to process language at the same time as receiving continuous messages. In other terms, while listeners try to understand what has been said, more input is constantly arriving; thus, students are over loaded with information. This is, in fact, a mere reflection of the difficulties of listening for extended periods of time in a foreign language. Here, autonomous listening should be enhanced asking learners to engage in individual, out-of-class extensive listening where relative ease in terms of comprehension and the use of gist questions are required.

✓ Quality of recording

In many classrooms around the world, much of the listening input comes in the form of recorded materials. The quality of these recordings is, then, of perennial importance constituting a substantial aspect of delivery. Unlike past and old recordings, nowadays, professionals are producing recorded materials in high quality, with no distortion or lack of clarity, be it an audio or video input.

✓ Speed and number of speakers

Rapid (colloquial) speech delivery is still the major hindrance is listening and comprehending whatever input. The rate of natives in informal contexts (dialogues, movies, etc.) makes the perception under the threshold level. However, a moderate, controlled speed in speech delivery rather helps. Besides, the number of speakers is a further issue. The more speakers there are, the more potential there is confusion, especially when there is no visual back up for the listeners.

✓ Accent

The English present nowadays all over the world poses a major questioning in the learning process of the language itself: which type of English should FL learners listen to and take as a model? General belief and assumption claim that 'Standard British English' constitutes the best model; while American English is seen by others as the variety to be learnt. The gap is also bridged by a new trend launching the idea of learning and teaching 'International English' with free cultural belonging from either. Yet, it (the international variety) has fewer idioms and less colloquial phrases. It is a variety belonging to all speakers of English that can be understood by everyone. Nevertheless, a growing belief puts forward the idea that students should be exposed to a variety of accents as they become more proficient. This belief is reflected in recent professionally -produced materials. Actually, an outstanding feature these days is that most English in the world is spoken by non-native speakers, so, teachers feel needless to opt for a given accent, but approximate an acceptable, suitable good model for students to listen to.

c. **Authentic Vs. Pedagogic**

According to Widdowson, authenticity is '*something to do with the purpose of the text and the quality of response it illicit'*. In other terms, if the text exists for a communicative purpose other than teaching language, then it is authentic. However, the everlasting questioning turns around the model to which authenticity is related. Differently stated, does authentic language (always) represent the best model to be presented to F.L learners? On the other side of the coin, we find an alarming lack of authenticity in the majority of the situational dialogues contained in course books. Among the critics, Carter comments on such pieces of discourse (texts/dialogues) on the fact that they represent a "can-do" society, and problem-free situation. That is to say, these conversations are almost always neat, tidy and predictable. More than that, even the question-and-answer sequence is compared to as a quiz show representing nothing like the real communication in real situations. Still, differences between authentic and scripted speech may reveal other sides of benefits and drawbacks for any learning situation, depending on learner's level and ability and of course on their appreciation accordingly. Some of these differences are listed below:

Authentic	scripted

-Overlaps and interruptions speakers	-Little overlap between speakers
-Normal rate of speech delivery	-Slower(even monotonous) delivery
-Relatively instructed Language	-Structured Language, even more than written Language
-Incomplete sentences, with false starts, hesitation	-Complete sentences
-Background noise and voices	-No background noise
-Natural stops and starts, that reflect the speakers' train of thought and the listeners' ongoing response	-Artificial stops and starts that reflect an idealized version of communication (where misunderstanding, false starts never occur)
-Loosely packed information, padded out with fillers.	-Densely packed information

Table: 1.5. Differences between authentic and scripted speech (Wilson, 2008: 30)

In sum, the overall presentation of discrepancies between authentic and scripted speech is set to gain clear insights on the objectives of both models to be wisely worked out by teachers in their teaching process of the listening skill. Commonly known, features of the authentic dialogue include overlapping sentences, much repetition, misunderstanding and negotiation of meaning, false starts, back channel devices(um, err) and non-standard forms. These elements, purposefully, are cleaned up in the scripted dialogue which does not represent a genuine listening

practice at all. It simply (represents) exemplifies a grammar point, provides a clear model of the rules of question form, exposes new lexis related to the topic; and is not only easily understood but economical in terms to time and space too.

The best clue could be native speakers slowing down their rate of speech and using simplified vocabulary (authentic-based vs. semi-scripted dialogue). So, before we move on to strategies used by listeners, let's summarize what makes a good recorded text, be it authentic, semi-scripted or scripted. The table below shows some features to be considered with check outs on the right side:

Feature	Check-outs
1-interest	-will this be interesting for my student?
2-cultural accessibility	- will my students understand the context and ideas?
3-speech act/discourse structure	-does it discuss abstract concepts or is it based on everyday translations?
4-density	-Does the information come thick and fast or are there moments in which the listener can relax?
5-language level	-Is the majority of the vocabulary and grammar appropriate for my students?
6-length	

7- quality of recording	-will I need to cut part of the recording because it is too long? Is it long enough?
8- speed	-Is the recording clear? Will background noise affect comprehension?
9- number of speakers	-Do the speakers speak too fast to my students?
10-accent	-Are there many voices, potentially causing confusion?
	-Is the accent familiar? Is it comprehensible?

Table: 1.6. Features of good listening texts (Wilson 2008: 33)

1.8.   Listening Strategies

Defined, in broad terms, a strategy means *the conscious, deliberate behaviour of a learner that helps in enhancing the learning process and allowing him to use information more effectively*. Thus, problems in listening to a foreign language also require new approaches where strategies take place and necessarily, teachers should help out. Let's consider the groupings of strategies into four strands: cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies which all fit with an unfamiliar task in a given context.

Cognition tackles whatever immediate task where a learner may find the needed information in his L1 or L2, helping into predicts the content. As for metacognition, it is related to learning in general with long-term benefits. For instance, learners of English may choose the strategy to tune in to BBC or other British TV channels for improving their listening capacities. The socio-affective strategy, however, requires from the learner to interact with other speaker to be affected by their attitude towards learning in search for developing confidence. Any successful completion of a task in the target language is a reward. This is why good listeners use various strategies in accordance with the type of the task (difficult, unfamiliar) and with the context. The variety in all is artificial. They may listen twice a week to a radio broadcast (metacognition), take note on the key points (cognition) and also meet and converse with fellow students to rehearse previous learnings (socio-affective).

The culminating point is how to initiate our learners in using these strategies. In other terms, as teachers, can we inculcate in our learners the readability to become strategic? The answer is positively set since some of the strategies are teachable. As a case in point, in exam situations, teachers may teach their learners how to take notes during listening to a passage. The importance of predicting should also be pointed out by knowing the category of the missing word needed in a given gap. So, in listening to FL, we must recognize that there is a problem somewhere; at the level of a new lexis, a difficult structure, a false perception of the sound or the language used in the passage is filled with strange cultural hints or accent. Still, teaching listening strategies can be achieved by simply using both world knowledge and linguistic knowledge to help predict what will be said. Examples are multiple; give students headlines, titles or key words and make them guess additional content before listening. Or, provide a gap filling to be completed before listening. As they listen, they can themselves see how accurate their predictions were. This kind of procedure is used to show which words (categories) naturally follow other words. It also helps in getting to grips with certain collocations, idioms or known expressions. As stated above, students may be requested to identify key words, fill in charts (who, where, when, why) to make sense of note-taking. Coming back to the socio-affective

strategy, students, after achieving a listening task, may be asked to compare their answers with fellows to highlight discrepancies in interpreting.

Over the usefulness of the many strategies that a teacher can introduce, students need frequent and systematic training in these strategies and opportunities to put them into practice. Knowing the importance of listening strategies, many educators and materials publishers have included many ideas on strategy use which can be summed up in the table below:

Strategy	How to teach it	When to teach it/Type of text
-Be ready to have a plan to achieve a given task	Clarify what students will need to do with the information they hear by asking concept questions, i.e., understanding ideas rather than facts. These encourage students to verbalize what they need to, thus clearing up any ambiguities	-Teach it before students listen. It can be done with any listening text.
-Use world knowledge to predict what will be said.	-Before listening, discuss the subject and how the speaker might view it. Give students headlines, titles.	-Teach it before students listen. It can be done with factual texts, eg: news, discussion of a topic,

	They predict additional content before listening to the recording.	lectures.
-Use linguistic knowledge to predict what will be said	-Use gap-filling' activities where students are required to complete the passage before listening. As they listen, they can see how accurate their predictions were.	-This can be done before listening just after a first listening. It may concern any text containing collocation, idioms, or known expressions.
-Monitor performance while listening.	-Make pauses at regular intervals during the listening process to check comprehension. Ask W-H questions (who said.., why …? What is the topic…?)Ask students if their answers are logic.	-It is occasionally taught during listening so as not to interrupt the listening. Preferably, it is done with slightly extended texts.
-Pick out only salient points (selective listening)	-Give tasks that require listening for detailed information. Gap fill exercises may be used.	-The strategy is taught while listening by directing the attention of students.
-Take notes, writing down	-By using W-H charts,	-A pre-hand advice is

relevant information.	teachers help students memorize and remember details. Taking notes is relevant to the tasks.	required to what to note down and how to write it. Note-taking is a perennial strategy.
-Approximate note-taking of a difficult word(unknown, misperceived)	-Push students guessing on a given phonetic approximation.	-News broadcast is excellent text types. The strategy is useful as practice for exams.
-Listen for key words for topic identification.	-Ask students to pick out words that belong to a lexical set.	-Generally, it is done after the first listening. Use factual texts and songs.
-Check with other listeners.	-At a given step, ask students to compare their answers with mates to highlight discrepancies	-Generally, it is adopted after listening. It can be used with any listening text.
-Reconstruct orally or in writing.	-Tell a story or anecdote at full speed several times. Students work together to reconstruct the story, gradually adding details.	-It is worked out while listening. Factual or fiction stories are usually used.
-Listen for transition points	-Teach linking expression/devices. Pause	-These already taught expressions must be

	the recording after the expression (so, few, the more…) and ask students what comes next.	practiced before listening. You can use factual texts, stories and anecdotes.

Table: 1.7. Some listening strategies (adapted from Wilson, 2008: 35-37).

The above strategies are a sine qua non condition of planning a listening course. In sum the strategies and processes required depend on situation, type of input and reasons for listening. Yet, if we compare listening to a lecture with listening to a friend gossiping, we can highlight some of the differences. A lecture may require a delayed response and involve note-taking for later recall; however, gossiping contains an element of interaction as the listener comments and asks questions. In other terms, lectures are often part of educational programmers and contain information that listeners need to pass exams with or further their knowledge; whereas gossip is simply pleasure- oriented. All of these elements make a difference to the way people listen requiring listeners to cope with different types of listening. Accordingly, any good listener is one with sensitive attention to context. To show such an intensive attention, a good listener will act as follows:

- ✓ Look people directly in the eyes all the time
- ✓ Nod the head very often to show interest
- ✓ Repeat what the speaker has said in one's own words.
- ✓ Be aware of the speakers' body language.
- ✓ Interrupt the speaker often to show he is listening.
- ✓ Think about what he is going to say while the speaker is talking.
- ✓ Use body language to show he is attentive.
- ✓ Try to predict what others are going to say next.
- ✓ Ask questions if he doesn't understand…
- ✓ Note the meaning of silences

So, this cumulative list of behaviours could be largely or partly acted out in face-to-face conversations; but, what about good listeners in a foreign language? The answer

goes deeply and relatively to motivation and topic-interest. Some F.L. Listeners may be good when listening to a wonderful youth song, others to football commentary and both very poor when the teacher plays a recording discussing the weather or pollution. It all depends on the state in what is being said. Very surprisingly, teachers witness sudden awakening of some of their learners becoming outstanding listeners. In the class, hands shoot up, questions are asked to clarify issues, and notes are written in details simply because the topic is relevant to the listeners. So, F.L. listeners become better listeners when they are motivated. Once they are, they tend to think ahead, predicting the meaning of the whole rather than sticking at parts or unknown words. They engage, also, as participants in an interaction rather than passive receptacles of input. Moreover, they take ownership of what they hear; rather than just answering comprehension questions or completing a given task. They not only create their own agenda in concordance with their goals, but will have the ability to focus on valuable information that will allow them to achieve those goals. Surely, these motivated listeners will engage in listening to different discourses in different ways, adapting their strategy use accordingly.

A good listener will realize that ambiguous issues are still unavoidable but manageable; instead of becoming frustrated, they bear with until complete resolution. The how-to process is through a calculated guess about the meaning of what they hear which is held in memory with no final judgment since there is possibility later on to be checked. This perseverance makes good listeners experts at self-monitoring. They become completely aware of the possible inconsistencies in their preliminary interpretations. Since all listeners (especially F.L listeners) suffer from moments of confusion, the good ones react differently from the others by identifying specific problem areas rather than switching off. They use some of the strategies (see table X) to alleviate the burden. For instance, they make a phonetic approximation of the ambiguous words. Overall, then, good listeners are strategic. Let's move to see the type of texts these students might usefully listen to.

1.9. Listening Sources

Sources of spoken discourse vary largely from natural humanistic voices to technological recorded material. This variation includes: teacher talk, student talk, Guest speakers, text book recordings, TV (video, DVD and radio) songs, and the internet.

1.9.1. Teacher Talk

Though listening to the teacher is the most frequent and valuable form of input during lessons, students, themselves, are not aware that they are practicing the skill of listening. The reason of such a fact is that teacher talk is not formally tested, nor even students are asked to complete a task during the teacher's delivery, hence no marks are assigned. This is what makes many teachers and students not regard teacher talk as a way to practice listening in class. However, what makes a teacher talk of enormous benefit is that the teacher is in complete control of his own speech delivery and can slow down, speed up, repeat key points, reword difficult vocabulary, paraphrase complex structures and mainly he can modify the input when necessary. To get accustomed to the sounds of the language, teacher talk is extremely useful, enabling students to interact hence responding to their needs and motivation and the provided input can be easily manipulated. At the very least, it (teacher talk) consists of excellent roughly-tuned input.

Teacher talk is/should be normally planned beforehand. The planned input should regard the listeners' stake in the information, and therefore, raising attention, increasing motivation and certainly leading to understanding. The planned input can be simply the transmission of real-world information that the listeners need to know, as making an announcement in front of the class about what time an exam will take place, the duration, the place and further questions to clarify the points made around. Though some teachers in monolingual classes tend to make this type of announcement in the mother tongue, a better way would be to use it as a real opportunity for listening input since listeners have interest in the information. Suitably, a checking or clarification exercise is, promptly, following by eliciting key information from the students orally or in written form on the board.

In situations where teachers do not have access to technology and recording equipment, their voice may be the only source of input. These teachers are requested to enhance their speech delivery with certain flexibility and spontaneity, like providing words of encouragement, making witty comments, initiating whatever occasion to settle dialogue between students and teacher or between students themselves, and that creates a spontaneous conversation that may provide excellent listening/speaking material.

In recent years, many educators have argued for more teacher talk; for purely humanistic, direct, roughly-tuned and interactive input that responds to students' needs. However, rather than measuring it by time (teacher talking time, TTT), we can measure it by its interests, clarity, use of appropriate expressions, coherence, hence measuring teacher talk in terms of quality. Below is an adapted table of the main qualities, a teacher talk should outstand:

Quality points of Teacher Talk	Steps undertaken during Teacher Talk
-Prepare Students adequately.	-Use pre- listening activities:
-Get the volume and speed right	-tell the audience what you are going to say, say it, then say what who have said.
	-speak at an appropriate volume
	-speak naturally not too fast
-Use clear signposting	- change the pitch when emphasizing a point change of topic should be signaled by:
	Macro-markers: now we turn to…the final thing we are going to. Micro-markers: so, carrying on, moving on…
-Move in clear sequence	

-Pause and paraphrase	-Don't Jump around in time
	-tell your story
	-Make sure your talk has a beginning, middle and an end.
	-provide mini summaries at the end of each section
-Watch your vocabulary	-Make use of redundancy to give students another chance.
	-Be aware of students' range of vocabulary
-cut the colloquialisms	-Explain tricky items more clearly when paraphrasing
	-Avoid notorious/difficult phrasal verbs
-Watch your analogies	- Run over smoothly in colloquial expressions
	-Spot the item, clear it and give its source(place)
-Make it interactive	-Be aware of culture-specific items
	-Be sure that every-day world is less universal than you think.
	-Allow QQ at the end of each pause.
-Provide visual support	-Make sure that listening is not one-way
	-Maintain eye contact with your students

-Provide a course-related context for the talk	-Include paralinguistic features in your talk: facial expression, body language, slides, illustrations…
	-Give a sense for progression (last week we saw… next week we will look at…
-Be aware of formality	-Help students relate new content to information already covered.
	-Allow both formal and informal to relax.
	*formal (organized and structured) *informal (reduce the perceived distance between speaker and listener).
-Monitor the students' comprehension	
	-Keep checking student's attention to your talk.
-Make a talk/response balance	-Verify their comprehension by asking QQ, slowing down or repeating slices.
	-Make a balance between the amount of time you talk and the amount of your students get to respond
	-Use cautiously long monologues

Table: 1.8. Quality of teacher talk (adapted from: Wilson 2008: 43-45)

1.9.2. **Student Talk**

Students learn useful language from each other as well as errors. The latter is supported by the risk of devoting hot class time to pair or group discussion to reach

some negative points. These points, as a matter of fact, are presented in a quick and random way as follows:

-students learn each other's mistakes

-provide bad models for each other

-slip too easily into the mother tongue

-teachers cannot monitor the whole group (fifteen pairs of students) adequately at the same session and time.

Still, there are a great number of things that students speak about in groups that will develop their listening capacities as well as their oral production ability. To ensure that students are really listening to each other, certain tasks are set in the language classroom. A beautiful, simply given example is cuts of pictures, or parts of a text that students are requested to paraphrase. Then, students are asked to report back loudly, each group at time, to be heard by the rest of the class. Roles are assigned, and question-answer debate is opened. This makes all students listeners and speakers, hence learning from each other. What comes true in such a situation is that the classroom provides a safe environment in which student can experiment with peers the new language.

1.9.3. **Guest Speakers**

The potential problem in a context where English is a foreign language is finding a native speaker who is available and willing to come to the class to hold an audience for a pure pedagogical purpose. One of the persistent resolutions is to invite a proficient teacher into the class to constitute another way of giving students access to a live, authentic real-time conversation. Though the guest is merely another teacher (non-native surely), this has many potential advantages. The very first element is the new face and voice. Because, in a regular class, it is always stimulating such live listening constitutea gap-bridge alternative between the real, outside world and the contextual environment of the class. However, it could be

more beneficial if students close the topic to be discussed with the guest beforehand. This gives revelation to the engagement and investment of students (listeners) in the conversation. More than that, the availability of other paralinguistic features is also very helpful to the F.L listeners, who can see the body language of the guest speaker, hence leading and aiding comprehension. In the run of conducting conversations, the guest may invite questions and comments to give students a chance to interact unlike with the other types of listening (eg. Radio/TV). In this context, students may ask for clarification of confusing points, for repeating misheard items and asking follow-up questions to deepen their understanding of what was said. The other additional benefit of inviting a teacher-guest is that students often enjoy meeting other professionals (teachers of English) and seeing how they operate.

1.9.4. **Text book Recordings**

It represents one of the strong types of listening in the classroom. The reason of its strength is variety. Modern elaborated text books contain recordings of various types: news bulletins, interviews with expert, stories, puzzles, songs, jokes, discussions (round tables) and many situational dialogues. The extreme position highlighting the teaching-open-up device is still the motto of many web site language teaching programmers. Accordingly, in one of the outstanding claims of a website (*www.English_listening.com*) it makes worthy what follows: No recorded listening material should be introduced into the classroom: the source of all listening activities should be the students and teacher themselves. The extremity of this position maintains the strengths of textbook recordings on one hand. On the other hand, however, students will be deprived from a variety of accents, from native-speaker dialogues or discussions, from videos, from news broadcasts, etc.

Coming back to the valuable aspect of textbook recording and far from the extreme position of keeping only that as a source, there are listening sequences giving students a way into the recording, i. e., textbooks provide students with an exploitation material by guiding them through its difficulties and opening discussion points on the spot and at the end. Besides, any textbook recording has in a way or

another pedagogic integration within the syllabus, i. e.; it reinforces grammar or vocabulary that has been recently studied. In concordance with another point of strength, most textbooks have the transcripts of the recordings in the back of the book. This allows students to check problem areas of misheard word or difficult new vocabulary.

One thing we need to remember as a key point in a language teaching classroom is that teachers need to mediate between the textbook and the class, selecting, omitting and supplementing as appropriate. For instance, if a recording lacks the interest factor for the group of learners or simply it sounds unnatural, there in, the teacher can always omit it or part of it or merely find a way to make it interesting. Another role of the teacher when a recording text is perceived to be above the students' level is to ease the burden by fabricating or concocting a simplified version. It's up to the teacher, still, to make pedagogical decisions about every recording included in textbooks for the sake of providing a beneficial source of learning the language.

1.9.5. **Other Audio/Video Sources: (TV, video, DVD, Radio)**

These media are very frequently authentic with real-world information. More associated advantages are within TV and video where there is a visual aspect. In other terms, the ability to see the speakers, their context and body language is a large advantage to listeners. Another useful source of interest giving the listener culture-based information is the possibility of seeing people in their natural environment. As shown by Jane Sherman (2003) in his way of satisfying some cultural doubts, he argues "My Italian students refused to believe the English could be so eccentric as to eat biscuit with their cheese after a meal, but I showed them in a sit.com." This is to justify that video is dynamic in presenting moving pictures. It provides a ready-made context helping students with short attention spans. More than beneficial is the control device(s) of videos: the pause button allows dividing the recording into usable devices; the rewind buttons saves confusion, etc. DVDs (digital video disks), however, are more significant in terms of time processing and ease of

practicing the skill of listening. Subtitles in DVDs help bridge the gap between listening and reading skills, though some critics claim the misrepresentation of reading over the listening skill. The counter point, for some, is that their (subtitles) presence turns the process of listening into a pure reading exercise. In terms of time, DVDs will take you straight to the scene you request avoiding the long wait which we endured before. This is to state one disadvantage among many others. The disadvantages of using media such as the radio and TV include not only the frequently high-leveled scripts already mentioned within authentic materials, but the culturally inaccessible extracts too. So, a major question to ask: what to watch exactly? Most importantly, many new courses have videos and DVDs these days often mixing authentic and scripted material which is not the case of the majority of TV programmers. These mediated materials relate to textbooks' syllabus and topics and provide suggested teaching sequences. However, materials from media can be sequenced and controlled.

A number of benefits of the use of media genres still constitute good modes of teaching in the classroom. The table below offers a long list of built-in advantages of the various genres, though totally providing authentic material:

Genre	General benefits	Linguistic features and the benefits of these
Television or radio news and weather reports	Topical, interesting, sometimes stories run over a period of time and in different modes(e.g. newspaper), evenly-paced delivery, clear cut-off points for pausing, headlines given first-good for prediction	Vocabulary-rich, lexical sets based on topic, formal discourse-good for high levels

Film clips	Entertaining, dynamic, dramatic, cultural content, story line….inbuilt task (guess what happens next), easy to extend (show another clip)	Various, depending on the film genre and the clip
Film trailers	Entertaining, dynamic, dramatic, story line…..inbuilt task (guess what happens), preview is 'taster' for students to watch whole film	Short turns-good for low levels
Television advertisements	Entertaining, cultural content, springboard for critical thinking (loaded language, bias, etc.)-good for high levels, variety good for comparisons between ads-some have humour, ambiguity and short story lines	Use few words-good for low levels, use persuasive language….springboard for critical thinking-good for high levels
Television documentaries	In-depth look at real issues, interesting, impact	Lexical sets based on topic, mix of planned and

	(striking visuals?), cultural content, lend themselves to personalization (give your opinion)	unplanned (narrative and 'live') discourse-good for awareness-raising of formal versus informal features
Episodes in a comedy series	Entertaining (humour), known characters(?), cultural content- recognizable settings usually (hotel, office, home)	Different tones of voice- irony, sarcasm, remorse- good for teaching intonation patterns, jokes/wordplay-good for high levels
Animation	Usually contain long dialogue-free pauses (Cartoons in general) -good for low levels/children, often simple language	Usually contain long dialogue-free -good for low levels/children, often simple language
Television or radio talk shows/interviews	Entertaining (celebrities), few (or no) visual distractions, model for student task (peer interviews)	Structured turns (question….extended answer), dynamic and unscripted, good source of discourse markers, e.g. turn-taking, topic-shifting
Television or radio game	Entertaining, build-in	Short turns

shows/quiz shows	interactive participation (answering questions), clear cut-off points for pausing, cultural content, model for student task (quiz)	(question….answer structure)

Table: 1.9. General and Linguistic advantages of some media genres.

1.9.6. **Songs**

Among the integrated benefits of musical material in classroom is the providing of joy and stimulation. Once brought in class, songs make shy learners feel less intimidated when repeating the chorus in group. Better engagement can be felt if students are asked to bring songs of their choice to work with in class. Besides familiarity and engagement, songs help learners focus on aspects of pronunciation (stress, tone…). Moreover, the use of rhyme can constitute an interesting element for launching prediction of other vocabulary rhyming in the same way. Continuingly and repeatedly, choruses provide the opportunity to hear the same phrases with the same emphasis several times, giving listeners multiple chances to understand the lyrics. Songs often contain stories too which can be motivating where different accents, voices, cultures and ideas are inserted within into the classroom. However the same problematic issue, as with authentic material, emerges; it is to find out the right piece of melody and song. Though songs are becoming easier to access with developments in technology, words (new and unfamiliar) still need appropriateness and usefulness. Their benefits can largely loom from mere breaking of routine, lightening the mood of the class and as an entertainment factor to serious valuable elements of learning the language if well- presented and pedagogically treated.

1.9.7. **The Internet**

A number of English Language-learning websites could be of great utility to students who log on to. These sites, eventually, contain listening texts, extracts of dialogues, pieces of melodies of songs with written scripts, lyrics and explanation too. What is very constructive to the use of such material is that any learner can learn freely alone, the time he likes, the amount he wishes and even the items he himself chooses. More and more convincing as an appreciable tool of learning is the fact that activities are repeatable varying optionally from intensive to extensive listening enabling listeners to work at their own pace. More importantly, these 'learning 'sites (websites) are free. (Some will be provided in the appendix). May be, the sole disadvantage is the lack of the human interaction where face-to-face communication is rather lacking.

Of any kind, many young learners and teachers tend to be quite at ease with technology. What is certain, undoubtedly, is that learners in developed countries will be equipped withenough options to increasing a wide range oflistening resources to choose from. Besides, good professional teachers should keep abreast with these developments and encourage, also, their learners to consult and find out about listening on the internet. However, once found and selected, what are these listening exacts to do in class for the learning process? Let's answer by providing the types of activities that should follow.

1.10. The Reading Skill

A large number of learners in the world are taught a foreign language and are taught to read in that language at the same time. Reading methods are chosen according to the specific-community aspects and may include the following: phonic, syllabic, whole word/whole sentence or simply language knowledge. Therefore, no need to overrun all these methods, showing their principles and drawbacks, but what is really needed in our context is to show the direct results that one method could have on our linguistic and educational situation. Methods that explicitly draw on the knowledge that learners have of their second language (in this case, it is French used as L2 in Algeria) may be treated together as language experience methods. When

observing certain readers with a given experience, it shows that they use their knowledge of syntactic structure and vocabulary to help them decode. In cases where learners are already literate in their own language or their L2, then there may be some transfer of skills. Furthermore, there will be, in the case of languages that use the Roman alphabet, many letter-sound correspondences, which, although they may be only approximate, will prevent the need to begin from the very first principles. Thus learners, who are already literate in French, learn to read in English with little overt attention to initial reading skills, although there may be some ad-hoc attention to the pronunciation of certain letters. Subsequently, the practice of a *read-aloud* strategy for second or foreign language learners is arguably perennial for assessing, at least, pronunciation. Yet, in mother-tongue (L1) reading, it could simply assess how well learners can read; and in L2, though learners are proficient readers, they may be required, from time to time, to read aloud to reach that encrypting/deciphering proficiency of appropriate diagraphs.

1.10.1. How to Improve F.L Reading Skills

According to Carrel (1988), bottom-up operations and top-down processes should accompany any reading proficiency. In other words, the physical aspect of the written/spoken text, word recognition and phonological awareness are operations that should interact with prior knowledge of text and topic and further with world knowledge. To encounter the proposed model, it's quite interesting to point out the interest directed towards the reader and the text, and especially the interaction between the two. This encounter has had, actually, a clear influence on materials for FL Reading and Listening alike.

1.10.1.1. Reader: There are, in fact, some important factors related to the reader. They may include the language as a means for comprehension, some relevant knowledge represented in topic schema, and simply interest in the reading text leads to motivation which in turn enhances comprehension. The above three factors are not the only criteria for developing reader's ability to read and comprehend; yet they constitute the corner stone of the reading ability. In other words, an adequate

knowledge (let's say a threshold level proficiency) should help any readers deal with the text they are reading. The other parameter of learners' knowledge about the topic (be it football, mathematics, marriage…) exhibits the schema theory. This is to say that the prior knowledge of the text topic can enhance also the gist of comprehension through some pre-reading activities like: listing questions, discussing facts, brainstorming on titles or illustrations. Actually such type of activities may activate reader's knowledge of the topic and the relevant knowledge. As for the interest of the reader to the text, this could never bring efficiency if the text itself does not meet the reader's expectation.

1.10.1.2. The Text

Since texts in reading comprehension collections usually cover a variety of function and language, FL learners, especially those of general purpose (general English) are requested to read wide range of text types. In 1994, Underwood proposed a variety of text types aimed at general-purpose EFL secondary school learners. Attempts of sympathy were brought to the texts in achieving an apparent real-life function. The practicability of such function was undertaken through activities and exercises. Language mastery, linguistic accessibility and coping with unknown language constitute the main approaches in tackling language difficulty. However, teaching sufficient language of original texts still constitutes a hard objective to achieve. This is why other strategies may convene as valid and occasionally necessary resource, like: guessing the meaning of unknown words. Therefore, it may require from readers to be good readers to have large vocabulary and automatic word recognition.

Another approach to language difficulty is to select texts that we can control linguistically and lexically. At the linguistic level, we may alter from simple to complex structures and at the level of lexis, we can easily move from more frequent to less frequent words. This has been the call of many linguists and the product of many publishers. However, these linguistically-controlled texts may not help develop the learners' internal language development on the one hand. On the other hand, such

simplification and/or spoon feeding may not prepare readers to cope with authentic texts. Controversial views have largely appeared as far the adoption of authentic/controlled texts and a middle-ground may find its way to the readers' prospects and interests.

In the reading process, many other strategies can be suggested to be implemented as possible approaches fitting the level, capacity and type of potential readers. There could be a strategy attempting to guess not the meaning from context, but from the form of the word (Known cognates and affix words). Use of dictionary though impeding the run of comprehension through reading, is also a possibility.

1.10.1.3. Interaction of Reader and Text

Actually, when referring to the term 'Reading Skills' we loosely and broadly refer to those different types of interaction that may loom largely between a reader and the reading text. We may also include some reading styles typical to certain readers and indirect relation with reading skills. These reading styles are, however, mere interactive responses to a text, activated by the readers' own purpose and surely affected by his language competence. In brief the most common styles are:

- *Skimming means rapid survey of text to get a general idea.*

- *Scanning means rapid reading to localize a specific piece of information.*
- *Intensive means low and careful reading to absorb the text.*
- *Extensive means fairly rapid reading practiced typically for pleasure or interest.*

The next exemplification shows that both skimming and scanning are developmental reading styles that need readiness on the part of the reader. Though skimming is rapid reading to establish what simply the text is about and that scanning is still a rapid reading to find a specific piece of information; the scanning of two different types of text is not equal at the difficulty level. If the text is

structured (eg: dictionary, table of contents…) that scanning would appear a much easier task than scanning continuous prose.

Reading skills in general terms and regardless to the inclusion of styles and strategies, attempt to break down or deconstruct the-one-common block of reading comprehension into smaller components. These sub-skills are easily teachable and more possibly testable. The above mentioned components may include: -understanding word meaning –understanding words in context –literal comprehension –inferencing – understanding the gist of a text –identifying main ideas – separating principles from examples – following the development of an argument –following the sequence of a narrative.

In sum, Reading is an interactive process with a number of processes, drawing on a number of skills going on simultaneously. A more striking evidence, the inferencing skill appears powerfully in all lists, holding a strong notion since it refers to the fundamental capacity of reasoning in the construction of meaning.

In reading skill activities, inferencing is often divided into three types:

1) - Identifying pronoun,

 2) - Establishing relationships between sections of text (cause/effect)

 3)-pragmatic inferencing (world knowledge).

 So, let's give some illustrations to make explicit the types cited:

1)-The identification of pronoun relevance is not merely mechanical. It may be indicative to the nearest noun phrase, as the following example shows:

*The police chased <u>the criminals</u> but <u>they</u> managed to slip away.

*<u>The police</u> chased the criminals but <u>they</u> failed to catch them.

2) - The establishment of relation between certain sections of the text, mainly these related to cause/effect, as shown in the following example:

*The rain came down harder. (Cause)

*Jane put up her umbrella. (Effect)

Here, we infer that Jane put up her umbrella because the rain came down harder although the text does not explicitly tell us so.

3) - The pragmatic inference stipulates the reader's drawing on some knowledge outside the text (world knowledge) to construct meaning. The example below:

*The man pulled down the stocking and walked into the bank.

So here, most reader familiar with bank robberies (seen on TV or read through news) infer that the man pulled the stocking down over his face and that he did so in order not to be recognized.

Intensive reading generally takes place in the classroom under the teacher's control, using relatively short texts with a high proportion of task to test. This kind of classroom practice checks not only language but skills and even strategies. The practice of reading in class generally includes three (3) phases: a pre-reading phase (warm-up session) where the teacher attempts to activate the learner's knowledge of and about the chosen topic; then the reading phase where the leaners are instructed to read the text and carry out comprehension, strategy options or typically skill-focused work. The last phase, post reading, requires from learners (readers) to reflect on the process undertaken for comprehending the text and the way they answered the questions related, and develop in some way the reading process.

Contrastively, extensive reading is typically the personal, free-instruction and out- class-door type of reading. It usually involves the reading of longer texts which are selected by reader (advised by teachers, rarely) and usually read out of class. Actually that personal reading makes of the reader free to stop reading if interest wanes. Also, extensive reading consists of a holistic-view process where readers '*learn reading*' through practicing reading rather than being '*taught reading*' through practicing separate reading skills or strategies. A major claim goes also to the fact

that extensive reading helps improve writing and enhances language proficiency, especially *developing vocabulary.* In the same line of thought, readers who feel free choosing the texts to read themselves are likely to adopt a positive attitude to (their) reading. However, a key problem that confronts extensive reading (Algerian as a case) is that such programme may present problems of logistics and management. Obviously, the books should be linguistically accessible, otherwise readers will struggle. In addition, availability of interesting and motivating books is rather lacking, otherwise, not within students' means. The harsh struggle, indeed, is for those readers who do not come from backgrounds where reading for pleasure or interest is practiced. Only when forced to read, readers still resist the idea of reading. Another pertinent fact where classroom observation suggests that much of the time in reading lessons is not actually devoted to reading, but to activities such as, answering questions, writing notes, etc. This is why extensive reading (according to its proponents) is a remedy to such deviating goals placing both extensive and intensive reading as the main components of an efficient reading programme.

1.10.2. Teaching and Testing Reading:

The reading construct overview has been developed in very ample details in different sources (e. g. Bowey, 2005; Koda, 2005, 2007; Perfetti, Landi, and Oakhill, 2005); however, the teaching and testing of SL/FL reading has a more limited history. This specific area of analysis will briefly outline some major themes from research that will determine the construct, and then provide rationales for various instructional and assessment practices. The ultimate goals are, then, to draw connections from the reading construct to effective ways to teach and test reading. More significantly, it will outline testing tasks that can be effective means for assessing SL/FL reading abilities.

1.10.2.1.Teaching Reading

Linguistic knowledge bases and a number of processing sub-skills are the primary pre-requisites for any fluent reading comprehension. These knowledge resources and processes allow the reader to comprehend texts to the level

required. Through many research studies, the significant outcomes were: the identification of these skills (and sub-skills) and the prevalent resources which constitute, altogether, the source of much ongoing research. This research zone is, typically oriented towards establishing relationship between reading skills and reading comprehension.

a. Letter-sound Correspondences

According to research led by many linguistics, (Bowey, 2005; Ehri et al, 2001; Perfetti et al., 2005; Tunmer and Chapman, 2006) orthographic forms and the sounds of a language should be tightly linked by beginning readers. Extensive research on, mainly L1 contexts, has shown that training in phonological awareness and letter-sound correspondences predicts later reading development among children and beginning readers (Ehri, 2006; Ehri et al., 2001; Wagner, Piasta, and Torgesen, 2006). In the same line of thought, Lundberg (1999) advances that L1 reading in other languages may not require that same intensity of instructional effort as does English for phonological awareness. Accordingly, in L1 context, the automatization of letter-sound relations or the explicit instruction in letter-sound correspondences is founded to be very significant for all alphabetic reading and supports syllabic reading systems. Necessarily, it is important to establish such correspondences early in L2 reading. Geva and Yaghoub-Zadeh (2006) demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between phonological awareness and text reading efficiency (accuracy and Fluency). In other terms, if letter-sound correspondences are already established in the L1 context, these particular abilities seem to transfer reasonably easily to L2 (reading) context (Dorgunolu, Nagy, and Hansin-Bhatt, 1993; Lesaux, Lipka, and Seigal, 2006; Gottardo et. al, 2001).

b. Word Recognition Proficiency

Reading is a process of (very) rapid word recognition carried out through fairly consistent eyes behaviours, and automaticity is a key to this rapid word recognition

process. Typically, English L1 research on eye-movement tracking has shown that 'good' readers recognize words on average in about 200-250 milliseconds, they move their eyes ahead approximately eight letter spaces per focus, they make regressive eye-movements about 12 percent of the time, and they actively focus on more than 80 percent of the content words and about 35 percent on function words (Seigal, 2006). Admittedly, the observable eye-movement processes of fluent readers are quite similar in all languages, with variation due to differing amounts of linguistic information provided by individual graphic forms (Rayner, Juhasz, and Pollatsek, 2005). Still, word reading efficiency is going to vary somewhat among different orthographic systems (Frost, et al., 2005; Mc Bride-Chang et al., 2005). Therefore, in some situations, L2 word reading efficiency can be a strong predictor of L2 reading comprehension abilities (Khan-Horwitz, Shimron, and Sparks, 2005).

c. Vocabulary Knowledge

In a research conducted by Nation (2001), word knowledge vary greatly from 190,000 to 200,000 words and that high school graduates know on average 40000 words or it may exceed. This is a very large number to learn and most accounts suggest that many of these words are learned by exposure to new words through continual reading practice. Stanovich (2000) has argued that extended exposure to print over years leads to major differences not only in vocabulary knowledge but also in increasing comprehension.

In relation to the same context, vocabulary knowledge has demonstrated that fluent readers have very large recognition-vocabulary knowledge resources and that vocabulary knowledge is highly correlated with reading ability (Bowey, 2005; Stahl and Nagy, 2006; Tannenbaum, Torgesen and Wagner, 2006). On another ground research, vocabulary knowledge has also shown that vocabulary is correlated with L2 reading comprehension. Droop and Verhoeven (2003) reported a strong relationship between vocabulary and improvement in reading comprehension. However, Carlo et al (2004)have demonstrated through a research study to teach vocabulary explicitly and then compare the experimental group to a control group for reading

comprehension gains, that intensive explicit vocabulary instruction leads to significant improvement over control groups, not only in greater vocabulary knowledge but also on a measure of reading comprehension abilities.

d. Morphology, Syntax and Discourse Knowledge

Research on both L1 and L2 morphological, syntactic and discourse knowledge shows that there are strong relationships between these language bases and reading comprehension. This type of relationship appears also in reading assessment Research.

For L1, a number of studies have shown that morphological knowledge contributes to reading comprehension. Anglin (1993), Carlisle (2003) and Nagy et al., (2003) all argue that morphological knowledge (knowledge of word parts) is very important to more advanced word recognition and reading developing. On another basis, the contribution of syntax to reading is, somehow, less examined in L1 reading contexts because L1 learners develop implicit knowledge of most grammatical structures. However, there is evidence that grammatical knowledge (syntactic parsing) plays a significant role is L1 reading comprehension (Bowey, 2005; Lesaux, Lipka, and Siegal, 2006; Perfetti et. al, 2005). More recently, VanGelderen (2004) reported a very strong relationship between syntactic knowledge and reading comprehension. In reading assessment research, Both Enright et al. (2002) and Alderson (2002) have shown very high correlations explaining that syntactic knowledge is strongly related to reading comprehension.

e. Strategic Processing

Yet, L1 research is still revealing and conducive to strategy transfer to either L2 or FL learning procedures. In this sense, let's focus on an L1 context on strategic processing. During reading (e.g., inferencing, comprehension, monitoring and goal setting), the strategic processing demonstrates that procedures undertaken and metacognition influences reading comprehension. Researchers on discourse comprehension showed that inferencing that arises from "learning from texts" has an important impact on comprehension (Goldman and Rakestraw, 2002; Nation, 2005;

Perfetti et al, 2005). Being metacognitive in nature, these abilities are not simple reading strategies; on the contrary, they constitute a range of skills and abilities, and represent a range of strategic responses to text difficulties. Overall, instructional research (Pressley, 2006) has demonstrated a causal impact of instructional skills and strategies on reading comprehension. These instructional skills (or simply instructions) may be summed up in what follows:

-answering main idea questions as a post-reading task.

-using semantic mapping of ideas from a text.

-previewing specific information from the text.

-asking students to formulate questions about a text.

-filling in and generating graphic organizers that reflect the organization of the text.

-visualizing information from the text.

-raising awareness of discourse organization of the text…

Though various strategies and different instructional skills options are identified to be effective, combinations of strategic responses to texts appear to be more effective in supporting comprehension development (Grabe, 2004). To conclude for specific strategy use, the best strategic approaches to reading instruction involve reciprocal teaching, transactional strategies instruction and concept-oriented reading instruction (Block and Pressley, 2002; Guthrie and Wigfield and Perencivich, 2004; Pressley, 2004).

Research on L2 strategic processing still continues to demonstrate a relationship between reading strategies and reading comprehension. In the same line of thought, Chen and Grave (1995) showed that previewing a text was a pre-reading strategy that improved student comprehension. Klinger and Vaughn (2000) drew on reciprocal teaching concepts and the results obtained, clearly, showed some improvements in reading strategy use and in vocabulary growth.

f. Extended Exposure to Print

Long periods of time of reading and exposure to print lead, certainly, to a strong relation between that amount of reading and improved reading comprehension (Guthrie, Wigfield and Von Secker, 2000, Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencivich, 2004; Stanovich, 2000). According to Stanovich, exposure to print (amount of reading) was an important, independent predictor of reading ability. Also, in similar way, Senechal (2006) demonstrated that reading exposure was a significant element predicting reading comprehension and vocabulary growth. Therefore, though very few researches on extensive reading is done, the amount of reading, still, constitutes a perennial device and presents a significant influence on reading comprehension development (Elley, 2000).

g. Fluency

According to research undertaken by Samuels (2006) on reading fluency and reading difficulties, there is a big correlation between both elements. On the scale of reading ability, Sabatini (2002) found out that people with reading difficulties across a wide age range were, also, concerned with the aspect of fluency. In the same conjunctions, Fuchs et al. (2001) and Jenkins et al. (2003) have shown that oral passage reading fluency (i. e. orally reading a text for a while) is strongly related to reading comprehension abilities. That is why increasing reading rate (extensive reading) moderately among reader's leads to improved comprehension. In other terms, increased reading rate and improved comprehension constitute simultaneously a double relation of predictor/outcome. This could be entirely true in L1 settings where experimental research illustrated well that training to recognize words faster and faster will lead to quick and appropriate word recognition on other words if training is sufficiently extensive (Martin-chang and Levy, 2006). Furthery, these extensive trainings could lead also to better reading comprehension on other texts, as well. Commonly, research has demonstrated that re-reading a passage multiple times (sometimes aloud and sometimes silently), there is good evidence that it leads to both improved reading fluency and reading comprehension (Stahl and Heubach, 2005; National Reading Panel, 2000; Samuels and Farstrup, 2006).

h. Motivation

Here, another important factor-motivation- determining the engagement of learners towards the amount of reading, and consequently leading to better reading comprehension ability. However, a few studies have shown that more motivated readers both read more and have better understanding abilities. Ideally, specific instructional contexts can improve reading motivation and, as a subsequent outcome, improve reading comprehension and vocabulary development (Guthrie, Wigfield and Perencivich, 2004).

All the above components (motivation, fluency, extensive exposure….) contribute directly to reading comprehension and represent aspects of the construct of reading comprehension. But, still other components may be added to encounter completely the matter, such as: working memory, background knowledge, etc. In addition, the experimental training studies indicate that these component skills are likely to be useful components of a curriculum designed to improve student's FL reading abilities, hence developing their lexical stock, leading automatically to F.L learning and proficiency.

1.10.2.2. Testing Reading

Test validity constitutes the most considerable parameter in language assessment per se. The concept of validity or construct validity is an extended argument from multiple perspectives: construct representation, reliability, comparative assessment, consequential impact, and usability. Hence, all these principles argue for the appropriate and fair use of a test in a given context (Nation, 2001).

Therefore, reading assessment discussion should include whether focus is on classroom assessment, informal assessment, alternative assessment practices or on standardized assessment. Primarily, classroom reading assessment development has a much wider scope than standardized assessment options because in situations of formal comprehension, assessment, in the classroom, is often used as an achievement test. Thus, comprehension gains are assessed on a specific text or set of texts that

have been recently taught. Besides the formal context of reading, classroom settings may also include informal reading records. Moreover, the classroom setting allows for various types of alternative assessment options for determining student's progress. In the classroom one has the option of continuous ongoing assessments (quizzes, observations, record keeping of practices, interviews, progress charts, amount of reading, etc.). In such contexts, almost any language activity can also be used as an assessment task, so that continual nature of assessment practices of all types will, for sure, practically encounter the relatively weak validity or consistency for any given reading task or measurement. Accordingly, development of task types is the responsibility of teachers to be given the appropriate task outcomes so that learners feel confident vis a vis the evaluation that follows any reading task (August and Shanahan, 2006 a).

Contrary to the typical formal classroom context, open classroom settings are characterized with specificities in that standardized assessment practices are constrained by concerns of validity, reliability, time, cost, use-ability and outcome. This is why, most standardized test attempts to establish a student's level of reading comprehension ability. The time available for such an assessment is limited and the test must be fair and useful. Until fairly recently standardized FL reading assessment has been driven by the prior establishment of an appropriate FL reading construct and evidence to support assessment tasks that would measure this construct (Chapelle, Jamieson and Enright, 2008). Additional approaches to FL standardized assessment that are built from claims about reading abilities include the suite of Cambridge English ProficiencyExams (Weir and Milanovic, 2003). These approaches to FL reading assessment strongly document arguments for FL language construct, the importance of specific components of reading ability, and the types of tasks that can assess these component abilities, and the creation of overalls tests that generate evidence for the building of a validity argument to provide appropriateness of the test that has been developed. In like manner, the reading assessment practices have evolved positively thanks to practical evidence drawn from research on reading abilities which constitutes, itself, as one way for the claim of reading construct.

However, the reciprocity of relation between careful reading assessment research and evidence for the component abilities which are central to FL reading; in other words, the evidence provided from assessment research, has greatly influenced conceptualizations of those component abilities underlying FL reading comprehension. For example, it has been proved, on a practical ground that FL language vocabulary knowledge is a component of FL reading abilities per se (Pike, 1979; Qian, 2002). Arguably, appropriate reading strategies used in testing contexts appear to be an important component of FL abilities. In the same vein, it is important to recognize that these component skills have also emerged from research on FL reading tests.

a. F. L. Implications for Reading Instruction and Assessment

In sum, when combining all research on L1 and L2/FL reading abilities, we may get reasonable sets of implications for FL reading instruction and assessment. Ideally, Reading Comprehension requires the following skills and knowledge resources that are summarized by William Grabe (2009):

- The ability to decode graphic forms for efficient word recognition.
- The ability to access the meaning of a large number of words automatically.
- The ability to draw meaning from phrase-and clause-level grammatical information.
- The ability to combine clause-level meanings to build a larger network of meaning relations (comprehend the text).
- The ability to recognize discourse-level relationships and use this information to build and support comprehension.
- The ability to use reading strategies with more difficult text and for a range of academic reading tasks.
- The ability to set goals for reading and adjust them as needed.
- The ability to use inferences of various types and to monitor comprehension in line with reading goals.
- The ability to draw on prior knowledge, as appropriate.

- Abilities to evaluate integrate and synthesize information from a text to form a situation model of comprehension (essentially what the reader learns from the text).

- The ability to maintain these processes fluently for an extended period of time.

- The motivation to persist in reading and to use the text information appropriately in line with reader goals.

Ideally speaking and at the classroom contextual practices, the goal should be targeted to turn these implications (via a set of instructional training studies and longitudinal development studies) into effective applications. Once interesting applications are developed, it is important to determine the effectiveness of those applications more generally for the development of FL reading abilities. To bridge the gap between the ideal and down-to-earth reality, we need, first and most, improve FL student's reading abilities by administering instructional practices based on current evidence. More importantly, we need to offer practices that have been examined and found useful. Accordingly, teachers should draw on their expertise and experience to build a larger curriculum framework for effective teaching.

b. The Instructional Reading Activities

To the extent to which research has culminated in FL reading, it is argued that a number of key reading subs-kills can be taught successfully. Subsequently, the learning of these sub-skills will, certainly contribute to a learner's reading comprehension abilities. However, there are many instructional approaches that can potentially contribute to the development of reading abilities. A good instance is known through the inculcation of some instructional activities which receive enough instructional time, intensity of effect and priority in the curriculum. These types of activities can lead to significantly improved reading skills development. In simple terms, students respond well to a number of instructional activities that improve reading skills. So, teachers can build on these starting points (activities) while additional research should be kept abreast with continuously.

The goal for reading instruction, generally speaking, is to incorporate key component skills and knowledge into a reading curriculum (Anderson, 2003; Blanchard and Root, 2007; Silberstein, Dobson and Clarke, 2002). To conclude with, here are some principles as a set of more general curricular for building a reading curriculum. These principles include:

1. A curricular framework for conceptualizing FL reading instruction that should integrate major skills instruction with extensive practice and exposure to print (building upon a needs analysis, goals and objectives for teaching and testing, attractive and plentiful resources, appropriate curriculum framework, effective teacher support, effective teaching materials and resources).

2. Reading materials need to be interesting, varied, good-looking, abundant, accessible and well-used.

3. Some degree of student choice along the way in selecting major reading sources.

4. Reading skills that are introduced and taught by examining the primary texts used in the reading course. They should not be a need for special materials to introduce reading skills (though additional activities for further practice are necessary). If skills are meant to help comprehension, they should help with comprehension of the major texts being read in a class. This link between skills and instructional texts also raises meta-linguistic awareness of how texts are put together linguistically.

5. Lessons that are structured around pre-reading, during-reading and post-reading activities and these activities should be varied from one major reading to the next.

6. Instruction that is built on an integrated curriculum Framework and can support the following developmental goals:

   a)-promote word-recognition skills.

b)-build a large recognition vocabulary

c)-practice comprehension skills that combine awareness of grammar, main idea identification, and comprehension strategies (strategy instruction is not separate from text comprehension instruction.

d) - build awareness of discourse structure (recognize main ideas, recognize major organizing patterns, recognize how information is organized in parts of the text, recognize overt signals f text structure, recognize anaphoric relation in texts, recognize other cohesive markers in texts)

e) - promote strategic reading.

f) practice reading fluency (build reading rate, build text passage reading fluency, read and reread at home with parent or tape or self).

g) - develop extensive reading.

h)-develop motivation

i)-combine language learning with content learning

7. Opportunities for students to experience comprehension sources while reading

8. Expectations that reading occurs in class every day and that many extended reading opportunities are provided on a regular focus. (**Adapted from William Grabe, 2009**)

Carrying out appropriate reading assessments also requires a translation from implications of research as well as an effort to consider useful applications directly from assessment research to make in classroom situations. Again, a thorough set of practical recommendations and associated example activities are needed accordingly. Students should be tested on a range of relevant skills:

1. Students should be encouraged to read longer

2. Background knowledge enhances all comprehension and needs to be accounted for in a positive way

3. Group tasks might be used.

1.11. Conclusion

Although vocabulary development is not a specific study skill, it practically relates to all language learning. Two-fold assumption designates the importance of vocabulary in language proficiency. First, learners want to increase their store of vocabulary as it constitutes the yardstick of their language improvement. In parallel concern, Saville-Troike (1984) stresses the fact in what follows: '*vocabulary knowledge is the single most important area of second/foreign language competence*'. Second, vocabulary development is of concern of all the four skills. However, in reading and writing, for convenience, the printed word is more of a known quantity; that is why teachers and students alike are more familiar with its practice in the written mode. This mirrors the local situation with our EFL learners where official (valuable) tests and exams exhibit only the reading and writing skills. Therefore,it goes without saying that vocabulary learning and teaching relate to both 'receptive' understanding of the language (via reading and listening) and 'productive' use of the language (via speaking and writing).

In search for expanding vocabulary, a growing number of researchers believe in advancing comprehension before production in any language teaching and so reading and listening are primarily considered in the present research work. In the same vein, a similar idea has been expressed by Nattinger (1988) in what follows:

'*comprehension of vocabulary relies on strategies that permit one to understand words and store them, to commit them to memory, that is, while production concerns strategies that activate one's storage by retrieving*

these words from memory, and by using them in appropriate situations. This priority assigns to comprehension is one of many reasons why a growing number of researchers believe that comprehension should precede production in language teaching' (Nattinger1988: 35)

For any learner, to know a word means the ability to:

- Recognize the word in its spoken and written form,
- Recall it at will,
- 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 with words it goes correctly with (correct collection),
- Use it at the appropriate level of formality,
- Be aware of its connotations and associations.

Nevertheless, the most effective way for students to develop their vocabulary store is to be centrally involved in the learning process. This can be achieved under manifold-aspect instruction: directed by a teacher (instruction-learning), led in groups or with other students (peer- learning) and can be self-oriented through self-access basis –independent, free-learning). Eventually, under such conditions, the process needs some kind of learner training into both systematic and incidental learning since the purpose remains developing vocabulary. If well-trained, learners will develop their own strategies for inferring meaning from context and making effective use of their linguistic and background knowledge; thus, becoming more independent learners.

So, before launching learners to blind autonomy and limitless independence, teachers should bring some help so as to train in and out of class through the use of strategies. The case in point suggests that many students, just beginning studies at university, need help to cope with their newly-found independence.

Chapter Two:

THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN ALGERIA

2.1. Introduction

The present chapter is meant to provide a holistic view about the linguistic panorama of the Algerian speech community. Though the concern is, still, English language proficiency at university level, the paramount importance of dealing with the general outlook of the linguistic encounters, shaping the background of EFL learners, is worthy to note. As an Arab country, Algeria is supposed to be using the Arab language as the (only) means of interaction and instruction. However, the long-established colonisation and the deep-rooted French language among its population even after independence reshaped the language scenery of the country and urged the official authorities to plan for new horizons as far as the process of language(s)'learning is concerned. New horizons have been brought recently about the generalisation of the use of a world-wide language, hence English. In like manner, departments of languages engaged in new endeavours to keep abreast with the new demands of the new generation of EFL students, mainly those concerned with LMD(a new higher education system that embodies a three- level degree: bachelor (licence), master and doctorate). The raised issue is concerned with the way certain impediments could be overthrown, mainly the position held by the English language in the Algerian society. Accordingly, the status of English is the status of a foreign language which has no social functions in the society where it is taught; and it is limited to very restricted spheres of use, like: schools and universities. A referential historical and linguistic overview of the linguistic situation is then, required to situate the place of the English language in a community where national and non-national languages are in a continuum of interaction affecting, evidently, any process of learning. The evidence, then, seeks to unravel the reality outcomes in how to recover the large gap of English language exposure within a new perspective of intensifying and expanding the chances to meet the language extensively through

a diverse, intense and comprehensible input that may loom largely in and outside the language classroom.

The language situation in Algeria, before the advent of Islam in the seventh century, consisted of three languages: Berber- the native language, Latin- the language of administration and a hybrid mixture composed of Greek, Latin and some Semitic-origin language components. At the present time, the main languages in Algeria are Algerian Arabic, Berber, Classical (CA) or Modern Standard Arabic (MSA is the acronym kept all along this research to refer to the official and national language in Algeria regardless to the discrepancies between CA and MSA) and French, a language left over a period of colonisation (1830-1962). English has also become increasingly popular especially in higher education and in labelling many of the modern technologies among youngsters: in computing, satellite channels, mobile phones, etc.

It is very important to understand the linguistic situation and its manifestations in the educational system. The recent reform of the educational system, engaged in 2003, put the focus on the early teaching of foreign languages. Thus, French is introduced in second year- Primary level and the teaching of English starts at pupils' entrance to Middle school. Nevertheless, these languages, typically French, are taught as foreign languages which can only enable future students to study specialised subjects in French. The issue still, remains problematic and a thorny one.

Pupils in Algeria, as far as their linguistic background is concerned, have all the same mother tongue except for those who live in the Berber regions. Due to the continuous exposure to the mother tongue, be it Algerian Arabic (henceforth, AA) or Berber, MSA remains a liturgical language restricted only to specific domains of use as schools, mosques and some state-run institutions. French language is the second language (though politically considered as a foreign language) in the country due not only to historical factors but to the widespread use of that language in everyday interactions. It has an internal function in the society, i.e. it is evolved within

government institutions, politics, administration, medicine, economy and principally daily communications. However, English is the foreign language studied at school as part of the curriculum. It has no internal social/communicative function.

2.2. The Status of National Languages

The national languages characterising the Algerian linguistic situation are: MSA (a language introduced in the territory from the spread of Islam in the 7th century), AA (a variety widely used throughout the country with different accents and lexical terminology, but mutually intelligible among the Algerian speakers), and Berber (the native language still existing and locally used in the Kabylian region, the Aurès mountains and some remote areas in the South, though, historically and politically constrained).

2.2.1. The Status of Modern Standard Arabic

In the Algerian context, the national and official language of the country is MSA, which is linguistically speaking a simplified form of Classical Arabic. However, MSA is characterised by being affected by contextual and functional usages as journalism, education, some sectors of administration, as well as in the written and spoken mass media. The introduction of the Arabic language during the Islamic expansion started in the mid- 7th century, an event that has been crucially fundamental for the future profile of North African populations as they have undergone irreversible transformations from the religious, linguistic and socio-cultural points of view. Arabic succeeded in displacing, or rather in absorbing many indigenous Berber varieties, to the exception of a few remote mountainous places and Sahara areas. Consequently, Arabic, soon, emerged as a symbol of Arab-Islamic identity. Indeed, despite the existence of a   number of areas that have remained 'Berberophone', Algeria has, long, been classified as an Arab country with Arabic as the official language of the country.

The first decade, soon after independence in 1962, MSA has been promoted as the national and official language of Algeria. This new strategy for promoting

MSA consequently called for the development of the human capacities to mobilise and organise the social forces, and also went forward determining the ways in which education, social and economic factors would lead to language development. However, the challenge of development and modernism (economy and industrialisation) has greatly affected the way in which the policy of Arabization is to be realised. In the spite of the effort made for the enhancement of MSA use, we note that the economic and industrial development rose as factors impeding the objective of language promotion. In other words, MSA evolved especially in sectors other than scientific and technological. The promotion of MSA achieved inevitably through the involvement of the whole Algerian society. Language, being man-made and attitude-based, remains dependent on the development of human capital within an appropriate environmental context which, in turn, causes the language to develop. Therefore, in terms of actual use of it, MSA has been somehow enhanced through the advent of satellite channels of Arabic-speaking broadcasts, be it religious, leisure-timed, or all-concerns programmes. The fact is that we note in today's speeches in Algeria, many interlocutors using MSA either in a diglossic situation, or even when switching it with the French language. The new educated generation has put forward new strategies to cope with the new tendencies of religious matters and political debates shown and/or written in the Arab satellite channels. MSA regains a status so far neglected in the Algerian society.

The Algerian constitution of 1989, article 03 (1st amendment) states that: "**Arabic is the national and official language**"; however, for more specificities about the concept, the important aspect is introduced in the 1996 constitution (2nd amendment), i.e. the Berber civilisation is mentioned in the preamble: "**the fundamental components of the Algerian identity are: Islam, Arabism and Tamazight…**" so MSA remains the language of prestige because of the religious and historical aspect it assumes, though its use is exclusively limited to official and written exchanges(justice, religion, teaching). The desire to carry such a venture of arabising the country aiming at repositioning the language (MSA) was mainly

impeded by: the absence of an actual socio-linguistic project and undeniable dependence towards the western countries at various levels (economic, political and educational).

In Algeria, MSA remains the high variety used as the language of education, newspapers and religious and political discourse. MSA is acquired only through education, and it is highly regarded simply being the language of the Holy Koran. On the other hand, the functions and use of MSA remain restricted to certain state-run institutions. Moreover, Arabic-speaking pupils attempting to learn and function in MSA are often faced with tasks comparable to those involved in learning and functioning in a foreign language. The inadequacies of the writing system and technological terminology are part of the blame for the lack of spread of education. This linguistic mismatch between the Arabic varieties is partly explained for the low and poor academic achievement of many school leavers.

2.2.2. The Status of Algerian Arabic

The modern tongue of the majority of the Algerian population, though regionally characterised by different accents, share a mutual intelligibility among all speakers. It is called dialectal Arabic or commonly known as Algerian Arabic. It is one of the symbols of the Algerian socio-cultural personality and a component of the national identity, though mixed up with French. In the Algerian context, French is strongly implanted at the lexical level; that is, a great number of French borrowings, both adapted and non-adapted, can be frequently attested in everyday speech.

From a linguistic standpoint, AA shares many of the language features of MSA, but differs considerably from it in the degree to which it is mixed and reduced in its structures (Benmoussat 2003:111). In comparison with MSA, AA demonstrates a large-scale of borrowing – from the French language – and reduction in the sense that the grammar, phonology and lexis contain a small number of items and processes than those found in MSA. Daily interaction among Algerian citizens, in the family and in the street; is done through AA. Linguistically speaking, AA is essentially a spoken language. It is rarely written, unless in folk poetry or in some

play scripts. It is a simplified version whereby syntactic, phonological and morphological simplifications are carried out when needed to ease the burden of providing a given message. Furthermore, it integrates foreign terms 'harmoniously'.

AA is the mother tongue of more than 75 % of the Algerian population. This has always been the language used when speaking with family and friends or to do business; it is even used by politicians to address citizens. The Algerian TV and radio channels use AA as the main source of information dealing with different social, political and educational matters (a typical example of local news broadcast in Tlemcen Radio is imparted completely through Algerian Arabic). AA is the language most people in Algeria speak best; it is the primary language used as a means to communicate by all social classes in many settings and is expanding in the media. The positive evidence of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction should be explored in Algerian schools.

2.2.3. The Status of Tamazight

From the early ages, North Africa has sheltered various cultures and civilisations like the Phoenician, the Carthaginian and the Roman one. Later on, in successive circumstances there was the invasion of the Arabs (the Islamic conquests), then the Spanish, the Turkish and finally the French colonisation in 1830. In spite of all these historical recordings, the Berbers are the earliest recorded-native inhabitants of Algeria. Before the arrival of the Arab-speaking 'invaders', Berber was the language of the indigenous population. Therefore, the term 'Tamazight' is the unified word to design the Berber dialect and its varieties spread all over the kabily mountains. Tamazight is known to be a Hamito-Semitic language. It is used in two distinct scripts: Latin and Tifinagh. *Next to the two outstanding dialects – the Kabyle and the Chaouia in the Aurès – there are: Chenoa or Chenwiya which belongs to the phonological and lexical variations of the Kabyle. It is spoken around Mounts Chenoa, near Cherchel and Tipaza. Rifi or Tarifit is spoken near the Moroccan borders; and Mozabi which is basically spoken in Ghardaîa* (Leclerc, cited in Abid 2005: 25). In a brief historical record, it is believed that the first

inhabitants of the whole area where Berber tribes whose hypothetical origin is given by the well-known Arab sociologist Ibn Khaldoun who suggests that the Berbers were oriental people of Chamito-Semitic descent settled down on the North African lands.

Coming to the use of Berber in the Algerian context, its wide practice is limited to the Kabylian regions, apart from a few expressions such as *azul felawen* (a kind of greeting) or *awid aman* (give me water). It seems that no real effort is made on the behalf of the wide Algerian speech community to learn to interact with the Kabylians in their dialect which makes AA / Tamazight code switching a very rare practice, except for Berber speakers themselves. The recent claims for the Tamazight identity, culture and language have gained floor towards the recognition of Berber as a national language alongside Arabic. Due to some political decisions resulting from the population demonstrations in the regions, Tamazight has been officially administrated in the educational system as a codified and grammatically structured variety to stand as a language having its own linguistic characteristics. The Berber language – Tamazight which is spoken by 1/5 (one fifth) of the Algerian population, is not recognised as an official language of Algeria; however, in April 2002, it obtained the status of 'national' language. To that end, a national educational and linguistic centre for the teaching of Tamazight was created. Its main objective is to develop educational strategies, elaborate curricula and didactic means, and enhance the teaching of Tamazight. Through the establishment of such a centre, there is an official acknowledgement of Tamazight as a national language and an explicit will to integrate this component as part of the Algerian identity. The task is a quite arduous one, and requires time and deep implication. This has, logically, resulted in daily TV news broadcast in Berber (at 6 p.m.) and the launching of a new satellite TV channel (RTA4), but no written form has been elaborated through newspapers or other prints. In schools, it remains an optional subject matter, even though it is the mother tongue of a considerable segment of the population. It is, however, remarkable despite all the historical factors that Tamazight managed to survive as a language mainly

through oral tradition. Its capacity for borrowing and incorporating words from the languages with which it came into contact is great. Its resiliency and success in resisting various influences (Greek, Latin, Islam, French and Arabization) helped in maintaining itself as the language of the home. It deserves being a 'national' language of Algeria.

2.2.4. Arabization

Arabization, meaning "the generalisation of the use of Arabic language", has long been an outstanding decision-making policy of the different political structures of the newly-independent Algeria and considered as a perennial step to restore the national cultural values and the Arab-Islamic identity. One of the major decisions that Algeria undertook in 1962 in terms of status planning was the promulgation of Arabic as the national language of the country. Yet, the question of what language to use as the medium of instruction in Algerian schools was decisive in language-in-education planning. In like manner, Hartshone (1987) points out: "**language policies are highly charged political issues and seldom if ever decided on educational grounds alone…this is particularly true of the experience of bilingual and multilingual countries where decisions on language-in-education have to do with issues of political dominance, the protection of power structure, the preservation of privilege…**" (Hartshone cited in Benmoussat 2003: 111)

However, the official status of MSA has always been standing at the level of written form in some state-run institutions such as the court, town hall, schools and universities. Therefore, the following conditions are necessary for a language in order to become or to be used effectively as a means of instruction (acquisition planning):

- The language must have an accepted writing system.
- Basic teaching and reading material must be available in the language.
- There must be teachers who can speak, read and write it.

(Bowers, 1968:388)

Thus, as far as the Arabic language is concerned in the Algerian context, only the first requirement could be met from the date of independence. When it comes to the availability of material and human resources (teachers), the ministry of education had had recourse to both: a completely different socio-cultural context of the teaching material (principally, borrowed programmes) and a divergent linguistic and cultural background of the purveyors of knowledge, i.e. those teachers (mainly, coming from Egypt, Syria and Iraq) use the language heavily influenced by their local dialects.

2.2.4.1. Arabization and Language planning

From a linguistic point of view, the promotion of a language of wider communication provides a certain degree of linguistic homogeneity. From a socio-linguistic standpoint, this attribute (to use Bell's term) allows a quicker and better communication between all members of the nation if conducted seriously. Yet, significant attempts were carried out by the post-independent Algerian administration to devalue the French language through a process called 'linguistic cleansing'. That process of 'purification' had as a thorough objective to alter, whenever possible, terms and labelling from French to Arabic; hence strengthening the process of Arabization. Good instances from such a process are: Tlemcen → *Tilimsen*,

Blida →*Bouleida*   Recyclage →*Raskala*   Place Bugeau → *Hai Amir Abd-el-Kader*. This was called Arabization of the environment and the social context (linguistically, transliteration). In the same line of thought, **Arabization…has been made, from the start, the target of the hijacking manoeuvres instigated by political bodies or even individuals** (Miliani, 2003:55). The plain purpose of this policy was partly to discard and marginalise the Francophone élite and to aid in the eradication of minority languages, not least Berber which is spoken by 1/5 (one fifth) of the population.

Concerning the educational field, when a child makes the first contact with MSA, he is faced with a language completely different from his physical and cultural linguistic environment, linguistically called (linguistic mismatch). Instead of putting

forward an objective to help and assist the child to finish off his own (native) language, the schooling system, via the new programmes, strived to inculcate in the pupils other linguistic parameters of a non-spoken language. A part from details emanating from the linguistic policy, the result of poor performance, in general, and in the Arabic language use at a functional level, in particular, are clearly observable. It is mainly due to the lack of means and necessary conditions: libraries, references, spaces for reading and information, appropriate methodologies, adequate programmes, textbooks and individual learners' needs fulfilment on the one hand. On the other hand, the pedagogical and societal objectives are neglected attributes because the ideological and political objectives went beyond the already established linguistic and social behaviour. Consequently, the conception of that linguistic planning is doomed to failure. In spite of the efforts of the political power to induct linguistic scenery in which MSA is to be prevailing, the populations continue to use, naturally, French mixed with the mother tongue.

2.2.4.2. Limits of Arabization

From 1971 onwards, Arabic started to replace French as the medium of instruction in primary schools; by 1976, all Middle School education was conducted in Arabic; by 1984, and all Secondary education and by 1986, most university education, at least in the humanities and social sciences, had undergone this change. This policy of acquisition planning, the strategy to increase the use and users of a language through language teaching was lacking objectivity. In other words, the political preoccupation took over the pedagogical and social needs. The role and status of Arabic versus French in Algeria is largely dependent on the political and social structure. Yet, this is not the only factor which influences language policies. Equally important is the economic context which can promote and enhance the spread of a language. Unfortunately, language planning has imposed a one-language as a means of instruction, and consequently deviations and manipulations witnessed problematic issues instead of being a source of linguistic betterment and social unity. It is to this point that divergent views have been expressing an explanation of why

the local language varieties have not been accepted as means of instruction. In like manner, Miliani (2001:15) rightly puts it in what follows **"the vernaculars in use might have known a different development had they been employed in the public life (in the media) or even in the educational system"**. The above quotation argues that the child's native language(s) as resource(s) in the classroom learning might be taken into account to enhance the educational prospects. Many education specialists (McKay and Wrong, 1988; Murray, 1992; Nichols, 2001; Miliani, 2003) maintain that early education succeeds best if conducted in the child's native language.

The French language in Algeria has been so deeply rooted in most essential sectors, particularly in administration, education and the written material in general, as well as in some people's linguistic practices that the decision which would restore the use of Arabic as the language of the nation was a long-drawn out task; an extremely complex matter that needed deep pondering and suitable management. In fact, the procedure did not consist merely in replacing a foreign language by Arabic, but also in working out the necessary transformations which are taking into account the modern functional changes that French has already introduced in the community at large. Thus, the difficulties of the Arabization procedures lay not only on the political and socio-cultural levels, but also on the linguistic level. In fact, the impact left by the French language on the Algerian economic structure and the socio-cultural identity constitutes an absolutely ineffaceable component on the country's sociolinguistic profile. Moreover, do the positive attitudes held towards French as a means of communication and a language of knowledge-distinction and prestige reveal a mere failure in the language policy of Arabization? Partly, the answer is positive; adding to that the relatively slow development of MSA in many fields relating to economy, technology and business. The second part of the answer is that the process has been decided on political and ideological grounds rather than on a pragmatic-linguistic basis. In addition to the intricacies of diglossic use in Arabic, the

use of French alongside with MSA, AA and Berber made the linguistic picture extremely complex in the form of borrowings, code-switching and bilingualism.

2.3. The Status of Non-native Languages

Societies' interest in education cannot be ignored. Any society has its own reason for providing for education of its young and it chooses to teach them foreign languages, it is because it feels that in some way it fits the society's needs. A society creates the context of learning and within this use; we can try to meet the needs of the individual.

In the same line of thought, Bull claims what follows: **Getting educated is a personal matter, in contrast, providing education is a social enterprise**." (Bull, cited in Hymes, 1964:37). We can best understand a society's reasons for providing conditions for the learning of foreign languages by examining the status of those languages in the target society and commonly differentiating, as it is the case of Algeria, between a second language and a foreign language.

2.3.1. Second Language Learning

The common element in second language situations is that the language being learned is not the mother tongue of any group within the country, but it does have some internal social functions. In the Algerian context, so far historically investigated, French fulfils the criteria of second language (L2). French has historical connections and its scale of use differs enormously. It can encompass parts of government administration, politics, law, medicine, internal trade, media and education. As a result, in education it has become a medium of instruction at any level; from primary school upwards. Actually, the non-educational functions of French in our society privilege largely its use in education. And, the greater it is used in society, the earlier it is likely to become the means of instruction. In Algeria, the role of French has been gradually reduced by the 'Arabization process' (see 1.3.2.) which has taken over from the mid-1970s and during the 1980s. It has come to play

an increasingly smaller part in the educational system. Politically declared, French is the first foreign language; but linguistically, it still mirrors the pure characteristics of a second language. It was supposedly thought that Arabic (L1) can easily cope with all aspects of education, except for the scientific and technical subjects at the university. Yet, it is undeniable that within the change of the official status comes an almost inevitable drop in the standard of French proficiency, i.e. no longer does the entire school curriculum contribute to the pupil's daily exposure to French. Therefore, learning depends upon other factors (teacher, learner, motivation…) rather than daily and direct exposure to the language.

2.3.2.   Foreign Language Learning

A foreign language situation is one in which the target language is not the mother tongue of any group with the country where it is being learned and has no internal function either. The aim of teaching the language is to increase ease of contact with foreign language speakers inside and/or outside the country. Sometimes there is a prediction of the kind of contact that is anticipated. We have seen how this anticipation operates for the individual, i.e. a person prepares himself for certain communication proficiency to interact with native speakers once abroad. For, it is undoubtedly known that wherever one goes, using English, his/her message gets across. These people are surely conscious about the fact that the English language has imposed itself as the most widely spread means of communication and most importantly the language of the entire world. However, foreign language teaching needs to cater for wider social interests too. Increasingly, the expansion of overseas trade is provided by the necessary conditions of foreign language teaching. It is a justification indeed .This provision of an adequate number of foreign language speakers constitutes a must for a country's economy. Rivers puts forward other individual dimensions, beyond the ones already mentioned, in what follows: **The learning of a foreign language contributes to the education of the individual by giving him access to the culture of a group of people with whom he does not have daily contact** (Rivers 1981:09). The recent economic and business contacts

between different nations of the world call for such a provision of foreign language policies to facilitate the process of exchange.

2.4. The Status of French

French constitutes an integral part of the Algerian linguistic patrimony. Although the Algerian government has always promoted mono-lingualism through an 'Arabist' policy of assimilation and exclusion, it has always been proved that French had and is still having an indisputable portion in the Algerian society among its population. It persists as an inseparable feature of the linguistic scenery being part and parcel of the Algerian speech community. There are still a great many French words and expressions which will certainly continue to be used in AA for a long time, if not for ever. The long-lasting co-existent relationship that has led to some kind of bilingualism in some instances and in some others to code switching be it intra-sentential or intra-sentential as it is outstandingly observable in every day's speeches. So, with French- a deeply-rooted language in Algeria-, it has long become a linguistic tool that many Algerians use in their daily communicative strategies. As a matter of fact, in the early years of primary socialisation process, the Algerian children are exposed to a rich diversity of linguistic material along with the natural acquisition of their mother tongue. It is *de facto* that the mother tongue the child acquires from the close environment – parents, siblings, and close relatives – is loaded with French in all forms of interference going from loan words to mixed code switching and to full bilingualism. It is worthy to mention that the status of French has changed from one period to another, i.e. during the pre and post-independence period and the present time. As a result of a long process of Arabization which started right from independence and reinforced in the early 1970s, a relative increase in the use of MSA may be attested in many domains where French used to be the functional language. In spite of the institution of that process, French outstandingly still persists as the major instrument of work in the media, areas related to sciences, industry and economy.

2.4.1.   Historical Consideration

The most decisive linguistic influence that Algeria has been exposed to, in spite of the multiplicity of other historical events, came with the French colonisation of the country which lasted more than a century (1830-1962). As a matter of fact, right after occupation, one of the fundamental goals of the colonial policy was to denigrate violently non-French languages and cultures, and to impose French as the only official language. The evident goal of French rulers was to reach a total conquest and a definitive domination of the country by 'de-Arabising' it and implementing the French school. In contrastive circumstances, many parents became aware of the advantage of their children getting educated whatever the language of instruction. They wanted, then, to seize the opportunity to enter the modern world which, in their beliefs and due to those circumstances, could only be achieved through education in the French language.

2.4.2.   French after Independence

Even irrational as a fact, it was after the departure of the French colonisers that French language spread more quickly and to a wide portion among the Algerian population. Grandguillaume (1983:12), in this respect, posits that: **the knowledge of French started expanding to a more important number of citizens after independence, particularly school children, for it was the language of instruction**[1]**.** The reckoning for formal education was insisting and really needed in the first years of independence. At that time, schooling could be achieved in French and the majority of teachers had their diplomas and qualifications exclusively in French on the one hand. On the other hand, and most crucially because of an urgent need for the intellectual development of the newly-independent nation, the ministry of education had to encourage massive schooling, having recourse to a great number of teachers from abroad. However, Arabic was only taught as a subject *per se* for very few hours weekly. Subject matters as arithmetics, sciences, history, and

geography were taught in French, in addition to the French language as a subject on its own. It was from that period that French language started acquiring high prestige among the population as it was associated with education, knowledge, modernism, development and science and technology. It has become so strongly anchored as such in people's minds that it was considered as the language of social and scientific progress.

The impact of the supremacy of the French language remarkably persists and the language continues to be used in most sectors of the administration and education. Moreover, it affects spoken forms of Algerian Arabic and Berber dialects. As a matter of fact, loads of French loan words and expressions had long come into everyday Algerian speech. It is also evident that today's younger generations show positive attitudes towards this language for its association with its progress and its consideration as a means of communication with the external world.

2.4.3. Traces of the French Language in Algeria

In spite of the great efforts expended by the Algerian government to arabize education and other institutions (by the way eradicate the French language), French language persists in being a language of special status among the Algerians. This language which has acquired high prestige is, in fact, regarded by the people as a means of advancement, modernity and intellectual distinction. Thus, given the generally positive attitudes towards French, people feel concerned with it and show some form of motivation and willingness to learn it.

May it is paradoxical, but French was spread to large numbers of pupils in schools after independence; and the reason for that was what the government called for 'Democratization of schooling' on the one hand. On the other hand, because of the long-term establishment of the French language, it was practically impossible to come back to Arabic (MSA) as the language of teaching; though, the decision had already been taken to arabize all the public institutions. But that had to take quite a long time to gradually re-establish the Arabic language, particularly, in the system of education. The first generations, after independence, were taught all the subjects

through French instruction, hence, getting the high degree of proficiency in that language. Also, it is worth noting that with the advent of the satellite dish (French TV channels: TF1, F2, M6, C+ and other French-broadcasting channels) in the late 1980s onwards, has helped much in maintaining the use of that language among the Algerians. Besides, the written media still persists through their wide availability in reinforcing such a proficiency of that language.

2.4.3.1. The French Language in the Daily Life of Algerians

The daily interactions of Algerians is characterised by a linguistic variety related to the deep roots of French (constituting valuable background knowledge) and Arabic (Algerian dialect). In spite of the reinforcement of Arabization process, French constitutes an indisputable part of everyday range of activities either formal or informal. Here, it is worth noting that French covers a very wide field of functions and a very wide range of subjects. According to Derradji (1994:111), the scope of French use is extended to:

- Official fields: These constitute the different institutional spheres where the interlocutors use the French language as a tool of work and communication. These are generally the fields of education, banking, industries and technical and scientific domains. As for the administrative domains, all has been officially arabized at the level of written official papers.
- Unofficial fields: These constitute the linguistic practices of the daily life of Algerians. In fact, they (Algerians) opt using a diversity of codes depending on the subject, situation and interlocutor. However, the linguistic reality proves that French is still maintaining its influence. Many an interlocutor use French to tackle different subjects though his low mastery of the language.

2.4.3.2.   The French Language in the Algerian Media

From the launching of the Arabization process in the early 1970s, the means of expression and work had been obligingly conducted in CA in all governmental institutions. However, with the advent of the satellite channels, the French language has gained reinforcement in the Algerian society. In this respect, Derradji notes that **thanks to the poorness of the Algerian TV programmes, the French language, combated at the ideological and institutional front, is re-introduced to the very depth of the family cells marking the longing of the interlocutors**.[2]   (Derradji 1994:113, translated by the researcher).

What is more, the number of newspapers edited in the French language is higher than those edited in Arabic. In fact, French is widely used in the socio-cultural spheres and particularly in the means of media (TV, radio and press). As a case in point, in the 1992 statistics**, we count the number of free and governmental newspapers in Arabic to 330,000 copies daily; those in French attained the number of 880,000 copies daily** [3](Benrabah, 1999:270, translated by the researcher).

i)   Radio and Television

The use of French in radio and TV is widespread. Therefore, the use of French is more persistent in the radio than in the TV which broadcasts at a large scale in Arabic. But the fact that many homes receive foreign transmissions and shows among which a large part in the French language, this holds the position of French up. The radio transmissions are broadcasted in Arabic as well as in French or simply by mixing the two in situations requesting the switch from and to both languages which is the case of local radios (Tlemcen radio).

ii)   The Press

The field of editing newspapers is largely marked by a francophone expression. The large-circulation papers reveal an increasingly higher number due to the

faithfulness of its readers. The printed press is also prolific in neologism which evidently put forward the process of lexical creativity. This phenomenon, simply, shows the interactions between two linguistic backgrounds co-existing side by side and providing new techniques and ideas at hand. Generally, journalists are in seek for new words and expressions (either borrowed or adapted from French) to satisfy the majority of readers and by the way gain a high fidelity on the behalf of francophone Algerian readers. It is true, then, that the mastery of French is greatly dependent on the teaching/learning proficiency undertaken at the level of education.

2.4.3.3. French in the Algerian Educational System

The political and pedagogical orientations of 1962, 1974, 1976 and later on those of 1981 had assigned objectives towards the teaching of foreign languages. From a simple reading of their contents, we can see the official institution of the French language as a foreign one. In the National Charter of 1976, it was clearly stated that **French language, so expanded in use, must at present be considered as a foreign language**[4]. (translated by the researcher).This quotation reveals the political will in giving a specific status to French as a foreign language though its widespread use in the social context is imposingly placing it as a second language.

The purpose of teaching French is to provide the pupils with certain bases in oral/written communications. It goes without saying that such acquisitions are not typically restricted to class interactions but are in an expansion of an already established linguistic background, though deficient at some levels of morphology (instead of '*cinéma*'__'cilima', meaning 'cinema'), syntax (instead of '*je dors*'__ 'je dormis' meaning 'I sleep') and pronunciation (instead of 'le nom quoi?'__'nekwa' meaning 'what is the name?').These deficiencies are directly related to the socio-cultural milieu to which the young learners belong. Consequently, the pupils, coming from a social milieu where French is frequently

used, are naturally inculcated with a valuable acquisition at all levels of their learning of French.

In this respect, Peytard and Genouvrier note that *the vocabulary stock of the pupil will mainly depend on the aptitude of his social milieu where discussions and dialogues are maintaining and/or orienting his curiosity*[5] (Peytard & Genouvrier 1970:184, translated by the researcher).

Therefore, this will create discrepancies among learners from the start. At the primary level, the oral expression practices are conducted through activities of recounting stories or the reading of texts (gradually moving from the simplest unit-word, to sentence, to text…). However, the graphic phase is realised through graphic reproduction and transcriptions. As far as vocabulary is concerned, the task is driven through the teaching of 'useful' lexical items suiting different situations of communication and daily interaction. The spelling constructs will, therefore, enable the pupils making the junction between the grammatical and lexical acquaintances and writing correctness.

The Middle school's outlined objectives are a continuity for developing the previous acquired knowledge to enable the pupils identify the different types of texts, recognise the subject-matter of a conversation and be ready to take part in it. With close reference to the official syllabus of French at the secondary level, the final objectives aim at enabling the pupils to:

1) Have access to varied literature in French.
2) Use French language in teaching situations.
3) Master the written as well as the oral techniques in different situations.

Consequently, after more than nine (09) years of French learning, pupils are supposed to have really acquired the linguistic competence with the environmental

support of informal communications out of school, like: street, home, friends, TV (school learning and street learning).

2.5. The Status of English

The most important foreign languages taught in Algeria are French and English. The latter, over the last forty years, has known a remarkable global spread. As a matter of fact, it has successfully attained the status of "*lingua-franca*" worldwide. In this respect, Harmer defines the given concept as follows: **A language widely adopted for communication between speakers whose native languages are different from each other's and where one or both speakers are using it as a second language** (Harmer 2001:01). This quotation reflects clearly and explicitly that the English language has already fulfilled such requirements at the world level.

2.5.1. The Importance of English

English continues to be the world's standard language. Its unprecedented global popularity is blooming because of three main reasons:

a- English usage in science, technology and commerce.

b- The ability to incorporate vocabulary from other languages.

c- The acceptability of various English dialects (Englishes[6]).

These features have led remarkably to the increasing number of users of the language enhancing its spread thanks to its depth of penetration into societies through its range of functions (telecommunications, electronics, computing…). Furthermore, the competitive demands of governments, industries and corporations, both national and multinational, were incontestably felt because technological progress requires an understanding of the language of that technology, hence, English. To fit a broad and rapid change of economic, modern communications and

technological growth, Algeria, like many other nations, has had to adjust its structures and methods of operation to keep abreast with international developments. This globalisation trend is, unprecedentedly, placing English at the world-wide outreach. Hence, it is used for more purposes than ever before. Very illustrative and pragmatic examples do reveal the reality. For instance, when Mexican pilots land their airplanes in France, they and the ground controllers use English. When German physicists want to alert the international scientific community to new discoveries, they first publish their findings in English. When Japanese executives conduct business with Scandinavian entrepreneurs, they negotiate in English .When pop singers write their songs; they often use lyrics or phrases in English. When demonstrators want to pass a message on to the world about a given problem, they display signs in English. Admittedly, with the technical, scientific and technological dominance came the beginning of overall linguistic dominance first in Europe and then globally, as stated by David Crystal: **There has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English.** (Crystal 1997: 127)

2.5.2. English as a Means of Globalisation

True, English has become, by excellence, the medium of international communication. The need for a common ground for international exchange of ideas, views, assumptions and decisions in areas ranging from the medical research, engineering to political challenges and global economy has come to be strongly felt. So, in order to meet these communication needs, including exchange of information and understanding of written/spoken scripts, more and more individuals try to acquire highly specific academic language skills for professional, educational and even personal reasons. Hence, the necessity of effective English communication skills for graduate EFL learners in the present globalised world's environment has emerged as a *sine qua non* condition. The kind of proficiency required in nowadays' context seems to defy the non-native English speaking students whereby mastery of the four major skills is unbalanced due to linguistic and other para-linguistic factors.

Motivation, attitudes and interest are those (other) psychological and mental factors that can enhance the learning of English in and outside the classroom context. However, knowledge of syntax, rich vocabulary stock and practice are the pure pedagogical elements favourable for getting the learner to the front of language mastery, mainly in the four skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing.

Communication across global issues (mainly through international companies and multinationals) requires workforce that is competent in particular skills which in turn are not isolated or separated but simply and naturally integrated. Such illustrations can be seen in negotiating (listening and speaking), team work (listening, speaking and note-taking), oral presentations (reading and speaking) report writing (writing and encoding), decision making and problem solving altogether in a natural basis for communication. According to Crystal (1997), English is at present the dominant of official languages in over one hundred (100) countries and is represented in each of the five continents (1997: 3). As a point in case, almost all technological inventions and developments, such as: telephone, fax, electronic mail, internet, mobile network…have made communication between people or world citizens easier. Then, the language that is likely to be used is English, including the huge markets of spare parts modelling, manuals of instruction and devices of use which are mainly channelled in English. As cited again by Crystal, most of the scientific, technological and academic information stored in electronic retrieval systems is in English (1997: 6). In the same line of thought, Graddol identifies twelve (12) domains where English is used as an international language:

- English is the working language of science and technology
- English is used in international banking, economic affairs and commerce
- Advertising for global brands is done in English
- English is the language of international organizations and conferences
- English is the language of audio-visuals and cultural products
- English is the language of tourism

- English is the language of tertiary education
- English is the language of international safety in aeronautics
- English is the language of international law
- English is a relay language in interpretation and translation
- English is the language of technology transfer
- English is the language of internet communication

Graddol (1997: 8)

Colonialism, speaker migration, and new technology developed in English-speaking countries were important in the initial spread of English, but what are the factors that are fuelling its current spread and the macro-acquisition of the language within existing speech communities? In order to answer this question, it is useful to consider the current uses of English in various intellectual, economic, and cultural arenas. The following is a summary of some of these as noted by Crystal (1997):

 * *International organizations*: of 12,500 international organizations listed in the 1995-1996 Union of International Associations' Yearbook, approximately 85 per cent make official use of English.

 * *Motion pictures*: in the mid-1990s, the United States controlled about 85 per cent of the world film market.

 * *Popular music*: of the pop groups listed in The Penguin Encyclopaedia of Popular Music, 99 per cent of the groups work entirely or predominantly in English.

 * *International travel*: the United States is the leader in tourism earning and spending.

 * *Publications*: more books are published in English than in any other language.

 * *Communications*: about 80 per cent of the world's electronically stored information is in English.

 * *Education*: in many countries English plays a significant role in higher education.

The widespread use of English in a variety of political and intellectual areas makes it imperative for any country wishing to access the global community for economic development to have access to it. While English is not the cause of the spread of global culture, the fact that so much of popular mass video and music are in English makes the language enticing to many young people, often motivating them to study it. Travel and tourism also fuel the current spread of English. Besides, International airports around the world have essential information available in English and major international hotels have English-speaking staff available. Moreover, the significant role that English plays today in the storage and dissemination of information is another key factor in continued spread. Graddol (1997) further notes that today over 84 per cent of the Internet servers are English medium. These figures clearly demonstrate that one needs to know English today in order to access and contribute to both printed and electronic information. Finally, access to higher education in many countries is dependent on knowledge of English. Although it may not be the medium of instruction, accessing key information in a great variety of fields is often dependent on having reading ability in English. Furthermore, in many countries the sheer cost of higher education is encouraging universities to accept international students as a method of increasing revenues and in such circumstances English is frequently the medium of instruction. In sum, one of the primary reasons for the spread of English today is because it has such a variety of specific purposes.

From the above expanding fields of use of English, a special role is assigned to English in every country, be it pedagogical, functional or interactional. This concentric model displayed by English as a world-wide language represents a variety of aspects in various countries. It deals with types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional allocations in diverse cultural contexts (Kashru, 1992). What is important in Kashru's conceptualisation of the role of English in the three (03) circles in general and the expanding circle in particular (peculiarity lies in the consideration of the status of English as a foreign language) is the domination of

English over the other foreign languages. The case of Algeria is typically significant where English supersedes the other (Spanish, German, Italian, Russian…) languages in the course of FLL (foreign language learning).

2.5.3. The status of English in Algeria

As aforementioned in (2.2.1.), MSA is the official language in Algeria and English is taught as a foreign language. Almost all subjects in different fields of studies (psychology sociology, law, economics…) are taught in Arabic; except, in the faculties of medicine, biology and engineering where teaching is dispensed in French. English has been included in each field curriculum as a compulsory/optional subject. Moreover, with the adoption of English as an international language for communication and its wide use all over the world of academics and research, emphasis on English teaching with varied teaching aspects (written, oral and comprehension) of mastery are enhanced to enable students become proficient in the language and be able to fulfil academic research for future careers.

2.5.4. The English Language and the Educational System

Departing from the idea that English is not the property of only a few countries and, most importantly, considering the importance, utility and universality of English, Algeria has implemented it in the curriculum as the second foreign language. A foreign language learning situation is one of which the target language is not the mother tongue within the country where it is taught. However, its inclusion within the educational system stands for primary importance because of a number of reasons. In this context, Rivers (1985:8-9) mentions a number of frequently cited arguments in favour of foreign language teaching, which are:

- To develop the student's intellectual power through the study of another language.

- To aid their cultural development by bringing them into contact with the literature   written in other languages.

- To increase their understanding of how language functions and bring them through the study of another language to greater awareness of their own language.

– To teach the students how to read another language with comprehension so that to keep abreast of modern writing, research and information. – To give them the experience to express themselves with another framework linguistically, kinetically and culturally.

- Enriching students' personality by bringing them into contact with other norms and ways of thinking, i.e. to bring them to a greater understanding of people across national barriers and linguistic boundaries. This is given by a sympathetic insight into the ways of life and ways of thinking of the people who speak the language they are learning.

– Finally, providing them with the skills needed to communicate orally and to a certain extent in writing to speakers of other languages.

The paramount importance of English in the world has led many countries, including Algeria, to include it at nearly all levels of the educational system. Thus, English is needed as a "passport" or a "key" to cultural, political, economic and technological advancements. The teaching of English in Algeria begins in the Middle School (first year) and is carried out till the end of the Secondary School. In higher education, it is taught either as a "main subject" in the English departments or as an "additional subject" in numerous peripheral institutes such as: economics sciences, sociology, physics and chemistry. Therefore, according to the Ministry of Education (Pedagogical Instructions of 2004: 06), we distinguish two main aims for the English teaching policy in Algeria:

1) - To increase the learners' cross communicative skills and develop the exchange of ideas across nations.

2) - To develop their ability to have access to materials written in English as far as graduate or/and post-graduate students are concerned.

At the age of twelve, generally, our pupils start getting in touch with English. Given the importance of a world language, English is implemented in the first year of the Middle School. Consequently, the learning of foreign languages has been given immense considerations from the policy makers in education. This reflects the will of our different governments to enhance the teaching of foreign languages: French and English. Despite its importance and necessity, English has, unfortunately, no social or communicative value in Algeria. It is of no use outside the classroom either by the teacher or the learner except for some fixed expressions like: 'good morning', 'yes', 'good bye', 'weekend' etc.   In fact, this little use of English and the total absence of a supportive environment tend to impinge heavily on learners' motivation and attitudes towards this language, even for the university students.

2.6. LMD Implementation in the Algerian University

In the course of 2002/2003, Algeria initiated the embodiment of a new (world) system at the tertiary level of education. The LMD system which stands literally as "Bachelor-Master-Doctorate" deriving from the French "*Licence-Master Doctorat*", for BMP standing in return for "**B**achelor of Arts- **M**aster- **P**hilosophia Doctor". Both acronyms (LMD and BMP) are two faces of the same coin and represent two systems globally and respectively used by the Francophone and Anglophone. The globalisation process, actually, boosted the implementation of the LMD system. It has been modelled to the Anglo-American higher education system in search for modernizing and aligning the Algerian tertiary education with international standards. These standards coped conventionally with the European system of higher education launched in June 1999. The convention, then, stipulated

the harmonisation of degree structures and quality assurance procedures to be gained by 2010. Beyond the European context, objectives of sharing experiences were traced. Hence, collaborations with North African countries and Mediterranean region were conducted later. This was introduced under the label of 'co-operation', 'partnership' and 'exchange' to produce academic interaction at graduate level and, practically, to promote Europe as a destination for higher talented students and scholars. At its early beginning, LMD system was apprehended and looked at suspiciously as to avoid the track of the old-wagon fashion. In vein, the wagon was tracked on its rails and the LMD system began effectively to be implemented for the logic perspective of keeping abreast with the world novelties and to align with international standards. The campaign led at that time was that any degree or qualification will be rejected if not framed by and through the LMD system. More than that, any job requirements in the future will necessitate the fulfilment of a curriculum through the LMD system of education; and so, the many reservations among students and teachers alike have undergone future career pressures and fears.

Evidently, to cash up with the fast growing demands of the globalisation process, the Algerian government had no choice, but just to rally the rest of the world at the education level of integration by implementing the LMD system at the tertiary level so as to allow for the comparison and harmonisation of European qualifications. It is clearly declared that this rapprochement of systems of education will promote students mobility without undervaluing their qualifications. What is more encouraging within the implementation of the LMD system is that on job market transparency of qualification is improved and legal competition among individuals will loom largely, hence, requiring more attuned programmes of study to be assigned.

Yet, English language teaching (ELT) is one of the pillar contributions in the implementation of new curricula that feeds the labour market. In this vein, ELT is no more a process of administering general knowledge of the language but a finely-specialised training coping with different needs making use of the language, i.e.,

English language uses are varied, hence, the necessity to cater for specific purposes in the variety of domains, such as: ESP, Journalism, Politics, Literary works, etc. This culminating point shows a clear-cut distinction between the old system's general objectives of teaching English and the new-specific orientation in the language learning. Therefore, bridging the gap between university formations, training and theoretical qualifications and the outer, practical and professional world of work and labour is the rationale behind such an endeavour of engaging a whole system of education through the LMD system. However, after ten years or so, the pros and cons still stand in paradoxical, differing and divergent views as about success or failure of the new system. For some, the LMD system, if set on solid scientific bases and be given the required human, material and pedagogical conditions, will certainly represent the so awaited solution for the Algerian university and the country as a whole. This is meant to assure a quality formation that would gain appreciation and value throughout the world. Besides, advocators of this educational reform reflect the possibility of the new system to face the challenges at the tertiary level and the stakes encountered due to globalisation and the rapid technological advances. In other words, the LMD system is a tool that would permit to align with the international norms. On the other side, some opponents denounce the complete failure of a blindly- borrowed system because of the breakdown of the administration and of an unprofessional conduct in the scientific formation. Yet, for whatever newly- implanted programmes or curricula there should be some need analysis procedure to determine the profile of the targeted population or community as a whole, hence matching the specificities of the context with the proposed doctrine. However, adaptation with the needs and pre-requisites of the Algerian society are placed backward *vis à vis* the necessity of joining the two ends for a successful economic-university junction. Briefly, the local situation is neglected; the agents of action and change remain unaware of the requirements of the system; unless some modifications in the form of examination, in time allotment for the teaching sessions and the new mathematical- credit system for accounting the mark

and average. This proves that a change has occurred at the level of the layout and form of the educational system; but when it comes to basic content and programme, a steady syllabus remains with some stretching here and there and new conceptualisation of old terms as it is the case in many departments and sections, the English one included. Actually, the English department has recently implemented the LMD system in the academic year of 2009. Thus, beyond the potential success or failure of the new LMD system in the Algerian university in general and at the department of English in particular, let's bring into light some clarification about the states of the arts of the English teaching programme proposed for the graduation studies (preparation of the BA degree) in the light of LMD.

2.6.1. The LMD in the English Department

At the level of the University of Tlemcen, in the Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages, and exactly at the Department of Foreign Languages; the English Section stands apparently as one of the four other sections (Arabic, French, Spanish and Translation). The English studies propose, at first, a degree in graduation: a Bachelor of Arts (BA) which is roughly the equivalent of the term or diploma of "Licence"; hence, the first initial letter "L" of the whole abbreviation of the new system 'LMD'. The new perspectives of the new graduation studies within the LMD system stipulate a specialisation in either 'Language studies' or 'Literature and civilisation'. However, just few years ago, the outcome of a four-year study was brought about a general 'Licence' in the English language. What differentiates the new LMD) system from the former (classical) system can be then summarized in the following points:

- This LMD English 'Licence' offers a basic formation in the field of Anglophone literatures and civilisations. Its primary objective is to enhance the linguistic aptitudes that would permit students express themselves clearly and easily using the English language orally and in its written form.

- The LMD English language 'Licence' seeks to consolidate strategies of learning that put forward learner autonomy on the one hand and the collaborative spirit of working in pairs and groups on the other hand.

- The other objective is, however, giving the opportunity to students choose between two options that determine two distinct profiles: 'Language studies' or 'Literature &civilisation'.

These broad objectives, still theoretically biased, are specifically meant to:

- Provide qualifications that fit the requirements of job-market demands where, in an unprecedented manner, English is gaining ground.

- Provide an adequate pedagogic formation safeguarding students' capacity and savoir-faire to transmit knowledge for future generations.

- Be ready to bridge the gaps and fill in the breaches where English lacks in certain domains, namely: Tourism, Intercultural issues, International business, Politics, and whatever global issue that necessitates the use of English as a means of information.

- Establish concordances between the Algerian university-system of studies with the present international/global system of Tertiary education. The main targeted objective behind is to launch openings to the world of scientific research and the easy integration of our students to other world-wide universities sharing the same system.

Some competencies are projected in the run of LMD formation which, actually, reflect students'' profile in search for reaching language proficiency at the

level of the four skills. This is meant to inculcate in the students the capacity to attain sufficiently discourse comprehension and to, practically, reach an acceptable level of the oral and written production. Accordingly, since English has, by large, acquired the status of the international language, it has become necessary to master that language during the graduate studies (B .A formation) in the very first years. In this sense, the time of achievement of the B.A. is basically enrolled in the formation of learners equipped with certain linguistic competencies that permit them not only to write essays, articles and official letters, but still being able to understand, in parallel ways, the other cultures and civilizations of those Anglophone countries where English is primarily used to fulfil every days' interactions and communication. This kind of parallel studies of other cultures may help in the emergence of certain competencies. In return, this may lead the students to hold critical minds where, on purely linguistic grounds, a rational scientific analysis of such socio-cultural phenomena will be set once confronted with a different civilization or culture.

On another ground of potential employment chances, the LMD formation copes with different domains of job supply. The priority is given to the teaching profession. The field of education absorbs a large number of 'Licence' or B.A. holders at the level of 'Middle and 'Secondary schools. The other domain is journalism where mastery of more than one language is a necessity, especially if the other language is English. Tourism is another flourishing sector requiring good potentials at the level of language production, mainly the English language as a means of international communication and common-ground of understanding. The formation in the English language in general (language studies and Literatures and civilizations) can bridge to other domains as interpreting and translation. LMD system, still, as its acronym stipulates, is not only a graduation study for 'Licence' but for 'Master' and 'Doctorate' a post-graduate studies concerned mainly with university/scientific research and teaching in higher education level.

For the sake of providing necessary tools of documentation that appeal for different needs of the teaching units, the list below represents, in general, the available domain sources of readership:

-Linguistics

-Literature

-Civilization

-Didactics (TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language)

-Practical drills and activities

General Culture

-Informatics (ICT: Information Communication Technology)

2.6.2. Biannual Teaching Organisational Sheet for LMD

(Fiche d'organisation semestrielle d'Enseignement)

Below is a recapulative list of teaching modules by semester, hence, B.A. formation includes globally 6 semesters. What calls focus as related to the research is semesters 1 and 2 which dominantly entail the 1st year LMD programme. The other semesters will figure out with more details in the Appendices.

So, within the first semester (hence, S1) we find two types of teaching units: "Fundamental" and "transversal" units. The 'Fundamental' teaching units or simply, these modules include the basic descriptive and competence-based modules such as: Grammar, phonetics, Linguistics; and Oral and written production techniques and discourse Comprehension of written as well as Oral scripts. These fundamental units are meant to constitute the basic teaching modules enabling students in 1st year acquire the necessary Language Component to reach certain Linguistic proficiency. The Descriptive modules (grammar, phonetic and linguistics)

are meant to back up students' knowledge and aware ness of pertinent rules and defining concepts governing the English Language.

However, the competence-based modules, in turn, are basically directed towards the process of perception and production where students will be facing situations of decoding messages of oral or written aspects so as to comprehend linguistic messages grammatically statured and phonologically shaped through either listening or reading. What is clearly observable within the basics of the language teaching is the absence of a separate teaching-time of the listening comprehension as a separate module like reading, written or oral expression. In the other side of the Teaching Units, we find the 'Transverse Units' which are to surrender the formation in English Studies by providing a literary and civilizational profile including some methodological clues, informatics as a tool of well-shaping the research and a general background cultural asset to round up the 1ˢᵗ year formation.

The other "Transverse Units" constitute a completely new Linguistic jargon to 1ˢᵗ year students where new concepts related to literary analyses and civilizational prospects will be the concern of mastery and comprehension. The New jargon is also present in modules like phonetics and linguistics which are filled up with specific terminology and concepts far beyond the reach of understanding of students knowing mainly general English. So, this kind of modules presenting a specific new jargon to 1ˢᵗ year students make up half of the input provided in class especially in Literature, Anglo-Saxon civilisation, or in linguistics or phonetics. This is why these modules should, at maximum, be taught with flexibility and easiness at the level of the introduction of the new terms or terminology. To back up the hypothesis set in the beginning, any input should be comprehensible so as to help understanding or comprehension. The new 'Jargon' should by no means constitute an impediment towards developing comprehension of texts be it written or spoken but a stage of mastery to reach proficiency in Language studies as a whole. To recapitulate, below is a list of the different teaching units (Fundamental and Transverse) with time allotment (week and semester) and coefficient.

	Teaching Units	Weekly Time Allotment	Coefficient
	Fundamental Units		
descriptive	-Grammar	-3	3
	-Phonetics	-3	2
	-Linguistics	-1:30	2
Competence-based	-Oral production	3	3
	-Written production	3	3
	-Discourse Comprehension (oral and written)	3	3
	Transverse Units		
	-Anglo-Saxon Cultures and civilizations	1 :30	2
	-Literary Studies	1 :30	2
	-Research Methodology	1 :30	1
	-General Culture	1 :30	1
	-ICT	1 :30	1

Table: 2.1. Biannual Teaching Organisational Sheet for LMD

2.7.   The Literature Module in the Department

First-year EFL students receive their learning of the target language through a variety of modules: basic modules (reading and listening comprehension, oral and written expression) which are mainly used for communication prospects and other modules representing a special linguistic jargon and technical terms (literature, civilization, phonetics and linguistics). One of these typical- new modules is

analysed and assessed in terms of pedagogical component and overall language mastery.

As a starting point, one should ask the following questions: *what is literature? Why do we read it? What is the importance of literature in language learning in general and in F.L.L in particular? Are all literary works bifacial? Are our EFL Learners able to keep abreast with whatever literary text? Is reading literary texts at the reach of our 1st year EFL LMD students? What kind of literature (literary texts) should we advise our learners to tackle? Can they approach reading literary texts alone? Does reading literary texts constitute an enhancement in the vocabulary learning? Does the cultural load impede comprehension? How should we attempt to approach Literature with 1st year students? Does the initiation to literature constitute an advance to language learning or an obstacle to it? Do we need specific techniques in teaching literature? How about students' altitudes towards literature? How does the literature Jargon contribute to develop language proficiency?

2.7.1. Literature Defined

The concept 'Literature' is here exposed to build up the theoretical background necessary to the present research. In other words, the aforementioned term is looked at as a mere contribution to Language teaching and learning. To come down with a simplistic definition of literature, Oxford Advanced English Dictionary puts it as follows: "stories, poems and plays". Having the value of art or entertainment, is the appreciation of individual readers. In general terms, 'Literature' is meant to describe any written or spoken material from creative writing (imagination, fiction, poetry, drama…) to more technical or scientific works. However, the two basic written literary categories in clued fiction and non-fiction. This categorization includes pure works of imagination handed out through novels, short stories, poems though taken from real happenings. The other non-fiction works are delivered by the report making, narratives, scientific syntheses and media

elaborations on different topics as put down by researchers (scientists, linguists...) and were journalists.

2.7.2. -Literature and Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Views diverge about the inclusion of Literature in the learning of foreign Languages, hence opponents and proponents conflict as far as the usefulness of literary studies in Language classrooms. Such views reflect the historic separation between the study of literature and purely linguistic-oriented studies of the target language. This view supports the limited role of literature in the Language classroom for entertainments extra-activities beyond the official mapped syllabus and specific-Jargon addition to round up the general knowledge of the use of Language. However, the use of literary texts should rather be a powerful pedagogical tool in the process of teaching/learning of Language as advocated by others. So, instead of putting focus only on teaching standard forms of linguistic expressions to reach linguistic accuracy there is clear evidence that any language learner needs complete immersion into literary writings to achieve comprehension of nuances, stylistic deviation and overall transactional forms of communicative competence of that language. Thus, communicative competence is more than acquiring mastery of structure and form (linguistic competence). It goes, certainly beyond where it involves acquiring the ability to interpret discourse in all its social and cultural contests (communicative competence). Combined together, a language learner will be apt reaching a practical interaction using the language accurately, communicating appropriately and facing different situations accordingly, hence getting to real world use of Language (pragmatic competence). Neither barriers (linguistic, cultural or stylistic) come at the fore of a suitable interaction using the Language. In this vein, Gower (1986) believes that the "Reading of literature provides students with introduction to the reading of British and American literature. It concentrates on helping them actually read what sometimes difficult texts are. While at the same time giving those help with literary history, biography, and differences in genre, technical literary

terminology and literary criticism (Gower, 1986:126) in this respect, teachers of languages in general should in traduce language learners to as many discourse types as possible. Because language (spoken &written) is exposed in a variety of ways and different types of discourse, it can be represented through the three-level classification:

-Expressive which focuses on personal expression (letters, diaries, etc.)

-Transactional which focuses on both the reader and the message (advertising, business letters, editorials, instructions…)

-Poetic which focuses on form and Language (drama, poetry, novels, short stories, etc…)

These discourse types already play a significant role in teaching various aspects of Language such as vocabulary and structure, or simply set to test learner's comprehension.

When literature is cited as a pedagogical tool in the language classroom, the text-type appropriateness emerges as whether au then city is advisable to foreign Language learners or not. Certain teachers, course designers and examiners too are reluctant vis a vis the introduction of authentic, unabridged texts for being complex and inaccessible. If conceived in such a away these texts are rather detrimental to the process of Language learning. Because it is difficult to teach the stylistic features of a literary text (discourse) to learners (in our case 1st year EFLLMD F.L.L), literature is seen as inappropriate to the Language classroom. The reason behind is sketched out in that

1)-the creative use of Language in poetry and prose often deviates from the conventions and rules which govern standard, non-literary discourse and, 2)- the Language learner needs great effort to interpret literary texts depicting other social and cultural hints conveyed differently in a literary style completely detached from the reader's immediate social context. Never the less, in a trial to come around the

puzzling concept of literature, many authors, critics and linguists come to a common ground position to state that literary texts are simply products reflecting different aspects of society. They are, also, viewed as documents offering deeper understanding of a country or group of people. Because it reflects the society of that speech community, language is best understood if learnt through an original piece of input. In other words, let's overlap the boundaries seemingly separating literary and non-literary discourse. More than that, the whole erray of literary devices (alliteration, assonance, register, imagery…) is commonly found in daily interactions with Language in standard transactions. Here, a few examples are given as such:

-Headline: King Khan Goes Gold (The Scotsman, 2004)

-Advertisement: Put a Tiger in your Tank (Esso)

So, the boundaries between the two (literary and non-literary discourses) are not so distinct, rather each help exploit the other face. Therefore, many researchers agree that there are many reasons for making use of literature in the Language classroom.

These are:

-Literature is primarily authentic input and unabridged Language reflecting the type of difficulty supposedly faces outside the classroom.

-Literature raises Language awareness where different norms of Language are in use.

-Literature educates. When reading, a reader depicts values and develops altitudes surely necessary for the world outside the classroom.

-Literature motivates. It can enhance the desire the achieve high status and to feel a real sense of achievement at understanding a highly respected piece of literature of a given society or culture.

In sum, 3 main approaches can be advanced, according to Carter in describing the rationale for the use of Literature in EFL/ESL contexts. The first

model is typically cultural. It asks to explore and interpret the social, political, literary and historical environment of a specific literary text. It simply helps inculcate in learners the universality of thoughts, the understanding of cultures and ideologies in relation to their own local ones. A second model resumes the use of literature through Language utility. It is rather a Language based approach. It serves analyse systematically and methodologically certain Linguistic features, such as: literal VS. figurative Language, direct VS indirect speech, or may serve other linguistic goals in the form of activities requesting creative writing (imagine the end) quizzes (Jumbles ideas of the texts) and role-play (characterization and Language practice). This model can be oriented to grammar or vocabulary teaching too. Samples of such are something exhibited in certain text books where excerpts of literary texts are chosen to present a purely linguistic goal. So, when readers come to the point of understanding, interpreting and constructing meaning from the text, it means simply that the interaction between the text and the reader has been successfully beneficial culturally, linguistically and personally.

2.7.3. Teaching Literature in an EFL Context

It is quite necessary to adopt a multi-faceted approach when teaching literature in Language classrooms, especially in an EFL context where Language tasks are hard to achieve beside the cultural load within. To enable a free, motivating and engaging interaction of EFL learners, with whatever literary text, teacher should hold a position of rather 'facilitators' where their role is to integrate the language and the stylistic analysis to make it accessible to a more wider range of students. This amalgamation of Language and literature is biased on the principle of bridging the Linguistic and literary competence by introducing the two approaches: Language-oriented and stylistics-oriented analyses. In like manner, this principled introduction of linguistic and literary components is a means put forward to raise awareness that linguistic potential of EFL learners is not distinct from a sense of literary effect (Widdowson, 1992). What comes clear, however, from mere observations and from

discussion with some actors in the teaching field of literature, is the dependence on the judgment al authority, the purveyor of knowledge: the teacher. It is crystal clear that at the level of 1st year EFL learners, the teacher takes the lion shave in the class talk; he initiates the discussion, promotes the tasks, conducts the process and concludes with his own views.

Such reliance on teachers and literary criticism books make EFL students in steady progress Vis a Vis skill of reading literary texts, and then, the hardest outcome is the burden making up their own meanings.

Therefore, to gain more insight into alternative teaching techniques used in EFL literature classrooms, empirical evidence makes it an essential parameter to integrate the many diverse teaching approaches (Language-oriented, stylistic analysis, activity-based, process oriented, etc.) to pave the way to a complete engagement of EFL students through the variety of profiles exposed to them. It basically serves to make a transparent illustration of the proposed ways of literature teaching and learning in an EFL context where literature is tackled for the initial time by our undergraduate students. There is no doubt, therefore, about the many benefits in using literature in the EFL classrooms. It simply offers a distinet literary world widening learners' understanding, (acknowledging and comparing other cultural traits typical to other nations with their own vision. At the linguistic level, grammar construction will solidify and lexical knowledge is reinforced with new expressions, idioms and other parts of speech. The contextual clues in deciphering and decoding meaning are all-time present in literary texts where linguistic and communicative skills and knowledge of other different uses of language constitute, in fact, a powerful pedagogical tool.

2.7.4. The Status of Literature in the English Department

Departing from the fact that literature constitutes a powerful pedagogical tool, the English department has, purpose fully and accordingly engaged in the teaching of literature both American and British since its official settlement in 1989. The initial difficulty was to find

teachers who are qualified in the field of literary studies. In convenience was due, at first, to a lack of a special staff of teachers concerned with the teaching of "literature" module; however, at present many qualified teachers holding "PHD and master (magister) degrees are responsible of the whole literary mainstream as a specific orientation within the LMD system. In the same line of thought, the department is providing training sessions and lectures in a variety of skills(cognitive and meta-cognitive) mainly related to the four major skills, grammar, linguistics, phonetics and some others typically in concern with analyzing, synthesizing and interpreting where by the literature modules and civilization ones. In here, the department puts forward the necessity to establish some primary means to achieve inter cultural developments in these fields through critical reading of a wide range of texts in American and British literature and civilization. Moreover, within the relatively recent trends of specialization, hence the LMD system, Language is supposedly pushed to a utilitarian purpose where literature has become a real outcast, a field of interest and motivation and the vocation fitting many students' profiles. In like manner, the purpose of using literature with EFL learners is "because it taps what they know and who they are. Literature is particularly inviting context for learning both a second/Foreign language and literacy" (Langer, 97). In other terms, literature allows students to reflect on their lives, learning and language itself. Besides, through literature, EFL learners are exposed to a variety of styles and genres where the sources of language are more fully and skill fully used. Indeed, the literature initial practice at the level of 1st year EFL learning process can only give benefits: students gain knowledge of vocabulary, grammar and paragraph structure, interactive communication skills, and types and styles of writing. For gaining the objective of a well-rounded EFL student, the department seeks to tightly link Language and literature through the teaching of idiomatic Language, cultural context, challenges of reading and comprehension skills, promoting correctness through authentic texts expensive, and enhance readership through a content-based literature which is carefully selected to meet students' levels and needs. In this respect, one should be careful choosing the most appropriate works among the very large range. Some simplistic principles should foremost out stand any selection. These principled conditions, in brief, are related to the language used, the theme or topic, the author or writer's fame and most importantly a free-cultural or religious load to avoid conflict or offense.

2.7.5. Objectives of Teaching Literature in the English Department.

 Keeping the targeted purposes is controversial to the actual state of the arts as far as the teaching of literature in a F.L context. Though many broad lines of pedagogical profit can be traced to justify the utilitarian aspect of Literature, many natural and Legitimate questions arise as to the why, how, when and what to teach as an initial step, hence 1st year EFL-LMD students. The 'why' is directly linked to the opportunities given trough the implementation of literature in any curriculum; these are:

-read literary master pieces in the original version

-get better knowledge of the target Language.

-develop in the students the reading skills

-share with others (motions, positions…)

-be familiar with other cultures.

The 'when' comes in tight relation to the students 'preparedness to deal with longer extracts of texts (short stories, excerpt from novels) or new text format (poems). This time concordance shows the students' level of mastery of English and if literature is to be part of the learning programme. This is to say that other questions are relatedly connected to the general aim and outcome of introducing literature to our 1st year EFL students. These coming questions are what to teach and how?

The 'what' should constitute an initial step towards an appropriate selection fitting students interests and levels and encouraging further challenging texts to be appreciated in a long run. Then, comes naturally, in a smooth manner, the developing in in students a taste of literature, appreciation and readership, hence becoming completely involved in the learning of the Language and all its encounters In the present survey on literature, the researcher has meat to precise the solely aim behind as to present literature not only as a procedure to overcome some Language problems (connotation, within the literary conventions, simile…) but rather emphasize on the fact that literature constitutes a source of Language input. It should be put crystal clear that literature should become a source among others for promoting Language learning by gaining profit from motivation and interest of literary texts where tailored

activities are given to develop the lexical store, the grammatical system or Language as a whole. It remains, outstandingly, that the primary purpose is still Language development in the four skills. More than that, it is highly recognized that literature is art that needs textual perception: how to read a written text critically and how to respond to the challenge of understanding non-print texts (such as play, films, advertisements…).

So, in teaching literature and language, EFL learners are supposed to be able to:

-Understand the functions and characteristics of conjunctions interjections and prepositions

-Use coordinating, subordinating and correlative conjunctions correctly.

-Avoid common usage problems will all types of conjunctions

-Identify subjects and predicates and distinguish between formal and informal Language.

-Write and identify active and passive voice

-Understand the difference between independent and dependent clause

-Use correct spelling, understand double consonant spelling, clusters, digraphs and develop knowledge of syllable formation and sound patterns

-Develop knowledge of lexis through the use of prefixes suffixes, abbreviation, synonyms, antonyms, homographs, and homophones.

-Demonstrate ability to extract lexical items from a variety of sources: newspapers, magazines, novels…

-correctly adhere to mechanism of the Language.

Using literature as a source for learning language is reinforced by Krashen (1994) in put theory. He advocates the integration of a particular

Content which is authentic (case of literary teats) and meaning full (to fill learners' level of understanding). In other words, if students can acquire the content area of the subject matter with comprehensible input, this will simultaneously increase their Language skills. Under such circumstances, students are more familiar with the content and the meaning of the

provided (selected) topic. Krashen el al (1998) suggests that EFL teachers must choose texts (written or spoken) at an appropriate level of complexity so as the topic has to hold students' interest to increase their motivation for learning. In like manner the introduced (extract/excerpt) novels or short stories should contain specific topics taking into consideration the culture, the reading levels and interest of learners. Besides, the focus of the class activities is intentionally directed towards the elicitation of the context, the practice of the thinking skills and the development of the language abilities.

2.7.6. Developing Independent Reading through Literature

It's crystal clear that literature courses do not allow time for reading sessions in class. Logically, only short passages are selected after a whole reading done before the class independently. This private study or invisible reading process is per se an engagement toward independent reading. Though, seemingly difficult, the reading of a piece of literature gives opportunities to students (readers) to read if not critically, analytically or interpretatively, they are doing it in search for the gist. Within this engagement in reading literary texts, selection, monitoring and strategy teaching should be led by teachers to gain students' positive altitudes and create motivation among EFL learners. Be it prose, poetry or drama, a good selection of literary texts is predominantly useful if it fits 1st year EFL students interest in terms of the men, topic, characters and style of writing. A teacher-led explanation followed by class discussion is the ideal process in modern studies of literature. The type of chosen texts is supposed to reach the students' cognitive level first so as to induce the EFL reader respond accordingly; then other metacognitive operation could be separately processed still with the help of the teacher. Within the monitoring of the teacher, all relevant analytical categories are guided systematically to make the read stop when necessary, reflect on where needed, and refer back to earlier passages once required. That kind of intake done in class with the help of the teacher can serve as a model of free reading outside the class. In other words, this strategy settlement might only be worth for EFL students investing time and effort outside the class for more readings and literary proficiency.

Also, electronic access is increasingly becoming quite vital, i.e. with the emergence of the new technics and multimedia use, on line materials and resources are to be integrated into

the course design. However, for much faithfulness and awareness- rising, respect of intellectual property rights are shown explicitly to avoid blind copyright copying to constitute simply a flexible and speedy access to materials and not a thorough ready-made exploitation. So, to avoid such a counter-fact analysis of any literary text, teachers are requested to address their students via typical questions of self-inquiry while and after they read. These questions are normally few not many, short not long, clear not ambiguous and related to matters of significance. This kind of productive strategy allows for a pleasurable aspect of reading where they have to read for the gist, pick out key words, pay attention to the format and, hence, students may begin to generate their own 'good' questions.

Within the delivery of literature courses, students not only read extracts of written pieces but listen to lectures too. As concerned with one type of delivery, teachers (Teacher talk) are engaged to invest meaning in their utterances through their emphases, tones of voices, facial expressions, gestures. The other type of delivery is provided by using some technology instruments (CD, DVD, Programs, OHP....). In here, student listeners need to work at making sense of what they hear simultaneously with no chance to interact (interactive listening) with the speaker. Then, comes reading a print using visual displays, using slides or Power Point where the eye and the Lorain support the understanding by making pauses at certain points to reconsider previous passages or expressions to carry on the flow of completing the task of comprehension.

In a way they (readers) can control the density of ideas and the pace of delivery. However, the rate of grasping ideas should be diverse and natural: Nether too thick and fast nor too slow and light.

Last, but not the least, recent SL/FL reading research shows that extensive reading helps improve student's Language proficiency by focusing on the overall meaning of the text, extracting some Language expressions useful for possible oral and written productions and enriching, mainly the vocabulary stock of any Language learner. Consequently, these engaged readers of literature will develop their 'English' Language.

Proficiency conveys their thoughts through Language promote higher level thinking skills and use Language authentically.

2.8. Vocabulary in Discourse Comprehension Module

There are opportunities for vocabulary learning though the receptive skills of listening and reading. With careful thought and planning, listening and Reading can be important means of vocabulary growth. Actually, learning vocabulary through the listening/Reading skills is one type of learning through meaning-focused input (Nation, 2001). In concordance with a reasonable success at guessing from context in order to gain reasonable comprehension, learners need at least 95% coverage of the running words in the input (Hu, Nation, 2003). This is to state that a threshold level of lexical mastery is needed for an ongoing process of comprehending any Language input. In other terms, this is a sign or a condition that the size of one's' vocabulary seems to be a determining factor for Second or Foreign Language learning (Meara, 1996). Obtaining a sufficiently large vocabulary appears also to correlate strongly with other linguistic competences in the target Language. In the same line of thought, to operate independently in the target Language, learners need a certain amount of vocabulary (Alderson and Banerjee 2001). Vocabulary size, however, refers to the number of words a Learner knows for comprehending a written or oral input. This is a decisive parameter for evaluation, classroom intervention and instruction development (schimitt2000, Nation 2001, Meara2002). So, in scholar's assertions, vocabulary needs to be integrated into any course, mainly those related to the comprehension of any discourse be it written or oral.

2.8.1. The Listening Vocabulary

There could be plenty of means for supporting the listening skill through the provision of written input that is directly related to different tasks in the listening module. These various means can prove to be very useful when learners have a quite large reading vocabulary; however, these learners or listeners have little opportunity to improve their listening skills vis a vis a foreign Language whose sounds are hardly reasoning in community lacking interaction with that target Language. Never the less, receptive information transfer constitutes one of the means presenting activities where the Listening input is turned to diagrammes. Here is an example where EFL Learners have to fill in a time table as they listen to tow students talking to each other about their classes

	Sunday	Monday	……………	Wednesday	Thursday
8 :30-10		O.E	DC		
10-11:30	Ling	………	Sem. Lit		
…………..		gram	…… ………		
13-14:30	W.E	……….	phonetics		
1430-16	……..	Methodology			

Table: 2.2: A sample time- table of 1ˢᵗEFL/LMD1 programme (elaborated for drilling)

 Note that some spaces should be already filled in (the underlined ones). This helps learners check where they are on the task and provides helpful vocabulary that they will hear in the spoken description or dialogue. Also, worth noting, some of the required words may be listed just below the table to help listeners situate themselves cognitively and phonologically. Accordingly, palmer (1982) provides a wide range of suggestions land marks where the heard information is to be espoused with the forms suggested below:

-Map and plans: streets, tours, architects' plan, theatre seats, weather forecast.

-Grids and tables: passport details, polls, time tables, football results.

-Diagrams and charts: family tree, climate, pie graphs, flow charts.

-Diaries and Calendars: office holidays, appointments, hotel booking.

-Lists, forms, coupons: radio programmes, menus, diets, shopping, car rental forms.

As a second means for enhancing the listening skill learners should be/are invited to see a written version of what they are listening to. This is called listening while reading. Nowadays teachers make use of several graded readers in company with a recorded script or dictation such a process well conducted through useful work of Language laboratories'.

As a case in point, the teacher reads a story to the learners and writes important words on the blackboard as they occur in the reading aloud. In the meantime, the teacher should repeat sentences, and go to a speed that the Learners can easily keep up with. The idea behind such a technique is that graded readers which are within the learner's vocabulary level are suitable. Learners, in the same token, can listen to stories that they have already read. In this vein, Elley (1989) and Brett, Rothlein and Hurley (1996) stress a growing body of evidence

that F.L Learners can pick up new vocabulary are they are being read to. Actually, there are some conditions that make vocabulary learning in progress depending on teacher's savoir-faire when they read aloud to their learners. The main conditions are: interest in the content of the story, comprehension of the story, understanding of the unknown words and retrieval of the meaning of certain words not yet strongly established, decontextualisation of the target words, and thoughtful generative processing of the target vocabulary. So, primarily, the most important condition to encourage Learning relates to the choice of what is read, namely interest (Elley, 1989)put in other terms, Learners need to be interested in what they are Listening to. In here, teachers can help arouse leaners' interest by choosing stories that Learners are Likely to be interested in, by presenting a story in serial form so that interest increases episode by episode and by involving the Learners in the story. The second condition stipulates that Learners need to be able to understand the story. There are several sources of difficulty in learning vocabulary from listening to stories: there is the vocabulary load (density of unknown words), the parallel support (background knowledge pictures and definition) and the semantic- morphological difficulties (form and meaning of the words). According to Nation and Hu (1992), the ratio of unknown words for extensive Listening in a foreign language should be around 1 in 100, which urges teachers to choose "easy books" in order for most of learners to gain adequate comprehension. The following condition is the possibility the retrieve the Learnt (comprehended) vocabulary in repeated exposures to serialized stories or several stories on the same topic where the same vocabulary returns again and again. In this vein the researcher will induce, on the same pattern cited above, two (long) serialized stories through Listening, then reading, to keep on in traducing the characterization and events on the same topic. Doing so, Learners will certainly keep up with the story continuously and in terest grows more and more once re-introduced in a sense of cuts relating to the same story. There is a tendency in continuous stories for vocabulary to be repeated. Teachers can maximize this by briefly retelling what happened previously in the story before continuing with the next installment. Accordingly Hwang and Nation (1989) state that there is great effect of continuous stories and repetition on vocabulary retrieval

Still, those retrieved Lexical items which are extracted from Listening passages can be, in return, put aside on separate lists to be analyzed out of their context. Hence, taking any word from its message context makes of it a mere Language item that should be regarded as a Lexical component has its own definition, translation and meaning. So, explanation of

words in a story may result in greater learning of vocabulary for deeper comprehension compared to Listening to a story where no words are listed, displayed and explained. That is, there is a generalization effect for vocabulary explained though decontextualized. By training learners not only in guessing from context but also through deliberate vocabulary focused Learning (i.e. incidental and intentional learning), will simply complement the learning of vocabulary in and out of context. In like manner, Learners need to meet new words in differing contexts that stretch their knowledge of the words. Put otherly, while learners listen to stories in a range of linguistic contexts, teachers can try to launch the process of read aloud of input in the following ways as suggested by Nation (2001).

*Rather than read the same story several times, it is better to use a longer story and present it part by part as a serial. As mentioned earlier on repeated retrieval, long texts provide an opportunity for the same vocabulary to occur and recur. If this recurrence is in contexts which differ from those previously met in the story, the generative use will contribute to Learning.

*If the teacher is able to supplement story telling with pictures, by using B.B drawings, an OHP or a blown-up book, then this will contribute to learning vocabulary in a positive way.

*If it is possible to provide simple contextual definitions of words, that is definitions using example sentences. This could help learning if the example sentences differ from those where the word occurs in the story. The contextual definition would then be a generative use of the word.

Learning vocabulary from spoken input is an effective means of vocabulary expansion. However, the five conditions considered above though separately dealt with, do clearly interact: interest and comprehension are   clearly related; decontextualisation, repetition and deep processing also affect each other, what is more interesting to mention is that all the conditions apply not only to incidental learning from spoken input but also to more deliberate language-focused learning. The table below lists the five conditions and features that may enhance the learning of vocabulary from listening to stories. It suggests the priority of certain features over others if the teachers' performance in reading a story is to be rated. As an instance, using interesting material deserves more points than involving the learners; or that serialization should be accounted for as an interest arousing:

Conditions	Features		
	Useful	Very useful	Excellent
-Interest	-Involve the listeners	-Serialise	-Use interesting material
-Comprehension	-Choose easy words to focus on	-Control the pace simplify	-Choose easy material use pictures
-Repeated retrieval	-Don't note up too soon don't wait too long between readings	-Serialise a long story use related texts	-Reread/retell the same stories
-Decontextualisation	-Put words on the black board	-Encourage negotiation	-Define simply translate
-Deep processing	Point to a word on the B.B		-Serialise retell differently.
	-Use contextual definitions	-Use pictures	

Table.2.3: Conditions and Features enhancing vocabulary learning from Listening to Stories (Nation, 2001: 122)

Note: * The assignment of features to useful, very good and excellent is partly supported by research by giving points for each of the features listed in the table.

2.8.2. The Reading Vocabulary

Just as the oral skill of listening can contribute to vocabulary growth, so can the written skill of reading; hence both receptive skills being the ultimate widespread source of input in the learning of English as a foreign Language. In like manner, the control of reading skill can be a major factor in vocabulary development not only for foreigners but for native speakers too. Likely, the English department at the university of Tlemcen, with conformity with research on reading shows that vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are very

closely related.(Stahl 1990; Nation,1993).This relationship is not uni-directional, i.e. vocabulary knowledge can help reading, and reading can contribute to vocabulary growth.

The discourse comprehension module (reading comprehension) as set within the 1st year programme is meat to encounter the main traits characterizing the English-speaking world. That's why an already established programme has been established for 1st year EFL students to deal basically with the British Isles, United Kingdom and Great Britain as a wide; then typical written extract or excerpts related to individual countries representing their social lives, main towns a cities, prominent figures in science, culture, art and politics and other diverse topics still in connection the native community of the target Language. The actual existing papers "course book" is the achievement of Benmoussat (1996) and is still largely used by the majority of beginning teachers. In due course, there has been continuing interest in whether there is a Language knowledge threshold which marks the boundary of successful language use. To define the needed threshold level in Language proficiency, we should consider that the most pressing need of the foreign Language learner is vocabulary, then come other parameters, like; subject matter knowledge, and then syntactic struck (Lanfer and Sim, 1985a). In convenience with the question of the threshold level, Lanfer (1992b) looked at the relative contribution of vocabulary, grammar and background knowledge to reading comprehension. Her main interest is to determine the minimal Language proficiency level where comprehension input could only suit a large scale of heterogeneous classes of learners to reach a minimum level of comprehension even for simplified texts.

Garver (1994), in this sense, argues that for learners to use reading to increase their vocabulary size, they need to read material that is not too easy for them, otherwise they will meet few unknown words. However, easy reading may increase depth of vocabulary knowledge, but it is unlikely to increase breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Learners need to know a substantial amount of vocabulary in order to read authentic material, especially academic texts.

It is important that teachers match learner's aptitudes and reading material to suit the various goals of learning vocabulary through reading. Among the variety of goals, we, as teachers, may include developing fluency in reading, reading with adequate comprehension and also reading for pleasure. In this concern, the English staff may opt for several ways of

doing this matching. One way is to let learners select the material that they want to read on a trial and error basis. In other terms, a flexible, free choice is handed on to learners on the basis that they have a preliminary understanding of the different types of reading and the vocabulary requirements of each type. The other way is done through vocabulary test. The latter is meant to test learner's vocabulary knowledge using typically receptive vocabulary measures like the vocabulary levels test. A very simple vocabulary, test can be done through the instruction 'Look at the following page and indicate or underline the unknown words. This could suffice though not a very reliable method.

Coming to comprehensible input's effect on vocabulary growth, the small amounts of incidental vocabulary learning from reading can easily grow if learner's read large quantities of 'comprehensible input'. Any learner of a F.L may get mistaken within the instruction of practicing intensive and /or extensive reading. Yet, intensive reading involves the close deliberate study of short texts, sometimes less than one hundred words long, but usually around 300-500words long (Nation, 2001: 149). Within intensive reading, the involved procedures focus mainly on vocabulary, grammar and discourse of the texts having as a target objective, subsequently, the understanding of the text so, this deliberate attention to Language features means that intensive reading fits within the stand of Language focused learning rather than on meaning focused trade. The latter strand is the focus of extensive reading. From a vocabulary perspective, it (extensive reading) is meant not only to achieve vocabulary growth but also to reach fluency development in reading.

Below is a table representing the different types of reading and vocabulary coverage for each? In extensive reading, texts should contain about 5% of unknown lexical items (excluding Proper Nouns). This very limited rate ensures comprehension and guessing, hence vocabulary growth.

Type of reading	Learning goals	%of vocabulary coverage
-Intensive reading	-Developing Language -Developing strategy use knowledge	-Less than 95%coverage
-Extensive reading for Language growth	-Incidental vocabulary learning -Reading skills	-95-98% coverage
-Extensive reading for fluency development	-Reading quickly	-99-100%coverage

Table: 2.4. Types of reading and vocabulary coverage (Nation, 2001: 150)

From the above sketched data of reading types and learning goals and vocabulary coverage, it is assumed that repetition of unknown vocabulary which is continuously provided through texts dealing with the same topic, can only display favorable condition for deepening vocabulary knowledge by guessing from context. More than that, extensive and intensive reading if well planned in a balanced programme can be very beneficial for several academic and personal reasons. Firstly reading is essentially an individual activity where learners read and learn at their own capacity and pace far from a stressing class programme. Secondly, the flexibility in choosing their reading texts and topics converge with their proper interests, hence increasing their motivation in learning. Thirdly, it provides the opportunity for learning to occur in and outside the classroom.

It is crystal clear, however, that extensive reading can be and effectively, according to various studies (Huang and Van Narssen, 1987; Elley and Mangubhai, 1989; Gradman and Hanania, 1991, Green and Oxford, 1995), a major factor in success in learning another Language. Therefore, success in formal study should push teachers to install favorable conditions for a reading environment in and outside the class. These correlational studies showed that extensive reading of what ere print (newspapers, magazines, leaflets, and stories) can only help, with other input sources in Language development. However, vocabulary learning from extensive reading is very fragile (fear of attrition) if not, soon, followed by reinforcement but another meeting or exposure.

That's why, in general, research on vocabulary instruction has proved that a combination of both contextual and definitional methods are more effective on reading comprehension as well as on vocabulary learning (Stahl and Fairbanks, 1986)

2.9. Types of Vocabulary Activities with Input

In this concern, vocabulary exercises are classified into fire levels in learning from input. This classification (Paribakht and Wesche, 1996; Gass, 1988) is relatedly linked to the conditions where vocabulary exercises occur within a Five-level ranking.

1-The apperceived input or noticing is affected by repetition, salience and prior knowledge. In other term using selective attention can be drawn from highlighting, underlining, italicizing, bolding, etc. This directed consciousness raising makes the word(s) more salient the next time met.

2-Comprehended input is a first step towards receptive retrieval. At this level, recognition activities include matching words with synonyms definitions or even pictures.

3-Manipulation level, or to use Gass's term 'intake' is the inclusion of some morphological analyses using affixation.

4-'Interpretation' and/or 'integration' involve activities like guessing from context, matching with collocates and synonyms, and finding the old word out in a list of lexical items.

5-The production level or simply put as 'the output' which goes though answering inference questions using the target vocabulary

Likely, Nation (1996) has summarized the type of possible activities related to vocabulary understanding and retrieval as follows:

Sample1: a 1000 word level true/false test (Nation 1993) Write T if a sentence is true. Write N if it is not true. Write X if you do not understand the sentence. We cut time into minutes, hours and days. ------- Some children call their mother Mama. ------- All the world is under water. ------- When you keep asking, you ask once. -------	**Sample 5: an interview test** (Wesche and Paribakht adapted by Read 1995) The learners are given a word which they respond to using the following statements. 1 I haven't seen this word before. 2 I have seen this word before, but I don't know What it means. 3 I have seen this word before and I think it means… 4 I know this word. It means… 5 I can use this word in a sentence.
Sample 2: a levels matching test (Nation 1983) 1 accident 2 thread ------ loud deep sound 3 debt ------something you must pay 4 fortune -------having a high opinion of yourself 5 pride 6 roar	They are then questioned further on the word and their response is ranked on this scale. **Vocabulary knowledge scale** **1** The word is not familiar. 2 The word is familiar but the meaning is not known. 3 One meaning of the word is partly known. 4 One meaning of the word is known and its use is correctly exemplified. 5 A second meaning or use of the word is partly Known. 6 A second meaning or use of the word is known and its use is correctly

Sample3: a vocabulary depth test (Read 1995)
 	
Choose four words that go with the test word. Choose at least one from each of the two boxes.
 	
Sudden
 	
<table><tr><td>Beautiful quick
Surprising thirsty</td><td>Change   doctor
Noise   school</td></tr></table>
	Sample 6: a multiple-choice test (Joe 1993)
	
	Chronic means a)greatly improved
	                    b) cruel
	                    c)extreme
	                    d) long-lasting
	
	chronic means a) lasting for a long time
	                   b)dissatisfied
	                   c) to greatly decrease
	                   d) effective and harmless

Sample 4: a definition completion test (Read 1995) A journey straight to a place is------------ An illness that is very serious is ---------- A river that is very wide is ------- Part of your body that is not covered by any clothes is ------- Something that happens often is ---------	**Sample 7: a yes/no test** (Meara 1989) Tick the words you know. adviser ghastly contord implore morlorn moisten patiful

Sample8: Multiple choice with a non-defining context (Vocabulary Size Test)
 	
Beck: She sat by the (beck)
 	
    a   small river
    b   fire outside on the ground
    c   edge of the road
    d   round window
	Sample 10: a translation test
	
	Translate the underlines words into you first language.
	
	1 You can see how the town has <u>developed</u>. --------
	2 I cannot say much about his <u>character.</u> ----------
	3 Her <u>idea</u> is a very good one. ------------
	4 I want to hear only the <u>facts</u>. ------------

Sample9: productive levels test (Laufer and Nation 1995) The workers cleaned up the me…….before they left. Her favourite musical instrument was a tru…… People manage to buy a house by raising a more…….from	**Sample 11: a forced choice (Shore and Durso, 1990)** Mark the sentence that uses the underlined word appropriately. There is always a correct sentence in each pair. Guess if you are not sure. a) The circus performer could juggle the <u>dowager</u>. b) The <u>dowager</u> has her deceased husband to thank for her wealth.

Table: 2.5. Testing vocabulary: Sample items (Nation: 2013)

2.10. Survey of Vocabulary Teaching Methods in Algeria

A review of FL vocabulary acquisition through past decades provides a useful introduction to the current state of both theory and research. It also examines the topic of vocabulary development, from a number of perspectives, looking at positive points and short comings of the running methodologies. All of the research findings brought by contributors in a wide variety of issues lexical competence at the heart of Language proficiency. The

survey examines the position assigned to vocabulary within each of the major trends in Language pedagogy.

The primary goals of each pedagogical approach are described and the implications for vocabulary instruction are examined. The purpose of this survey is to build a better understanding of the past and to position future lexical pedagogy.

2.10.1. The Grammar Translation Method:

The primary goals of this method were to prepare students to read and write classical materials and to pass standardized exams (Howatt, 1984; Rivers, 1981). By classical materials we mean courses in classical Latin and Greek where students were provided detailed explanations grammar in their native Languages, paradigms to memorize, and bilingual vocabulary lists to learn. These steps of learning prepared them for the regular task of translating long passages of the classics. Yet, a wording to Howatt (1984), lessons typically consisted of reading selection, two or three long columns of new vocabulary items with native Language equivalents and a test. In this method, primarily the Language skill was attested according to ones' ability to analyse the syntactic structure and to the conjugation of verbs.

The Grammar Translation Method portrayed literary Language samples for study where archaic structures and obsolete vocabulary were primarily used. In the sane line of thought, Rivers (1981) added that students were exposed to a wide literary vocabulary that was selected according to its ability to illustrate grammatical rules. However, when vocabulary difficulties were addressed, their explanations depended largely on etymology.

The teaching of vocabulary was based on definition and etymology throughout the 19th century. Bilingual word lists (vocabularies), used as instrumental aids rather than as reference, were organised according to semantic fields and had been a normal part of grammars and readers. During the period of Grammar Translation methodology, bilingual dictionaries became common as reference tools. The rising problem that emerged from such dictionaries was the dangers of misuse of cognates. More than that, the primary objection to the method was the neglect of realistic, oral Language.

2.10.2. The Reform Movement:

As aforementioned, Grammar Translation dominated Language teaching to the late 1920sand, then, challenged by many critics and European linguistics like, Henry Sweet who established the Reform Movement in England.

The Reformers emphasized the primacy of spoken Language and phonetic training [8]

The curriculum developed by Sweet is considered representative of the time (Howatt.1984). His system began with the mechanical stage, where students studied phonetics and transcription, continued to the grammatical stage, where they studied grammar and very basic vocabulary, and then the idiomatic stage, where they pursued vocabulary in greater depth. Sweet's lessons were based on carefully controlled spoken Language in which lists of separated words and isolated sentences were avoided. The most significant change brought by reformers concerning vocabulary was that words were associated with reality and with a context. To this end vocabulary was selected according to its simplicity and usefulness.

2.10.3. The direct Method:

Its name came from the priority of relating meaning directly with the target Language without the step of translation. It developed through the principal that interaction is the heart of natural Language acquisition. The Language of instruction was the target Language. Every day, within intensive classes consisting of carefully graded progressions, vocabulary and sentences were used. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), the direct Methods based its vocabulary teaching on simple and familiar words [9]. Concrete vocabulary was explained with labeled pictures and demonstration; while abstract vocabulary was taught through the associating of ideas (Rivers, 1983). Chart and pictures were used in classrooms and then in Language textbooks. Objects were also used to demonstrate meaning and the term 'realia' started to be used then (Kelly, 1969).

2.10.4. The Reading Method/Situational Language Teaching

The Reading Method was set essentially to develop the reading skills. On the other side in Great Britain, Michael West (1927), stressed the need to facilitate reading skill by improving vocabulary skills. He attested what follows: "The primary thing in learning a Language is the acquisition of a vocabulary and practice in using it. The problem is what vocabulary…(West, 1930, p.154 cited in Coady 1997). He continued stating that foreign Language learners did not have even a basic thousand-word vocabulary for three reasons: 1) their time was spent on activities that were not helping them speak the Language, 2) they were learning words that were not useful to them and 3)they were not fully mastering the words they were learning (West1930 p. 511).

May be West was the first to introduce word-frequency lists in his recommendations to select and order vocabulary in the teaching materials. Some British Linguists (Palm and Hornby) believed that Language should be taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. Palmer and Hornby put stress on selection, gradation and presentation of Language structures. For the first time vocabulary was considered one of the most important aspects of 2nd Language learning and a priority was placed on developing a scientific and rational basis for selecting vocabulary content for Language courses (Richards and Rodgers, 1990)

2.10.5. The Audio-lingual Method

During World War 2, American structural linguists developed the structural Approach also known as the Audio-Lingual method. It was mainly advocated by Charles Fries whose 1945 Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language described the new approach as a practical interpretation of the "principles of modern Ling science". It (the method) paid systematic attention to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling of basic sentence patterns. Students we taught grammatical points through examples and a drill holding the belief that Language learning is a process of habit formation. As structural patterns were the major objects in the teaching of F. Languages, vocabulary items were selected according to their simplicity and familiarity. Fries summarized principles of learning vocabulary in that too excessive vocabulary learning is a false assumption and the context of use of vocabulary is the only parameter to accumulate new words as equivalents (Rivers 1981: 254). She also carried on recommending practice with morphological variation and syntactic structures using well-known vocabulary. In the same vein, she added that new vocabulary is to be introduced in high-interest oral activities and that words should be reused extensively in order to aid long-term retention.

2.10.6. Communicative Language Teaching

In here, the focus in Language teaching changed to communicative proficiency rather than the command of structures [11]. This shift has been manifested in com. Language Teaching. In general CLT strives to make communicative competence the goal of Language teaching and to develop procedures for the teaching of the four skills that acknowledge the interdependence of Language and communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1990:66). Within

the same view, Stern (1981) adds that communicative methods have the common goals of bringing Language learners into closer contact with the target Language and of promoting fluency over accuracy. Thus, beyond the primacy of vocabulary over structural accuracy, communicative appropriateness was the sole targeted objective because, simply, Language was regarded as discourse. Departing from Wilkin's (1972) proposed categories of notional and functional notions of meaning, and since the given syllabi consisted mainly on thematic and situational criteria, semantics rather than syntax has superseded the content of F. LT in general in Europe at that time (Laufer, 1986).

Relatedly, within gave a summarizing report on the role of vocabulary in F. L. T. in his (1974) work 'Second-Language Learning and acquisition where he confirmed the equal importance of grammar as of vocabulary in Language learning. He added, the main condition for a learner to learn is his experience and considerable exposure to Language. Another suggestion came from the American Linguist Edward Anthony (1973) who suggested that Lexical knowledge of any Language should be addressed within the cultural context, far from (over) simplification and mere translation. In sum, since vocabulary development occurs naturally in L1 through contextualized, naturally sequenced Language, it will develop with natural, communicative exposure in L2.

2.10.7. The Natural Approach

The Natural approach is similar to other communicative approaches being developed "during this period (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). However, as a peculiarity it is primarily designed to enable beginners in Language learning to reach acceptable levels of oral communicative ability. The Natural Approach gives priority to vocabulary, the bearer of meaning in Language acquisition process. In like manner, Krashen and Terrell stress the point in what follows: Acquisition depends crucially on the input being comprehensible. And comprehensibility is dependent directly on the ability to recognize the meaning of key elements in the utterance. Thus, acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary. (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 155).

2.10.8. Competency-Based Approach

It integrates a set of capacities and skills in addition to knowledge that are to be used efficiently in solving problem-situations. It originated with the underlying idea to link the labour market to education where competencies are assessed on the basis of demonstrated performance (Baiche, 2008: 83). This diversity of terminology integrates two perspectives which are cognitive relying on the teaching /learning conceptions and on other theories of socio-constructivism. In simple words, this refers to strategies inculcated in learners to relate in their learning on the use of the dictionary and grammar meaning of utterances in regards to their communicative value in the social context. More practically, it is to help learners develop competencies for future professions and always be ready to face new challenging situations for a lifelong learning. Within CBA vocabulary is regarded as a tool of basic communication where learners are asked to perform tasks in real life situations. In other words, the learner is going to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies in Language learning tasks, and be able at finding appropriate vocabulary information by using previously learned items or by using other strategies of affixation, guessing or finding other clues that lead to self-reliance and autonomy.

2.11. Programme of the 'Discourse Comprehension Module

This is broadly the programme established in the English department for the module of 'reading comprehension', recently labeled as 'discourse comprehension'. The new branded module includes not only the reading of texts, but also the listening to some texts and dialogues to constitute an overall comprehension set of the input be it written or spoken. However, the listening skill is most probably practiced within the oral production module since it constitutes the basic parameter before speaking. So, the listening comprehension module is not an independent module per se like the reading one that is why less consideration is given to it as a separate skill. Nevertheless, it is very rare where EFL students are tested on the listening skill which results in the weak performance of our EFL learners when listening to foreign talk.

Below is a drafted programme for the discourse comprehension module with much flexibility to add, alter, enrich and elaborate more interesting topics in relation to learners' interests and needs.

-*The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland*

  -England

  -Wales

  -Scotland

  Northern Ireland

   Exposes

-*Regional Review*

  Scotland + (Exercises)

  Wales + (Exercises)

  Northern Ireland + (Exercises)

  Historical Events

- *Recreational Activities*

  Introducing Proverbs

  Introducing Idiomatic Expressions

  Zodiac

-*Texts Studies*

  I Have a Dream by Martin Luther King

  Do the English Speak English?

  Other texts

- *Recreational Activities*

  Royal Family

  Wedding Ceremonies in Britain

  Superstitious Beliefs in Britain

  Lady Diana

2.12. Interviews: The Teaching of the Receptive Skills (States of the Arts)

The first tool of research is conducting an interview. Interviews, in general, generate a qualitative method of inquiry. Though interviews have a versatile aspect as research instruments, they represent the most widely used method in qualitative inquiries (Richards, 2003). Among the three known types of interviews and to stick to the qualitive aspect of the inquiry, the researcher has opted for the semi-structured interview to gain depth and flexibility among informants. Neither the structured interview (the high structured version which shares many similarities with quantitative written questionnaires) nor the unstructured one (the maximum flexible and extreme related atmosphere that may lead to unpredictable directions) are used. The compromise between the two extremes is the semi-structured interview that serves also, in this research, as a reporting interview.

For the sake of getting knowledge about the states of the arts of the present situation in teaching 'Listening' and' Reading' to 1st year EFL learners in the English department, teachers are interviewed through a set of prepared guiding questions and prompts but, still are encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner. In other words, the interviewer provides guidance and direction (hence, the 'structured' part of the interview) and respects the possible developments and elaborations on certain issues (hence, flexibility of the unstructed part).

So, in order to avoid ready-made response categories and though the researcher has a good enough overview of the actual teaching situation of the two receptive skills, the semi-structured interview is made and piloted in advance to analyse the present situation through the same open-ended questions to all the participants, and not necessarily in the same order or wording. The main point behind is that interviewers would supplement the main questions with various probes. Accordingly, this reporting interview is applying the various examinations that use what the interviewees have said as a starting point to go further and to increase the

richness and depth of the responses. This endeavour can be still enhanced with a final closing question that permits the interviewee to comment, add, and deepen any (forgotten) idea during the interview. This, in a way, will simply substitute the loss of some information when doing a mere audio recording; the latter is contrasted with the video recordings where other nonverbal cues such as eye movements, facial expressions or gestures constitute a plus to data gathering and interpreting. Anyway, the easiest available recordings remain through a 'Dictaphone' or a mobile. And, most importantly, is the setting of a non-threatening atmosphere, plus the interest we exhibit vis a vis the interviewee's responses from start till the end.

As for the image of presentation, it is balanced between' formality' and 'informality', i. e. a formal context creating seriousness and professionalism; and a certain amount of 'informality' to reassure the respondent. A brief summary of the interview data outcomes is set beforehand as it is the case of confidentiality. Once a welcoming rapport is built with the interviewee, a natural flow of ideas will run without, if possible, interrupting so as to reach neutrality on the behalf of the interviewer.

2.12.1. Conducting the interview (Listening)

In the department of Foreign Languages- English section, there are 08 permanent teachers teaching the receptive skill of listening, mainly under the module of oral production. The interview has been administered to all of them; each having a considerable amount of teaching experience varying from 5 to 15 years. These teachers are asked to answer typical questions (see appendix. 2) related to the actual situation of their teaching and elaborating freely on issues that need expansion, classification and even suggesting better applications for improving learner's comprehensibility, appreciation of input variety and richness; and suitability of materials' use and utility to reach, at least, a threshold level of Language proficiency.

-The two first questions related to the number of listening comprehension sessions and the time allotted for each session was equal to the scheduled programme which is two sessions per week and a timing for one hour and a half for each.

-As for the next two other questions dealing with the type of input and the means of delivery; the answers varied from authentic to manipulated listening texts depending mainly on students' level of perception and decoding. Though, authenticity is a required condition to train students to naturalness and originality, mixing both authentic and graded texts is also useful to alleviate the burden of difficulty at the level of content, cultural load and mainly lexical complexity. So, a balance is still adopted to vary between. The same thing may happen at the level of speech delivery means, i.e. both 'native speaker's delivery' through CDs, videos and other times it is simply 'Teacher talk' that replaces the reading aloud protocol where an all-strong-form pronunciation though not suitable, may help comprehending and grading the perception and comprehension.

Certainly, the question of the programme presentation to students was raised so as to help or not student's motivation and preparation for the coming listening courses. The answers completely varied from just hints, guidelines, to a detailed sketching of the programme. The reasons given for each reaction was to keep naturalness in facing new situations (just hints) and preparing students beforehand for the listening passages' contents to do any research or inquiry through reading or even listening to certain recordings to ear-train themselves before the session of listening in class. Teachers are used to introduce their students to new topics by giving them some hints or guidelines about the next course (script of listening) so as to give them the contextual clues of the new lexis used accordingly. Though, the majority of themes are familiar to them (the issue of another question) to help students grasp easily and rapidly the content and lexical load, from time to time a completely new and unfamiliar theme is introduced so as to cope with real situations facing new experiences, new cultural aspects and different modes and moods. It, merely, belongs to real-life situation of learning. The case raised, in here, was about

the use of two known varieties of English: the British and American English. Awareness is necessary to be made at the level of use of usage. The other encounter within new, unfamiliar themes is the culture- conflict aspect of certain new themes. So, an adaptation is advisable before the insertion of any content within a listening passage. Usually the themes introduced should not create problems as far as culture is concerned though there are waves of free access to the internet (Facebook, twitter and chats…) that occur in everyday contact in a globalized world-wide aspect. So, at least, in class there should be some restrictions through avoidance of cultural shocks.

There is something to prepare beforehand; and this is to answer another question about the possibility to lay ground for the Listening content. Certainly, certain guideline, if not the majority, agreed on presenting some hints and even some activities to launch content and ideas of the listening course. It happens, most of the time to assign students with a given homework. This is another way to initiate listeners, as a pre-listening stage to the script they will listen to. It is a kind of introduction to the (new) topic so as to engage them into a (new) context relatedly with specific vocabulary. As an Assignment, especially one of the respondents, points to the distinction to be made between ways of speaking through different programmes.

The most noticeable fact, according to his student's reports, was the difficulty understanding speech in movies (especially American ones) where the majority claimed to be frustrated, even unable to grasp what is completely uttered, unless they read from sub-titles which in turn interfere with their listening concentration. The advice provided by the respondent (teacher) was to direct their ear-training through documentaries, news bulletins and other speeches which represent the British English or the standard form. In the same line of thought, recommendations were given to students to experience varieties of English through the BBC news (British English) and through the CNN (American English) to see and feel the variation of the accent but still in an easy grasping way or in a student-friendly means of perception and understanding. When the question of vocabulary hindrances in a listening passage

was raised, the respondents were on the same line of checking the degrees of difficulty of the lexis contained in whatever listening passage. It's a kind of pre-teaching of the main key words leading to find cues of the whole text and introducing some of the idiomatic expressions typically in relation with the culture, context and the specificity of the type of text background.

The following question was about perception and comprehension and if the first step was necessary and required for comprehension. In other words if the pronunciation (be it from natives or teacher) is well perceived, does it lead automatically to the understanding of the speech? It may help greatly, but not leading automatically to the comprehension of all the words, since some of them have not been heard before. A good perception may help for phonological awareness and still context will give other clues for understanding. The example of such is given with the context of negation with contractions like: cant /kont won't/want/which completely differs from the already known affirmative from of can / kaen/ or will /wil/ plus the negation not /not/. Another contextual clue that has been raised by the respondent is about a given misperception that may happen at the level of long and short cardinal vowel /I/ in words like: (slip, sleep).

However, the context is determining. Let's take the example of a garage of mechanical repairs where the ground is oily and evidently slippy. So, the other word 'sleep' has no relation of occurrence in this confined context. Though the word 'slip' is a difficult word for students, they will; from the context, know for sure that this is the right word to be used and not the other word 'sleep' which outfits completely the context of garage. The other question about the audio/video recording capacity to help understanding; the video recordings remain fully advisable to give more clues for understanding where gestures, facial expressions and other para-linguistic features may in turn give a plus for comprehension.

2.12.2. Conducting the Interview (Reading)

As projected within the reporting interviews in respect to gathering data about the present situation in teaching the receptive skills (hence, listening and reading), a second recording is set about the second module which is officially named discourse comprehension module. It deals mainly with reading comprehension of some texts related to the British context wherein history, culture, geography, people, habits and traditions and all modes of life in relation to countries of the British Isles are involved. Teachers concerned with the teaching of this module are 06. Their teaching experience varies from 1 to 20 years. Generally, it is assumed that this module can be taught even by beginning teachers since the source of input is already existent through a pre-set programme (see Appendix: 14) and it makes experience gaining to those newly introduced to the field of teaching. As a matter of fact, 5 of the teaching staff cumulate a novice teaching experience of 1 to 3 years only; except the sixth that exceeds twenty-year's experience. Nevertheless, the interview was suspiciously and not easily conducted with the majority of teachers being somehow frustrated of the fact to be asked about their teaching procedures of a really input-rich module. As usual, and mainly with novice teachers, a non-threatening atmosphere was installed among the interviewees so as to release them and let them engage freely in the verbal interaction.

Questions of the interview are about 16 open-ended questions. Their analysis will follow the same procedure as the one conducted in the listening interview, i.e. groupings of some questions related to the same issue and a global syntheses of common answers will be displayed, unless certain typical individual views and opinions that need peculiar deepening and analysis.

The First typical questions in relation to time allotment pet week and duration of the session of Discourse Comprehension modules was known beforehand from the official syllabus and confirmed by all the teachers: 2 sessions per week with 1h30 for each. As far as the question about the kind of input available or the material used as a

source for reading, answers diverged. Some, mainly beginners, stick to the official handbooks provided by the department where exhibition of British life is presented through different texts. These texts describe modes of living, political belongings and cultural beliefs. In addition, they present some famous personalities from each country. The items related to politics, history, life styles and biographies, for other teachers, can be better presented through other types of input. As suggested, some teachers assign a mini projects or home works requiring from their students to search in the internet (with web sites provision, advisingly). Others ask their students any documents, text, photos in relation to the item to be studied. In addition to that, one of the teachers asserted the benefit she experienced through the projections through data show or over-head projections (OHP) where pictures, cuts of sentences, and other maps, drawings, and graphics make the presentation of a reading text more attractive, easy to grasp and motivating. So as to cheek the participation of students in the input enrichment, teachers accepted the fact, but with very limited freedom. Students were free, only in their project presentation where they may make some additional interference found in their internet searching-webs or sites like some historical places' locations, some known figures, extra information and any other details that the teacher has not provided. The principle was that students were given instructions to bring whatever related addition to the programmed theme to engage them in the input choice. Unlikely, two other 'beginning' teachers infirm the students' participation in making up the programme and confirmed the teachers' control and leading of the syllabus. In other terms, flexibility and freedom is at the hand of teachers to choose and select what they see appropriate for the needs of their students according to the traced programme. Two other teachers make simply use of the OHP presentation, i.e. whenever an item is introduced (for instance: the way of clothing in Scotland, the way of teaching in England, the kind of meals and breakfast, English humour) the teacher assigns some typical research questions on the item to be deepened, detailed and enlarged by students so as to involve them in the making of the input presented in class.

The question of the reading aloud session was, then administrated to the teachers. For some, making students (at least two to four students) read the text in a loud way permits to check mispronunciation, intonation and easiness at the reading skill in a foreign Language. Because there should be a model that students may follow, there should be a Teacher talk or naturally given, a native speaker recording displayed to the students so as to be imitated as far as tones, pauses, interjections and other natural reading/speaking features included in the aural script. Some other teachers keep simply on making students read silently for a specific instruction. Being aware of setting a purpose for reading was totally admitted by all teachers, in addition to inquiries about certain Lexical items which are unfamiliar or difficult. Themes dealt with in the programme are typically in relation to the land where English originates and the people using it as a mother tongue. A huge cultural load is presented within the language learning. This is concerned with culture specifications, ways of life (customs, holidays, meals, leisure time) and some historical and geographical assets typical to the region like Big Ben, the Parliament, Hyde Park, ect. For some teachers, it is the target Language culture that is assigned as the main topic through the reading texts of the handbook. For some teachers, to avoid the cultural load burden, it is advised to deal with certain aspects of inter culturality where idioms, proverbs and comparative cultural matters… are proposed between a local culture and the target culture to create a cultural awareness at the level of students learning process of the language and culture. In a way, it is the implementation of analytical texts where cultures are put in parallel exhibitions to be compared, contrasted and leading to the acceptance of difference. This is true to a certain extent where teachers should avoid that cultural conflict by adapting texts which should be culture-free and devoid from any cultural or civilizational shock.

Helping students' involvement within the assigned programmes, some teachers answered positively about presenting the key items of the programme of discourse comprehension at the beginning of the year. The aim behind is to familiarize students with the kind of input they will read and give them the chance to

search for any related item. Moreover, assigning a home work is still a step forward to initiate learners to make any related preparation of a given topic beforehand. Very few (only two) teachers acted in favour of the view of presenting any topic without aforementioned hints to let students react on the spot collectively. The idea behind is to make them discover the facts of a reading text in class using their given reading abilities to infer meaning from the text, work collectively as a group to answer the instructions brought about the text and make new discoveries about cultural components once confronted with the reading of the text for the first time. Unlikely, the majority of teachers, for each new step of the programme manifested in different topics (places, personalities, culture, history, institutions…) it is advisable to launch a sort of homework as an activity leading students to gain more information about the coming topic that will be displayed in a reading text. This group of teachers prefers to give the whole content of the programme within the first academic contact and then assigning homework's in the form of mini-projects, research paper or simply in the form of notes making about a given topic as helping students acquiring specific data about the next topic so as to constitute basic background knowledge before the reading process. This helps checking the related lexical items in use within the proposed topic, make some familiarity with names and labellings of certain geographical entities and institutions, hence enlarging the scope of vocabulary around the topic. In meantime, vocabulary burden in such a procedure is somehow lessened and hindrances made easy to overcome since they have, in a way, been worked out precedently and indirectly.

The assignment of any homework before the presentation of any reading text is a kind of pre-teaching vocabulary since research on the topic will certainly lead to come cross those words representing the lexical scheme of such a topic, hence leading to vocabulary knowledge, lexical familiarity and readiness to comprehend the texts where those words are used. For other teachers, pre-teaching vocabulary is the responsibility of the teacher, once confronted with a new topic, he should consider the amount of difficult words contained in the text, be aware of the student's

ability to deal with these words and to find out the best way to make the understanding of difficult words at the reach of his learners. Such endeavour, as explained by some interviewees, can be conducted through the assignment of homework before the reading of the text where vocabulary learning will be incidental and indirect or simply conducting a quick warm up just before starting to read the reading passage.

The warm up session or pre-reading stage is a sort of paving the way to the immersion of readers by acknowledging the kind of vocabulary supposed to constitute any topic beforehand. Generally, all teachers opt for authentic texts as a reading passage. For comprehension, though loaded somehow with unfamiliar word, complex grammatical structures and idiomatic expressions should be challenging. The difficulty, according to the majority of teachers, is due to the cultural load exposed through structural complexity and lexical coverage. In here, the teacher choosing authenticity must comply with the procedural helps to lighten the pressure of reading and understanding a foreign culture written in a foreign Language. Claiming for authenticity is the motto of all teachers, unless a typical teaching point of grammar or phonology is needed, then the teacher may adapt the text for that academic purpose. Then, the relevance of reading extensively is also highlighted in the interview. All interviewees were about advising if not instructing their students to make extra readings in and outside the class. The more students read, the more they learn about the proposed or chosen topic. In the case of 1st year LMD students, 'Reading' in 'Discourse Comprehension' is directed to hold enough background knowledge about British isles as a whole (Land, people and history) to ensure capacity of understanding the content of different topics and this thanks to the mastery of vocabulary encountered in reading extensively. Simply put, when reading extra texts about given themes that are listed in the yearly programme, it will certainly help a lot about the content of different texts, though not written in the same way , and not using the same words; but, actually gives precious implementation of new lexis typically linked to the themes in question. In fact, reading extensively will

help provide sufficient chances to meet the words of the same topic more than once, and then recognize them in different contexts of use. This Lexical encounter serves as retention means enabling the 'good' readers to be ready to engage in new readings since their engagement constitutes a plus to their lexical stock. Needless to review all theories about the importance of reading; however, to be sure that students are really reading extra texts, scripts, short stories or any written documents that may help them surf around the themes of Discourse Comprehension modules, teachers assign some quick activities to be answered through research, hence reading first. A case in point is the introduction of some key words relatedly linked to culture, food or history. For examples of such, are: 'Huggies', 'breakfast', 'Fire of London'. The explanation of these words needs a reading or a search in the internet and by the way will help discover other elements necessary for the comprehension of the British life in general. Also, asking students for making report, or writing summaries will help ensure their engagement in reading extensively.

12.3. Language Proficiency Tests: a Structure for the Receptive Skills

The language proficiency test is part of the Cambridge main suite examinations of English for speakers of other languages. It is designed to ensure that it reflects the use of language in real life. It corresponds closely to an active, communicative approach to learning English, without neglecting the need for clarity 'comprehension) and accuracy (production). The test was used in the late 1970s and examines competence in reading, listening, writing and speaking. Then, a revised version (PET handbook 2004), was introduced for examinations from that year on. The same version has been adopted in the course of this research work. Therefore, a proposed structure of the preliminary test of English (PET) is illustrated in the table below:

Skill	Name	Time	Content	Test Focus
Receptive	Reading	1/30mn	Reading parts which test a range of reading skills with a variety of texts ranging from very short to longer continuous texts.	Assessment of candidates' ability to understand the meaning of written English at word, phrase, sentence, paragraph and whole text level.
	Listening	30-45mn	Listening parts ranging from short exchanges to longer dialogues and narratives.	Assessment of candidates' ability to understand dialogues and texts in informal, neutral and formal settings in a range of every day topics.
productive	Writing and speaking	_	Testing a range of writing and oral skills, and testing capacity to interact individually and in pairs	Assessment of production in terms of written and free talk.

Table: 2.6. A proposed Test Structure for Receptive Skills (adapted from PET Handbook 2004).

The table above, largely, exhibits the type of test structure proposed (later in the pre-test) for the two receptive skills. However, the two other productive skills have not been dissected since the proposal needs deep analysis and investigation which is somehow excluded from the present research work. Nevertheless, the suggestion will probably correlate with one of the proposed types of content (input).

12.4. Conclusion

The chapter included a set of data relatedly in congruence with the situation of EFL teaching in Algeria. Therefore, it was necessary to state the exact role English plays in the educational system and the powerful impact it has in the formation of a well-rounded citizen of the world. As a global language, English has become a necessary tool of knowledge and information. Any kind of new discovery or invention is brought about through the international language-English. This is to claim that English supersedes all the languages and positions itself as the sine qua non means of keeping abreast with technological advances and scientific progress.

Algeria, one of the non-Anglophone countries, is subjected to alleviate the burden of learning the language; especially at the receptive level so as to enable its EFL learners appreciate the content and input of the written and spoken language with less frustration. Though English has the status of a foreign language in the Algerian community; this does not prohibit the enhancement of its learning (or acquisition) via more elaborate methods of intense exposure to the target language. That intense exposure may restore the degree of (complete) absence of using the language in the community; and then opportunities of meeting the language will multiply through probing means of reception in and outside the language classroom.

The Algerian community has, like many other nations, adopted the new LMD system as a global world-educational system to conjure up with the actual established doctrine. For that reason it was felt necessary to entail some of the peculiarities of the new system in Algeria in general and specifically at the level of the English department. However, there is no need to stress the importance of the English language as a perennial tool for retrieving the needed information with the global process of the LMD formation.

Some of the well-established methods in concern with the learning vocabulary have been advocated as a historical overview of the main important

approaches adopted in the Algerian syllabus. The survey has helped showing a general appreciation of the means used, up to now, in enhancing the lexis of the target language though not, convincingly, appropriate; but at least constitute a basis for further elaborations.

The chapter, then, has provided a real image of the teaching of the two receptive skills: reading and listening with tight connection to vocabulary acquisition. The interview was conducted with the teachers of those modules to elicit ate an original case study of the present situation and to unravel the complexities of the task. Most probably, the situation proved to be problematic at the level of comprehension, mainly due to a lack of (receptive) vocabulary knowledge. This problematic issue may hinder comprehension and the best remedy would be an intense programme of developing the lexis needed for a potential easy understanding.

Notes to the chapter two

[1] Grand Guillaume (1983). « Ce n'est, alors, qu'après l'indépendance que le français s'est répandu à un plus grand nombre de citoyens, surtout les écoliers ayant comme langue d'instruction, le français. » (p.12)

[2] - Yacine Derradji (1994), « De fait, et grâce à la pauvreté des programmes Algériens, la langue Française chassée et combattue sur les plans idéologiques et institutionnelles, se réintroduit alors jusqu'au plus profond des cellules familiales pour marquer le mental des sujets parlants. » (p.14)

[3] - Benrabah, (1999). « On compte le nombre d'exemplaires de la presse écrire, tous types confondus (libre et gouvernementale) à 330,000 copies écrite en Arabe et à 880,000 copies écrite en Français. Statistiques (1992). (p.15)

4- Charte Nationale (1976). « La langue française, tellement répandue, doit à présent être considéré comme langue étrangère. » (p.15)

[5] - Peytard & E. Genouvrier (1970), Linguistic et Enseignement du Français. Larousse. Paris.
- « Le lexique de l'élève va dépendre de son milieu familial a entretenir avec lui discussions et dialogues, à orienter sa curiosité… » (p.16)

[6] Kashru's classification (1983) of the different types of English into three circles: inner, outer and expanding circles. (p.18)

7-Latin and Greek roots or "primitives" were considered "the most accurate court of appeal on word meanings"; the ability to use etymology was respected as "one way discovering truth" (Kelly, 1969, p.30).

8-Fluency took on a new meaning: the ability to accurately pronounce a connected passage and to maintain associations between a stream of speech and the referents in the outside world Cher .Zimmerman (p7)

9-The first few lessons of the Berlitz English course, for example, were based on objects in the classroom, clothing and parts of the body, followed by to be and common adjectives(big small) (thin, thick, etc.) (Howatt, 1984, p.206)

10-The 1920s and 1930's saw the birth of the Reading Method in the United States and Situational Language Teaching in Great Britain. (Coleman Report, 1929,n,Rivers, 1981).

11-Dell Hymes introduced the term of communicative competence, which, while not rejecting Chomsky's model, gave greater emphasis to the sociolinguistic and pragmatic factors governing effective Language use. The internalised knowledge of the situational appropriateness of Language (Hymes, 1972)

Chapter Three ： SITUATION ANALYSIS

3.1. Introduction

Many language specialists have analysed, almost exclusively, productive language, where both ends of communication channel are studied as emitters rather than as receivers. Recent research, however, recognize that mastery of a particular language involves mastery of a receptive as well as a productive repertoire. This trend acknowledges the fact that the two repertoires should, therefore, be established through respectively (receptive, then productive) adequate methods. Conversely, teachers' view about students' (rather pupils') attitudes towards English learning in our (middle and secondary) schools has changed greatly. The teachers' view was based on the evidence of pupils' repeated unsatisfactory results in written and spoken (production) form of the English language. Recently, however, EFL learners, themselves, have had positive attitudes towards the learning of English since in their eyes English is an important subject matter in the curriculum accentuated by many facts. Firstly, English has been assigned a coefficient of two (2), three (3) and five (5) respectively for 'scientific streams', 'literature and philosophy' and 'foreign languages' in the secondary school education. Consequently, some improvements in the 'Baccalaureate exam' have been noticed showing in a way the impact of high coefficient assignment. Secondly, the new coefficient assignment created more motivation in the learners who are now, even, paying for private courses to improve their level and grades in the 'baccalaureate' exam. This new impetus has, naturally, generated more academic interest for English.

For this purpose, the motivated generation of EFL learners needs to be oriented towards developing further readings and listenings as an essential source of input. So, a structured, rich and comprehensible input from the beginning of first-year university level should be directed to EFL learners so as to help our EFL learners develop enough rich vocabulary to reach comprehension of both written and oral scripts. Linguistically speaking, it is crystal clear that difficult texts do not encourage students to listen and read and may, even, develop frustration and demotivation. Therefore, in order to

develop learners' motivation and interest, it is essential for the contents (topics), structure (layout) and basic vocabulary (meaning) to be at the reach of listeners and readers.Likely, knowledge is a well-known fact leading to human progress, and, practically, recent knowledge is often delivered in English. This knowledge is generally obtained from various sources: books, magazines, websites, and multimedia; however, the key to this knowledge is through the receptive skills: reading and listening. These two skills are considered as the source of hints and cues for reaching comprehension. In like manner, vocabulary acquisition constitutes a key component to successfully developing comprehension, communication and literacy skills as a whole. So, developing vocabulary is a top priority and an on-going challenge. Actually, once at the university setting, students are exposed to a great amount of vocabulary in a myriad of subject areas. Yet, due to the intense focus on content, two (2) types of vocabulary are dealt with in the different modules within the LMD programme. These are, first, a general vocabulary used mainly for communicative purposes and representing basic language skills (e.g., reading and listening comprehension, and oral and written production). Second, a special vocabulary (linguistic jargon) related to the modules of phonetics, linguistics, literature and civilization. The interaction of EFL learners with diverse and huge amounts of vocabulary is rendered difficult if not impossible facing new contents with unfamiliar vocabulary. The difficulty lies mainly because of the lack of receptive vocabulary which hinders the comprehension. Consequently, what is needed, in fact, is to develop students' (receptive) vocabulary to enable them understand when listening to oral language or when reading texts.

The experimental design of the second tool of research- the proficiency language test- is portrayed through an original methodological idea based on comparing results of two groups of EFL learners. One group will receive a special treatment: '*the treatment variable*' (Johnson and Christensen, 2004). Accordingly, this typical experimental design is an intervention study which contains two groups: 'the treatment or experimental' group which receives the treatment or which is exposed to some special conditions of intensifying vocabulary learning through a varied, comprehensible input;

and a second group of EFL learners- the control group- whose role is to provide a baseline. In due course, the two groups are seemingly comparable to each other before the treatment is applied. The undertaken procedure is as follows:

- First, Krashen's Input Hypothesis is put on the check-scale to provide the main attribute of the treatment during the treatment period. Some elements are then depicted to provide evidence for the usefulness and validity of the adopted theory.

- Second, the aim of the study is clarified showing the rationale behind such endeavour to gain proficiency in the foreign language by acquiring sufficient vocabulary for comprehension first. The aim is represented through a set of methodological procedures, and mainly a triangulation use of tools of research procedure

- Then, language proficiency tests represent the major analytic measurement of comprehension among two groups of learners.

3.2. Applying Krashen's Input Hypothesis

EFL students start their early-oriented foreign language learning, as new baccalaureate holders, with enthusiasm. Likely, EFL teachers wish to sustain this motivation by keeping continuously informed about the learning progress their students make. In this sense, certain criteria should be applied when assessment formats are being developed: The information about the learning progress ought to be obtained without much effort on the part of the teacher and without fear on the part of the students. Language tests for EFL learners should not take much time, allow for a variety of inferences, and are helpful for getting an individual learner profile. In other terms, teachers should not opt only for direct teaching of vocabulary as a separate skill, neither use only direct instruction for vocabulary retrieval and most importantly should inculcate in their learners strategies for referencing, inferencing and guessing.

By this time, many, if not all, have already had encounters with the English language due to compulsory (and voluntary) classes during their first years in middle and secondary school and the influence of everyday life. So, at this level of 1ˢᵗyear university studies, a vocabulary test for EFL students should not consist of a traditional checklist of words.It is based, however, on more complex procedures. It takes into account the self-perception of learners as regards the amount of words they are supposed to know, their capacity to interact with meaning through different sources of input and their strategy use of recognizing, analyzing and decoding the lexical items in terms of form, sound and meaning. To do justice to each learners' learning process, the test set by the teacher should actually ensure oral comprehension (listening) together with vocabulary in an unstressed manner, because the written script(reading) is exhibiting the form (morphological recognition) and picture as support. In the listening sessions, the words and instructions (sometimes), are spoken by the teacher, or might alternatively have been recorded by a native speaker.

In the area of receptive skills the link between vocabulary and comprehension has never been put in doubt. What has been difficult to determine is the exact nature of the connection. In other terms, is it reading/ listening difficulties or it is purely a language problem? It seems, however, in most cases that both come to be part of the complexity. Clearly stated (Alderson, 1984), an increased vocabulary is a necessary condition for increased comprehension of both written and spoken discourse.

In this chapter, Iwill examine the input hypothesis as developed by Krashen in the late 1970 and 1980s and refined lately by the same linguist in 2003 and 2004. This hypothesis is part of a larger second/foreign language theory still proposed by Stephen Krashen. The sociolinguistic literature distinguishes between a foreign language and a second language: A second language is a non-native language that has an official role in a country (like French in Algeria), while a foreign language is still a non-native language that has no official status in a country; the case of English in Algeria (Kachru, 1992). However, the term commonly used in applied linguistics for both is Second language, not implying necessarily the possible difference. However, the term used in

this study is accordingly, foreign language (FL) to mirror the status of English in our country.

To introduce briefly Krashen Hypothesis; it stipulates that if a FL learner receives enough comprehensible input, s/he will acquire the language. With the case study (EFL- LMD1 students), I will investigate whether this assumption is valid and if yes, to what extent? The subject of my study is a two-group EFL studentin their first year level at English Department of Tlemcen University. The two groups are to be considered as; group 'A' (control group) and group 'B' (experimental group). Approximately, both groups include about 35 students each and are chosen at random to fulfill one of the criteria of tests or language tests objectively. The present tests incorporate a pre-test and post-test. Coming back to Krashen's SL/FL Acquisition Theory, its five hypotheses (see Appendix A for ample information) serve as a theoretical background to the investigation. The quick examination of the five basic hypotheses is concluded with a presentation of a special case (our study case) of the Input hypothesis: the Receptive Hypothesis which elaborates on the idea that reading and listening serve as a source of comprehensible Input.

To measure my subjects' level of English at the beginning of the study, I administered a language pre-test, similarly proposed in terms of type, content and level of difficulty to both groups. However, the final evaluation (or the post-test) is inserted after a period of study (generally, 6 weeks according to Dorney, 2005) where intense, varied and comprehensible input is directed to the experimental group; whereas group 'A'- the control group- continues receiving the usual programme contained in the curriculum. Evidently, the evaluation is done on the basis of the progress probably and hypothetically achieved by the experimental group by the end of the study period in comparison with the control group.

Next, the targeted population of 1ˢᵗ year-LMD-EFL students is described by providing general information on age, education background and a very special part is devoted to the students' experience with English, both as regards the formal teaching

they received in the language curriculum and their experience with it outside school. Therefore, a description of subjects' level of English prior to the study is needed to help know how to go about a clear evaluation of what they experienced during this study.

The final point of this chapter deals with the results of the study. It evaluates the progress the subjects supposedly made throughout the period under research and offers an analysis of the data gathered through the various methods used. In here, the specific claims of the Input Hypothesis or rather the 'Receptive' hypothesis will be either proved valid or invalid.

Krashen's theory of second/foreign language acquisition was continuously refined over a period of time among many works. These include the works (1981, 82, 85, 2003, and 2004) all cited in the Bibliography. The theory consists of five basic Hypotheses.However, a brief encounter of the main characteristics of each hypothesis will be shown below to highlight the possible correlations induced within the goal of the study.

3.2.1. The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis is primarily indexed as a perennial parameter lying at the heart of Krashen's theory. It's the cornerstone stipulating the acquisition/learning distinction. According to Krashen, there are independent ways of learning a foreign (second) language. He describes (1981- 82- 85) acquisition as a subconscious process virtually identical to the one used in first language acquisition. It involves the naturalistic development of language proficiency through understanding language. The acquirer is not usually aware of acquisition taking place. Acquisition occurs as a result of participating in natural interaction where the focus is on meaning; hence meaning is reached through vocabulary mastery. The cases are many, but few do elicit the situation. The Egyptian dialect became intelligible through the long period of TV serials where the Algerian population (mainly females) became familiar with every Egyptian utterance due to the amount of time exposed to watching these serials. Exposure to whatever input creates a certain aptitude to grasp and understand, hence enlarging the vocabulary stock in return. On the other hand, learning is described by

Krashen as conscious knowledge, hence knowing about language. In other terms, learning occurs as a result of conscious study of the formal properties of the language.

From a neuro-linguistic point of view, acquisition/learning distinction can be felt in the brain location settings. Acquired knowledge is habitually located in the left brain hemisphere in the language areas and it is available for automatic processing too. Learnt vocabulary, on the contrary is rather metalinguistic in nature. It is also stored in the left hemisphere but not necessarily in language areas; it is available only for controlled processing (Ellis 1985: 261). Therefore, acquired and learnt knowledge are kept separate in the brain and therefore, Krashen deduces, learning cannot lead to an acquisition (Krashen 1982). According to this view, Krashen claims that acquisition plays a far more central role than learning in second language performance.

The acquisition/learning distinction is summarized below:

Acquisition	Learning
-similar to 1ˢᵗ language acquisition	-formal knowledge of language
-picking up a language	-knowing about a language
-subconscious	-conscious
-implicit knowledge	-explicit knowledge
-formal teaching does not help	-formal teaching helps

Table: 3. 1: Acquisition-learning distinction(Adapted from Krashen and Terrell 1983: 27)

The above cited properties of acquisition do not abnegate the natural process of acquiring a language for adults. Krashen opposes the language theorists who advocate acquisition only for children in their social milieu acquiring their mother tongue. He stipulates that acquisition can go beyond to EFL students and adult learners. In this context, he claims: "*some second language theorists have assumed that children acquire, while adults can only learn. The acquisition-learning hypothesis claims, however, that adults also acquire, that the ability to 'pick up' languages does not disappear at puberty.*

This does not mean that adults will always be able to achieve native-like levels in a second language. It does not mean that adults can access the same natural language acquisition device that children use."(Krashen, 1982: 10; Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 26).

From the above quote, Krashen draws on Chomsky's concepts of universal grammar and Language Acquisition Device (LAD). The linguistic faculty, as described by Chomsky, is the same as language acquisition device that contains knowledge of linguistic universals. These are innate and provide children with initial steps to acquire the grammar of the language that they are exposed to. Accordingly, it can be argued that the same device operates in foreign (second) language acquisition.

3.2.2. The Natural Order Hypothesis

It states that grammatical structures are acquired not necessarily in a predictable order. In other terms, acquirers of a given language tend to acquire certain grammatical features early and others late. In the same line of thought, Krashen and Terrell clarify that the Natural Order Hypothesis does not state that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in the exact same order. It states rather that in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others tend to be acquired late. It also allows the possibility that structures may be acquired in groups, several at about the same time (1983: 28). A study by Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) found out that adults also showed the same properties of native learners acquiring their mother longue especially when they are focused on communication and comprehension not on form and accuracy.

The Natural order phenomena has been explicitly cleared up by Krashen in his recent book (2003a) where amazing facts do summarize all the characteristics related to acquisition order. Thesefacts are:

1. The natural order is not based on any obvious features of simplicity or complexity. Some rules that look simple (eg. The third person singular) are

acquired late. Others that appear to linguists to be complex are acquired early. This fact presents a problem to curricula designers who present rules to language students from simple to complex. However, a rule may seem simple to a linguist, but may be lately acquired.

2. The natural order cannot be changed. It is immune to deliberate teaching. We cannot alter the natural order by explanation, drills and exercises.A teacher can drill the 3rd person singular for weeks, but it will not be acquired until the acquirer is ready for it. This explains a great deal of the frustration language students have.

3. One might suppose that the solution to our problems is simply to teach along the natural order: we need only to find out which items are acquired early and teach them first. This amazing fact neglects the teaching order since the learning readiness overcomes. (Krashen: 2003a: 48)

3.2.3. The Monitor Hypothesis

Itattempts to explain how acquisition and learning are used. The hypothesis states that when we produce utterances in a foreign language, the utterance is initiated by the acquired system and the conscious learning is employed only later to make changes in our utterances after the utterance has been generated by the acquired system. This may happen before we actually speak or write (during reception), or it may happen after (Krashen and Terrell 1983). Adding to that, Krashen (2003) claims that language is normally produced by using acquired linguistic competence and that learning has only one function: that of a monitor or editor. However, it is not always easy to make use of the monitor. To do it successfully, three conditions are needed. The first condition required from the acquirer to know the rule. This condition is hard to meet and accordingly Krashen points out what follows:

"*Research linguists freely admit that they do not know all the rules of any language. Those who write grammar texts know fewer rules than the linguists. Language teachers do not teach all the rules in the texts. Even the best students don't learn all the rules that are taught, even the best students don't remember all the rules they have learned, and even the best students can't always*

use the rules they do remember: Many rules are too complex to apply while engaging in conversation. (Krashen 2003 a: 3).

The second condition for a successful use of the monitor is also made difficult by the degree of accuracy. So, the acquirer is required to think seriously about correctness, hence focus is/mainly on form. If so, the problem is harder since the acquirer issplit between form and meaning at the same time (Krashen 2003 a). The third condition stipulates sufficient time at the hand of the acquirer to manage applying the monitor. However, Krashen goes farther showing the difficulty of those conditions. In his words, he says:

"*For most people, normal conversation (interactive communication) does not provide enough time for the use of the monitor. A few language experts can monitor while conversing, but these are very advanced acquirers who only need to monitor an occasional rule here and there, and who have a special interest in the structure of language*" (Krashen 2003: 3)

According to Krashen, then, research shows that 'Monitor' use is only obvious when all three conditions are fully met. (2003: 3)

Among EFL learners, though the Monitor is weak, it can be of considerable utility and use. Expressed differently, some conscious knowledge of the language is helpful since acquisition does not provide the acquirers will all language components. There is always a small residue of grammar, spelling, punctuation and lexis that even native speakers do not acquire, even after extensive aural and written comprehensible input (Krashen 2003a). In this concern, Krashen warns about the excess of using the monitor because when someone focuses overtly on form, he may cause interference with natural communication. He simply produces less information, interferes with content and slows down the pace with fluency. He (Krashen 2003) goes further explaining that individual learners vary greatly in the use of the Monitor. There are those who try to use the Monitor all the time, always checking their output against the conscious knowledge of the language. These are knownby Monitor 'over-users'. They over-use the monitor either because they are victims of grammar-only type of

instruction and dependent on learning only, or they may have continuous doubt about their acquired competence and prefer to use the monitor. Other individuals have not learnt or prefer not to use the conscious knowledge even when the three conditions are there. These people are monitor 'under-users' who rely completely on the acquired system. Some other individuals constitute the middle ground portion of Monitor users. They employ the Monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication, eg: in writing or planned speech. The third category is the 'optimal monitor users'. In what follows, Krashen explains that:

Optimal Monitor users can, therefore, use their learned competence as a supplement to their acquired competence. Some Optimal users who have not completely acquired their second language, who make small and occasional errors in speech, can use their conscious grammar so successfully that they can often produce in the illusion of being native in their writing(Krashen, 1982: 20).

From the above quote, it is crystal clear that monitoring varies from one learner to another; and then equal chances should be provided to these EFL learners to gain confidence.

3.2.4. The Input Hypothesis

It addresses the question of how we acquire language. This hypothesis states that we acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is little beyond our current level of acquired competence (Krashen and Terrell 1982: 32). This has been recently expressed lucidly by Krashen (2003a: 4) *'we acquire language in only one way: when we understand messages, that is, when we obtain "comprehensible Input*". This strong claim is repeated in other places where Krashen states that *comprehending messages is the only way language is acquired and that there is no individual variation in the fundamental process of language acquisition.* (Krashen 2003a: 4)

For this reason, Krashen often uses the term 'Comprehension hypothesis (2003a) to refer to the Input Hypothesis, arguing that, 'comprehension ' is a better description as

mere input is not enough; it must be understood. He also acknowledges that this idea (assumption) is not new because in the same vein:

"*In the field of second-language acquisition, (James Asher, Harris Winitz, and Robins Burling) proposed similar ideas years before I did, and in the field of literacy, Frank Smith and Kenneth Goodman had proposed that we learn to read by reading, by understanding the message on the page*" (Krashen 2003:4). Congruent with the hypothesis is, then the claim that listening comprehension and reading are of primary importance and that the ability to speak or write fluently in a second language will come on its own with time and that speaking fluently and writing accurately come after comprehending input.

The Input Hypothesis builds on the already mentioned hypothesis of 'Natural Order' which answers the question of how we move from one stage of acquisition to another. Expressed differently, it concerns how we move from level one of input (**i**) which correlates to the learner's current level of competence to the level two of input (**i**+) that represents the immediate stage which is somehow a little bit above the learner 's capacity of understanding.Arguably, understanding that kind of input (hence, **i**+) is done through context, our knowledge of the world, our extra-linguistic information(Krashen, 1982). Therefore, two main outcomes are commonly related to the input hypothesis: the first outcome states that if we providestudents with enough comprehensible input, the structures they are ready to acquire will be present in the input. This means that the input has not to be finely-tuned, but provided, of course, it is comprehensible. Back to the Natural Order Hypothesis, the input being exclusively comprehensible, the language teaching syllabus is devoid from any natural order not any grammatical order. But, students will acquire the language in a natural order as a result of getting comprehensible input (Krashen 2003: 6). The second outcome, then, states that the ability to speak is the result of language acquisition, not its cause. Rather, it helps acquisition indirectly which is, in the meantime, an excellent source of comprehensible input

Then, a short summary of the Input Hypothesis, upon which the whole research work is based, is sketched out below in concordance with Krashen's engaging view.

- The Input Hypothesis relates to acquisition, not learning.
- We acquire by understanding language that contains structures and lexis a bit beyond our current level of competence (**i**+). This is done with the help of the context or extra-linguistic information.
- When communication is successful, when the input is comprehensible, understood and there is enough of it, **i**+ will be provided automatically
- Production ability emerges. It is not taught directly. (Krashen 82: 21-22)

To sum up the view of comprehensible Input Hypothesis, the quote below exhibits some mystical facts relatedly:

"*First language acquisition is effortless; it involves no energy, no work. All an acquirer has to do is understand messages. Second, language acquisition is involuntary. Given comprehensible input and a lack of affective barriers (…), language acquisition will take place. The acquirer has no choice. In a theoretical sense, language teaching is easy, all we have to do is give students comprehensible messages that they will pay attention to, and they will pay attention if the massages are interesting. (Krashen 2003a: 4).*

To conclude with the five hypotheses of Krashen's theory of second-foreign language acquisition, the 'Affective filter' is also a sine qua non condition for real language acquisition; otherwise, acquirers with high-affective filter though receiving a great deal of comprehensible input do not reach a native-like competence. So, high-affective filter prevents the input from reaching the language acquisition device. Expressed differently, with lower-anxiety state input becomes intake (intake is defined as the input that reached the LAD.).

The Reading Hypothesis (within Comprehension Hypothesis) constitutes a special case of the Input Hypothesis. In fact, Krashen does not distinguish between aural and written input.Krashen (2003a: 5) maintains that *free voluntary reading and unlimited engaged listening may be the most powerful tool we have in language education. They increase both literacy and language development and have*

significant impact on reading comprehension, vocabulary, understanding, grammar and writing (Krashen 1993). Solid argumentsare put forward concerning free reading, which according to Krashen (2003a: 15) "*is a form of comprehensible input delivered in a low-anxiety situation*. He continues to claim that *it is an enjoyable activity that also nurtures language acquisition and desirably lowers the Affective Filter.*"

The nature of the reading undertaken freely and voluntarily is to be extensive and concerns subject matters that student would read in their mother tongue for pleasure. Also, it is completely optional in the sense that readers have the whole freedom to skip certain sections that they find either too difficult or less interesting. So, the only requirement is that the reading is comprehensible and that the topic is something students are genuinely interested in.

The free 'voluntary reading' and the 'unlimited engaged listening' are an extremely powerful form of comprehensible input. The above concepts are especially relevant (typically in concordance) to the research hypothesis. Significant amount of input is administered to the experimental group of 1st year EFL learners in convenience with the comprehensibility either in reading or listening.The problem is to find texts that are both interesting and comprehensible whereas authentic (reading and listening) texts are too difficult (Krashen 2003a: 25). A large number of studies, therefore, provide evidence for free voluntary reading and unlimited engaged listening as means of increasing second/foreign language competence. In this sense, Krashen maintains (1989: 90) that research overwhelmingly supports the hypothesis that exposure to input (reading and listening) has a strong effect on the development of language abilities.

Most recently (2004), Krashen has again restated the Comprehension Hypothesis as being the most significant asset to gain language acquisition, to master vocabulary and reach self-confidence and esteem in the foreign language.

3.3. Input Hypothesis Relatedness (Evidence for)

Below are some evident elements nourishing the engaging position Krashen enrolls with his Input Hypothesis. The elements in question represent the pillar-body of success in language acquisition. Nevertheless, Krashen (2004) comes back to state evidence through eight major points characterizing the Input Hypothesis as a support for successful language acquisition; supported by other works (Krashen 81, 82, 94, 2003a, b, and 2004) and supplemented by other linguists (Terrell,1983; Cook, 93; Nation, 2001 and Echevarria,2005):

a. People speak to children acquiring their first language in special ways. This kind of speech is, psycho-linguistically, labeled as 'motherese' or 'caretaker speech' englobing naturally many characteristics of great interest to the (child) learner. Its very typical feature is the fact of being not a deliberate attempt to teach language (Krashen 1982: 22) but is motivated by the interlocutor's (father, or mother) desire to be clear enough and understood. Therefore, it is structurally simpler and seems to be roughly-tuned to the linguistic level of the child. Its main concern is to present time and space (here and now) rather than on the abstract and the remote. All these properties provide caretaker speech the necessary qualities of comprehensible input, hence leading the child to easily acquire his first language. Relatedly, this language position leads to the 2nd statement below.

b. People (should) speak to L2 or FL learners in special ways since caretaker speech helps L1acquisition by using speech with similar characteristics. Commonly, this category of special speech to FL learners engenders some codes which fall linguistically and pedagogically into the following terms:

1). Foreign Talk (F.T.): language native speakers use to non-native learners of the target language.

2). Teacher Talk (T.T.): language used by the teacher in L2 classrooms

3). Inter-language use: Speakers of various first languages communicate in a common target language.

These special codes, especially (F.T) and (T.T), are usually slower, with shorter sentences and simpler syntax. They contain repetition and restating, and are adapted and roughly-tuned to the learner's level. They are also motivated by free communication where accuracy is not the goal. All this improves the goal of the comprehensibility of the input. If the goal is not reached, a period of silence is admittedly allowed for the acquirer to adjust for the new situation.

c. Second and/or foreign learners (should) often go through an initial silent period. The common state, especially with younger learners of a foreign language, is that they manifest a silent period once confronting a communication stage with the target language. During this period, they are building up competence in the foreign language via listening, by understanding the language around them either in class or outside (audio/video channel) (Krashen 1882: 27). This is expanded on in Krashen's plea that FL students be allowed silent periods in classrooms. In this context, Krashen prohibits the rapid engagement of F.L learners to produce the language at once, and then, he points out that adults and children in formal language classes, are usually not allowed a silent period. They are often asked to produce very early in a second language, before they have acquired enough syntactic competence to express their ideas. Performers who are asked to produce before they are ready will fall back on first language rules, that is, they will use syntactic rules of their first language while speaking the second or foreign language (Krashen 1982: 27).

The proposed concept outlined above is that L1 interference is not the natural cause of learning an L2 but rather the insufficient knowledge of L2 which pushed F.L.L. to resort to L1. Thus, the problem is not interference but 'ignorance' or lack of acquisition of a target language rule that is needed in performance. In the same line of thought, Cook (1993) states that transfer from L1 to L2 is due to ignorance rather to the inevitable transfer of habit (1993: 55). So, provision of sufficient comprehensible input helps avoid language interference.

d. The comparative success of younger and older learners reflects provision of comprehensible input. Scarcella and Higa (1982), Cook (1993) and Krashen (1999) view through a large number of studies, that adult learners are better at short term L2 learning and younger leaners at long-term L2 learning. They, accordingly, link the fact to the reason (s) below: (…) *older acquirers progress more quickly in early stages because they obtain more comprehensible input, while younger acquirers do better in the long run because of their low affective filter.* (Krashen 1982: 12)

To explain the above factual statement, it is crystal clear to mention that older learners have greater experience of the world, can use their L1 to overcome communication problems in L2 more easily, and are better at conversational management(Cook 1993: 57). However, on the other side, the eventual superiority of the young learner is based on the hypothesis related to affective factors. Accordingly, the affective filter increases in strength at around puberty (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 46) Nevertheless, to help decrease the affective factor, much exposure to the target language is part of the solution.

e. The more comprehensible input, the greater the L2 proficiency. Evidence shows that a large amount of exposure to L2 leads to proficiency. However, the length of exposure is not a causative variable itself; ultimately, it depends on the amount of comprehensible input the learner has access to; simply because sheer exposure without comprehension is often useless to acquisition. The next statement, reasonably, expands the point.

f. Lack of comprehensible input delays language acquisition: As a case in point, children of deaf parents are sometimes delayed in language development because of the lack of appropriate comprehensible input. So,Children in isolation or very shy learners rejecting interaction do lack input and their acquisition device is lowered and delayed. In this case, some methods in teaching may help resolve the problem.

g. Teaching methods work according to the extent that they use comprehensible input. Krashen claims that the Input Hypothesis is consistent

with the results of teaching methods that provide substantial quantities of comprehensible input. Eventually, Krashen (2003a) sums up some of the more recent studies and asserts that comprehensible input-based methods do very well indeed in comparison with other methods:"*When tests are communicative, students in these classes typically, do considerably better than those in traditional grammar-based classes...students are slightly better* (Krashen 2003a: 8-9).

h. Immersion teaching is successful because it provides comprehensible input. Immersion language teaching is a form of teaching that uses a second or a foreign language as the medium of instruction in school. However, success of this teaching is thought to be comprehensible input that the students get. Similar effect is achieved, in which, non-native university students are taught academic subjects in the target language in circumstances designed to make it comprehensible to them (Krashen2003a: 12)

3.4. Aim of the Study

Having presented Krashen's theory, and, given that the English language enrolls the status of a foreign language, the researcher wants to make clear evidence that the intended goals behind the teaching of English at University level in Algeria may or could reach a threshold level of proficiency only if sufficient, varied and comprehensible input is put forward to our EFL learners so as they could keep up with without frustration, but interest and willingness to make hopeful progress in future exposures with the language. On the same track, the outstanding aim is to examine a broad claim, following Krashen's Input Hypothesis that it is possible to acquire language and develop vocabulary when there is enough comprehensible and varied input available regardless to the amount of output that may come out lately. The study is designed to achieve this purpose.

The subjects (experimental group: 1st year EFL students) received (sufficient)varied and comprehensible input and the investigation is about whether that would lead to any progress in the EFL students' proficiency in the foreign language being acquired.

The established decision about the learners' progress (if any) is set over the period of study (approximately 6 weeks) using several criteria for decoding the message of a text, be it written or spoken These criteria relate to vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) taught to EFL learners in the 'Meanwhile period' to overcome the burden of comprehending the lexis contained in those texts supposed to bring a degree of difficulty as far as the 1st year EFL learners' level of comprehension. To get a more plastic picture of the situation, learners are allowed to make use of different sources helping them analyse, decode and understand the difficult and unfamiliar lexical items. Referencing, Inferencing, Using Contextual clues, making use of their linguistic and world knowledge and guessing are all criteria at the hand of our learners (readers and listeners) to achieve an overall understanding of the whole text regardless to tiny and small unrelated vocabulary that may hinder their process of understanding. Once applied, observations are made to compare their ability to handle various situations where communication through reception is required at the beginning and the end of the study. This included a set of tasks they were able to accomplish successfully at the end of the study but that had been somehow problematic issues at the beginning. A major factor was also their perceptions about what they could actually do using the language and their confidence to approach new tasks with unknown lexis. As a significant part, probably the most significant of their input was in the form of reading and listening. Self-reports were used and established how they understood the texts andifthey felt there was any progress in their comprehension of the works. Finally, amore objective tool was employed: comparing the scores EFL learners achieved in the pre-test (preliminary English language Proficiency Test) and the scores obtained, in the course of this study, in the post-test.

3.4.1. Methodology

The aim of this study was to observe, in the widest sense of the word, the potential progress in vocabulary learning and development. The population of students in the study received a great amount of comprehensible input (but, at the same time produced minimum output) to see the effect this would have on their acquisition of

vocabulary, hence learning the language. As posited before, Krashen predicts that this is an ideal situation which leads to language acquisition.

Normally, the methodology matches the purpose of the research. The researcher used various techniques to have the widest possible framework that would include all relevant information. It is, in fact, an advantage of a case study approach that it does not claim any particular methods of data collection (Merriam 1988: 10).

The researcher used a methodology that is qualitative in nature; and this provides a holistic description and analysis of a single instance (Yin 2003: 2). In the same vein, Merriam backs up the trial of using the case study in what follows:

Case studies are pluralistic in that they focus on a specific situation or phenomenon; they are descriptive; and they are empirical- that is they offer insights into the phenomenon understudy. (…) quantitative inquiry is inductive –focusing on process, understanding and interpretation- rather than deductive and experimental.

(Merriam, 1988: 21)

Theoretically speaking, an alternative was found to end up the traditional quantitative-qualitative rivalry: longitudinal and cross sectional approaches (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1990: 10-14). A longitudinal approach (which they identify with a case study) in the field of second and/or foreign language acquisition research involves observing the development of the linguistic performance, usually of one subject, over a span of time. A cross-sectional approach, however, studies the linguistic performance of a large number of subjects; the data are usually elicited and collected at only one session. Using this terminology, the present study is not longitudinal, but rather cross-sectional since two groups of EFL learners are under investigation at only one session of language tests or language proficiency tests.

3.4.2. Tools of Research (Triangulation)

A range of methods are used for collecting data for the study, a strategy called triangulation: this means that dissimilar methods are combined to study the same unit, the reason behind this strategy being that the flaws of one method are often strengths of another, and by combining methods, observers can achieve the best of each, while

overcoming their unique deficiencies (Denzin [1970: 308] quoted in Merriam 1988: 69). This is sketched in the following instruments:

3.4.2.1. Interviews

The first instrument for gathering information was conducted with the teachers in charge of the receptive skills teaching: reading and listening. This is meant to elicit the ways, techniques and procedures undertaken in the process of providing input in the form of written scripts (reading) or oral/verbal messages (listening) be it a text or a dialogue of authentic or sometimes concocted English.

Interviews are one of the most important sources of case study information (Merriam 1988; Yin 2003). Unlike the surveys, the interviews are guided conversations rather than structured queries (Yin 2003: 89).For the researcher, it meant both following the line of inquiry and asking the actual questions in an biased manner, not forcing the interviewees to adopt a particular position and most importantly maintain a friendly and non-threatening environment. The type of questions used was mainly open-ended questions rather than those requiring straight forward yes/no answers. The interviews had a conversational format and the asked questions were aimed at both objective facts and the teacher's opinions.

Primarily, the interviews were used to elicit teachers' views and reactions to the situations of the teaching and learning of the receptive skills. This offered subjective insights into their perceptions and practices. The interviews were recorded with the consent of the subjects so that to be able, later, to go back to a particular piece of information that emerged in the interview and which was only later discovered to be relevant to the research topic. The recording technique could only help to restore any piece of information needed though interviews are known to be verbal and subject to bias and attrition. However, this was not a major problem since it was not the only method used and other data were supplemented from other sources as well.

3.4.2.2. T-tests or language Proficiency Tests

The second tool of investigation was rather more pertinent since it analysed the teaching situation before and after the provision of the proposedstrategy which provided alternatives to the usual and habitual way of exposing input through reading texts and

listening to passages. A Pre-test in language proficiency and vocabulary retrieval was set to evaluate both groups of learners (control and experimental). This preliminary language test was administered to 1st year EFL learners which constituted a random sample of learners so as to avoid selection and biased interpretation of the results. The test was set to reveal learners aptitudes to understand input contained in reading and listening passages via a potential control and mastery of lexical items. The method of testing was driven through simple texts where the main instruction versed into vocabulary retrieval to reach comprehension. Equal and similar questions and tasks were directed to both groups in terms of length, degree of difficulty and input diversity. However, the second T-test was still a language proficiency test led after 6 weeks of interval. During that period, the experimental group was, in a way, privileged. Learners of that group were exposed to a multiple set of texts representing a variety of contexts and following the proposed techniques adopted by Krashen,the Input Hypothesis. The claim is stressed by the fact that we understand language only when it is comprehensible and that we comprehend language that contains structures and vocabulary we have not acquired before only through rich context. So, contexts should be varied so as to reach proficiency in language and to move easily from the learners' current level of competence (**i**) which can lead to (**i+**) which is the stage immediately following. In other terms, if the input is comprehensible, varied and sufficient, the'**i+'** level will be provided. This means learners will progress automatically and go beyond their initial level of understanding if only they are sufficiently exposed to a variety of contexts representing input a little bit beyond their initial level where they can use contextual clues, linguistic knowledge, extra-linguistic and world knowledge (information). To concretize the proposed hypothesis, the experimental group was instructed, during the 6 week-period, to deal with a great deal of comprehensible input via free voluntary and guided readings and unlimited-engaged listenings to provide the experimental group of learners enough input, still in respect to comprehensibility and variety. Surely, according to Krashen (1993), these learners may increase literacy and language proficiency. They accordingly, may reach a level beyond the level they attained before being sufficiently exposed to such rich, varied and comprehensible

input. Then, the Pre-test results should, convincingly, prove the attested ability of the experimental group to deal with text comprehension if compared to the other control group. For assertion, a questionnaire it administered to those learners receiving more attention in that particular experiment to certify their progress or simply negate.

3.4.2.3. Questionnaire/Self-reports

Athird-tool of investigation was set at the end of the investigation to confirm or infirm the utility of adopting Krashen's Input Hypothesis with our EFL learners. Knowing that English embodies the stutus of a foreign language in Algeria, the rationale behind implementing the proposed hypothesis is,to generate instances of exposure to the target language through a rich input which is comprehensible or at leasta little bit beyond our learners capacity of understanding; and properly advised, it should be varied so as different occasions of meeting lexical items are repeatedly given to the learners. According to Dorney (2007), a period of six weeks was acclaimed to fulfill and adopt the proposed programme of language exposure. The questionnaire stipulated from the experimental groups EFL learners to report their own experience with the new injected programme they went through and to reveal possible changes in their language proficiency compared to a 6 week- period before. The types of questions were semi-guided ones where sometimes just a yes/no answer could suffice. Other times, respondents were given anMCQ alternative to choose between different proposed answers. In sum, the objective behind is methodologically significant. It serves as a measurement tool to diagnose the efficiency of the approach carried out during the period of experiment.

The subjects were pedagogically observed on a number of occasions to be able to judge their level of proficiency in English before and after the experiment. These self-reports were especially important for revealing information about EFL learners' past experience with English, and at the end, they were asked for self-evaluation of the progress they made in comprehending English texts.

The subjects' self-reports were friendly conducted to retrieve some retrospective accounts of what kind of experience they had with English prior to the beginning of this study. Finally, the achieved results in language tests were analysed to get objective, comparable data on the progress they made.

As for motivation to learn English, it seems that the instrumental motivation played a prominent part as they wanted to improve their English mainly in order to be able to read academic books related to the areas of their interest.

It is also important to include information about the subjects 'experience with English before they arrived to University, as it provides useful insights into their level of proficiency prior to the study. The formal English instruction that they received as part of their education within the state system (Middle and Secondary school education) constitute the main attribute influencing their proficiency in English. Adding to that, contact with English outside the formal classes, though very limited, also helps increasing interest, motivation and learning engagement through different means of communication as TV shows, documentaries, movies, Radio Broadcast (BBC and the like) and the Internet diverse uses (Facebook, twitter, YouTube…).

Concerning formal instruction, the majority of our 1st year EFL learners stated learning English at the age of 12 years old as part of compulsory language classes in the first grade of Middle school education. Generally, the English language classes were held three times a week in the form of one-hour lesson. The teaching methodology was based on the traditional grammar-translation approach with virtually some communicative activities requiring pupils to produce the language with respect to the phonetics hints introduced recently in the text books and the final output represented through projects that are with conformity with writing tips. What was really missing, however, is training in the listening skill and the fact that there was not enough variety of comprehensible input, in the form of graded reading materials or simple listening passages. Those English language classes continued in the same nature for another three-year education in secondary school. There, the English teaching, itself, went on in much the same form as before where the time allotted varies from three to five hours per session depending on the stream: literary and/or scientific. General English was taught

throughout the two educationalinstructions, therefore, a functional; thematical approach was conducted via the exhibition of many texts incorporating differenttopics and themes. Immediately after finishing the secondary education and holding the baccalaureate exam, they went on to study at university level where they enrolled in ELT (English language Teaching). The foreign language (English) was the basis of the university requirements for students which constituted at the same time the major aspect of their specializations too. There, for the first time, they encountered a form of teaching that could generally be called 'communicative approach', along with a focus on more advanced aspects of grammar, language components (linguistics and phonetics) and supra-additional elements of the language encounters as literature and civilization. Training and learning were also given in basic academic English skills such as discourse comprehension (listening and reading strategies) and vocabulary building throughout the diversity of all the skills. Some of the skills present general English and others specialised terminology in the course of the modules; namely, phonetics, linguistics, literature and civilization.

3.4.2.4.Discrete Vocabulary Test.

Vocabulary knowledge is assessed discretely or via writing and speaking. So, there are two kinds of assessment: discrete and embedded, i.e. recognition and production. Thus, shared formats for assessing vocabulary recognition are multiple-choice questions (MCQ) and matching.

MCQs are one of the most common formats in professionally-developed language tests. They are widely used to assess learning at the recall and comprehension levels (Coombe, Folse, and Hubley, 2007).MCQs take many forms but their basic structure is stem and response options, which include the key or correct answer and the distractors or incorrect answers. The student must then identify the correct or best response choice. EFL learners construct meaning through dependence on the context clues that are provided in the text.

There are four main advantages associated with MCQs. First of all, they are very reliable, because if written well, there is only one correct answer. Another advantage is they are quick and easy to mark, and thereby deemed very practical from a teacher's perspective. Versatility is another advantage, as MCQs can be used to assess knowledge at various levels from beginning to advanced.A final advantage is that students from most parts of the world are familiar with the format.

Item stems. According to read (2004), a number of guidelines must be followed in writing effective MCQ stems. First, the stem should provide as much context as possible.

Distractors. All distractors should be the same part of speech as the word being tested. The distractors selected should not be related to the tested word in terms of meaning or more simply put the distractors should not be ambiguous.

The MCQ format can be used to assess vocabulary knowledge in a variety of ways. These include synonym recognition, definition, meaning in context, and odd man out.

*MCQ Item Writing Tips.*Teachers who wants to use the MCQ format when they test vocabulary may find the following guidelines useful (Coombe, Folse, and Hubley, 2007).

- The expected response to the question should be clear from the stem
- Provide sufficient context in the stem
- Standardize the number of response options (4is considered best)
- Make sure one response option is the unambiguous correct or best answer
- Try to provide a balanced number of nouns, verbs and adjectives selected as tested words.
- Write questions where all response options are approximately the same length and level of difficulty.
- Place the correct answer equally in the A, B, C and D positions
- Avoid providing grammatical clues in the stem

- Avoid using absurd distractors as they do not contribute to the test.

3.5. Situation under Research

A description of 1ˢᵗ year EFL learners is provided as far as their English language proficiency level is concerned upon their arrival at University. As already mentioned, they had studied English for several years before. However, the instruction that they had received was largely not aimed at developing communicative competence in the language; they were hardly able to recite some grammatical rules but were not able to put them into practice in the actual situations in which they were required. Nor were they able to understand fully an oral message given via natives or even via teacher talk.And, if a written text was somehow beyond their level of understanding they failed in their discourse comprehension. The main amalgamation had resulted from the routinized way of instruction through the official exams (mainly BEM or BAC) where written texts only were approached superficially requiring form learners (pupils) to match and adjust their comprehension by matching items or definitions or finding synonym and definitions in the reading texts. These typical instructions could be reached either through the use of some linguistic background, world knowledge or at random discovery. Their level of proficiency would not permit them to use contextual clues simply because the kind of input they received was not sufficiently rich and varied. The reason behind is that the official syllabus required from teachers to prepare learners (pupils)to sit for official exams within a given format and the second main reason is that English was one of many important subject matters, hence concentration was split over. The results obtained in many researches (Baiche 2008) (Bouayacoub, 2012) showed the very low performance in the written output (written expression); and it is useless to speak about the oral output since it is completely neglected and not even mentioned in the official testing. This had a negative effect on their confidence to use English.

At the beginning of the study, our 1ˢᵗ year EFL students' level of English could be described as 'pre-intermediate' in terms of grammar and vocabulary or reading, but

listening, writing and speaking skills were rather 'elementary'. Besides, the observation that the researcher used to evaluate their level of proficiency, a preliminary English test, was used to gain more objective information.

3.5.1. The Pre-Test (PET: Preliminary English Test)

As mentioned within the teachers' questionnaire analyses, the programme of discourse comprehension is generally handed out to the 1st year EFL learners so as they can engage, individually, in the expansion and enrichment of the data relatedly. The overall picture of the syllabus, then, represents a rounding up of the origins of the target language, linguistically, socially, artistically, geographically and economically. That's to say, all related themes and characters to the English language perse are delivered through the whole programme with certain freedom and flexibility to choose, change, adapt and consider different issues in relation to the points in large with the assigned proposed titles of the syllabus. Among the numerous retained texts, there are those presenting the main cities and capitals of the English speaking countries with their famous amenities and known touristic places. As a pre-test, the text chosen is rather short, loaded with simple grammatical structures and easy-understanding vocabulary so as to settle a friendly-free atmosphere to gain interest and motivation. The text is presented twice: first from teacher-talk presentation on a listening session, then through a reading session when the text in question is printed and delivered to EFL learners for reading and analysis. The type of questions remains the same for both skills since the text includes the same data for both groups.

In a parallel way, both control and experimental groups went through the same process of dealing with the text via an oral presentation (listening, first), then through a written script (reading).

3.5.1.1. Text and Activities

Text: London

London is the capital of England. It is also the centre of government for the whole Britain. London is one of the greatest cities in the world. Modern London has grown around two cities. <u>The first</u> is old London, sometimes called "the Square Mile", dating back to the Roman times. The city of London is the hub of business, finance and trade. It suffered the great fire of 1666 and bears the brunt of air raids during the Second World War. The second is the city of Westminster <u>which</u> grew around its Abbey and Palace, to become the centre of government of the country. With <u>its</u> numerous famous buildings and historical sites, London is an important tourist attraction. Its appeal is enhanced by the river Thames and public parks and gardens which bring stretches of wooded grassland right into the centre of the city.

<u>Instructions:</u> Five types of questions will be adopted to check the comprehension of the text and the vocabulary included. These are related to: referencing, inferencing, world knowledge, linguistic knowledge and contextual clues. Let us frame the different tasks around the text in the proposed model as follows:
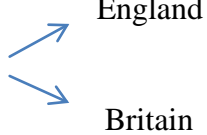
Referencing: Statement/data	**Reason/answer**
e.g: London famous	River Thames, public park…
	⟶ (Centre, Pillar stone…
-Inferencing: hub of business	⟶ (Attraction, interest…
e.g: its appeal	
England	
-world knowledge: London ⟋ ⟍	⟶ Both
Britain	Superlative: adj+ est
	⟶ {
-Linguistic knowledge: ⌐greatest	Word formation: noun+ ed:
Wooded	wooded
contextual clues: why word wide know	⟶ The hub of business and English language centre

Table: 3.2. Comprehension Criteria Resources (Adapted from, Nation, 2001)

From the above cited parameters used in text comprehension either in listening or reading, students were given a multitude of possible sources to tackle the text. They can use their language aptitudes, their general background knowledge of the world, they can refer directly to the data of the text, as they can infer from their capacity to link between sustained information or simply make use of contextual clues to reach the plausible answer.

Activities one: There were five activities relating to the 5 parameters suggested above. They are as follows: What do the underlined words refer to in the text?

The first   - which   - its

Activity two: Find in the text words whose definitions are:

- Suffer the main force of something
- Areas that get people's attention and interest.

Activity three: Find in the text a synonym to each of the following words

- Ancient =
- Biggest =
- Epicentre =
- Commerce =
- Supported =

Activity four: State whether the statements below are true of false. Correct the false ones

- London is the capital of Britain.
- Thames is the biggest business building.
- There was a great fire in all England.
- The Romans are the local inhabitants of London.

Activity five: answer the following questions:

- Why is London the most important city in the U.K?

- What does the 'square mile' refer to?

- Is Westminster the capital city of the U.K.?

- What makes London an attractive city?

The results of the Pre-test concurred with the following evaluation:

Generally, both groups performed relatively well on the tasks that were directly linked to a specific grammatical (linguistic) knowledge or a referential vocabulary item; however, they scored very low on skills requesting particular deduction or inferencing. Sometimes it was completely felt that a lack of world knowledge and techniques in using context as a source were the reason of failure.

A detailed description of the test's results is shown below for both groups where each group consistently scored well only on referential questions and apparent knowledge of vocabulary. The weak areas were especially in listening more than in reading because of the perception of the input and the inability to have recourse to the text once needed. On average, both groups scored about 50% on reading, and going as low as 30% in the listening skills. In an official exam situation, the obtained grades would be a failure

3.5.1.2. The Result Findings and Data Analysis

-A total of 60 respondents sat for the test, hence constituting two (2) groups of 31 and 29 students.

-The choice of the examinees was done at random to avoid any bias in due respect to their availability in their usual class-time without being informed that they are under control in a given research. The purpose behind is to reach a low-anxiety situation to ensure effectively a low affective filter (Krashen, 1983). This is a necessary condition for the input to reach the language acquisition device and become intake.

-The test was conducted similarly with both groups, starting first with a listening text comprehension, and then followed by the same text for reading comprehension.

Therefore, the same typical questions for both skills were adopted given space to referential direct answers and to inferencing and contextual clues retrieval.

-The overall scores for both groups were below the average, majoring between 10.50 and 9 in the two groups respectively.

-As for the ultimate separation of the two skills, better scores were gained in Reading comprehension than in the listening skill. The reason is that (respondents claimed that) in the reading test words were put into script where orthographic recognition rather helps to examine morphologically the words and chances to come back to the text were illimited.

-The listening low scores were also significant in the sense that perception of foreign talk is rather compromising on the one hand and that instances of being tested aurally is rather a new task for the students in their 1st year; since in former academic years (middle and secondary schools) they were hardly confronted to such a test.

-The other outstanding remark worth to be made is the low scores related to inferencing and the use of contextual clues.

-Referencing was rather better in the sense that both groups in both skills scored well and managed to reach the threshold level easily. However, as far as inferencing and contextual clues usage are concerned, marks were (very) low.

To account for the above findings in concrete numerals, some tables, graphs (and charts) are drawn to represent what follows:

*1. Results of the two groups of students

-For each group

*2. Results of the two tests (2skills)

-For both groups

*3. Results of the sub-skills (mainly reference and inference)
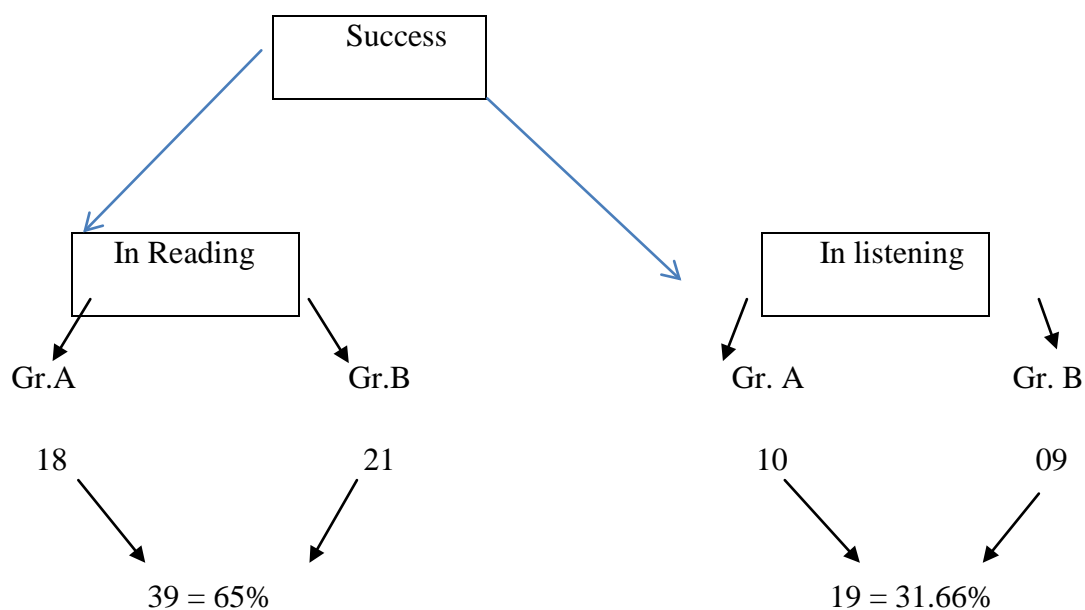
Figure: 3.1. The success rate in the language proficiency pre-test.
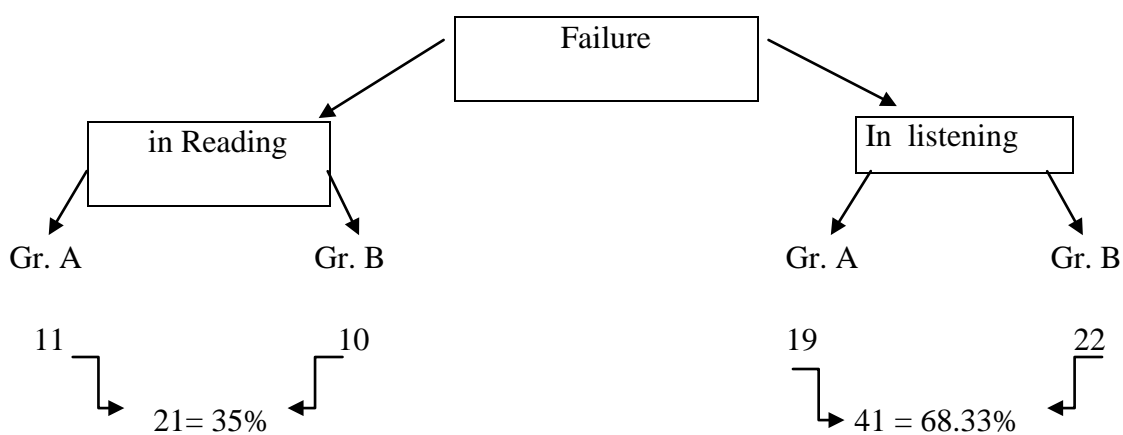
Figure: 3.2. Failure rate in the language proficiency pre-test.

	Reading		Listening	
	+	-	+	-
Group A	62.06%	37.93%	34.48%	65.51%
Group B	67.74%	32.25%	29.03%	70.96%

Table: 3.3. Results of the Reading and listening for each group

The results obtained from the two groups are split and shown in the two graphs below to represent the two skills separately:
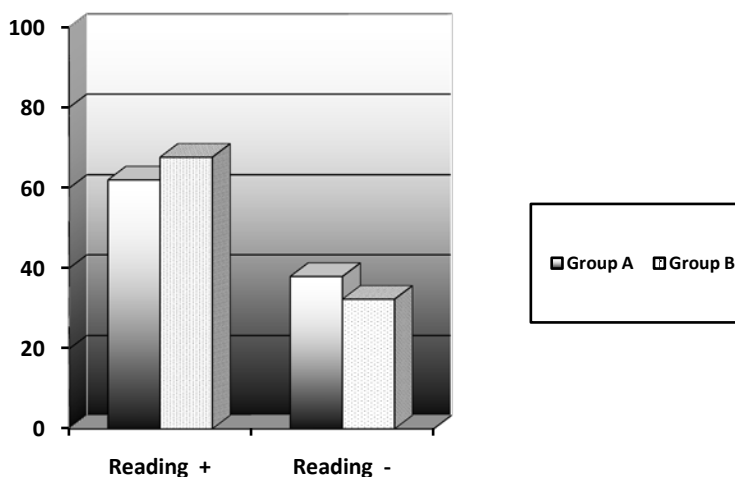
Fig. 3.3 – a. Results in reading
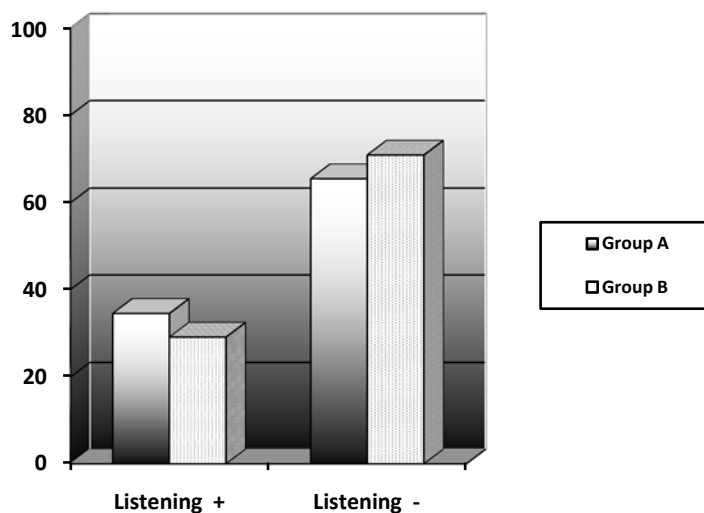
Fig. 3.3 – b. Results in listening

In order to have an overall view, the results obtained in the two groups have been combined:

Table: 3.4. Results of Reading and Listening for both Groups

	Reading		Listening	
	+10	**- 10**	**+10**	**-10**
Total number	39/60	21/60	19/60	41/60
Total percentage	65%	35%	31.66%	68.33%
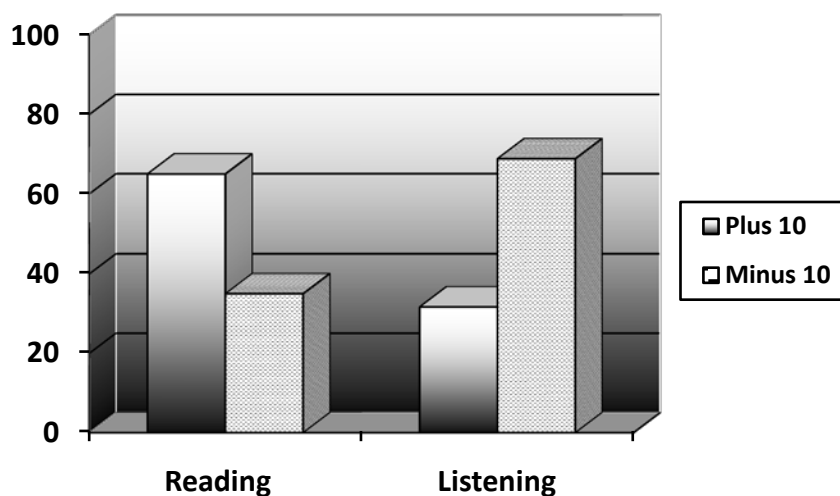
Fig. 3. 4. Reading and listening skills in the whole section

		Group. A (control)		Group. B (Experimental)	
		Above average +10	Below average -10	Above average +10	Below average -10
Reading	Number	18	11	21	10
	%	62.06%	37.93%	67.74%	32.25%
Listening	Number	10	19	09	22
	%	34.48%	65.51%	29.03%	70.96%

Table: 3.5. The two groups' Results in the Two Tests

The overall results are represented in the two graphs below which allow us to compare the control group results (A) with those of the experimental one (B).
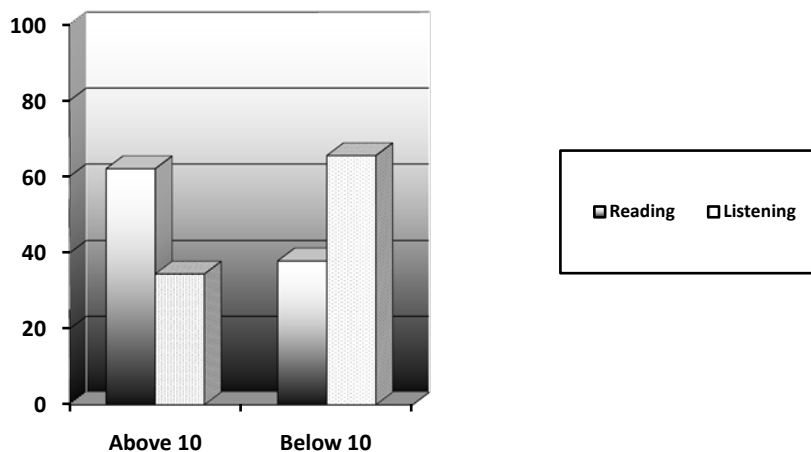
Fig. 3. 5. a. Results in Control Group (A)
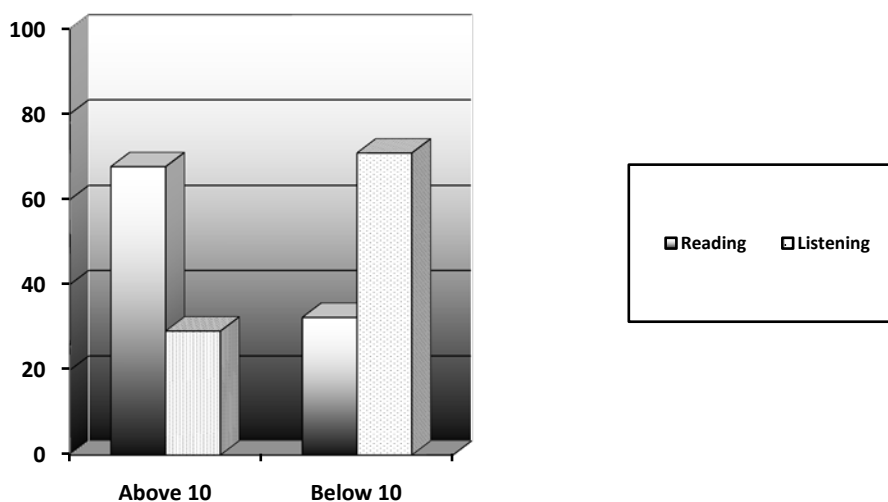
Fig. 3.5. b. Results in Experimental Group (B)

3.5.1.3. Results Interpretation

The overall results of the two (2) T-Tests showed a rate of failure rather above success and the general average was below the threshold level. This is clearly shown in the table below:

Rates	Skills		
	Reading	Listening	Both
Success	65%	31.66%	48.43%
Failure	35%	68.33%	51.66%

Table: .3.6. Rate of failure for both groups in the two skills

Then, with more precision, the overall results drawn from the pre-test in concerns of the two skills for the whole section (both groups), show that the graphs go as higher as the medium rate for the reading and as low as below the average for the listening skill language test. Subsequently, the first outcome from the given test reveals the low assignment in the aural/oral test of the foreign language. Yet, the other plausible finding concerns the quite medium level in the two tests (reading and listening) giving a rate of success rather compromising. The graphs below exhibit the fact otherly.
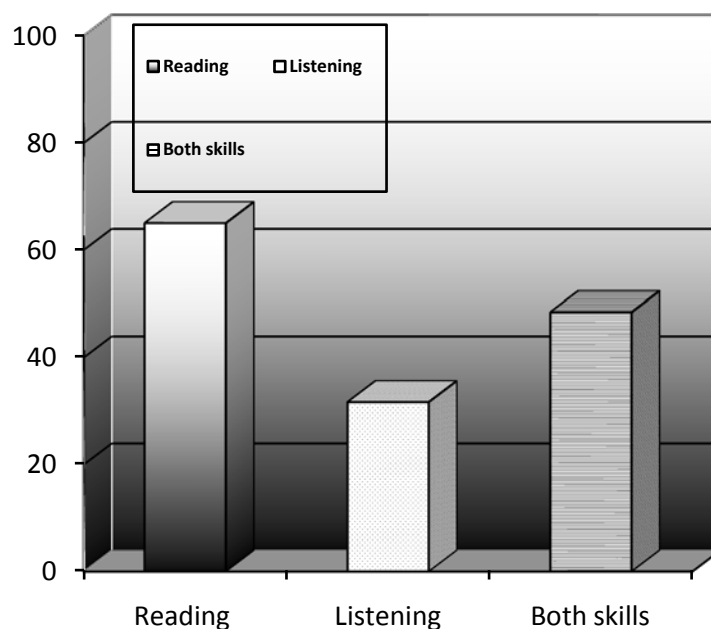
Fig. 3.6.a. success rates
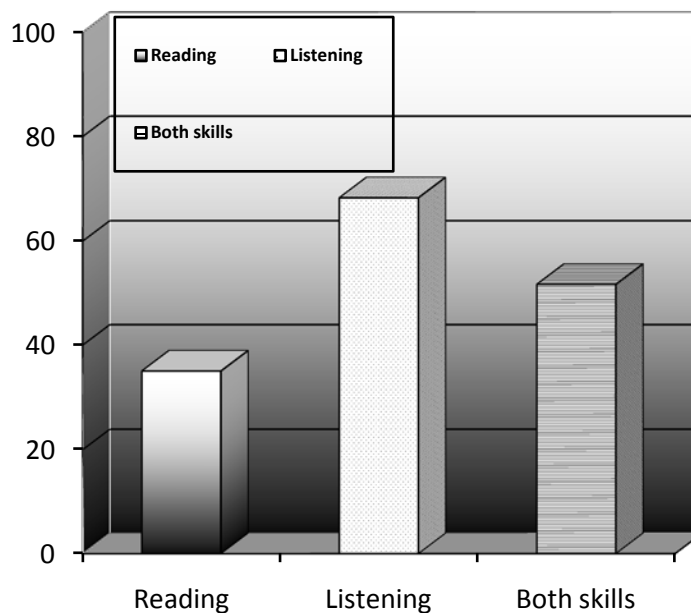
Fig.3.6.b. Failure rates

Finally, the sub-skills relating to the questions of the pre-test are analysed below:

Activities	Listening		Reading	
	+10	-10	+10	-10
1)Word reference	14	05	26	13
2) Definition	08	11	18	21
3)Synonyms	12	07	27	12
4) T/F	07	12	18	21
5) Q.Q	03	16	12	27

Table: 3.7. Results of the Sub-Skills for both groups The above tablerepresents the type of activitiesadapted from a 'Model for Assessing Text Comprehension (Nation, 2001). The activities are related to the Comprehension criteria as follows:

-Word reference ⟶ referencing

-Definition ⟶ world knowledge and text clues +referencing

-Synonyms ⟶ linguistic and world knowledge+ referencing

-T/F ⟶ Text clues+ world knowledge

-Q.Q ⟶ contextual clues, inferencing and referencing
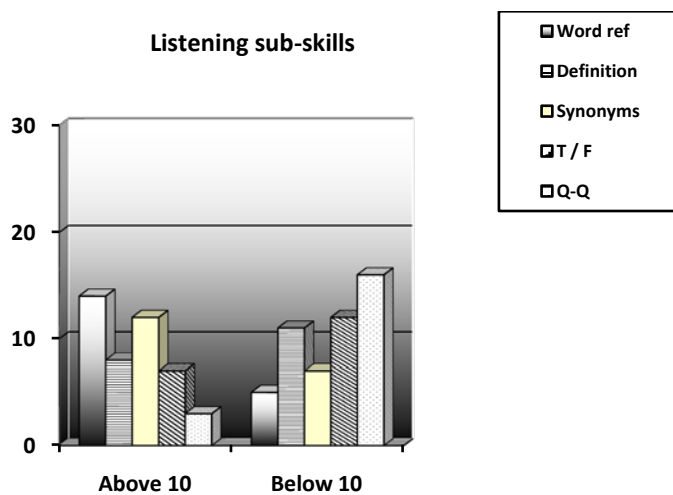
Fig. 3. 7. a. Listening sub-skills
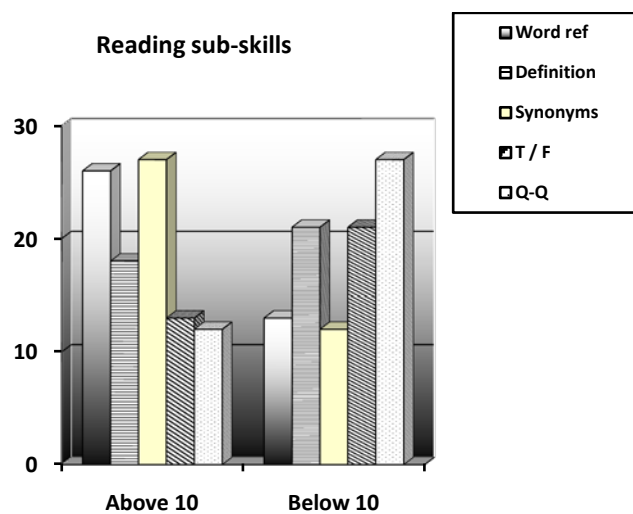
Fig. 3. 7. b. Reading sub-skills

The general outstanding feature in the analysis of these (above) results visibly show the good performance of the two groups of testees in questions related to direct reference to the text, mainly those related to word reference. Then, as a second good achievement in the pre-test was predominantly the linguistic knowledge, which characterizes the world and background knowledge, hence providing approximate synonyms for the whole activity. Unlikely, when the comprehension questions referred typically to a deep processing of data from the text or from the clues contained in the text, the results showed rather a complete miss in the application of the contextual clues. The issues were given obviously through the activities where the testees are required to provide correction of the false statement by combining some sort of personal knowledge with the one sustained in the text; or by using some of the provided clues in the text so as to reach the desired right answers. As a whole, the testees failed accomplishing the activities where inferencing and use of context clues were demanded.

The above concluding results mean that the comprehension of discourse in rather hypothetical, showing an alarming rate of failure especially in the listening language test. Though, the reading comprehension test was rather better than the listening, the percentage of those getting more than the average was not really encouraging. A remedy is needed by injecting a new procedure of intensification, diversification and comprehension of input so as to help acquire a more considerable amount of lexis that may lead to a better comprehension.

3.5.2. The Meanwhile Period

Let's now describe the situation under research. The research was conducted during the period between January 2013 and March 2013. That period constituted a logical and recommended asset in terms of timing and length. It is parallel to the beginning of the second half-semester which means that a 1st half-semester has already gone giving students an amount of input and a range of skills involving them in to the University (or department) way of teaching and learning procedures.About the length of the period, (6-

9 weeks), it is the minimum required period (Echevarria 2005)for inserting input, knowledge and new proceedings for new teaching elements. Yet, by the beginning of January, the 1st year EFL students were not required to use English at all, unless in some quizzes, or quick questionings related to reviewing previous acquisitions and learnings or that pre-test given to them in brief. On the other hand, they (the experimental group) stated to receive a great amount of input, most of which was comprehensible, which made then ideal subjects for the study. Most of the suggested input came in the form of reading texts (not books) and listening to teacher talk or natives. Beyond the class-time exposures to these materials, respondents were pedagogically instructed and encouraged to be exposed to English input out-of- class time by reading books, magazines, listening to the radio and watching original version films. Though not convincingly reachable as a goal, students were asked to report about their experiences with English out of the language classrooms to give emphasis on the importance of making extra readings and listenings of the target language whenever possible.

The Comprehensibility of students' input was established mainly by the subjects' (themselves) self-reports, that is, what they perceived as comprehensible. In other terms, to create interest, enhance motivation and lower the affective filler, students were involved in the choice of the listening and reading materials and were requested to evoque any language disturbances at the lexical or structural level. To make sure what they chose was really the required input in conformity with the programme and their level of understanding, a thorough observation was done to check whether they understand the input by asking relative questions on the topic and see if they are capable of answering the tasks going around. Besides the comprehensibility of the input, it was also important that it was provided, again as reported by the students, in low-anxiety situations; this should ensure a low Affective Filter. According to Krashen, this is a necessary condition for the input to reach the language acquisition device and become income. It is also important to note that during the period under-study, the students received their usual formal teaching in English: they attended language courses and many self-instructed grammar and vocabulary studies.

the meanwhile period came as a support for enhancing the amount and diversity of input where different lexical items relatedly linked to different contexts are presented to the EFL readers and listeners. These are in the forms of short texts, extract or excerpts of longer texts, short dialogues and even long meaningful sentences. This is to stress the criteria of time-on-effort provision and the friendly-free atmosphere when reading or listening to the foreign language. Understanding such small pieces of inputmay engender motivation and engagement to fulfill the tasks easily, effortlessly and in very few times. And if EFL learners feel they are able to do so, they surely will volunteer for longer and more difficult texts, since motivation and anxiety-free settings have been installed. Even, if a text is long, the tricky procedure is to split it into small texts which are dealt with continuously to create that chain procedure of knowing, recalling and re-using the contextual clues for guessing, deciphering and understanding the included vocabulary. Essentially, it is the period of enhancement and intensification of input and vocabulary to bridge the pre-test period and the post-test period. It is, hopefully, launched to gain more insights on varrous contexts and different uses of vocabulary items accordingly.

The situation under control generates different skills and sub-skills in the comprehension process of texts be it written or spoken. These skills vary from vocabulary quizzes, practice in using contextual clues, context sensitivity, vocabulary builders, and other sub-skills like defining meaning, matching synonyms and antonyms or simply introducing glossary of usage, index of common or confusing words and any other related vocabulary games that help enriching EFL learners' vocabulary with motivation . Let us present some input, first through the reading comprehension activities.

3.5.2.1. Written Discourse (Reading Comprehension)

The ongoing presentation of the different instances of meeting the vocabulary necessary for comprehension is meant the bridge the gaps felt during the pre-test analytical results. During the period under-study, the researcher accentuates the opportunities for learners

to be exposed to the (necessary) vocabulary causing simple, friendly and at-reach comprehension of different contexts where the unknown lexis in introduced. These instances are displayed below from theory explanation, exemplification, to mere practice of the suggested varieties of free-and-bound context retrieval.

1.***Practice in Using Context Clues:***This is a vocabulary quiz on the '*I have a Dream*' speech by Martin Luther King, Jr. He developed his famous speech from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D. C., on August 28, 1963. This multiple choice vocabulary quiz is based on the opening five paragraphs of that speech. The quiz should help EFL learners build their vocabulary by using context clues to determine the meanings of king's memorable words.

Instruction: carefully read these five short paragraphs from the opening of Dr.king's '*I have a Dream*' speech. Notice in particular the words in bold. Then, guided by context clues, respond to the ten multiple-choice questions that follow. In each case identify the synonym that most accurately defines the word as it is used by Dr.king in his speech.

Opening paragraphs of "I have a Dream" speech by Matin Luther King, Jr.

-Five score years ago, a great American, in whose symbolic shadow we stand today, signed the Emancipation Proclamation. Thismomentous (1) decree came as a great beacon light of hope of millions of Negro staves who had been seared (2) in the flames of withering (3) injustice. It came as a joyous day break to end the long night of their captivity.

-But one hundred years later, the Negro still is not free. One hundred years later, the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles(4) of segregation and the claims of discrimination. One hundred years later, the Negro lives on a lonely island of poverty in the midst of a vast ocean of material prosperity. One hundred years later, the Negro is still languishing (5) in the corners of American society and finds

himself an exile in his own land. And so we've come here today to dramatize a shameful condition.

-In a sense we've come to our nation's capital to cash a check. When the architects of our republic wrote the magnificent words of the constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a <u>promissory note (6)</u> to which every American was to fall heir. This note was a promise that all men, yes, black men as well as white men, would be guaranteed the "unalienable Rights" of life, liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. It is obvious today that America has <u>defaulted (7)</u> on this promissory note; insofar Asher citizens of color are concerned. Instead of honoring this sacred obligation, American has given the Negro people a bad check; a check which has come back marked «insufficient funds".

-But we refuse to believe that the bank of justice is bankrupt. We refuse to believe that there are insufficient funds in the great vaults of opportunity of this nation. And so, we've come to cash this check, a check that will give us upon demand the riches of freedom and the security of justice.

-We have also come to this <u>hallowed</u>(8) spot to remind America as the fierce urgency of now. This is no time to engage in the luxury of cooling off or to take the tranquilizing drug of <u>gradualism</u>(9). Now is the time to make real the promises of democracy. Now is the time to rise from the dark and <u>desolate</u>(10) valley of segregation to the sunlit path of racial justice. Now is the time to lift our nation from the Quick sands of racial injustice to the solid rock of brotherhood. How is the time to make justice a reality for all God's children?

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQ)

1-Momentous

a. lasting for just a brief moment

b. of great importance or significance

C. belonging to the distant past

2-Seared

- a. Painfully burned or scorched
- b. highlighted or illuminated
- c. lost, forgotten, abandoned

3-Withering

- a. devastating, humiliating
- b. Refreshing, rejuvenating
- c. non-stop, endless

4-Manacles

- a. laws, rules, principles
- b. habits, routines
- c. shackles, handcuffs

5. Languishing

- a. tiding, kept out of sight
- b. existing in miserable or disheartening conditions
- c. lasting for a long time or slow to end

6. Promissory note

- a. a written promise to repay a debt
- b. a union formed for mutual benefit
- c. a pledge to do what is right under the law

7. Defaulted

- a. brought shame or disgrace on someone
- b. rewarded or paid back
- c. failed to fulfill an obligation

8. Hallowed
- a. formed by making a hole
- b. nearly forgotten, largely ignored
- c. highly respected, regarded as holy

9. Gradualism
- a. forcible overthrow of a social order
- b. a policy of a step-by-step reform over time
- c. forgetfulness, neglect

10. Desolate
- a. brightened with light
- b. depressingly empty or bare
- c. profound or deep

2. Context Sensitivity. According to Lengyel (1972), it is crystal clear to state that"a*ll speech is to some extent context-sensitive and achieves meaning (not only nuances) by referring to the social environment matrix of messages*". However, examples of context sensitivity in language are explicitly sketched through different levels of analysis. For example, in grammar, a rule that applies only in certain specified context is context sensitive. However, a context-free grammar is one in which the rules apply regardless of context. Below, are some types or levels considering the context-related criteria for comprehension.

a. Phrase-Structure Grammar:

There are different types of phrase structure grammar: context-free grammars contain only rules that are not specified to particular contexts; whereas, context-sensitive grammar can have rules that can only be applied in certain circumstances

Rules and examples:

-The writing of a verb in its singular or plural form depends on the context of the preceding noun phrase he goes, they go

-The use of adj generally precedes the noun it describes the pink panther, the large class.

b. word Meanings:

All linguistic morphemes are context sensitive in the way that their semantic value depends partly on their semantic environment

Eg1: - Tender in "tender steak"   it does not have the same

   -Tender in "tender man"   meaning in both examples.

But, Tran's categorical morphemes have a particular property, they are also syntactically context-sensitive. This means that their morpheme-syntactic status depends on their position inside the utterance and on their syntactic environment.

Eg2: *He believes <u>now</u> that it is the truth*: The underlined word functions

as a temporal adverb, and; Now, in the following example functions otherly..

E.g.3: <u>*Now, everything has been set.*</u> The underlined word functions as a subordinating conjunction.

c. Functional Perspective on language

Much of the complexity of language generation arises out of the fact that producing language is a knowledge intensive, flexible and highly context-sensitive process. This context sensitivity reveals itself best when we consider connected texts rather than isolated sentences

   Eg1: -Suppose you were to express. [Leave (population, place)]

*It is instructive to watch what happens if one varies systematically the expression of the different concepts 'leave, population and place' by using either different words (abandon, desert, leave, go away from) in the place of the verb, and place or city in the place of the noun, or different grammatical sources: e.g. a definite description (the+ n) possessives (yours, its).

Task: consider the following statement below. Change the underlined sentences using the alternatives given below

Statement: *The town was a blooming city. Yet, when hooligan started to invade the place, it was not livable any more.*

Alternatives are as follows:

      a. The place was abandoned by (its/the population) them
      b. The city was abandoned by its/the population.
      c. It was abandoned by its/the population
      d.   Its/the population abandoned the city
      e.   Its/the population abandoned it

Getting a text right is, therefore, a major problem. (The Oxford Hand book, 2004)

The interested reader may perform all the kinds of variations mentioned above and check to see to what extent they affect '*grammaticality*' (the sentence cannot be uttered as finished), '*clarity*' (some pronouns will create ambiguity), '*cohesion and rhetorical effect*' (meaning can be dismissed). Basically all the proposed alternatives are well-formed, each one has a specific effect and not all of them are equally similar. Some are ruled by poor textual choices. In sentence a) 'the place' is sub-optimal, since it immediately repeats the word. In b) there is a wrong assignment of the informational status, where the city is supposed to bring minimal new information while actually it is old information. Probably, the best opinion, in here, is sentence c) since this preserves

the given-new distribution appropriately, without introducing potentially ambiguous pronouns.

3. *Understanding Vocabulary Words in Context*

"*You don't have to memorize vocabulary items to understand the meanings*" Kelly Roell

Comprehension of a text is one of the most difficult things to master on a standardized test. The test-makers evaluate whether you can find the main idea, make inferences, and find the authors' purpose, make references and understand vocabulary items some of which you may have never been introduced to before. Therefore, any language user can understand words based on the context of the passage, the words, clauses and phrases around the unknown vocabulary. For example, you might not understand the word '*acerbity*' by itself; but, this sentence:

Eg: The <u>acerbity</u> of the lemon caused the little girl to spit out the bite she has just taken.

From the above context, the data helps you understand that the general meaning of 'acerbity' must be "bitter or sour". So, the context clues:

"Lemon" and "spit out the bite" which provide more information in the sentence, may help you understand what the lexical item means.

<u>A sample Test</u>: Read the passage below, and then select among the suggested items the one that fits the intended meaning of the item in bold best.

Passage:

*After the first day on the job, the bank's new manager realized he would be busier than he had been led to believe .Not only was he assisting the bank tellers with their work, but his new boss had decided to **inundate** him with other tasks like creating security systems, managing the bank's deposits and refunds, securing loans, and maintaining the daily operations. The new manager was exhausted as he locked the bank up for the night.*

M ⌐ a. overload

C │ b. provide

Q │ c. assault

   └ d. underwhelm

Key: 'overload- The first choice is the best pick, although 'assault' is a close second. A way to figure out if the choice is correct is by putting the answer choice in the sentence in the place of the lexical item in bold.

Tasks: Understanding vocabulary words in context-Exercise.

Instruction: Try to determine the meanings of the following underlined words, based on the context clues in the sentences

1. Pablo always showed <u>animosity</u> toward his teachers by throwing spit balls and mouthing off, but his sister Mary was kind and sweet.
2. The little girl was showing signs of <u>ocular</u> problems-she squinted to read the black board and complained of headaches after working on the computer for too long.
3. The crowd rewarded the singer with <u>plaudits</u>, or extreme praise, by clapping and cheering during a standing ovation.
4. Elena's <u>repudiation</u> of Jery's bad table manners was obvious to everyone at dinner as she dropped her napkin and left the table.
5. From the far past to the present day, the moon has been thought to cause <u>lunacy</u>. Some studies have shown that this momentary insanity does have some association to the moon's phases.
6. The old man's hair was <u>sparse</u> rather than thick and full like it was when he was young.
7. Janie was a <u>devout</u> as the pope himself.

8. My sister Kimmy shows a great <u>abhorrence</u> for crowds, whereas my little brother Michael loves to be the center of attention.

9. When you <u>admonish</u> someone, you point out his or her errors; an example would be scolding a child when he misbehaves.

10. The sorcerer's <u>minions</u>, or devoted followers, were willing to perform any sorcery he could conjure.

11. Ninety-seven pairs is a <u>superfluous</u> number of shoes.

12. The spy was hung at the <u>gallous</u> of his homeland for his perfidious deeds.

13. Busy as a bee and quiet as a mouse are <u>hackneyed</u> phrased-they are used all the time.

14. Amelia was as<u>pretentious</u> as a princess when she arrived at the party. She tossed her coat to the hostess and grabbed a drink out of nearby guest's hand.

15. We always listen to my great-aunt because she is<u>venerable</u>, but we ignore my niece's advice because she's only six.

   (Ref: [http://testprep.about.com/od/reading test tips/a/vocab-contex.htm)](http://testprep.about.com/od/reading test tips/a/vocab-contex.htm)

3. **Context Clues: Examples and types**

   "*So, as I heard the same words again and again properly used in different phrases, I came gradually to grasp what things they signified*". (Saint AugustineConfession,400)

   By definition, a context clue is an information (such as a definition; synonym, antonym or example) that appears near a word or phrase and offers direct or indirect suggestions about its meaning.

   E.g. there was the *egalitarian* phase, which is what was happening in the book, where boys and girls are the same.

Types and Examples

Context clues come in various forms, they may be:

- A definition of the word embedded in the text

   E g. The factory supervisor demanded an *inspection,* which is a careful and critical examination of all of the meats processed each day.

- A synonym or antonym is a word, phrase, sentence or paragraph around the word.

e.g. 1-(syn.) John *strived* in doing his work. Similarly, the rest of workers did their best

e. g. 2-(antonym), The boxes weren't exactly heavy, just *cumbersome,* unlikethe easy-to-carry bags with handles.

Note (1): In e.g. 1 the word 'strived' can be figured out from its synonym 'did their best'

Note (2): In e.g. 2 the word 'cumbersome' can be figured out from its antonym 'easy-to-carry'.

- An example that helps define the word.
  e.g. The builder decided that the house could be built on a number of *sites*, for example, along a wooded path, near the ocean, or atop a mountain.
- A restatement of the word or idea

e.g. Gary Paulsen writes books that *appeal* or are of particular interest to young adult readers.

All in all, the descriptive research on learning from context can produce learning of word meanings and that although the probability of learning a word from a single occurrence is low, the probability of learning a word from context increases substantially with additional occurrences of the word. We learn a little from the first encounter with a word and then more and more about a word's meaning as we meet it in new and different contexts.

Let's consider the following words 'allay; invective, timorous' given for an explanatory task to EFL learners. Most learners, then, would probably have to wrack their brains to spout a definition to the above words. We typically don't use

them in ordinary speech; however, by placing them in the sentences below, it is somehow easier to understand the meanings of the words.

- The preschool teacher hugged to children to *allay* their fears about the first day of school.
- My dad's crazy *invective* against the way I look only made me decide to dye my hair magenta the next time around.
- When Liz walked on stage, she was as white as a ghost, trembling and looked like she was about to be sick. We could only guess that her *timorous* nature had finally gotten the best of her.

In these sentences, we understand that "allay" must mean something like 'calm', and "invective" must mean something like 'lecture/preach' and "timorous" must mean 'shy'.

How do we know? ———→   Context clues…

Context Clues are our friends. They are like our little buddle's who have taken the exam before us and want to pass us the answers.

5-Vocabulary Builder: Antonyms

Here is a vocabulary quiz that will test your knowledge of both antonyms and synonyms

*Instruction: For each sentence below, select the letter of the one item that most accurately defines the word in bold by using its antonym.

- 1. His take on the Information society is a gloomy **dystopia**, one directed by greedy corporations committed to oppressing their customers.
- a. An imaginary (clear place in which of life's extremely bad, as from deprivation or terror.
- b. A mood disorder characterized by mild depression.
- c. The doctrine of purposelessness in nature

  d. An abnormality in an otherwise normal rhythmic pattern, as of brain waves being recorded.

- 2. The speaker repeatedly used the word 'bureaucrat' as a **dysphemism** to government employees.

    a. One of two or more words that have the same sound and often the same spelling but differ in meaning

    b. Corresponding or similar in position, value, structure, or function.

    c. Substitution of more offensive or disparaging word or phrase for one considered less offensive

    d. Substitution of an inoffensive term for one considered offensively explicit.

- 3. The photos purportedly showed the carcass of a **merman** washed up on a beach that was said to be located in Venda, South Africa

    a. A magician and prophet who served as counselor to king Arthur

    b. A dog having a reddish or bluish gray coat streaked or speckled with black.

    c. Any of a bread of sheep, originally from Spain, having long fine wool.

    d. A legendary sea creature having the head and upper body of a man and the tail of a fish.

- 4.If you can't dazzle them with brilliance, **befuddle** them with blarney

    a. To behave as a friend to

    b. To confuse, perplex

    c. To cast aspersions upon; speak badly of

    d. To take for granted without proof

- 5. The teacher is dealing almost exclusively with **monoglot** English speakers, and so the class is progressing far too slowly for my daughter.

    a. Believing that all humans are descended from a single pair of ancestors

    b. Produced under a single set of continuing conditions

    c. Being married to only one person at a time

    d. Knowing only on language

- 6.Our fact checking **maven** has put together a checklist for the editors of the magazine
    a. A person who has special knowledge or experience; an expert or specialist
    b. A person who refuses to abide by the dictates of (or resist adherence to) a group; a dissenter
    c. A person who advocates direct or radical action to secure a social or political goal
    d. A good or devil with the power to transform a concept into an element of the sensible world

- 7. All progress in based upon a universal **innate** desire on the part of every organism to live beyond its income. (Samuel butler).
    a. More exclusive, influential or important
    b. Possessed at birth or an essential characteristic; inborn, or inherent
    c. Lack of world lines or sophistication; naiveté
    d. Candid; straight forward.

- 8. When Richard Pryor used the N words in his routines back in the 1970s, it was not the causal gangsta rap **antonym** that it is today.
    a. The condition or quality of being autonomous; independence
    b. A word or an expression that serves as a figurative or symbolic; substitute for another
    c. A name by which a people of social group refers to itself
    d. A fictions name, especial a pen name

- 9. These days, there are many people around the world who listen to the song that, made me **infamous** and read the books that made me respectable
    a. Incapable of failing or making a mistake; certain
    b. Unknown or undiscovered
    c. Having an exceedingly bad reputation; notorious
    d. The quality of being widely honored and acclaimed famous

- 10. A wise writer will feel that the ends of study and composition are best answered by announcing undiscovered regions of thought, and so

communicating, through hope, new activity to the **torpid** spirit. (Ralph Waldo Emerson).

a.   A heavy, uncontrolled outpouring

b.   Parched with the heat of the sun; intensely hot; scorching; passionate

c.   Of such surpassing brilliance or excellence as to suggest divine inspiration

d.   Dormant; hibernating; lethargic; apathetic

Source (ref.). http:// grammar.about.com/od/words/a/vocab1_2htm

Keys to Vocabulary Builder: Antonyms

Answers

1. a. Opposite of utopia ⟶ dystopia

2. c. Opposite of euphesism ⟶ dysphemism

3. d. Male-counter part of mermaid ⟶ merman

4. b.   Opposite of clarify or enlighten ⟶ befuddle

5. d.   Opposite of polyglot ⟶ monoglot

6. a.   Opposite of amateur or novice ⟶ maven

7. b.   Opposite of learned or acquired ⟶ innate

8. c.   Opposite of pseudonym ⟶ autonym

9. c.   Opposite of reputable or honorable ⟶ infamous

10. d.   Opposite of active, energetic, lively ⟶ torpid

6. Vocabulary Builder: Synonyms

The words used in this vocabulary quiz have been drawn from the following essays by Mark Twain: 'Advice to youth', 'Corn-Pone Opinions', 'A fable, Fennimore

Cooper's literary Offenses', 'How I conquered Stage Fight', 'On the Decay of the Art of living', and 'Two Ways of seeing a River'.(Mark Twain's Travel Book).

*Instruction

For each of the following sentences below, select the letter of the one item that most accurately defines the word in bold by providing its synonym.

- 1.They said [my talk] should be something suitable to youth-something **didactic** instructive, or something in the nature of good advice.(Advice to youth)
    a. Lively, humorous
    b. Immature, childish
    c. Intended to teach others
    d. Primarily designed for amusement or entertainment
- 2. There are many sorts of books; but good ones are the sort for the young to read Remember that. They are a great, an **inestimable** and unspeakable means of improvement. (Advice to youth)
    a. Too valuable to be properly measured or appreciated
    b. Outrageous, hard to believe
    c. Magnificent, larger than life
    d. Unable to be held, captured or put into words
- 3. Our prose standard, three quarters of a century ago, was **ornate** and diffuse; some authority or other changed it in the direction of compactness and simplicity and conformity followed without argument (Corn-Pone Opinions)
    a. Having an ugly or mean deposition
    b. Showy or flowery
    c. Impenetrable, extremely hard to understand
    d. In a foreign language.
- 4. Our prose standard, three quarters of a century ago, was ornate and **diffuse**; some authority or other changed it in the direction of compactness and simplicity,

a. Intended to teach others

b. Magnificent, larger than life

c. Wordy, long-winded

d. Confused

- 5. [The picture] is so dainty and charming and **ethereal** and inspiring in its unimaginable beauty that your head turns round and round and you almost swoon with ecstasy (A fable)

  a. Tiny, almost invisible

  b. Costy, extremely expressive, highly valuable

  c. Artificial

  d. Delicate, heavenly.

- 6. [The picture] is so dainty and charming and ethereal and inspiring in it unimaginable beauty that your head turns round and you almost swoons with **ecstasy**. (A fable)

  a. Dizziness, loss of balance

  b. Disbelief

  c. An alcoholic drink

  d. Great joy or delight

- 7. The stream has bends in it, a sure indication that it has alluvial banks and cuts them; yet these bends are only thirty and fifty feet long. If Cooper had been a nice and **punctilious** observer he would have noticed that the bends were often nine hundred feet long than short of it (Fennimore Cooper's literary Offences)

  a. Very careful and exact

  b. Considerate, thought ful

  c. Honest, truthful

  d. Prompt, always on time.

- 8. The scow episode is really is **sublime** burst of invention; but it does not thrill, because the inaccuracy of the details throws a sort of air of fictitiousness and general improbability over it. (Fennimore Cooper's Literary Offences)

  a. Loud, explosive

- b. Extremely fast
- c. Grand, majestic
- d. Believable, convincing

- 9. If there is an awful, horrible **malady** in the word, it is stage-fright and see sickness ("How I conquered Stage-Fright")
  - a. A terrifying event or experience
  - b. Illness, disease
  - c. Sound, noise
  - d. Story or legend

- 10. My complaint simply concerns the decay of the art of lying. No high-minded man, no man of right feeling can contemplate the **lumbering** and slovenly lying of the present day without grieving to see a noble art so prostituted. ("On the Decay of the Art of Lying")
  - a. Immoral, sinful
  - b. Ongoing, persistent
  - c. Clumsy, awkward
  - d. Highty- refined, expertly conducted

- 11. My complaint simply concerns the decay of the art of lying. No high-minded man, no man of right feeling can contempt late the lumbering and **slovenly** lying of the present day without grieving to see a noble art so prostituted. ("On the Decay of the Art of Lying")
  - a. Hard to believe, in convincing
  - b. Slow moving
  - c. Outrageous, larger than life
  - d. Careless, sloppy

- 12. The highest perfection of politenessis only a beautiful **edifice,** built from the base to the dome of graceful and gilded forms of charitable and unselfish lying ("On the Decay of the Art of Lying")
  - a. A building
  - b. A lie

    c. A run-down palace

    d. An abandoned construction site

- 13. Among other common lies, we have the silent lie. The deception which one conveys by simply keeping still and concealing the truth. Many **obstinate**, truth mongers indulge in this dissipation, imagining that if they speak no lie, they lie not at all. ("On the Decay of the Art of Lying")

    a. Righteous, virtuous, perfectly wonderful

    b. Stubborn, firmly refusing to change ones' behavior or habits

    c. Private, secretive

    d. Thick, slow to respond, unintelligent

- 14. Among other common lies, we have (ibid-13) this **dissipation**

    a. Useless of profitless activity

    b. Morally upright behaviour, righteousness

    c. Deceptive or hypocritical behaviour

    d. Silent, uncommunicating way of behaving

- 15. Now when I had mastered the language of this water and had come to know every **trifling** feature that bordered the great river as familiarly as I knew the letters of the alphabet, Ihad made a valuable acquisition ("Two ways of seeing arriver")

    a. Major, important

    b. Minor or insignificant

    c. Troublesome, annoying

    d. Appropriate, relevant

Keys: Quiz answers (synonymy)

1. c. intended to teach others

2. a. too valuable to be properly measured or appreciated

3. b. showy or flowery

4. c. wordy, long-winded

5. d. heavenly, not of this earth

6. d. great joy or delight

7. a. very careful and exact

8. c. grand, majestic

9. b. illness, disease

10. c. clumsy, awkward

11. d. careless, sloppy

12. a. a building

13. b. stubborn, firmly refusing to change one's behavior or habits

14. a. useless of profitless activity

15. b. minor or in sign ficant

7. Practice in Using Context Clues

The following vocabulary quiz is based on two paragraphs from one of P.G. Wodehouse's finest comic novels, "Leave it to Psmith" (1923). The Novel recounts the story of a debonair, socialist, Ronald Eustace Psmith (the "P" is silent) who visits Blanding's Castle with the genius attention of stealing Lady Keble's diamond necklace.

What Wodehouse writes, said Douglas Adams, is pure word music. It matters not one witt that he writes endless variations on a theme of pig kidnappings, lofty butlers, impostures. He is the greatest musician of the English language)

The quiz, as presented through the brief exposition of the writer and the plot of the story, will certainly help build EFL learner's vocabulary by using context clues to determine the meanings of Wodehouse's words.

Instruction

Carefully read these two paragraphs from the opening of chapter 13 of the novel Leave it to Psmith. Note in particular the words in bold. Then, guided by context clues, respond to the ten multiple-choice questions that follow. In each case identify the synonym that most accurately defines the word as it is used by Wodehouse in the passage

The passage:

'The Night of the County Ball'

Blandings Castle was astir from roof to hall. Lights blazed, voices shouted, bells rang... Valets **skimmed** *like swallows up and down corridors, maids fluttered in and out of rooms in aid of Beauty in distress. The noise penetrated into every book and corner of the house. It* **vexed** *the Efficient Baxter, going through his papers in the library preparatory to leaving Blandings on the morrow forever. It disturbed Lord Emsworth, who* **stoutly** *declining to go within ten miles of the County Ball, had retired to his room with a book on Herbaceous Borders. It troubled the peace of Beach the butler, refreshing himself after his activities around the dinner table with a glass of sound port in the house keeper's room. The only person in the room who paid no attention to it was Eve Halliday.*

Eve was too furious to pay attention to anything but her **deleterious** *thoughts. As she walked on the terrace, to which she had fled in quest of solitude, her teeth were set and her blue eyes glowed* **belligerently***. As Miss Peavy would have put it in one of her* **colloquial** *moods, she was mad clear through. For Eve was a girl of spirit so keenly resents as being made a fool of, whether it be by fate or by a fellow-human creature. Eve was in the uncomfortable position of having had this* **indignity** *put upon her by both. But, while as far as Fate was concerned she merely smoldered rebelliously, her* **animosity** *toward Psmith was vivid in the extreme. A hot wave of humiliation made her* **writhe** *as she remember the infantile* **guilelessness** *with which she had accepted the preposterous story he had told her in explanation of this presence at Blandings in another man's name.*

 (Adapted from chapter 13 of 'Leave it to Psmith' by P.G. Wodehouse 1923, Rpt.by Arrow Books 2008)

1. Skimmed a. glided or passed swiftly
        b. Skipped, hopped

c. Rose and fell

2. Vexed   a. saddened, disappointed

b. Excited, inspired

c. Annoyed, irritated

3. Stoutly   a. harmful, pernicious

b. loudly

c. force ably

4. Deleterious   a. harmful, pernicious

b. pleasing, very enjoyable

c. deceptive, misunderstood

5. Belligerently   a. in a bold or brave manner

b. in a hostile or antagonistic manner

c.   in an attractive manner

6. Colloquial   a. deeply upset and agitated

b.   informal characteristic of every day speech

c.   deceitful, hypocritical

7. Indignity   a.   nonsense, foolishness

b.   mistake, blander

c.   insult, affront

8. Animosity   a.   hostility, extreme dislike

b.   altitude, feelings

c.   indifference, lack of feeling

9. Writhe   a.   squirm, as in pain

b.   cower, as in fear

c.   turned with embarrassment

10. Guilelessness   a.   stupidity, idiocy

b.   innocence, naiveté

c. skepticism, doubt

Answers to the quiz

1. a. glided or passed swiftly

2. c. annoyed, irritated

3. c. forcefully

4. a. harmful, pernicious

5. b. in a hostile or antagonistic manner

6. b. informal, characteristic of everyday speech

7. c. insult, affront

8. a. hostility, extreme dislike

9. a. squirm, as in a pain

10. b. innocence, naiveté.

8. Commonly Confused Words

It is easy to confuse words that are similar in sound, spelling or meaning. But, with a bit of review and practice, it is also easy to clear up such confusions. In the "Glossary of Usage" (see appendix"8"), you will find more than 300sets of commonly confused words, with links to definitions, examples and practice exercises that should help keep these words straight transparent.

8. a. 'a', 'an', and 'and'

a. 1 glossary of usage: Use the indefinite article "a" and «an" before nouns; "a" before a noun that begins with a consonant sound (a doctor, a horse, a university); "an" before a noun that begins with a vowel sound (an envelope, an hour, an umbrella)

"And" is a coordinating conjunction; use it to join words, phrases and clauses**.**

*People worry about whether the correct article is "a" or "an" with 'historian', 'historic' and a few other words. The traditional rule is that if the "h" is sounded, then "a" is the proper form (Bryan A. Garner (2003) a.A. choice between 'A'or 'AN'in Garner's Modern American Usage, Oxford, OUP)

However, a minor complication arises with some abbreviation. Do you write, 'He received a M. A degree? ' or "He received an M.A. degree"?

"a N.Y. central spokesman" or "an N.Y. central spokesman".

The test is how people say or read such designations'. A. registers with most people as alphabetical letters, not as 'Master of Arts'; hence "an M. A. degree" is proper. On the other hand, "N, Y.central "is instantly translated by the mind into "New York central", it wouldn't be read as "En Wye central". Therefore, "a N. Y. central" is proper.

a. 2. Examples

-Every minute felt like an hour, and every hour felt like a day

-Love is not a feeling. Love is an action, an activity. (M. ScottPeck)

-For lunch she had an apple, a carrot and a European oyster.

-Betty is an honorary member of the Lollipop League

-Shyla and I were sitting at a table with an energetic clown and a rowdy little girl.

a. 3. Practice

1- Writing is just having _____ sheet of paper_____ pen,_____ not a shadow of idea what you are going to say.

2-_____ good coach is_____ understanding _____ a hard-headed friend

3-Helping is more_____ act of bravery, it's_____ human deed, humble conduct a behaviour of strength.

4-Diet necessitates _____ careful feeding _____ accurate self-control _____ good sleeping.

      a. 4. Key

            1 ⟶ a- a- and- an

            2 ⟶ a- an- and

            3 ⟶ an- a- a- and

            4 ⟶ a- an- and

8. b) 'e.g.' and 'i.e.'

b. 1. Glossary of usage

The above two words are included with commonly confused abbreviation. The abbreviation: "e. g.",(From the Latin '*example grata*') means 'for example'. The abbreviation: "i. e." (From the Latin '*id est*') means 'that is'.

In American English, a comma usually follows e.g. and i.e.

In British English, no comma is required after.

In Contemporary writing, Latin abbreviations such as:'e.g'. and 'i.e' are generally appropriate only in special circumstances that praise brevity, as in foot notes, bibliographies and technical lists

b. 2 Examples

-Verbal aggressiveness most often takes the form of character attacks (e.g., "you are a liar and a cheater!") or competence attacks (e.g. you can't do anything right!")

-Theories developed in the discipline of cognitive neuroscience attempt to illuminate the link between brain and mind (i.e. the ways that the physical systems of the brain produce the functional systems of the mind)

b. 3. Practice

a**.** sometimesmistakenly confused with the golden rule (……….,do unto others as you would have them do unto you), the categorical imperative holds that a person should act only on the principles that he or she would want everyone else to act on.

b. Certain types of slang signal judgments about gender roles (…... Don Jun, slut, spinster, sissy, tomboy, stallion, chick)

c. Unfamiliar words constitute barriers to understanding……… comprehension becomes difficult

d. Whenever someone writes about environment topics… weather, pollution or clean lines, he must choose words relatedly connected to.

b. 4. Keys

a. ⟶ **i.e.**

b. ⟶ **e.g.**

c. ⟶ **i.e.**

d. ⟶ **e.g.**

8. c. 'etc.' and 'et. al.'

c.1.Glossary of Usage

The abbreviation 'etc.' (From the Latin language 'et cetera') means "and so on". 'Etc.' is used in informal or technical writing to suggest the logical continuation of a list. On the other side, the abbreviation 'et al.' (from the Latin language 'et alii') means "and others". 'Et al'. Is used in bibliographic citations and in informal or technical writing to suggest also the continuation of a list but of people (not, as a general rule, of things).

So, never use the redundant phrases: 'and etc.' or 'and et.al.'

Also, do not use 'etc.' or an equivalent expression at the end of a series introduced by 'such as', 'for example', or 'e.g.' Such terms imply that only a few selected examples will be given; therefore, it is unnecessary to add 'etc.', or 'and so on', which suggests that further examples could be given. (Sabin: 2005)

Use 'etc.' with a logical progression (1, 2, 3, etc.) and when at least two items are named. Otherwise, avoid 'etc.' because the reader may not be able to infer what other items a list might include. (Alfred: 2006)

C.2. Examples

e.g.1: Together the teachers and students participate in large group activities-discussion boards, Internet forums, blogs, etc.

e.g. 2: Blachowicz etal. (2006, p.532) refer to this form of vocabulary development as 'incidental word learning'.

e.g. 3: I know howthe song goes In fact not only do Donner, Blitzen, et al. , not love him and laugh out loud with glee, but they doubly despise the bulbous nosed little wimp.

e.g. 4: The school furniture may include elements such as: board, chairs, OHP, etc.

C. 3. Practice

1. Teachers should help students notice how "little words" (an, and, of, with,…) have very specific meanings in math word problem.

2. A study by James…. found that children with autism had low levels of glutathione, whichisthe body's primary defense against mercury.

3. Instruction: Provide examples of your own using 'etc.' and 'et al.'

C. 4. Key answers

1. _____→ etc.

2. ———⟶ **et al.**

8. d. 'Good' and 'Well'

d. 1.Glossary of usage

'*Good'* is usually an adjective (a good 'book, a good job). '*Good*' can also function as a noun (the common good). However, '*Well*' is usually an adverb (runs well, well-written essay).

In formal speech and writing, the adjective '*good*' generally follows linking verbs such as:"*be*, *seem*, *taste* and *appea*r".

'Good/well' are commonly confused words, but of the two phrases "I feel good" and "I feel well", there is nuance. The first is the correct one if you are speaking of your state of health (physical or mental). "Feel" here is a linking verb and is followed by a predicate adjective. So, if you mean that your health is good, your spirits are high and your outlook is optimistic, say 'I feel good'. On the other hand, if you use 'feel in its literal sense (denotativemeaning) of touching something, like feeling for a light switch in the dark, say 'Ifeel well'

Today virtually everyone agrees that both good and well after 'feel and look' are predicate adjectives. The years of disagreement over which was correct seem to have contributed to some differentiation. 'Look well' and 'feel well' tend to express good health. 'Feel good' can express good health or it can suggest good spirits in addition to good health. Look good does not generally refer to health; rather it refers to some aspect of appearance.

e. 2. Examples
- There was never a good war or a bad peace. (Benjamin Franklin)
- Experiment with recipes until you find what tastes good to you.
- The student officers displayed a remarkably good knowledge of the drill regulations

- Coffee thrives remarkably well in Fiji
- The students were asked to compose a well-organized essay in 30 minutes

d.3.Practice: Insert '*good*' or '*well*'.

1. A logical Fallacy is a bad argument that looks ———

2. The plants were all fairly large, with ——— developed leaves

3. After along week in the office, a day on the Ocean sounded ———

4. The Chorus song ———with enthusiasm and expression

Key answers: 1. Good   2. Well   3. Good   4. Well

8. e. 'adapt' and 'adopt'

e. 1. Glossary of usage

'*Adapt*'means to take something and make it suitable for a specific use or situation. '*Adopt*', however, means to take something and make it one's own.

You can adopt a child or a custom or a law; in these cases you are making the object of the adoption you own, accepting it. If you adapt something however, you are changing it (Brains, 2003). '*Adapted*' takes the prepositions to (ause): for (a purpose); or from (a source). *Adopted* vs. *adoptive* are two faces of the same coin, i. e. children are adopted by parents, and one normally refers to an adopted child but to adoptive parents, families and homes, when describing places, one can use either adopted or adoptive. E.g.: She enjoys living in her adopted countries, Detroit is her adoptive city.

e. 2. Examples. Other examples can be given in language contact outcomes. We find adopted words, like moustache, garage, barrage, beige in English from the French language taken as they are used in their original language, but other

adapted words, like, doctor, emancipation which have undergone some changes in spelling and/or pronunciation.

- The key to success is always the ability to adapt.
- Adopt the pace of nature, her secret is patience.

e.3.Practice

a. we must _____ to changing circumstances

b. Morality is simply the attitude we _____towards people whom we personally dislike

c. ~~ing a beha~~viour according to the environment, is the duty of wise people

d. "_____ yourself to the unexpected", said the stead off to the new teacher.

e.4. Key.

a.adapt   b. adopt   c. adopt   d. adapt

8. f. 'dependent'vs. 'dependant'

f. 1. Glossary of usage

A very outstanding note beforehand; there is no problem if you're learning only American English. The reason is that both words (noun and adjective) are spelled the same (dependent). But, if you follow British spelling conventions, you should carefully note the distinction between 'dependant' (noun) and dependant (adjective).

The noun 'dependant' refers to a person who depends on someone else for support (usually financial support). Dependant is the standard spelling of this noun in British English. Dependant is the more common spelling in American English, though the word may be spelt the British way

The adjective dependent (always spelled this way in both American and British English) means supported, determined, influenced or controlled by someone or something else).

f. 2. Examples

1. Queen Chistina of Sweden had many dependant (Br.) dependents (Ami.)

2. Fearful and anxious people sometimes become dependent on alcohol for relief.

F.3. Practice

Instruction: Insert dependant or dependent

1. The applicant claimed to be ———— of a deceased worker
2. It's a myth that breastfed baby will turn into an overly ———— child
3. The scholarship is meant to include the ———— who belong to concerned group for help
4. Watching TV too much renders many people addicted and ———— on it to pass time.

Key to answers: 1. dependant   2. dependent   3. dependant   4. Dependent

8. G.'accidental' and 'incidental'

G. 1. Glossary of Usage

-The adjective '*accidental*' means unintentional or happening by chance

-The adjective '*incidental*' means secondary or unessential. It often refers to something that occurs in connection with a more important activity or event, like the incidental learning of lexis when exposed to language.

G.2. Examples

- According to the National Safety Council, there were 600 accidental shooting deaths in the United States in 2009
- In murder trials, the killer's motivation is thoroughly explored, whereas the type of weapon he used is often treated as an incidental detail.

G. 3. Practice

Instruction: Fill in the gaps with the appropriate word: accidental or incidental

a. When you travel on business —————— expenses are items such as local transportation, telephone calls, tips and laundry

b. —————— Fires are more likely to start in the kitchen than in any other room in the house.

G.4. Key: a. incidental b. accidental

8. H. 'consequently' and 'subsequently'

H.1. Glossary of Usage

* Consequently is a conjunctive adverb that means' as a result'

* Subsequently is an adverb that means' next, following in time, order, or place'.

H. 2. Examples

a. Actors cannot choose the manner in which they are born consequently it is the one gesture in their lives completely devoid of self- consciousness (Helen Hayes)

b. We were previously told that, due to the Mayan Calendar, the world would end in the year 2012. Subsequently, we can expect climate change to cause another ice age and lead to our extinction

H.3. Practice

Put it right (consequently or subsequently)

a. The Olympic ideal can be hard to follow if you're an athlete who has endured years of intense training only——— to fall short in front of millions

b. Unemployment is an emotional word, and —————— it is less understood and more exaggerated than just about any other aspect of the economy.

c. —————— as their car got a serious puncture and due to efforts done for its mending, they arrived late

d. Having finished all their duties, cleaned all the spaces, they ——————prepared for another event

Key answers: a. subsequently   b. consequently   c. consequently d. subsequently

8. I. 'Flammable', 'Inflammable' and 'Nonflammable'

I. 1. Glossary of Usage

The adjectives 'Flammable and inflammable' mean the same thing; easily set on fire and capable of burning quickly. Metaphorically, inflammable can mean easily angered or excited. However, the adjective 'nonflammable' means not easily set on fire.

For the record, 'inflammable' does not mean 'burnable'. And it is meant that since at least 1605, according to the Oxford English Dictionary.'Flammable', the new kid on the block didn't appear in print until more than three hundred years later (therefore, the cause of all the confusion is the "in" at the beginning of 'inflammable'. It turns out that the prefix 'in' can make a word negative (as in words like incapable, inflexible, incompetent), or it can add emphasis (invaluable, inflame, intense), or it can mean 'within' (incoming, inbreeding, infighting).

The "in" of 'inflammable' is the emphatic type. It is called an intensive or an intensifier.

In the 1920s[The National Fire Protection Association] called for using 'Flammable' instead of 'inflammable', which is considered confusing because of that "in" at the beginning. Insurers and other fire safety advocates soon joined the cause. In 1959, the British Standards Institution took up the torch; in order to avoid any possible ambiguity, it is the Institution's policy to encourage the use of the term 'flammable and 'non-flammable' rather than 'inflammable' and 'non-flammable.

So, which word should a careful writer use today? Well, history may be on the side of 'inflammable', but common sense wins here. If you want to be sure you've

understood, say, the next time you see a smoker about to light up near a gas pump-go with 'flammable'.

Other tips of usage may reveal a variant of uses. One common point shows that both forms continue to be used. '*Flammable*' seems to be less common in British English than it is in American English and Correspondingly more common. *Flammable* is used literally, figurative use belongs to inflammable. (Webster's Dictionary of English Usage.1994)

The Fact that even in England often the wrong meaning "non-flammable" was ascribed to the word 'inflammable' shows that the word 'inflammable ' is both an interlingual and an interlingual false friend

I.   **I.2.Examples**
   a. Approvedmetal safety cans should be used for the handling of Flammable liquids.
   b. When you're working with lasers, make sure that there are no inflammable materials in the immediate vicinity.
   c. The most common nonflammable gas of all the compressed gases is oxygen

I.   **I.3.Practice:** Insert the appropriate word: flammable inflammable or nonflammable
   a. ——————   or combustible liquids should notbe stored in stairways or in areas used for exits.
   b. The Douglas-firm and the giant Sequola of Western North America have developed thick —————— bark to insulate the living tissue from the heat of the flames.
   c. For Several decades, foam has been used as the primary agent for fighting fires involving—————— liquids.

8. J. *Quiz: 20 Commonly confused words*

Instruction: select the word in each set that completes the sentence accurately and appropriately:

1. **'Adverse' or 'averse'**

   -A recent study found that many air freshners are high in chemicals that have been linked to_____ health effects in high doses.

2. **'Allude' or 'Elude'**

   -The young hockey starwas dubbed 'the phantom' for his ability to_____ defenders.

3. **'Complement' or 'Compliment'**

   -The malty flavor of buckwheat honey makes it a nice ——— to blue cheese.

4. **'Device' or 'Devise'**

   - Amazon unveiled the kindle, its digital-book reading ——— , at the end of 2007.

5. **'Discreet' or 'Discrete'**

   -The genes, ——bits of DNA on the chromosomes in each cell, control all body activities by directing the production of essential chemicals.

6. **'Floundered' or 'Foundered'**

   -When his ship ——— on the coast of Scotland in 1883, the Danish captain thought he saw a seven-pointed star in the sky.

7. **'Historic' or 'Historical'**

   -In 1958, a Spanish photographer accompanied Fidel Castro and his band of revolutionaries during their ——— push to Havana.

8. **'Imply' or 'Infer'**

-The fact that some geniuses were laughed at does not —————— that all who are laughed at are geniuses. (Carl Sagan).

9. **'Incredible' or 'Incredulous'**

-All births are —————— moments, but some are more momentous than others.

10. **'Later' or 'Latter'**

-Facebook has about 300 million users and Twitter a tenth of that number, but the ——— has been winning the headline battle in recent months.

11. **'Pored' or 'Poured'**

-Night after night, the president —————— over memos arguing for and against the choice that confronted him.

12. **' Principal' or 'Principle'**

-A higher salary was Sol's —————— reason for accepting the job offer.

13. **'Racked' or 'Wracked'**

-He ——— his brains to remember, but he could not call to mind a single thing.

14. **'Sensual' or 'Sensuous'**

-The beauty of Moroccan places is made up of details of ornament and refinements of _____ delight too numerous to record.

15. **'Shear' or 'Sheer'**

-English Usage is sometimes more than mere task, judgment and education; sometimes, it is—————— luck, like getting across a street.

16. **'Simple' or 'Simplistic'**

-Much of what we thought we know about the evolution of dinosaurs turns out to be_____or out-and-out wrong

17.   'Stationary' or 'Stationery'

-The train passengers spent the night in the makeshift hotels of ——— carriages parked on railway sidings.

18.   'Temerity' or 'Timidity'

-Jay-Z always sounds bold and confident, but then of course———— is rarely a character trait in the world of hip-hop.

19.   'Veracious' or 'Voracious'

-Be it Jeep Cherokee or a Ford Explorer or supersized to a Humvee, the SUV soon became the_____and luxurious symbol of boomer excess throughout the 1990s.

20.   'Who' or 'whom'

- ————— the gods wish to destroy they first call promising

Key Answers: see (appendix: 8)

3.5.2.2. The Spoken Discourse (Listening Comprehension)

Listening to a dense, varied programme was the targeted procedure to help EFL learners to be familiar with the language phonology (after the morphological recognition conducted above with the written discourse scripts). The proposed listening scripts were mainly generated from an intense, rich programme of situational dialogues delivered by native speakers with; alternatively, varying ways of questioning and similarly the way answers are given. This multitude and variety of exposing our EFL learners to that kind

of spoken input is meant to develop in them a good reception, phonological awareness and lexical density appreciation. Such situational dialogues are intended for upper-intermediate and advanced learners so as to learn and practice the type of informal conversational English in current, everyday use. Situations (Transport, communication, food and drink, health, greetings, General topics…) are presented, each in the form of four short dialogues. The expressions and phrases contained in the dialogues are repeated differently through the four separate forms of the same dialogue so as to provide a variety of ways to express the same idea using a plethora of lexis, leading hopefully to the enrichment of our EFL learners' (listeners) vocabulary and then being able to understand the meanings of divergent situations still.

As aforementioned, each situation is expressed by four dialogues arranged in parallel. This means that in this multitude arrangement, we have different variations of the same situation, leaving the whole group of learners with a high degree of choice. The Aim behind is to settle practice and listening to dialogues without boredom and even acting out the dialogues many times in class and at home. The students, so doing, will painlessly learn and comprehend the content via the arrangement they see better for a complete engagement and readiness. Drills are not grammatically based, but graded sequences are rather set on dialogues situations where meaning rather supersedes on structure.

This varied set of dialogues is intended to provide additional exposure not only to content, but, an inductive way of teaching structure and grammar is included. Therefore, since it is a spoken script, the pitch of the voice (tone) is changing accordingly with the various situations where stress, tone and other verbal parameters are to be practiced to help get along with the proposed situation.

Here, three basic intonation tones are used in English (dialogues) speech. These tones are broadly classified as:

1. a. The Falling Tone ( ). The voice falls from a high to a low note on one stressed syllable. It is mainly used in the following cases:

-In short, complete statements. "It's 'not far.

-For questions beginning with W-H. "How many students are there?

-for question tags when the speaker is sure that what he says is right. «It's a hot day, isn't it?

-For orders and exclamations, 'Don't forget'.

2. The Rising Tone (↗). The voice rises on the last stressed word or on the unstressed syllables following the last stress. It is used in the following cases:

    -For statements intended to encourage. 'That's a good idea'.

    -For questions which are answer by 'Yes' and 'No'

    Do you 'want to' go?

    Did you 'see the 'elephant?

    -For questions beginning with question words (W-H) when the speaker wishes to show special interest.

    Where do you live?

    -For question tags when the speaker is not sure that what he says is correct.

    You 'know', don't you?

    -For sentences ending with' please', for 'goodbye'; for 'thank you' when it is to show gratitude for a simple matter (passing the salt, etc.)

    What's the 'time'; please?

3. The Falling-rising Tone (∨↗)

    The voice falls on the most important part of the sentence and rises again. It is used in the following cases:

    -For apologies   -I'm 'sorry'

    -For explaining tentative opinions. *I hope 'so'*

    As a note, the intonation of the sentences used in the dialogues follows the general rules cited above. The listener should carefully listen to the varying tones so as to imitate the native speakers and be able to understand them.

    As a practical procedure in the class, the teacher may act as an initial interlocutor (Teacher Talk) to initiate a loud, clear and slow (tuned-input) reading of the dialogues. Whenever necessary, the teacher is urged to stop and

to explain the meaning of certain key elements to facilitate comprehension and to motivate his students to keep along with listening with interest.

Moreover, the large number of possibilities (variety of situations) helps greatly to maintain class interest, and this is why the teacher should vary the lesson as much as possible in order to prolong the practice to a point just below the threshold of boredom andrestlessness and keep up thelevel and degree of difficulty just a little bit beyond the threshold level beyond EFL learners' capacity to grasp, understand and evolve within the variety of situations exposed to. This will certainly differ according to the motivation of the class and the artistry of the teacher but surely time exposure is relatively a valuable factor of keeping interest, i. e. between 20and 30 minutes should be the target (Ockenden, 1996).

The followed procedure in the class was conducted into several ways. They are summed up in the following manners below:

- Constantly, changing roles; teacher-student, student-teacher, student-student, etc.

- Always keep presenting only short dialogues which are easy to control, memorize and practice the learnt vocabulary.

- Very often making pauses so as to let time enough for taking notes, raising awareness of phonological hints (tone, stress and accent)

- Practically keeping alternatives of different ways where a situation is presented so as to bring enough space for choice and selection.

- Preferably, present the listening script to the learners in a written form so as to help for spelling recognition and phonological practice relatively.

Situational Dialogues

*Asking the Way

	Situation: 1	Situation: 2	Situation: 3	Situation: 4
A	Excuse me, can you tell me where South street is?	Excuse me, could you tell me the way to the coach station?	Excuse me? but I am trying to find the town hall	Excuse me, please, could you tell me how to get to the town center?
B	Take the second on the left and then ask again	Turn round and turn left at the traffic light	Take the third on the right and go straight on	First right, second left, you can't miss it
A	Is it far?	will nit take me long to get there?	Should I take a bus?	Is it too far to walk?
B	No, it is only about five-minute walk	No, it is no distance at all	No, you can it in under five minutes	No, it is only a couple of hundred yards
A	Many thanks	Thank you	Thank you very much in deed	Thanks very much
B	Not at all	That's okay	That's quite all right	It's a pleasure

Activity: 1 Change A's statements as in the example

E.g. student A: *you can't walk*

    student B: *it's too far to walk*

1. a. It's **foggy,** you can't see the turning
    b. ………………………………
2. a. It's **wet** you can't go on foot
    b. ……………………………….

3. a. It's **late;** you can't get there in time

   b. ………………….

4. a. it's **dark**, you can't find the way

   b. ……………………

5. a. it's **difficult**, you can't remember

   b. ………………….

Activity: 2   Choose the right equivalent of the words in bold in the activity above.

foggy	wet	dark	late	difficult
Dangerous	Rainy	Shiny	On time	Easy
Too much fog	difficult	obscure	ill	clear
invisible	fantastic	far	awkward	complex

*Taking a Taxi

	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 3	Situation 3
A	The American Embassy please, I have to be there by 11:10	Do you think you can get me to Victoria by half past?	Piccadilly, please I have an appointment at 10:30	Paddington, please, I want to catch the 11:15
B	I can't promise, but I will do my best	We should be okay if the lights are	I think we can make it(**1**) if we	We will be alright if there

		with us	get move on**(2)**	are no holds up**(3)**
B	You are just on time. £ 6.30 please	You have still got five minutes to spare £ 6.40 please	Here we are sir. £ 6.35 please	This is it. £ 6.50 please
A	Thanks a lot. Here's £ 7. You can keep the change	Thanks very much in deed. Here's £ 10. Give £ 3	Many thanks. Let's call it £ 7	Thank you. Here's the fare, and this is for you

Note: 1**. Make it**: get there in time2. **Get a move on**: harry3. **Holds up:** delays

Activity1: Change Bs' statements whenever possible. As' too.

e.g. A: Do you think you can get me to Victoria by half past

   B: We should make it if the lights are green

1.   a Is it possible to get me at the station by eleven?

   b…………………………..<u>if the lights are with us.</u>

2.   a. ……………………………the Hilton hotel by 11?
   b…………………………..<u>if the traffic is not too heavy.</u>

3.   a…………………………………waterloo by twenty-five past?
   b………………………………<u>unless we get held up.</u>

4.   a…………………………………the French Embassy by 12.15?
   b……………………………<u>unless the lights are againt us.</u>

5.   a……………………………….this address by ten to?
   b………………………………..<u>unless we get caught in the rush hours.</u>

   Activity2: Match the above underlined expressions with their appropriate

contextual meaning.

Expressions		Meaning in context
a.	If the lights are green	1.If the lights are with us
B	If we get a move on	2.unless the lights are against us
C	If there are no holds-up	3.unless we get caught in rush hours
D	If we aren't delayed by heavy traffic	4.If we hurry
E	If didn't get held up	5. If we aren't delayed by heavy traffic
f	If traffic is	

Extra-lexical Retrieval

Interesting tips for language communication

Train Arrivals:- what time does it reach…?

- When does it get in…?
- What time does it arrive…?
- When do we get there?

Asking the way: - can you tell me where is……, please?

- Could you tell me the way to……, please?
- Excuse me, I'm trying to find……………….;?
- Could you tell me how to get to………....;?

Changing the train: - do I have to change?

- Must I change?

- Is it necessary to change?

- Need I change trains?

Asking for car repair: - Could you book me for a full service, please?

- - I'd like to arrange to have my car serviced?

- - Could you book my car in for a service?

- - My car needs servicing; can I get it done here?

Asking and accepting aninvitation in a cafe:

- What would you like to drink?- a coffee for me, please.

-What can I get you to drink?- a coffee would do well

-Whatare you going to have to drink? - I would like something hot

- What do you want to drink?   - I feel like a cup of coffee

Asking the price: -how much is it?

- What are your terms?
- What is the price?
- What sort of price are you asking?

In a shop looking for service: - Is anybody serving you?

- ------------- looking after you?

---------------attending to you?

- --------------taking care of you?

Doctor-patient (rendez-vous):

- Patient Doctor

I've got a sore throat and my chest hurt   - I should think you've got a flu.

I feel shivery and I've gota pain in my stomach- by the sound of it, you've got a chill

I need feeling dizzy and I've got a headache- I should say you are generally run down

I'm running a temperature and I feel sick- you seem to have picked some sort of infection

notes:

***Run down**: poor health due tiredness and overwork

***very nearly a week**: The best part of a week

                              Most of the week

Meeting after a long time: -   We haven't seen you for ages

                              -   How nice to see you again

                              - We haven't seen much of you lately

                                -   You re quite a strange

Reassuring a Foreigner

(a new settler):   - It's bound to be strange at first

                       -   It won't take you long to settle down

                       -   Don't worry, you'll soon get used to it

                       -   Never mind, you'll be all right in a week or two

Saying good- bye: - when are you off?   - It's time we were off

                       -   What time are you going? -I really must be going now

                       -   When are you setting off?- I think it's about time we made a move

                       -   What time are you leaving?- Excuse me, I really should be offnow.

Don't forget to: -   Give us a ring

- Drop us a line

- Look us up

- Keep in touch with us

Askingpeople to repeat: (don't say please when you want someone to repeat a sentence:

- Sorry, but I didn't quite catch that

- I beg your pardon

- I'm afraid, a didn't quite hear what you said

- Sorry, but I missed that.

- Would you mind repeating that

To take someone in the (your) car:

- To drop someone off

- To give someone a lift

- To drive someone somewhere

- To run someone in the car(can I run you home?)

Apologizingaccepting apologies:

 - I'm afraid   - oh, never mind

 -I'm awfully sorry   - oh, don't worry

 -I'm very much afraid   - oh, that's all right

-I'm dreadfully sorry   - oh, it does not matter

 -Ever so sorry=very, extremely-awfully, so, terribly

3.5.3. Post-Test Activities

The present test allows viewing both an individual profile and the overall class results. The results can, then, be compared later with the pre-test results of the same group in concern- the experimental group. These results are going to be used to monitor the progress of the class, to get a momentary picture, to see if certain gaps in the learners' knowledge might not, for example, be due to a certain way of teaching, a misuse of strategies, or simply because of the learners' demotivation. What is sure and pedagogically accepted is that EFL learners are supposed to retrieve meaning from the context provided, and that though other ways may come across in the learning process, they should cause some rethinking.

Now, as the period under-study is off, the researcher exhibits a full battery of activities testing the experimental group on the comprehension of some content areas varying in type and length. These are exhibited successively as follows:

a) The optional, context-free activities comprising English vocabulary size test and English word parts test.

b) Sentence-bound vocabulary activities including namely MCQ tests about certain lexical items sustained within the limited context of the sentence.

c) Short passage- related vocabulary activities where the context is broader and the content is thematically oriented toward a given topic, and

d) Long passage-oriented lexical retrieval in which a multitude of excerpts of the same passage are constantly presented in a continuum to keep interest and desire to know more about the coming data from the whole passage. In here, the context is much larger and instances to guess the unknown words are diverse and at the reach of EFL readers and listeners.

Let's begin,

3.5.3.1.   The context-free vocabulary test

The above-mentioned test is optional, inviting students to engage in self-evaluation through the vocabulary quizzes found generally on the net or booklets for

quick vocabulary resolution. It exhibits gradual cognitive and meta-cognitive aspects of knowing a word. The aim behind is to motivate EFL learners to get a maximum of grades relatedly to their correct quick answers which do not accept repetition nor correction once the answer is given orally or in the written form. The researcher attempted the experience with only few students who shared a common enthusiasm and showed to be vivid volunteers to engage in the task. The encouraging factor in such test is the possible evolution that can be gained if the same test in taken once again with some amelioration in the percentage of positive answers. Probably, whenever the test is undertaken twice or thrice, the grades (percentages of good answers) change since the testees are going to avoid the completely false or inconvenient answers and/ or alter the doubtful ones with more appropriate ones. This kind of test was let optional because it could not be carried out in language classrooms and even in language laboratories. The simple reason is that internet connection is bad (low wave-link), even usually lacking the majority of the time. That is why it was left on behalf of students to take advantage of such test to measure their vocabulary knowledge in terms of word family meanings and word parts:

A. English Vocabulary Size Test

This test estimates the number of English word family meanings someone knows.

Or,

B. English Word Parts Test

This test measures someone's knowledge of the form, meaning, and use of English word parts. (Word size.com: 2010-2012)

 Test instructions for sample 1

• This test has three sections: *Form*, *Meaning*, and *Use*

• There are a total of 159 questions

• Once you click and choose an answer, you **cannot change** it

• You **cannot go back** and change your answers

• You **must choose** an answer that is most likely to be correct if you don't know it

Test instructions for sample 2

• There are 140 questions in this test

• Look at the word and an example of the word in use

• Choose the meaning that most closely matches the word

• If you have never seen the word before, select **I don't know**

• You cannot go back and change your answer.

The average amount of known lexical items, at least, represents 3,900 English word families among a collection of group work among the students engaging in the test. This quick finding leads to pose the following question:

What does this result mean?

In general, there is no minimum vocabulary size. Language ability is related to vocabulary size, so the more words you know, the more you will be able to understand. However, if you want to set a learning goal, Nation's (2006) research suggests that the following sizes might be useful:

How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening?

Skill	Size estimate	Notes
Reading word families	8,000 - 9,000	Nation (2006)
Listening word families	6,000 - 7,000	Nation (2006)
Native speaker	20,000 word families	Goulden, Nation, & Read (1990) Zechmeister, Chronis, Cull, D'Anna, & Healy (1995)

Table: 3.6. Estimate of the reading and listening vocabulary size (Nation, 2007)

However, there are many different forms of a word, so this test measures only knowledge of the most basic form of a word and assumes that learners can recognize the other forms. For example, '*nation*', a noun, can also be an adjective (*national*), a verb (*nationalize*), or an adverb (*nationally*). There are also forms which can be made with an affix such as '*de*'- or '*ing*' which also modify the way the word is used or adds to the basic meaning. For a test of *receptive* vocabulary knowledge such as this one, word families are considered to be the most accurate way of counting words.

Good learners may have very good knowledge of English word parts. They may know important word parts that appear in many words. They could have missed some word parts that are not used so often. Knowing these word parts will help them learn new words more effectively. Here is a list of word parts that they need to know to go to further levels of difficulty.

N	Word part	Meaning	Part of Speech	Example 1	Example 2

N	Word part	Meaning	Part of Speech	Example 1	Example 2
1	a-	Toward	Adverb	Ahead	aside
2	arch-	Main		archbishop	arch-rival
3	bi-	Two		Biplane	bilingual
4	-al		Noun	renewal	arrival
5	-ant		Adjective	resultant	expectant
6	-ar		Adjective	Circular	angular
7	-ent	person/thing	Noun	president	respondent
8	-ery		Noun	Cookery	robbery
9	-et	Small		Packet	owlet
10	-fold	Times		Twofold	threefold
11	-ling	connected with		weakling	underling
12	-ory		Adjective	Sensory	Contradictory
13	-some		Adjective	troublesome	Fearsome
14	-ways	Direction	Adverb	sideways	Lengthways
15	-wise	Direction	Adverb	clockwise	Stepwise

Table: 3.9. English word parts (Adapted from Nation: 2001)

Why word parts?

Word part knowledge helps EFL learners learn many words. If they know the word '*happy*' and the word part "*un*", it is easy to learn the word '*unhappy*'. Knowing an

English word part means more than knowing its meaning. Researchers (e.g., <u>Nation, 2001</u>) believe that in order to use your word part knowledge for guessing or learning words, you need to at least:

1. recognize a word part in the word
2. know the meaning of the word part
3. know its function (i.e., part of speech)

Research has shown that word part knowledge relates to vocabulary size (how many words you know) (e.g., Mochizuki and Aizawa, 2000). It also relates to reading and spelling (e.g., Nagy, Berninger, & Abbott, 2006).

The Vocabulary Size Test is designed to measure both first language and second language learners' written receptive vocabulary size in English.

<u>Result analysis and data interpretation</u>

The test measures knowledge of written word form, the form-meaning connection, and to a smaller degree concept knowledge. The test measures largely decontextualized knowledge of the word although the tested word appears in a single non-defining context in the test.

Users of the test need to be clear what the test is measuring and not measuring. It is measuring *written receptive vocabulary* knowledge that is the vocabulary knowledge required for *reading*. It is *not measuring listening* vocabulary size, or the vocabulary knowledge needed for speaking and writing. It is also not a measure of reading skill, because although vocabulary size is a critical factor in reading, it is only a part of the reading skill. Because the test is a measure of *receptive* vocabulary size, a test-taker's score provides little indication of how well these words could be used in real discourse comprehension. The Vocabulary Size Test is a discrete, selective, relatively context-independent vocabulary test presented in a multiple-choice format. Test-takers are required to select the best definition of each word from four choices. Although the

tested words are presented in simple non-defining contexts, it is essentially following a trait-definition of vocabulary which means that vocabulary knowledge is tested independently from contexts of use. Single words (not multiword units) and vocabulary size does not include proper nouns, transparent compounds, marginal words like: '*um, er',* and abbreviations. It does not measure the ability to distinguish homonyms and homographs. Thus, if the test is used as intended, it is a relatively low stakes test for learners. One consequence may be that it substantially underestimates the vocabulary size of learners who are not motivated to perform to the best of their ability, especially if they are judged to be low achievers within their education system. This could result in faulty instructional decisions being made about their vocabulary learning needs, and thus the test may need to be administered orally to such students on a one-to-one basis. . More generally, the discrete, context-independent nature of the test format may encourage the study of isolated words only which expels the contextual linking to the meaning. Therefore, the Vocabulary Size Test is primarily a test of decontextualized receptive knowledge of written vocabulary. Such a test could encourage solely the decontextualized learning of vocabulary. But, such learning is to be encouraged too, because (1) decontextualized learning using word cards or flash card programs is highly efficient (Nation, 2001), and (2) such learning results in both explicit and implicit knowledge (Elgort, 2011).

A very illustrative example below can show the vagueness and ambiguity in choosing the right answer in front of a non-contextualized sentence. The example is as follows:

 We saw the <emir>.

a. bird with two long curved tail feathers [peacock]

b. woman who cares for other people's children in eastern countries [amah}

c. Middle Eastern chief with power in his own land [emir]

d. house made from blocks of ice [igloo]

As much as possible, the test is a measure only of vocabulary knowledge and not of vocabulary in use. Because of its focus on vocabulary, sitting the test should require very little knowledge beyond vocabulary knowledge and comprehension. When reading or listening, vocabulary knowledge is supported by background knowledge, decoding

skill, and textual context. Full knowledge of the meaning of the word is not required for comprehension, although the better the words are known, the easier the comprehension will be. In addition, a major use of the test will be to guide learners in their vocabulary learning. If learners already have a partial but usable knowledge of some words, they should not be studying these words, but should move on to unknown vocabulary. Learners need to sit all of the items in the test because for various reasons, learners are likely to get some items correct which are outside their typical level of vocabulary knowledge. These reasons include the presence of loanwords, and the presence of words related to hobbies, academic study, or specialist interests. Nguyen and Nation (2011) found that even lower proficiency learners improved their scores by sitting the lower frequency sections of the test. Initial studies using the test indicate that undergraduate non-native speakers of non-European backgrounds successfully coping with study at an English speaking university have a vocabulary size around 5,000-6,000 word families. Non-native speaking PhD students have around a 9,000 word vocabulary (as a case in point, the researcher, himself, got around 8,900 word vocabularies in the online-test). An important reason for using a multiple-choice format for a vocabulary test is to allow learners to draw on partial knowledge when they answer the test. That is, the choice of that particular format can be because the goal of the test maker is to give as much credit as possible for what learners know even if this knowledge is incomplete. If the test is designed for this purpose, then test-takers should be encouraged to use their intuition and make informed or intuitive guesses.

3.5.3.2. **Sentence-bound vocabulary Test**:

Next, is another MCQ test measuring the meaning of unknown words used in simple short sentences. The context, here, is too limited and the retrieval of clues is somehow hardened. It renders the task difficult especially when the amount of EFL learners' vocabulary is not sufficiently related to that typical idea contained in the sentence. Testees will be required to focus on italicized words and then find the answer that best matches the definition of the word provided via a four-item choice. Let's consider the following MCQ vocabulary test as a second sample of our posttest as another very limited-context vocabulary retrieval. Unlikely, in a whole passage or

longer texts, the context is larger and clues are varied. In such rich contextual environment, EFL learners can easily grasp the connections between the words and their definitions. Paradoxically, the sentence-bound vocabulary activities, though poor in terms of logical connectors and context clues, do help inculcate in learners the desire to elaborate more practice and experience with such quick vocabulary tests. Below is the sample activity administered as a test to analyse student's capacity to get wellwith the understanding of the italicized words.

The instruction: Among the four options, find out the most suitable lexical item explaining the words in italic.

The Sample Vocabulary test (sentence-bound activity)

1. After practice, the girls' softball team stated: "we are *famished*".
   Famished means: -fatigued- hungry- excited- ready
2. The new born baby was *enamored* with the rattle.
   Enamored means: fascinated- happy- unsure what to do- aggravated
3. When having a problem, it is best di*ssect* the situation than act
   Dissect means: - cut apart- talk about- ignore- analyse
4. The scientist was able to *evoke* powerful emotions from her audience
   Evoke means: - sell- calm- call forth- exaggerate
5. The bouncer's *countenance* discouraged brawls.
   Countenance means: - message - presence- expression- strength
6. The wound exhibited signs of *copious* drainage requiring medical help.
   Copious means: - minimal- clear- maximal- full.

 Result analysis and data interpretation

The quick MCQ activity seemed to be done haphazardly and the general feeling showed that testees were completely unfamiliar even with the alternative synonyms. The reason being that, according to EFL learners' reporting interviews, the context was typically confined to vague items (sport, baby behavior, problem solving, scientist

speech delivery, and first aids). The second important reason is related to the lack of clues that would have guided the testees to find their way to elicit the correct answers from the given list. More importantly, the list of alternatives included rather more than approximate equivalents, i.e., two possible answers could justify the choice though not at the same degree of precision. Examples of such are given as follows. In the first sentence, for example, the word 'fatigued' could easily be substituted by the word 'hungry', though not having the same literal meaning with the word 'famished' (coming originally from famine); but still the overall meaning could fit even with an approximation. The term 'fatigued' was a misleading alternative since, after each physical activity or a match, people feel tired of feel fatigued so as to use the romance origin word "fatigué" as a déjà-vu vocabulary. This is not only using negative transfer (cognates or false friends), but the context itself was misleading and there was no typical clue helping guess the right word. Within the second sentence the word 'fascinated' may also fulfill the other equivalent as the right exact synonym 'happy'. In the fourth sentence, however, no clear evidence could have led the testees to direct their attention towards the typical correct word 'call forth' since the word itself is unknown. Sentence five, then, exhibits a three-leveled synonymy of the word 'countenance'. The term could easily be replaced by three of the proposals "expression, presence, strength", but the most appropriate one is 'expression'. The last sentence contained the term 'copious' which, actually superseded the learners' level of understanding the meaning of the word since no link could be related.

This kind of test showed a real need to extrapolate data that are all-around the reach of our EFL learners or at least just above their threshold academic and linguistic level. Even though the task was not easy-doing, there could have been other ways to help learners retrieve the correct answers by the inclusion of more varied clues within the sentences. These clues (see appendix.16) could simply guide the language users to depict the relationship of the word with its appropriate synonyms more convincingly.

The results were not convincing and the reasons were clear enough: the context was vague and the clues were lacking. Besides, the hints or clues in sentences were

rather missing and sometimes misleading. This is why it was felt necessary to engage into a new experience where a whole text id presented comprising a full context of famous personalities in the field of land discoveries (like Christopher Columbus, Amerigo Vespucci and Ferdinand Magellan), approximately similar to the vocabulary used in the field of 'expedition and world discoveries'; and some other historical events related to Spanish, British and Portuguese empires and their battles and territorial conflicts. Such hints (rooted from civilization modules: American and British) could only enhance learners to making more engagement and find logical links with he learnt items in class about personalities, special events and other elements that constitute retrieval sources. This resource-based testing not only gives good initiative to depict information from the text but guide to what comes next even beyond their level of comprehension. So, the familiarity with the topic, the recognition of the context and the full-inclusion of clues rather help in depicting the meaning on unknown words in a text.

3.5.3.3.   Short passage-Related Vocabulary Test

The sample Passage: **<u>Magellan Expeditions</u>**

In the sixteenth century, an age of great marine and terrestrial explorations, Ferdinand Magellan led the first expedition to sail around the world. As a young Portuguese noble, he served the king of Portugal, but he became involved in the quagmire of political intrigue at court and lost the king's favour. After he was dismissed from service to the king of Portugal, he offered to serve the future Emperor Charles 5th of Spain.

A papal decree of 1493 had assigned all land in the new world west of 50 degrees west longitude to Spain and the east of that line to Portugal. Magellan offered to prove that the East Indies fell under Spanish authority. On September 20, 1519, Magellan set sail from Spain with five ships. More than a year later, one of these ships On September 20, 1519, Magellan set sail from Spain with five ships. More than a year later, one of these ships was exploring the topography of South America in search of a water route across the continent. This ship sank, but the remaining four ships searched along the southern peninsula of South America. Finally, they found the passage they sought near latitude of 50 degrees south. Magellan named this passage the "Strait of all Saints", but today we know it as the "Strait of Magellan"

One ship deserted while in this passage and returned to Spain, so fewer sailors were privileged to gaze at that panorama of the Pacific Ocean. Those who remained crossed the meridian we now call the International Date Line in the early spring on 1521 after ninety eight days on the Pacific Ocean. During these long days at sea, many of Magellan's men died of starvation and disease.

Later Magellan became involved in an insular conflict in the Philippines and was killed in a tribal war.

Only one ship and seventeen sailors under the command of the Basque navigator Elcano survived to complete the westward journey to Spain and thus prove once and for all that the world is round, with no precipice at the edge.

<u>Instruction</u>: read the passage, and then pick the appropriate answers to fill in the sentences.

1. The sixteenth century was an age of great………………….exploration.
   a. Cosmic   b. mental   c. land   d. common man

2. Magellan lost the favour of the king of Portugal when he became involved in a political……………..
   a. Entanglement   b. negotiation   c. discussion   d. problem

3. The pope divided New World lands between Portugal and Spain according to the location on one side or another of an imaginary geographical line 50 degrees West of Greenwich that extends in a ……………..direction.

    a. North and south   b. crosswise   c. easterly   d. south east

4. One of Magellan's ships explored the ……………of South America for a passage across the continent.

    a. Coast line   b. physical features   c. mountain range   d. islands

5. Four of the ships sought passage along a southern ……………..

    a. Coast   b. inland   c. body of land in water on three sides   d. border

6. The passage was found near 50 degrees south of ……………..

    a. Greenwich   b. Spain   c. the Equator   d. Portugal

7. In the spring of 1521, the ships crossed the ………………now   called the International Date Line

    a. Imaginary circle passing through the poles   b. area   c. imaginary line parallel to the Equator   d. land mass

Purpose and analysis of the test

The kind of test is multi-dimensional and helps developing vocabulary in a scaled manner. We will come to explain more about the term 'scaled' and 'multi-dimensional' later. What is crystal clear, EFL learners start their early foreign language learning with enthusiasm and that the main task of language teachers is to keep going this motivation later in upper classes. The task is not easy, but simply stated, they would like to give lessons or lectures which are interesting, appealing and joyful on the one hand. On the other hand, they need to be informed about the learning progress their students make. According to the European Commission (2006- 2007) in a study on Language Assessment Cultures in Europe, teachers should be aware of the criteria to be applied when developing assessment formats. In an easy manner, the information about the learning progress in general and vocabulary development should be obtained without much effort on the part of the teacher and without fear on the part of the learner.

This coincides pedagogically with Krashen's Affective Theory where a low-affective filter should be installed to make learning friendly. Moreover, language tests should not take up much time, allow for a variety of inferences (linguistic and world knowledge, referential and inferential clues, and meta-cognitive procedures) and be careful for portraying a language learner's profile. Such goals are traced accordingly with two standardized vocabulary tests which are selection and gradation. The standardized prototype is in line with traditional quality factors. The objective in question for the present vocabulary test, is to set the general principles underlying the making of the test (such as: familiarity, contextualized items, programmed hints,,,); and the possibility that such a test may help increase the quality of early and previous FL learning in general and vocabulary development in particular.

We, as teachers, tend to get an approximate picture of our students' knowledge from observation and mainly by assessing their achievements during test, exams or through daily class interactions via written or oral set s of activities. The vocabulary tests are developed with two aims: a). getting an impression of the long-term vocabulary development of learners (all stages of learning English are included to make up the linguistic background); and b)- capturing their degree of proficiency with regard to the contextual and semantic meaning in the newly-exhibited words (by means of using context clues, referencing, inferencing and other meta-cognitive skills) in the passage.

By no means, a vocabulary test for EFL learners should consist of a traditional checklist of words. The contextualized vocabulary test, set above, is meant purposefully to:

1. Take into account the self-perception of EFL learners as regards the amount of words they know (amount of words)
2. See if and how they understand word meaning (semantics)
3. Find how they develop language awareness via the knowledge of words (language awareness)

The present multi-layered conceptualization (amount of words, semantics and language awareness) permits, congruently, the teachers to assess the development of vocabulary. It should be noted that the test is actually testing comprehension altogether with vocabulary. The words and instructions are spoken by the teacher and might alternatively have been recorded by a native speaker. So both, a listening to the text and a reading have been administered to help make morphological recognition and a phonological perception simultaneously

<u>Result Analysis</u>

The result obtained from the quick language test brought by the passage of "Magellan Expeditions" was time-limited and was presented twice: first via a recorded script read out by a native speaker to set forth the "foreign talk' procedure and engage learners in a real-like perspective where a "fine-tuned- input is avoided and real-life language is established. The 'foreign talk' procedure is meant to elaborate a naturalistic know-how standpoint where perception of data emanating from an original speech delivery source is rather boosting EFL learners' ability to decode spoken language and make use of the clues phonologically (tone used, loudness of the pitch, stress, hesitations) and contextually by pointing out key words and getting the gist. Second, the same passage is presented in the form of print as a reading passage. The objective behind was to elucidate the wrong perceptions and false cognitive and meta-cognitive assumptions, the learners extracted from their listening to the oral input. The amazing low achievements in the listening comprehension test showed a real need to consider, for next tests formula that a written text should take precedence over and pave the way to the spoken input presented through the listening passage so as to help for morphological recognition first which in turn bolsters and lends a hand to the phonological perception, and then, originate in making the semantic link between the words and the context they are embodied in.

The results are exhibited in the table below as follows:

Language Tests	Below Average	Above Average

Listening Test	19 students out of 31	Only 12
Reading Test	13 students out of 31	18 got the average

Table: 3. 10. Recapitulative assignment board of short passage-related vocabulary test.

The interpretation of the results, as evoked by learners themselves, conjures up with the difficulty to decipher an original 'foreign talk' and that the limited time allotted for the comprehension activity also constituted the burden. However, the written script was rather helpful because, according to testees, there were hints of morphological assistance that constituted the language and background knowledge. Furthermore, the time was quite sufficient to read and come back instantly to the passage, whenever needed, to extract the data using visual context clues from the written text.

It was then, felt necessary to alter for the conception of the language test format and substitute it with another type in terms of length, content and priority. It is the use of lengthy texts that can be cut into short cuts or excerpts that may keep more interest, attraction and motivation. As a second imperative, the alternative stipulates for the precedence of testing, primarily, written passages over listening ones and check if that procedure would help better in the comprehension of the passage than the reverse way of giving precedence to the listening test over the reading one. It is commonly recommended that the long texts which collide with a variety of context clues, which are sketched out into short passages, and which are presented in print first, then via spoken medium do pedagogically alleviate the hardship of understanding the context and the vocabulary leading to it. The purpose is simple and logically manageable if the lengthy texts do represent already dealt- within the language classroom fitting the big lines of the programme. Here, test makers are testing what they have taught, subsequently, learners feel familiar with the kind of topic in the test or exam and engage in an anxiety- free atmosphere. So, just before introducing long passages, there should be consideration of some characteristics of accomplished content area teaching. This support for EFL learners in the content area classroom is set to communicate effectively with students so as to ensure comprehension and develop understanding on whatever

classroom material, be it a listening or reading content, both known as discourse comprehension.

The discourse is preliminary guaranteed through the following characteristics:

- Use many visual aids or realia
- Model appropriate behavior and language use gestures, body language and facial expressions to develop understanding
- Perform demonstrations, ensure comprehension and in-depth understanding
- Use graphic organizers, story maps, semantic webbings and paraphrasing techniques
- Provide vocabulary previous for forthcoming lessons
- Ask students to make predictions when reading or listening to stories
- Adapt and simplify material to make its more comprehensible
- Provide cooperative learning groups
- Provide multi-cultural content in classrooms
- Seek out primary language support for students needing assistance
- Create a non-threatening environment where students feel comfortable to take risks with language
- Make connections between content, thought and students' prior knowledge and experiences
- Provide much time for students engagements and interaction with each other and the teacher
- Allow time for students to practice and apply daily lessons
- Use a consistent vocabulary for daily routines
- Provide pictures to illustrate new words and terms
- Present clear illustrations and concrete examples to help students understand complex concepts and skills
- Adapt difficult passages and record on tape for listening activities

- Provide simplified biographies of significant men and women from various cultures
- Develop interest and stimulate curiosity of EFL students through hands-on experiences, pictures, newspapers, clippings and periodicals
- Prepare a list of vocabulary words you will be using in class before the lesson begins
- Make the EFL students a part of the class as much as possible by acknowledging him and his effort
- Keep EFL students on task by checking to see what they know, what the lesson objective is and how to complete the assignment
- Help EFL students verbalize or write an answer or statement they have understood
- Respond with appropriate statements to answer given by EFL students and try to keep the remarks focused on the task not on the learner
- Offer a variety of reference materials that meets the students' instructional level
- Write instructions and problems using shorter and less complex sentences
- Limit the number of problems that must be works out
- De-emphasize speed and emphasize accuracy of work
- Assign short homework tasks that require more reading and listening.
  (Adapted from: 'Supporting EFL in Content Area Classroom, 2001- European Commission for Education)

Best practice says that teachers use instructional practices that include an emphasis on:

a. Pre-teaching vocabulary with emphasis on meaning
b. Teaching concepts in context and through content(not in isolation)
c. Using real objects such as: concrete objects, pictures, posters…

d. In comprehension tasks, EFL students should have reading or listening materials provided at their instructional levels

e. They should also be taught vocabulary in context and remembering to limit the number of vocabulary words taught in each unit. As comprehension increases, number of words increases.

f. Record data (input) for the EFL students to learn and let them listen to it

g. Let students act out the story to demonstrate understanding.

h. Use a variety of strategies and approaches to teach discourse comprehension. The key component is to make sure that students are being taught vocabulary through meaningful context, not in isolation

i. Provide EFL students the background knowledge necessary to enable them to predict, connect, question and visualize a story.

More specifically, comprehensible input in discourse means that whatever information brought by the language teacher, mainly the spoken one, is understood by the majority, if not all, EFL students including the following techniques:

-   Provide verbal signals to get students attention; e.g. '*today we are going to talk about...*'

-   Make presentation of the main topic: e.g., *do it orally , if possible write it out on board*

-   Engage the sense of seeing and hearing; e.g., '*the most important idea to remember is...*'

-   Provide a detail, an example; e.g., '*like the other story of…*'

-   Show the end by concluding; e.g., '*finally, in conclusion…*'

-   Summarize by making recall of key words that are written on board or recollected orally.

Departing from the above principles, let's introduce two lengthy biographical texts, as shown in many instances in the language programme, and presenting two well-known English-speaking personalities.

3.5.3.4. Long passage-oriented vocabulary test

The first text is about the famous freedom fighter Dr. Martin Luther King and the second text is about the most outstanding wife of all American presidents all over the time of the American history: Eleanor Roosevelt.

Long passage 1;   **Martin Luther King** (see appendix: 17-A)

Before reading, a quick recall of the famous personalities so far studied in the course of the programme so as to make a link with what is coming and prepare the readers(then listeners) predict the content of the passage. For sure, to enable EFL learners engage completely in an anxiety- free endeavour, some of the key words are introduced as a preliminary teaching of the vocabulary contained in the passage. This procedure alleviates the burden of struggling with difficult words and pushes forwards learners to advance in their decoding for difficult lexical items which are somehow beyond their level of proficiency.

The objective of reading and listening should be clear from the start by means of good, transparent instructions helping and not hindering comprehension. It could be done through simple questions, limited number of items to be analyzed and a referential frame work should continuously accompany the learners during their task of decoding the discourse.

Instruction: which of the following vocabulary items do not qualify the bold face vocabulary in the text?

Note: *there are three lists of words, verbs, nouns and adjectives*

verbs

1. Give up

a. Surrender   b. cede   c. hand over   d. insist on

2. **Speak out**

a. Declaim   b. deliver   c. express   d. stay still

3. **Call on**

a. Raise the voice   b. exclaim   c. address   d. mime

4. **Attend**

a. Participate   b. take part in   c. share   d. disengage

5. **Disobey**

a. Refuse submission to   b. ignore the commands   c. object   d. obey

6. **Spread**

a. Extend   b. distribute   c. circulate   d. to shorten (close)

7. **Seek**

a. Search for   b. look around for   c. go in pursuit of   d. find out

<u>Nouns</u>

1. **Protest**

a. Complaint   b. objection   c. disapproval   c. acceptance

2. **Preacher**

a. Holy man   b. priest   c. nun   d. soldier

3. **Boycott**

a. Refusal   b. rejection   c. embargo   d. satisfaction

4. **Laws**

a. Regulations   b. rules   c. decree   d. recipe

5. **Incidents**

a. Events   b. happenings   c. occurrences   d. calm

6. **Gift**

a. Award   b. present   c. offering   d. sanction

7. **Followers**

a. Fans   b. disciples   c. admirers   d. ennemies

8. **Truth** (s)

a. Reality   b. reliability   c .legitimacy   d. dishonesty

9. **Oneness**

a. Selfishness   b. egoism   c. self-centeredness   d. altruism(generosity)

10. **Worries**

a. Troubles   b. discomfort   c. states of anxiety   d. ease and peace

11. **Militant**

a. Combative   b. revolutionary   c. rebellious   d. submitted(obedient)

Adjectives

1. **Wealthiest**

a. Most affluent   b. most prosperous   c. richest   d. poorest

2. **Racial**

a. Ethnic   b. blood/skin grouping   c. of human race   d. not of human race

3. **Wise**

a. Experienced   b. judicious   c. tactful   d. foolish (unwise)

4. **Unjust**

a. Just (fair)defiant   b. unmerited   c. excessive   d. Unfair

5. **Disobedient**

a. Rule breaker   b. defiant   c. insubordinate   d. obedient

6. **Willing**

a. Eager   b. ready to go forth   c. disposed   d. reluctant

7. **Peaceful**

a. Non-violent   b. diplomatic   c. quiet   d. violent

Long passage 2 :**Eleanor Roosevelt** (see appendix17-B)

To go along with the same vein of representing and alyzing biographies, this time another well-known figure in the American history- the wife of the fifth American president: Franklin Roosevelt. The usual warm up is redressed to allow readiness and complete engagement of the students to read, and then listen to another long story

recounting the main deeds of a lady who marked the history of America. The same principles will be applies so as to create a motivating immersion of the students in retrieving the required lexical items in their different category belonging.

Instruction: Do the same as the first text and sort out the antonyms from the provided list.

Note: *an additional item is added (5 items) for more enrichment.*

Nouns

1. **Peace**
    a. Concord   b. harmony   c. end of war   d. reconciliation   e. war
2. **Wealth**
    a. richness   b. prosperity   c. fortune   d. affluence   e. poverty
3. **happiness**
    a. gladness   b. joy   c. delight   d. contentment   e. sadness
4. **disease**
    a. Illness   b. sickness   c. malady   d. infection   e. good health
5. **Issue**
    a. Matter   b. concern   c. subject   d. topic   e. problem
6. **Debate**
    a. Discussion   b. dispute   c. contest   c. question   e. decide over
7. **Depression**
    a. Moving downwards   b. pressing down   c. discouragement
       d. lowering   e. boosting/cheering up
8. **Reporters**
    a. Journalists   b. writers (news)   c. correspondents   d. news
       makers   e. news viewers/readers
9. **Leader**
    a. Person in charge   b. manager   c. chief   d. guide   e. follower
10. **Membership**

a. Partnership   b. sponsorship   c. belonging to   d. ally   e. adversary

11. Outdoors

a. Outside   b. open-air   c. out-of-door   d. not inside   e. indoor

12. Supporter

a. Adherent   b. fan   c. devotee   d. advocate   e. detractor

13. Harbor

a. Port   b. marina   c. dock   d. quay   e. airport

<u>Verbs</u>

1. Fought

a. Combated   b. struggled   c. clashed   d. competed   e. surrendered

2. Sought

a. Looked for   b. searched for   c. tried to find   d. fetched   e. resigned

3. Investigated

a. Explored   b. probed   c. inspected   d. examined   e. stayed steady

4. Dropped to the floor

a. Fell   b. went down   c. declined   d. crashed   e. rise (stand up)

5. Improving

a. Getting better   b. recovering   c. developing   d. progressing   e. worsening

6. Struck

a. Shocked   b. rendered speechless   c. amazed   d. surprised   e. got indifferent

7. Dropped on

a. Arrived suddenly   b. appeared unexpectedly   c. emerged abruptly   d. flooded   e. appeared gradually

8. Spreading

   a. Increasing   b. expanding   c. proliferating   d. widening
   e. diminishing

9. Held

   a. Supposed   b. thought   c. alleged   d. believed   e. unbelieved

10. Resigned

   a. Left   b.   quit   c.   gave up   d. walked out   e.   kept on/
   continued

11. Protest

   a. E. Oppose   b. object   c. demonstrate   d. complain   e. agree

<u>Adjectives</u>

1. Equal

   a. Identical   b. equivalent   c. alike   d. the same   e. unequal/
   different

2. Sick

   a. diseased   b. ill   c. unwell   d. ailing   e. healthy/ well

3. **Greatest**

a.   supreme   b. utmost   c. peak   d. everest   e. tiny/smallest

4.   **severe**

a. harsh   b. cruel   c. brutal   d. difficult   e. gentle/smooth

5. **economic**

a. financial   b. monetary   c. trade related   d. linked to business   e.
spiritual

6. **active**

a. lively   b. energetic   c. dynamic   d. full of life   e. publicly

7. **Conservative**

a. conformist   b. traditionalist   c. conventional old school   e. activist/ new trend

8. **term**

a. period   b. time   c. span   d. duration   e. timeless

9. **chairman**

a. president   b. prim official   c. responsible in chief   d. or donator   e. subordinate

10. **Resolution**

a. decree   b. declaration   c. motion   d. ruling   e.   indecision

11. **Growth**

a. augmentation   b. increase   c. development   d. intensification   e. reduction/ decay

11. **Loss**

a. defeat   b. shortfall   c. failure   d. deficiency   e. victory/ gain

12. **Praising**

a. admiring   b. paying tribute to   c. acclaiming   d. glorifying   e. criticizing

12. **Urge**

a. insist   b.persuade   c. make imperative   d. render vital   e. become trivial/ indifferent

13. **Recognize**

a. acknowledge   b. appreciate   c. admit   d. realize   e. take for granted

13. **Appointed**

a.assigned   b. selected   c. selected   d. allotted   e. rejected

14. **Naval**

a. marine   b. nautical   c. seafaring   d. sailing   e. terrestrial

15. **Unaccepted**

a. unconventional   b. disestablished   c. unusual   d. not acknowledged
e. normal/ accepted

16. **Troubled**

a. anxious   b. worried   c. disturbed   d. bothered   e. calm/ pacific

17. **Bravely**

a. courageously   b. heroically   c. willingly   d. peerlessly   e. fearfully

18. **Sincerely**

a. honestly   b. heartfully   d. frankly   c. truth fully   e. insincerely/
disloyally/ untrustworthy.

3.6. Post-test Results Analysis and Interpretation

The final evaluation of '*the progress*' of the experimental group made
throughout the six-week period of the treatment is rather encouraging. Jointly,
the analysis is backed up with the students' self-reports which will bring more
validity to the results obtained in the pre-test.

Compared to the results at the beginning of the study (pre-test results), they are quite surprising. The subjects had to do well with a four-MCQ activity from different input formats: - The optional, context-free activities

- Sentence-bound vocabulary activities

- Short passage- related vocabulary activities

- Long passage- oriented lexical retrieval.

These input resources have been primarily presented in the form of written texts for reading comprehension and lexical retrieval; then, the same input has been delivered orally to gain overall comprehension, visually and orally, through the MCQ activities. The objective was to give a chance to EFL learners to see and recognize the script for the morphological recognition to be, then transferred for a more solid phonological consolidation.

The results of both skills were of paramount significance: listening success approximated 75% and the reading rate of success surpassed 80%.

The tables and graphs below represent the positive results of the post-test as follows:

	10+	10-
reading and listening graph		
Reading test	25 out of 31 (80.64%)	(only) 6 out31 (19.35%)
Listening test	23 out of 31 (74.19%)	(only) 8 out of 31(25.80%

Table: 3. 11. Post-test results in both skills

From the above graph representing the post-test results in the two skills, the students scored better than in the pre-test The major difference observed between the results of the two tests for the experimental group can be attributed to the degree and amount of exposure to the target

language input. The experimental group students seem to have benefited from the various opportunities of meeting the target language not only in the language classroom but also from the fact that self-confidence was gained and motivation to engage in more elaborate input resources were the outstanding parameters of the 'post-treatment EFL Learners. . According to the self-report, they are eager to engage daily in authentic language though not with complete success every time. Because of a large amount of the language input, the vocabulary acquisition for the experimental group has gained certain characteristics of second language learning environment or second language acquisition (SLA) device. In such learning contexts, learners have an opportunity to develop new vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) uncommon in formal learning contexts (Lamb, 2004). In other words, the experimental group's students approach the vocabulary learning in spontaneous and natural-like manner; thus, creating opportunities for incidental vocabulary learning.

The same results are represented differently using other variables:

	Read+10	Read -10
The Reading Results		
Pre-test	21 out of31 (67.74%)	10 out of 31 (32.25 %)
Post-test	25 out of 31 (80.64%)	06 out of 31 (19.35 %)
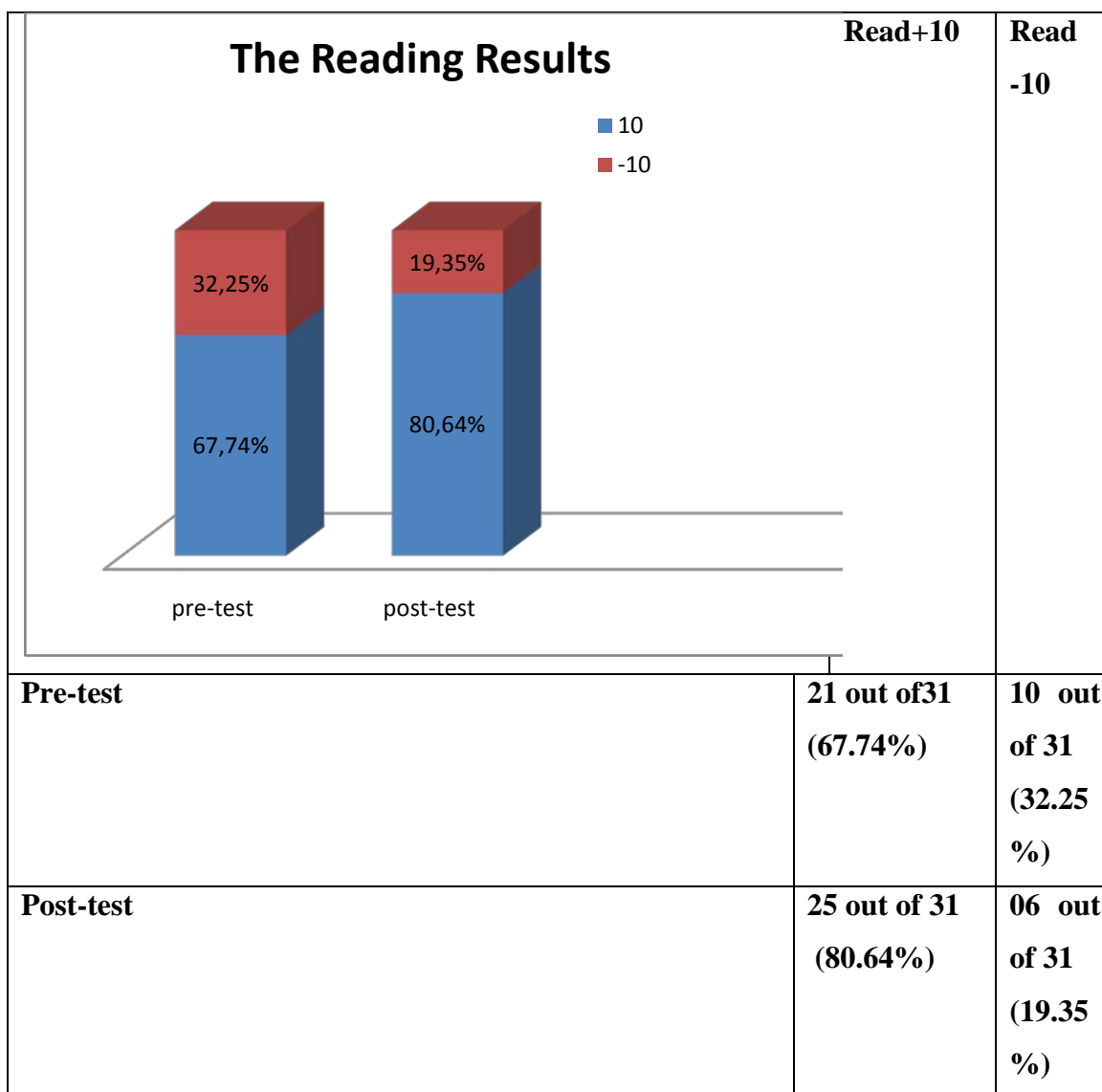
Table: 3.12. Comparing pre- and post-test results in reading

The above graphic representation represents the progress made in the reading comprehension skill. Though the previous results of the pre-test were above the average and by large, satisfactory, the post-test results show a significant amelioration in the rates of success and similarly the number of students exceeding the average has remarkably augmented. Very few students failed in the test because of lack of motivation, disregard and disengagement.
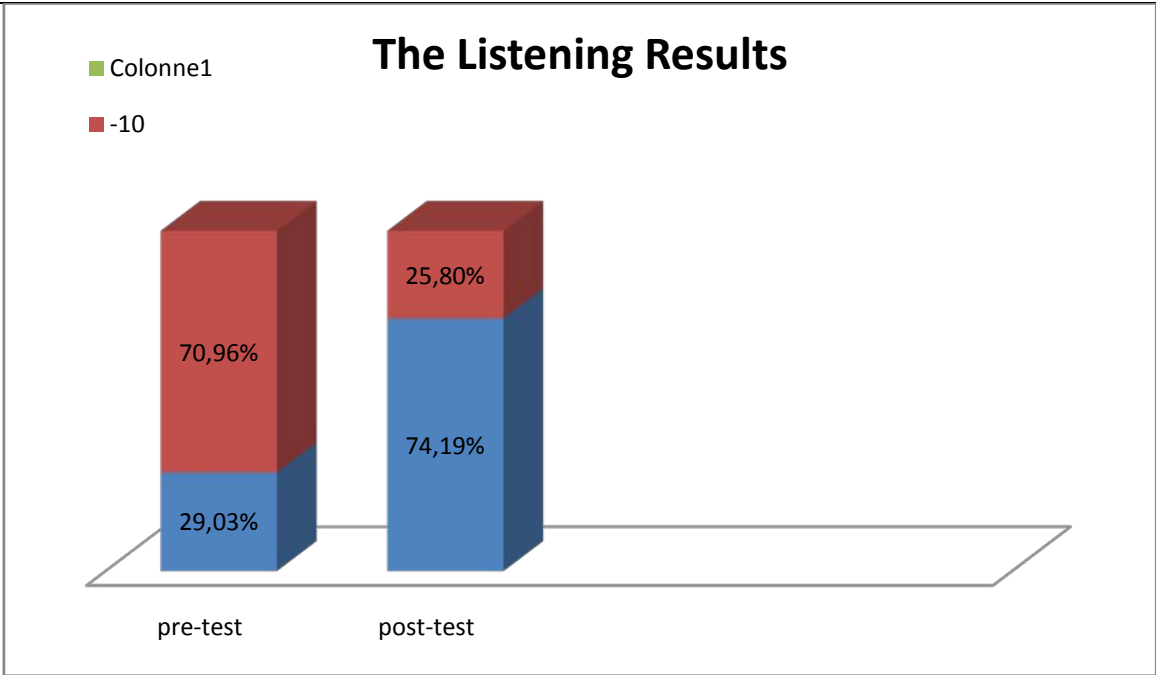
	Listening +	Listening-
The Listening Results graph		
Pre-test	09 out of 31 (29.03%)	22 out of 31 (70.96%)
Post-test	23 out of 31 (74.19%)	08 out of 31 (25.80%)

The Listening Results

- Colonne1
- -10

70,96%

25,80%

29,03%

74,19%

pre-test   post-test

Table: 3.13. Comparing pre- and- post-test results in listening.

In the listening skill, the results were amazingly progressing from a very low proportion of (29.03%) to (74.19%) in the success ratio. Constantly, according the students' self-reports, there were very good instances to worth value the procedure of presenting the same input twice. First, the source of input was offered in the form of script (a reading text) which helped in spelling recognition. Then, the same input is presented in the form of listening passage where sounds are logically associated to '*déja-vu*' vocabulary for more manageable meaning construction. Doubtless, the piloted

experiment inspires the precedence of reading over listening in pursue for better comprehension of discourse.

			Both skills (+)	Both skills(-)
	Both Skills			
	■ -10 ■ 10			
	22,57%			
	51,60%			
	77,41%			
	48,38%			
	pre-test post-test			
Pre-test			48.38%	51.60%
Post-test			77.41%	22.57%
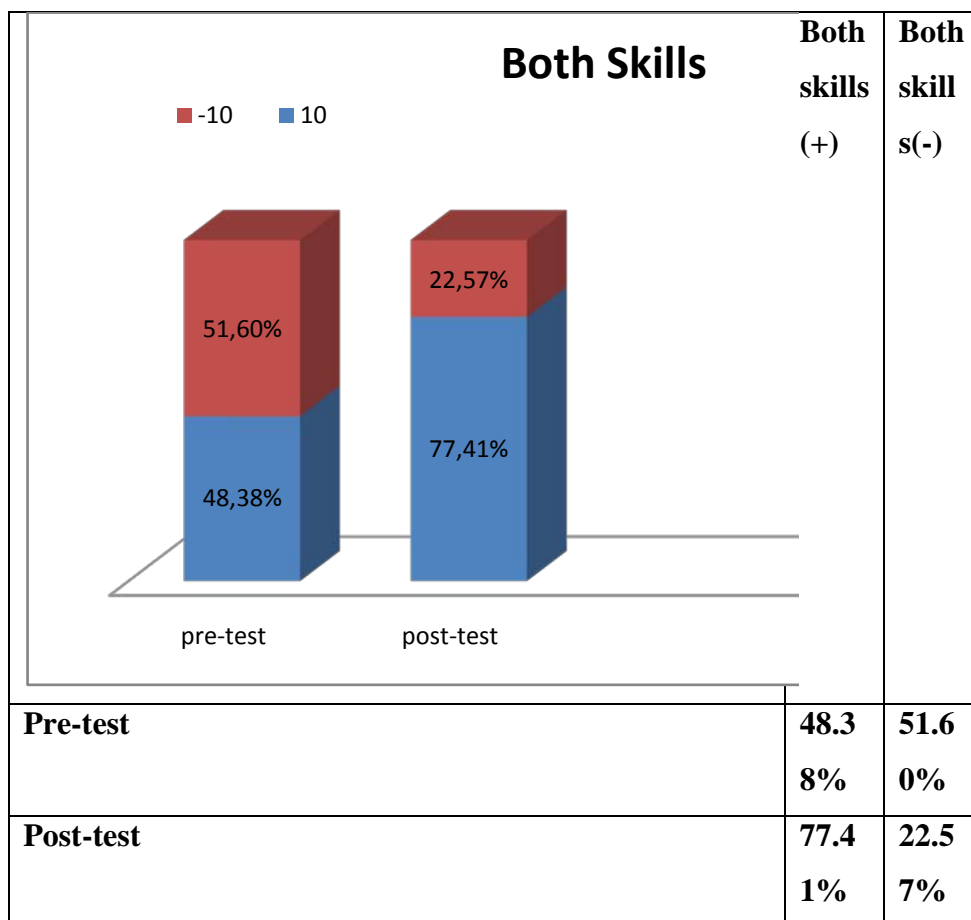
Table: 3.14. Comparing both skills in both tests.

The overall comparison of the two skills' results in pre-and-post-test valuation, as shown above, provides an inestimable growth in the listening skill proficiency. The point is due to the reinforcement of the sound-letter grouping consideration as a valuable basis to overcome the phonic perception or at least lessen the hardships of facing sounds independently.

3.7. Self-report (students' questionnaire) Analysis.

At the beginning of the study, the majority of the learners reported that they avoided whatever situation where they would have to read difficult texts or listen profoundly to original foreign talk (input). The difficulty was mainly raised at the phonic level since the foreign talk in videos, television shows and even songs presented rather serious hindrances as far as aspects of connected speech were plainly exhibited. However, the module of phonetics in the first (1st) year deals only with the primary segmental features (vowels, consonants, syllables and simple word stress). It is only at the third year level that EFL learners deal with practical phono-tactic issues where the supra-segmental features of phonetics and phonology are displayed, like: linking, elision, assimilation, and intonation.

The self-reports also showed the extent to which students became able to understand the main forms of input (excerpts from books, articles, hands-out, recorded interviews, etc.). They could get the gist, even though detailed mastery is not completely reached. Although some of them were already able toto understand the essence of the given input, they, later on, gained a remarkable growth towards comprehending more consistent and difficult messages. A very important source of data gathering about the daily achievements in vocabulary retrieval through the readings and listening sources was kept by some of the testees. It was a sort of a record(names of books, newspaper titles, articles, authors, number of pages read, how many hours they spent reading or listening to the target language…). This record concerned all activities in concern with reception in and out the language classroom. This measurement could help know the amount of reception and typically, relate to individual volunteer and motivation to engage independently to acquire the target language.

A more encouraging fact, the EFL Learners, at the end of the treatment period, showed positive traits in going beyond the PET specifications in the reading skill; in that they are able to read complex academic texts. This is mainly due the huge support they gained from the period under study. What comes for sure, relatively, from the self-reports is that many of the testeeswere reading extensively and were voluntarily engaging in listening to a variety of input sources which had the following effects:

- It helped them improve their listening and reading skills
- It provided a great amount of comprehensible input in a low-anxiety situations
- It motivated them to engage in more complex language meetings and exposure.

Effectively, the results of formal grammar-based instruction that the EFL learners received in their former education constituted the major barrier towards discourse comprehension. From their answers (in the self-report questionnaire), it is *de facto* that their final outlook and Krashen's hypothetical view are convergent. Because, if we come to the same conclusion about a phenomenon using a different data collection,an analysis, a method or a different participant sample, the convergence offers strong validity evidence. Maxwell and Loomis (2003) assert that the practice of collecting multiple data types and the practice of mixing very different research approaches coincide with the introduction of the concept of 'Triangulation' into the social sciences which became synonymous with combining data sources to study the same social phenomenon. Hanson et al. (2005) advocated triangulation as a way validating hypotheses by examining them through multiple methods. Likely, it has been proved that those trained only in foreign language classrooms where emphasis was only on conscious grammar learning, has developed extensive formal knowledge of the target language with very little acquisition. Admittedly, since the great majority of EFL learners' input was provided by reading for pleasure, listening with interest and involvement in the choice, the learners reported that they did not experience any anxiety and felt relaxed when receiving the input. Although it is hard to establish the level of

'Affective Filter' by objective measures, the self-report results indicate a low-affective filter converging with Krashen's condition for rendering acquisition as intake.

Respondents' feedback is a strategy where respondents (EFL learners in our case) are involved in commenting on the conclusion of the study. Here, they can express their views in what is called a 'validation interview' (Holliday, 2004). Therefore, if there is agreement between the researcher and the participants, the study's validity is needed and reinforced. Also, respondent validation canalso enhance generalizability.

3.9.   Conclusion

Case studies are very helpful in bringing to life some of the complexity, individual variation and environmental parameters involved in vocabulary learning. The case in point presents detailed portraits of first-year EFL students at the University of Tlemcen. These learners are, supposedly, struggling to build their word-knowledge in English. Of special interest is that the target ed population is compensated by high level of self-awareness provided that the majority have chosen to study English in their graduate studies as a major concern. However, though sharing common choice and programmes, these EFL learners use quite different learning strategies in comprehending discourse from holistic to analytical approach. Therefore, teachers are requested to spend more class time on cognition, meta-cognition, discussing pros and cons of different vocabulary-learning strategies according to particular circumstances and purposes.

A battery of objective tests is administered to first-year EFL learners so as to reach the desired results of progress in vocabulary acquisition and understanding. Though a large number of students have quite a limited proficiency in English, they have control of the main grammatical structures of English and they know a great deal of vocabulary. But as they embark on courses and texts designed for native speakers (original input), they are bound to come across many words that are new to them; both the specialised terms of particular academic fields and the enormous number of non-specialised words that characterize English academic prose (Hofland and Johansson, 1982)

The results of the tests can be used to help diagnose areas of weakness, set learning goals and plan vocabulary programmes, measure vocabulary growth and assign graded reading and listening.

The tests have tried to answer this question: *Is the learners' poor performance in reading and listening a result of insufficient vocabulary knowledge?*

Some learners have more difficulty understanding spoken English. This could be because they do not know enough vocabulary or simply because they have, by large, learned English mainly through reading. Likely, they have not had enough contact with the spoken language in former stages of education, unless their teachers talk in the classroom. Given that the written test itself was a real tool of measurement, it was right interesting to give the first form of the test through reading. If confidence is set, then the oral type of testing can be set for further comprehension degree.

Similarly, learners who had a lot of contact with various input of the target language in and out the language classroom, revealed to be making progress in vocabulary knowledge. Subsequently, English word-knowledge is essential for all learners who wish to gain proficiency in the language. It is thus, important that teachers know what vocabulary knowledge their learners have and are aware of how they can systematically help them to increase this proficiency. Ways of doing so include substantial graded reading, indirect vocabulary teaching and providing a vocabulary focus in different language activities. Actually, the post-test has allowed checking how much learners' vocabulary has developed over the six-week- treatment period.

So, careful attention should be paid in the run of developing vocabulary through the two receptive skills since the environment does not provide spontaneous input delivery in the target language. However, the context of getting along with the input is carried out voluntarily by teachers and learners in direct teaching (teacher inquiry and peer-teaching), active learning (self-engagement and peer-learning), through natural, incidental learning contexts (exposure and involvement in the language); and within planned encounters (graded reading, use of audio-video sources and complete

involvement). In general, words are so important that anything that teachers and learners do to make sure they (words) are acquired or learned is worth doing.

Chapter Four: SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1. Introduction

Vocabulary is an essential building block of language and it makes sense to be able to measure learner's knowledge and use of it (Schmitt and Schmitt and Clapham, 2001). Vocabulary development is crucial both from a theoretical and practical standpoint. Experts in the field of vocabulary development arein agreement that vocabulary is central to the language learning process, and as such, it is recognized that a focus on strengthening vocabulary is necessary at every stage of every learner's language development. From a practical stand point, educators cite that lexical knowledge is important in the development of other language skills.

English vocabulary has a remarkable range, flexibility and adaptability. Thanks to the periods of contact with foreign Languages and its readiness to coin new words out of old elements, English seems to have far more words in its core vocabulary than other Languages.

One should know:

-How many words are there in English, then? (Approximately 500,000)

-How many words does the average native speaker use in his every day speech? (Nearly 60.000)

-What do you think are the most common 20 words in English?

a. The most basic common twenty words in '*written English*'(most frequent) are: the, of, to, in, and, a, for, was, is, that, on, at, he, with, by, be, it, an, at, his,

b. The most common twenty words in '*spoken English*' (most frequent)are : the, and, I, to, of, a, you, that, in, it, is, yes, was, this, but, on, well, he, have, for,(Crystal, 1997:86).

-The most common word in English are the grammar words

-There are other words that you need simply to understand when you read or hear them

-*It is not enough just to know the meaning (s) of a word. You also need to know*

- Which words it is associated with
- Its grammatical characteristics
- How it is pronounced
- Whether it is formal, informal or neutral

-*Try to learn new words in phrases (at least) not in isolation*

-*write down words that commonly go together*

- Adjectives+ nouns, e.g. rich vocabulary, classical music, common sense
- Verbs+ nouns, e.g. to express an opinion, to take sides
- Nouns in phrases, e.g. in touch with, a train set, a sense of humour
- Words+ prepositions, e.g. at a loss of words, thanks to you.

These are very few instances of vocabulary knowledge that any FL learner should engage to know. This is why a whole chemistry of suggestopaedia related to reinforce the capacities of better acquiring the lexis of a language. Below are exhibited a range of different recommendations, hopefully, desirable to enrich learners' knowledge in any language.

4.2. Context-Based Approach: Vocabulary

English Language classrooms have always sought for developing students' strategies for interacting with unknown words. It constitutes one of the principle challenges before EFL learners reach Language proficiency.

The usual, routinized approach to this challenge is to have EFL learners read or listen to passages in which every word is known, or allow them to make use of dictionaries (monolingual or bilingual) or, the teacher backs up the heavy duty to go

explaining every and each word in the passage. The drawbacks of these procedures are obvious. For instance, too much dictionary work can kill all interest and even interfere with comprehension.Simply, because learners become more concerned with individual words and less aware of the context which gives them clues to meaning. All in all, enabling EFL readers/Listeners to derive meaning with the help of content clues is an effective approach to increase vocabulary and comprehension.

Yet, there main assumptions are to be projected for reaching practicability of such an approach. But, just before, let's stress that the most frequent way to discover the meaning of new words is guessing vocabulary from context. According to Honeyfield, "Even with a functional vocabulary of the 3000 most frequently occurring items in English, learners will not know approximately 20 percent of the items they will encounter in a simplified text." (1977: 37). Something else, word used in different contexts may have different meanings. Thus, simply learning the definitions of a word without examples of where and when the word occurs will not help learners to fully understand its meaning. Subsequently, learning words in isolation without reference to the context is merely a memorization exercise. Therefore, looking at the context in the word appears seems to be the best way of learning vocabulary. Besides, good EFL learners take advantage of their background knowledge in processing the context and increasing expectations about the kind of vocabulary that will occur in the discourse. Differently expressed to use Nunan's terms (1991), making use of what we know in order to understand the unknown is a common practice in our daily lives. This first assumption is informative in the same way as when someone sneezes, we will infer that he has a cold. The second assumption correlates vocabulary with grammar. In other words, familiarity with grammatical patterns helps the reader (and the listener) guess themeaning of words. Examples are manifold: word category can be very expressive. Affix word can also deliver plenty of details (un-de meaning opposite), connector's link sentences differently (cause, effect, contrast…). In any text, grammatical and lexical cohesion support each other. The final assumption, then, puts more clarification about new words through redundant definitions and clues.

4.2.1. **Types of Content Clues:**

There are a number of context clues that can help infer the meaning of anew word.
The table below sums the most frequently used hints of contextual clues:

Type	principle	Example
1- Morphology	-Students can derive word meaning by examining internal morphological future.	Prefixes-(pre- pro- un…) Suffixes- (ish-like-ful) root words.
2-Reference words	-Identifying the referents of pronouns may provide a clue to the meaning of an unfamiliar word.	Eg: Malnutrition (-stunted his growth guassing the effect of malnution on his growth.
3-Cohesion	-Sometimes words in the same sentences or in an adjacent st give an indication of the meaning of the unknown word.	Eg: Collocation al cohesion (Halliday& Hassen,1976)s
4-Synonyms& antonyms	-often any reader or listener can find the meaning of new items in the same sentence with some attention.	Synonyms: we have never seen such a largeroom. It was enormous Antonyms: to be affluent and not poor is a matter of weal
5-Hyponyms	-very often too, the interlocutor with a passage can see that the relationship between an unfamiliar word and a familiar word is that of a general concept followed by a specific example.	Eg: Nowadays traffic in clues many types of vehicles. Cars, buses, trains and coaches.

6- Definitions	-Sometimes the writer of a passage defines the meaning of a word right in the text.	Eg: Many animals live by killing other animals and eating them. They are predators.
7-Alternatives	-Some writers may give an alternative of an unfamiliar word to make the meaning known.	Eg: philanthropist or collectors of stamps, are growing in number
8-Restatement	-Often the writer or the performer of a passage gives enough explanation for the meaning to be clear	Eg: X ray therapy, that is treatment by use if X ray often cures
9-Example	-Many times an author helps the receiver of the message get the meaning of a word by providing examples to illustrate the use of the word	Eg: All the furniture has be removed so that no single chair or table was to be seen
10-Summary	-A summary clue suns up a situation or an idea with a word or phrase	Loving people, being generous and helpful is mere altruism
11-Comparison and Contrast	-writers of texts can show senility and/or difference	Eg: similarity The ancient mammoth like other elephants, is huge. Difference: unlike elders,youngsters are vivid
12-Punctuation	Exclamation, interrogationquotation, italics, dash, etc…	- ? questionning -(dash) apposition ( ) showingdefinition

Table: 4.1. The most frequent types of clues (adapted from the British council of Teachers and Teaching 2000).

4.2.2. Application of Context-based Approach

Vocabulary acquisition for EFL students, using the context based approach, goes through 3 main stages. Firstly, students' attention should be drawn to the cue words. Linking words such as: and, but or phrases like: that is to say, in spite of relate sentences to each other. These connections, generally, reveal in a systematic way the next connection (Halliday and Hassan, 1976). However, the explicit function of the clues should be introduced (but: contrast; thus: consequence; in spite of: alternative). This way, the teacher helps his students work out the meaning of a difficult sentence or an unfamiliar word and learners become aware of the presence of these signals which could only help in inferring meaning. Secondly, EFL students who have limited experience in the target Language and who lack guidance sometimes when left on their own may find it hard to identify context clues. Here, the teacher should use specific questions that direct the students' attention to the surrounding environment of an unknown word. Thirdly, some practice is needed to train students infer meaning in short contexts. The task is put relatedly with student's level and degree of difficulty. So, students are provided with short extracts containing clues and their job is to explain how they managed find the meaning. The aim be him is not simply inferring the meaning but to become aware of the existence that surround clues are much helpful in gaining comprehension.

Applying this approach, results in positive outcomes. In addition to increasing students' vocabulary, the approach helps learners not only learn words but know also how to use them in context. This training gives them a powerful aid to comprehension. This approach allows the learners to make intelligent, meaningful guesses. This will make the learning task much more active and challenging that direct explanation of words. EFL learners become more independent and develop learner autonomy.

4.2.3. Learning Words in Context: Expanding Vocabulary

Having a limited vocabulary is a banner that prevents learners from learning a Foreign Language. If learners do not know how to expand their vocabulary, they gradually lose interest in learning. To solve the problem in time, students can use some techniques to learn words in context. Because within the available and useful techniques there exists contextual ways of vocabulary teaching and learning.Departing from the aforementioned point, it is assumed that it is difficult to explain the meaning of a word without knowing the context. For example, the word 'run' has; infact, different meanings depending on the context in which it is used. Let's have a look at the examples below:

-Don't run so fast. – In winter, roses run. –She has a run in her stocking

-Soon there will be a run on the banks. The car will run better now.

-He battled in a run when it counted.

The same approach of contexttualising words do apply for unfamiliar Lexis. Many professionals support the idea of inferring word meanings from contexts. In this vein, Kruse (1987) suggests introducing vocabulary items in such a way as to allow the student to infer or guess the meanings of unfamiliar words from the context. She believes that students should be encouraged to make intelligent guesses about word meanings. Objectively speaking, Guessing word meaning is possible but it should go through analyzing the 2 possibilities as follows: First, students should be prepared to link their knowledge of their first Language reading and the content of the reading or listening materials. Second, students should also be prepared to link that the meaning of the words refers to certain extent parts of reality.

So, since a contextual way of learning and expanding vocabulary is possible students should be trained in this skill. Among the specialists advocating this approach, Nation (1983) gives a very good model on how to guess unknown words, below is the model proposed by Nation:

1, Look at the unknown word and decide its part of speech. It is a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb?

2, Look at the clause or sentence containing the unknown word. If the unknown word is a noun, what does this noun do, or what is done to it? And what adjectives describe it? What verb is it near? If it is a verb, what nouns does it go with? Is it modified by an adverb? If it is an adjective, what noun does it go with? If it is an adverb, what verb is it modifying?

3, Look at the relationship between the clause or sentence containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs. Sometimes, this relationship will be signaled by conjunctions, like: but, because, if, when or by adverbs, like: however, as a result, etc. The possible types of relationship include cause and effect, contrast, time, exemplication and summary.

4, Use the knowledge you have gained from steps (above) 1to 3 to guess the meaning of the word.

5, Check if your guess is correct.

The above process, according to Nation, is in itself a strategy. This strategy in clues the analysis of the following clues: structural, inference and guessing clues.

4.2.4.Clues: Exemplification

There are some categories of clues that enhance the comprehension of discourse, mainly those related to the theme. Below are examples of the main clues:

1- We use the structural clues to determine the type or grammatical category of the new word. This tells us the kind of meaning to infer or look for. So, grammar knowledge, morphological knowledge is pre-requisite conditions to resolve meaning through structure.

2- Inference clues require a higher level of analytical skill and practice than the previous type. In this type, the meanings of the words can be inferred from

examples, often by using physical clues, such as: i.e., eg. And for example. Two sample sentences below show the fact:

Eg.1- Algeria is trying to restore many of its ancient monuments; Ahagar, for example, is being partly rebuilt by a group of Spanish experts.

E.g.2- perceiving, learning and thinking are good examples of cognitive processes.

Some other times, by using the amount of information in a sentence or a whole paragraph, students can understand an unfamiliar word. Below are some examples eliciting the fact:

E.g.1-Perspiration is cured by some cosmetics products. This wetness comes from our body whenever we are too warm, work very hard, or are afraid, and it usually does not smell good.

E.g. 2- He is really good athlete. He plays sports well.

E. g. 3- He's bound to win. He can't lose.

In similar outcomes, readers and listeners infer meanings of words by recalling identical situations or experiences and by making the appropriate inferences. For example, "The patient was 85 years old and suffering from arthritis. He moved forward slowly, taking short, suffing steps.

-In other situations, learners can often guess the meaning of a word because it causes a result, or it is the result caused by something described in the text.

-Sometimes, too, learners can guess the meaning of a word by an explanation or a description given in the same sentence or paragraph

-Also, students can learn definition through the association between an object and its function or purpose for use

3- In developing the basic skill of guessing, teachers should organize the teaching so as to facilitate this development. Teachers should keep in mind that a certain amount

of vagueness in guessing the meaning of words must be accepted. The teacher should not expect students to come up with exact meanings while guessing.

Teaching vocabulary is a very important task is teaching English. By using successful techniques to learn new vocabulary, students will find words easier to remember and will become more motivated in class. Expanding a learner's vocabulary by using context clues is a way to reduce the need for consulting dictionaries. The contextual approach may be a reinforcement tool for students to use in reading and listening.

4.3.   Language Context

A variety of contexts are exhibited to foreign language learners for the sake of debating meaning. These are in the form of written, oral and audio-visual messages.

4.3.1. The Listening Context

The ideal environment for improving in another Language is one where the target Language is spoken and heard at all times. However, in learning situations where the opportunities for use and practice are much fewer (EFL status in Algeria, is a case in point) than for listening or getting messages of that language through written scripts, more attention should be given to receptive skills and related activities. There is an abundance of listening material available through radio, tele programmes, internet sources and cd/DVD recordings. A good source of listening practice is satellite channels in English presenting a wide range of topics and personal concerns from, yet, the absurd and mundane to the most serious. It is up to the listener or the viewer to decide which would be profitable in terms of relevance, interest, length and comprehensibility.

Shadow-reading: Is reading a tape script with the audio-source or the tape at the same time. This procedure gives listeners a good first-hand experience of the speed at which a native speaker speaks. It could, simply, be very stimulating and enjoyable listening exercise. The purpose of this shadow-reading is to give the students experience with the differences in tone, stress, accent and pronunciation among different varieties of English and also to show them how they stand in

relation to native- speaker speech. The operation of listening while reading is logically recommended to use short but interesting portions of the recordings So, it is necessary that the recording be kept short; otherwise the listening exercise gets too long and possibly boring for students.

Yet, there are problematic encounters facing EFL listeners. Firstly, pedagogic (manipulated) recordings sometimes choose to speak much more slowly and exaggerate their enunciation of words, not realizing that this may be unhelpful for learner in long run. Secondly, there are good and bad speakers. Notably, bad speakers repeat too much, pause very often and hesitate too much. Other drawbacks may come from a lack of inferencing where ignorance of an idiomatic expression or a proverb distorts comprehension. Again, this can be a fruitful source of instruction, showing how proverbs and the like are used in real-life English. Presenting language vividly through interaction with native speakers is the role advocated to GVC (Global virtual Class) when students find interesting and challenging. Language learning can be made realistic and challenging, as well as fun, by actually using the target language to interact with native speakers

4.4.2. The reading Context.

EFL learners, though, are good students; they may have no interest in reading anything in English apart from their required assignments. So, what should be done? This particular situation is all too common. In general, students learning to read English as a foreign language find it a difficult process and as a result they do not enjoy it. Even if they are avid readers in their first or second languages, all too often they do not become (good) readers in English.

However, reluctant readers can be reached and they can develop a positive attitude toward reading in English. The first step is to consider the ways in which EFL reading is commonly taught. Traditional approaches and many classroom practices (like; Tran stating, answering , predicting…) tend to ignore the larger context of students' attitudes toward reading and their motivation to read. The result, inevitably, is students with little or no interest in reading English.

Yet, students can discover the benefits and pleasures of being able to read in English. This can happen if extensive reading is incorporated into the EFL curriculum. Infact, extensive reading is a way of improving students' attitudes and motivation toward EFL reading as well as improving their proficiency in reading and their English Language ability. Therefore, easy and interesting reading materials the key factor in extensive reading. Yet, the goal of an extensive reading process is to get students to enjoy reading in the English Language. This process, actually, does not see reading as a skill or mere translation, but as an activity that and individual (or a student) chooses to do for a variety of personal, social, or academic purposes. In here, Day and Brumfit (1987) propose a list of characteristics of successful extensive reading as follows:

a- Students read as much as possible in class and outside the class.

b- A variety of materials on a wide range of topics is available so as to encourage reading for different reasons and in different ways.

c- Students select what they want to read and have the freedom to stop reading materials that fail to interest them.

d- The purposes of reading are usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding and are determined by the nature of the material and the interests of the student.

e- Reading is its own reward. There are few or no follow-up exercise after reading

f- Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students'in terms of vocabulary and grammar. Dictionaries are rarely used during reading because stopping to look up words makes fluent reading difficult.

g- Reading is individual and silent. Students read at their pace and outside class, they choose when and where to read.

h- Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower as students read books and other material they can easily understand.

i- Teachers orient students to the goals of the reading programme, explain the methodology, keep track of what each student reads, and guide students in getting the most out of the programme.

j- The teacher is a role model for students, i.e., an active member of the classroom reading community who demonstrates what it means to be a reader and the rewards of being a F.L reader.

Among the assigned characteristics of a salient extensive reading program is the kind of material to be read, as shown above. So, getting EFL learners to read extensively depends critically on what they read. The reading materials must be both easy and interesting. 'Easy' means material with vocabulary and grammar well within students' linguistic competence, i.e. when students find no more than one or two difficult words on a page, the text is appropriately easy. The other salient feature within the reading programme is that reading a large amount of easy material has a vital role to play in learning to read fluently. Logically, by meeting the same patterns of letters, words and combinations of words again and again; students process them more quickly and accurately; thus developing a sight vocabulary (words that are recognized automatically). Consequently, students increase their reading speed and confidence and can give more attention to working out the overallmeaning of what they are reading. Most outstandingly, experts like Nation (1997) and Day and Bamford (1998) asset that extensive reading not only helps in rendering EFL students (good) readers but provides them with significant gains in other aspects of foreign Language competence such as listening, writing and vocabulary development.

Undoubtedly, part of the reasons extensive reading has a positive effect on Language learning it that it provides increased exposure to English. The important role of comprehensible input in foreign Language learning has been well documented by Krashen (1983, 89, 91, 93 and 2003). However, the impact of extensive reading may also be related to attitude. In this vein, many people find learning a F. L. difficult and feel more or less inadequate to the task. Successful foreign Language reading experiences can counter such feelings of failure. Indeed, many studies show the impact of extensive reading an changing the altitudes of reluctant readers. In a recent study by Mason and Krashen (97)it is started that 'Perhaps the most important and impressive finding in this study is the clear improvement in attitude shown by the experimental students. Many of the once reluctant EFL students became

eagerreaders. Also, Nation (1997) concluded that 'success in reading …makes learners come to enjoy Language learning and to value their study of English.

That's why the first task for teachers is to find materials that their students will find easy and interesting to read when selecting reading material for any age group, and ability level, teachers must have the students ' interests uppermost in mind. So, if reading materials are in the students' field of interest, comprehension is made easier because the students have knowledge of the subject matter. Additionally, if the interest can be accessed, it can be a source of extensive reading materials.

In sum, most EFL teachers must make sure that their students have access to easy, interesting reading materials. This is the first stage in reading reluctant readers, because it allows students to discover that they can actually read in English and enjoy it. The more students read and the more they enjoy it, the more likely it is that they will become students who both can and do read in English.

4.3.3. The Spelling Context

It's crystal clear that the spelling of the English Language is not that systematic code.The fact that a very large number of words cannot be sustained in some morphological rules, the endeavour of teachers and even grammarians remains hardly applicable to providing neat and easy spelling rules. Though important, the acquisition of the English vocabulary is a difficult task because each lexical item has to be learnt for its own pronunciation, first its grammar, its meaning and probably, most importantly, its spelling forms. So, to ease the burden for F.L. learners, whenever there is an existing system explaining the spelling rules of a number of words, teachers should help assist learners to discover, appreciate and gain experience within that existing system to be memorable. The significance of a systematic approach to English spelling is that it facilitates language learning. As a significant and yet fruitful way to gain experience in such spelling recognition tricks, is through the sequencing of "i" and "e". Many F.L. learners find it difficult to decide which precedes which especially when they occur closely in words. The following device below may help overcome the trouble:

Write 'i' before 'e'

Except after 'C'

Or when sounded like 'A'/ei/

As in 'neighbour' or 'weigh'

This version of a systematic use of "i" and "e" in English words means that generally when the two letters occur together, the order is "I" before "e", for example (grief- relieve). However, from the two provided exceptions, in front of 'C' the order changes and 'e' comes first eg: conceive perceive; or when sounded like an "a"/ei/, also the order changes. Nevertheless, exceptions are many and when the "c" is pronounced like a 'sh'/S/, when the reverse order occurs, eg: 'conscience'. So, it's impossible to encounter all the situations, even though devices can be brought upon clarifying use and usage, the exceptions themselves may witness other exceptions too. From another linguistic point of view, another category can provide further information to be noticed by F.L. learners as memorable parts of the learners' Language experience. The table below shows some forms of the occurrence of the two letters "I" and "e" and how they behave accordingly with verb-noun derivations:

	Verb	Noun
e + i	-Conceive -receive -deceive -perceive	-conception -reception -deception -perception
i + e	-relieve -grieve -achieve	-relief -grief -achievement

Table: 4.2. A Sketched network of the spelling system (the letters: "i" and "e" as example).Adapted

The two groups of verbs differing in the occurrence of "e" and "i" do not have the same forms as far as nouns are concerned. The first group of words (e+i), the "i" is dropped in nouns, however in the second group, (i+e), both letters remain in the two categories. Naturally this is very helpful, but not possible without a fair knowledge of morphology.

Morphology, then deals with the way words are formed from small units called morphs. To be able to correctly spell distinct endings (ous/us –able/ible) entails an understanding of derivational morphology. A well-known example is through the orthographic distinction between-'able' and 'ible', they are pronounced alike (with a schwa). Let's consider the following examples:

*applicable-accessible

*considerable-perceptible

*estimable-compressible

*commendable-digestible

What makes it more difficult to decide upon which adjectival suffix (able-ible) to use, is the verb roots where no tint is provided. From a pure linguistic practice "truncation", linguists suggest the adding of the suffixes (able-ible) to the nouns not verbs. Thus, 'able' is added to the form of the noun with 'ation' (like: applicable-duration) and 'ible' is added to forms with 'ion' (like: accession- permission). So, the only way to drive the adjectives is from the nouns forms: including exceptions (edible neith a verb or noun form). Finally, about the so-called silent letters, it implies that certain letters in words though written are not articulated. In a language like English, a single letter does not provide a guide to pronunciation but the combination of letters does. In the letters 'ough' we find different pronunciations in different contexts (thought, plough, thorough, rough…). This is simply a matter of convention and has to be learnt as such.

4.4. Promoting F.L. Vocabulary Learning

(Intentional Learning VS. accidental learning: explicit vs. implicit)

Vocabulary is central to Language and of critical importance to our typical language learners. Our EFL Language students would be the 1st ones to tell us that a curriculum-wide commitment (Zimmerman, 1997) to vocabulary enrichment assists them in developing their Language abilities. Fortunately, for teachers and FL learners alike, most vocabulary growth takes place through incidental, that is, through exposure to comprehensible Language in reading and listening. The recognition of the importance of incidental learning does not preclude, however, the other ways where vocabulary learning can be promoted through direct teaching (Carter, 1998) EFL teachers, even if they are insatiable listeners and avid readers, do appreciate and benefit from explicit vocabulary instruction. Yet, through arrange of instructional activities, EFL students can actively and consciously expand their vocabulary knowledge. Of course, the explicit teaching of word meanings and discussions about words and their prefixes, suffixes and roots make integral part of meaningful instruction. Additionally, it should include dictionary exercises, word family activities, semantic mapping, semantic feature analyses, word association, synonym and antonym activities, cognate awareness exercises, and practice with lexical sets, classification activities and strategy instruction. In doing so, we are tracing principles for explicit vocabulary instruction planning as elicited by Stahl (1999):

First, research has demonstrated that vocabulary learning requires multiple exposures to new lexical items in various discourse contexts. Multiple exposures, of varying intensities and in diverse contexts, are meant to gradually lead to a large recognition and acquaintance of vocabulary. Some researchers claim that a minimum of 10to12 exposures is needed for learners to grasp the ( ) meanings and uses of the new lexical items. Further research findings assert that lexical competence is progressivelyconstructed by the repeated occurrence of a word within a variety of new contexts.

Second, research has revealed that elaborated vocabulary learning occurs when students make meaningful connections between new and already familiar words.

This expanded idea of new and known words allows for faster processing of semantically related words.

-Third, research has shown also that context can be a powerful influence on students' vocabulary growth; whereby learning words from context is a long-term process during which word meanings are slowly accumulated through exposure and acquisition. However, by means of explicit instruction, language teachers can learn more words in a shorter period of time.

To develop vocabulary learning skills and to internalize new words, there should be correspondence to different curricula objectives, such as: phonic elements, word form classes, grammatical forms, or spelling patterns, Hence, specific lessons are set to encourage the development of vocabulary learning strategies and to build students' vocabularies through explicit instruction, implicit Learning multiple exposures, and other typical opportunities are also set for making meaningful connections among words.

4.4.1. Interactive Vocabulary Activities in Language Classes

In many schools, students do not have the opportunity to take intensive vocabulary-building classes. As a matter of fact, words may be explained only in passing or Language learners may engage in some traditional activities such as, filling in blanks or matching words and definitions. However these activities are not enough for effective word learning. In this vein, Zimmerman (1997) indicates that interactive and communicative vocabulary activities can help better for word learning. She argues that if student'sreader listens to self-selected and assigned reading and listening passages and engage in activities that require them to use the vocabulary words they are learning while interacting with texts, these students will perform significantly better in vocabulary learning.

1. Assumptions

   Boyd Zimmerman (1997) outlines three important assumptions beforehand for vocabulary learning to occur.

a- Word learning is a complex task: The first assumption is important for teachers to acknowledge and for students to understand. Students should realize the important role vocabulary acquisition plays in all aspects for their Language learning. This awareness raising includes all aspects of word learning that can be easily identified as: part of speech, pronunciation, meaning(s), register, connotations, spelling, grammatical usage, context and so forth.

b- Some word learning occurs incidentally as a result of context-rich activities (such as: reading or listening): The second assumption relates to the source of vocabulary items. In the reading and listening classes (or simply put, language classes), we do not use separate vocabulary builders. Instead, all vocabulary words come from the context of the listening and reading passages.

c- Word knowledge involves arrange of skills, and word learning is facilitated by approaches that provide varied experiences (i.e. with reading, writing, speaking and listening): The third assumption stipulates that learning will be enhanced by giving students various types of activities with the words; that's why students must learn about the words in a variety of interactive ways.

2. Parameters: In Zimmerman's conducted study (1997), the following parameters are set and included in the design of any vocabulary lesson as follows:

-multiple exposures to words;

-exposures to words in meaningful contexts;

-rich and varied information about each word;

-establishment of ties between instructed words, student experience, and prior knowledge; and

-active participation by students in the learning process

3. 3E'S Design: Interactive vocabulary activities can be designed to fulfill the following 3 E'S design, as to mean exposure, expansion and expression. By exposure, we mean clarifying word meaning and illustrate appropriate usage.

Expansion means using the appropriate word form in context. Expression, then, means demonstrating word knowledge in either oral or written original expression using the target words.

While each of the three (cited above) purposes (3E'S) should be covered at each level of Language proficiency, the degree of difficulty and the proportion of class time spent on each activities will vary according to the level of students. In other terms, at beginning levels more time is spent clarifying the meaning or exposing students to the words. However, at high-intermediate or advanced level students are given more opportunities to practice and express themselves using the target words.

4. Types of Activities

Activity 1: *Discrete point Recognition of Differences:*
aim: Train students spot differences between words that are similar in appearance but different in grammar and meaning:
eg: dairy/daily, butter/better , quite/quiet
   Sew/saw ,   green/greed

Activity2: *Semantic Framing*
   Aim: Train students build a semantic frame to constitute later a larger schemafor related items.
Eg: levels of education: (fishman, sophomore, junior, senior, primary, secondary, undergraduate, graduate)
       -foods: (meats, vegetables, fruits)
       -books (kinds): (reference, fiction, nonfiction)
       -meats: pork/pig, beef/cow, mutton/sheep

Activity3: *Grammatical Changing of New Word Forms*
   Aim: Train students use their rudimentary knowledge of a word to explore other words of the same family having another grammatical category.
Eg: complete the table:

Noun	Adjective	Adverb	Verb
difference			
	national		

Activity4: *Oral* Production

Aim: Train students make the connections between how new words appear and how they sound. (Hear and see vocabulary).

Eg: minimal pairs: bin/pin   tool/cool

Silent letters   not/knot   write/rite

Activity 5: *Similarity and synonymy*

Aim: Train students use more than one item to vary the usage and avoid redundancy

Eg: elementary school –grammar school

-primary school

-grade school

- First level of formal education

Activity 6: *Differenciating Related vocabulary Items within a Set*

Aim: Train students assess which words they already know and which ones they must add to their individual word-lists (fine-tune of knowledge)

Eg: Is a lemon sour or bitter? (Initiate thinking)

Instruction: Give an example of a food that can be described by the following adjectives

Sweet- bland- bitter- pickled- salty- tasteless- spicy- rich- sour- plain- hot- heavy.

Activity 7: *Application Questions*

Aim: Train students to apply their understanding of the new items to expand a basic vocabulary list and distinguish between similar constructs

Eg: From a listening/reading text, list:

-Three entities that may have a motto

-Three symbols and what they represent

-Three situations in which you might be asked to take an oath.

Activity 8: *Generating Sets*

Aim: Train Students examine and practice their schema for certain constructs as a production activity.

Eg: Create cards for a variety of target frames, and then provide, in role-play, the specific vocabulary related to each category:

Frame1- countries beginning with C (60 seconds)

Frame2 –Equipment you need for camping. (60 seconds)

Activity9: *New Context Prompts*

Aim: Train students apply a set of vocabulary items to a completely new context (refinement and expansion)

Eg: Associate the more possible items to the following theme (→ disaster) → (plane crash), etc.

Destroyed- survivors- crashed- serious- fatal- fatalities- injuries- miscalculated- tragic- consequences- investigated- tallied.

The most important consideration is to spend enough time on vocabulary, because for students to learn a word they need many opportunities to see and use it. EFL student, know that vocabulary development is essential for them to learn English, but often they do not have a clear understanding of how to go about really learning vocabulary. Therefore, helping students understand how complex a task they are facing, giving them the tools to learn vocabulary effectively, and making them work with the words instead of simply going over fill-in-the-blank

exercises or correcting a matching quiz can help them develop more systematic and effective ways of learning vocabulary.

4.4.2. Significant Issues in Teaching EFL (not ESL) Vocabulary

Some practical aspects of teaching English as a foreign or second language interfere to constitute significant issues in certain contexts. These are mainly related to motivation of learners, the type of activities selected in the language classroom, the use of the learners' linguistic background and ways undertaken to approach the culture of the target language. All these issues are practically incumbent to the status of English in the particular context, i.e. EFL or ESL.

Students' motivation has been analysed and categorized in a variety of views. Yet, the effect-motivation has on teaching and learning –remains elucive because it is quite challenging to measure and connect. One useful framework of motivation posits the existence of two basic kinds: 'extrinsic motivation', which stems from a desire for an external reward, and intrinsic motivation, which consists of learning for personal reasons as an end in itself (Harmer, 1991).

However, the dichotomic aspect between the two types of motivation is somehow difficult. In this vein, Brown (2001) clarifies that "intrinsic/extrinsic motivation designates a continuum of possibilities of intensity of feeling or drive, ranging from deeply internal, self-generated rewards to strong, externally administered rewards from beyond oneself." (2001:75)

Practically, research has shown that students in ESL versus EFL classrooms can be characterized as having different levels of motivation, which only in turn effect how a teacher approaches these contexts.

ESL versus EFL motivation, though constituting a continuum and impossible to clearly separate, can be leveled with personal and purely individual drive and desire accordingly. As a case in point, in an EFL setting, intrinsic motivation can be low, and English may not seem relevant to the students since it is not part of their daily lives. In many

cases, they may be required to study English for a test or because it is a compulsory part of the curriculum (Brown, 2001). Adding to that, EFL settings often involve large classes and limited contact hours, which makes learning English an apparently insurmountable challenge (Rose1999). In this case (the Algerian case included), what options does a teacher have when his high (secondary) school or university class consists of 40 or more student and time allotted to English sessions per week is 1 hour and a half.

This kind of 90 minute-course which, commonly,is compulsory English study does not offer enough exposure to the Language. On reverse, in an ESL classroom, students are likely to have a higher intrinsic motivation because English is relevant to their daily lives. By being in the target language community, they have more opportunity to use English and see immediate results from using it. Typical students in ESL classes want to learn English for personal reasons, such as to communicate with a variety of people from other countries, and they want to learn the language for professional reasons, perhaps to get a better job. By contrast, many of EFL students, their motivation level can suffer when application in daily life is minimal. In the ESL context, many students have higher integrative motivation. In parallel though, Irie (2003) goes on describing the setting as "a desire to assimilate into the target language community." Commonly, these students have a need to improve their English in order to function in an English-speaking country. In addition to that integrative motivation, many of these students according to Irie,'2003), have also an instrumental motivation which stems from a desire to gain benefits, such as getting a better job or passing an exam.

Arguably, which motivation is most desirable for our EFL learners, then?

According to Brown (2001), convincing stockpile of research on motivation strongly favours intrinsic drives. Indeed, the intrinsic drive stems from a fro found human psychological need to grow progress and go forward. The students' motivation profile is to be taken in to account by specialist in pedagogy and teaching when they design a class to find

out ways to boast motivation when it is felt lacking. The first consideration to think of is naturally, age, which is one of the factors that surely informs about motivation profile. Unlike youngsters who are filled with full engagement in learning English. Older students, especially EFL learners may not care if they learn English when they perceive it as having no practical significance in their life. In fact, such EFL students are less likely to be motivated intrinsically to learn English. However, the teachers' role is highly recommended in using intrinsically motivating techniques which include multiple facets or tips of the language as follows:

-helping students see the uses of English in their lives.

-presenting them (the uses of English) with reasonable challenges.

-giving students feedback that requires them to act.

-playing down the role of texts (aural/written).

-appealing these texts to their genuine interests.

-tuning in to what the students are interested in.

-stimulating them to respond favorably to activities.

-Giving them choices in how they approach activities.

-helping them directs their own learning

-directing them to pursue their preferred learning style, (Brown2001)

On the other hand, these same EFL students who lack intrinsic motivation may have high extrinsic and instrumental motivation if their education system emphasizes the extrinsic reward of high text scores. These forms of motivation can still inspire students to work hard under certain circumstances. For example, when they know they are being evaluated on their oral speech, they will make efforts demonstrating the power of extrinsic motivation. In like manner, if learners have the opportunity or desire to learn language for its own sake, such as to become competent users of that language, they will have a higher success rate in terms of long-term learning than if they are driven by only external rewards.

In an EFL scenario, the teacher must deal with the fact that the students are not probably receiving any significant exposure to English outside the classroom. In a survey conducted by Brown (2001), 96% of EFL students claimed they had no interactive exposure to English other than through movies and music. Although movies and music can generate interest in the language and provide useful input, they do not provide the negotiation that two-way communication entails. Because of this lack of opportunity to practice English, teachers need to maximize fluency practice, getting the students to use the language as much as possible in class and reducing emphasis on accuracy. To this end, teachers need to be judicious in their selection of activities to ensure that students will use English. Therefore, activities that lack structure or which fail to generate students' interest, inevitably, lead most students to abandon English. Also, an activity that is interesting but too cognitively challenging will cause most students to resort to their L1. Below is a set of criteria that an EFL classroom actively ought to carefully select.

4.4.3. Criteria for Selecting EFL Classroom Activities

Any activity related to an EFL classroom ought to:

- Have a visible, clear and compelling objective,
- Have English use built into the logic of the activity,
- Not to be too cognitively demanding to manage in English, and
- Be interesting to the students.

Most importantly, among the cited criteria above, remains the sufficient exposure to the target language. In this context, Auerbach (1993) tresses the fact that' *the more students are exposed to English, the more quickly they will learn; as they hear, read and use English, they will internalize it.....'*. Nevertheless, additional input is portrayed also through the allowance of using the L1. This is good for establishing rapport with students' own background and linguistic knowledge. In this vein, too, Schweers (1999) insists on the fact that *'recognizing and welcoming their own language into the classroom as an expression of their own culture could be one way*

*of dispelling negative attitudes toward English and increasing receptivity to learning the language'(*1999:08). Additionally, limited and judicious use of the mother tongue in the English classroom does not reduce students' exposure to English, but rather can assist in the teaching and learning process and makes comprehension easier.

The cultural aspect in the language classroom has become controversial. Questions such as how to teach culture, whose culture to teach, the relation between language and culture, and what constitutes culture, all have fuelled large amount of research. What is sure above all, is that the way culture is approached in ESL classrooms differs considerably from EFL contexts. If significance is given to the target language culture in an ESL context, it is because that culture is present in the daily life of ESL learners. Therefore, with an increased awareness of the target language culture, students are better prepared to manage their engagement with native speakers. So assuming that the majority of ESL students have a high integrative motivation, teaching them about the target language culture would meet their needs. As posited by Marikainen and Duffy (2000), '*learning about culture diversity provides students with knowledge and skills for more effective communication in intercultural situations*' (2000:40).

Unlikely, the EFL context raises another questioning about what culture to focus on. Clearly, the L1 culture ought to be incorporated into the curriculum to help EFL students reflect on their own culture and be able to explain various features of it to others. By exploring their own culture, students acquire the vocabulary with which to describe values, expectations, behaviours, traditions, customs and rituals, forms of greeting, cultural signs and identity symbols familiar to them. Then, what about the target culture? True, the students are learning English, but the question remains, which culture should represent the English-speaking culture?

Nowadays, English as a foreign language is regarded as an international language (EIL), thereby, complicating the question of what constitutes the target language culture. In an EIL context, according to McKay, '*non-native speakers do not need to acquire the culture of native speakers of English because they are not living and interacting in the native-English-speaking context* (2003:1). Also, he adds, '*there is*

no necessity for L2 speakers to internalize the cultural norms of native speakers of that language because the purpose of teaching an international language is to facilitate the communication of learners' ideas and culture in an English medium.

4.5. Audio-Video Components in the Language Classroom

Language classrooms, nowadays, have largely benefitted from the continuous advance of ICT's in the world of language learning. It has become common sense that any learner, especially F. L. Learners should keep abreast with the new teaching brands provided by technology. More importantly, the rationale in constituting these language classrooms is to give equal opportunities for all learners to make use of the facilities since certain areas in the country lack such devices; and poor, rural and unintellectual communities and families will remain far from gaining profit if not incorporated in language laboratories for all. The other reason is to make learners appreciate the utility of using these technological devices in groups and with the help of a teacher who shows them the necessary strategies to overcome the usual impediments of listening and watching the input of the target language with more capacities of understanding. These input sources could be presented in the form of original-version films or songs. A third good reason to introduce these audio-video sources in the language classroom is the raise our learners' awareness about the different varieties of English (mainly British and American) and the different accents used here and there among native speakers within the same speech community(Scottish accent and north of London). This multitude of knowledge about the target language can be reached through a variety of sources which, at the same time, bring interest, fun and good learning of vocabulary in real context.

4.5.1. Language Laboratory

Language Laboratories are designed mainly as a teaching aid used to gain knowledge about as well as of spoken Language. Many universities and Language departments started using "listening rooms" where recorded voices of native speakers could be heard. However, advances in technical innovation helped develop the Language laboratory. The very start, of laboratory use,

Listening only since those versions did not contain pauses for repetition. Contrastively, the new Language Laboratories permitted repetition; incorporation of individual "Listening posts" and the possibility of individual recordings. The reach of a qualitative acoustic reliability was installed only when electrical recordings increased due to technological progress and more advanced technologies that have 'group' or 'conference facilities for inter-student communication. The inclusion of visual elements in Language laboratories dates long in the past with the provision of video monitors in each booth (log cabin). Nowadays, the combination of audio and visual sources has become routine. One of the controversial issues about the fact that Language Laboratories assist but do not replace the teacher, is the benefit of working under the supervision of a teacher. This is to say that though students can record their own responses and compare them with the master recording, they still do not always hear their errors only when these are explicitly pointed out by the teacher. Coming back to the advent of technology in Language Laboratory, the inserting of "the pauses" through a simple and significant adaptation in materials, has therefore, pauses a three-fold benefit:

a- to allow repetition after the model

b- to allow responses to questions on the recorded materials

c- to allow testing

In fact, pause technology facilitated the teaching of pronunciation, syntax and enabled the "drill" to become a much-used technique. This is meant to reinforce learning by the provision of correct responses after the students' attempt in the pause.

4.5.2. Media Resources and Foreign Talk

Sources of media include all the technology, ranging from tape-recorders to PC Labs. A multi-media approach gives the learner access to text, audio and video recordings. It provides the possibility of being interactive and having a degree of student autonomy.
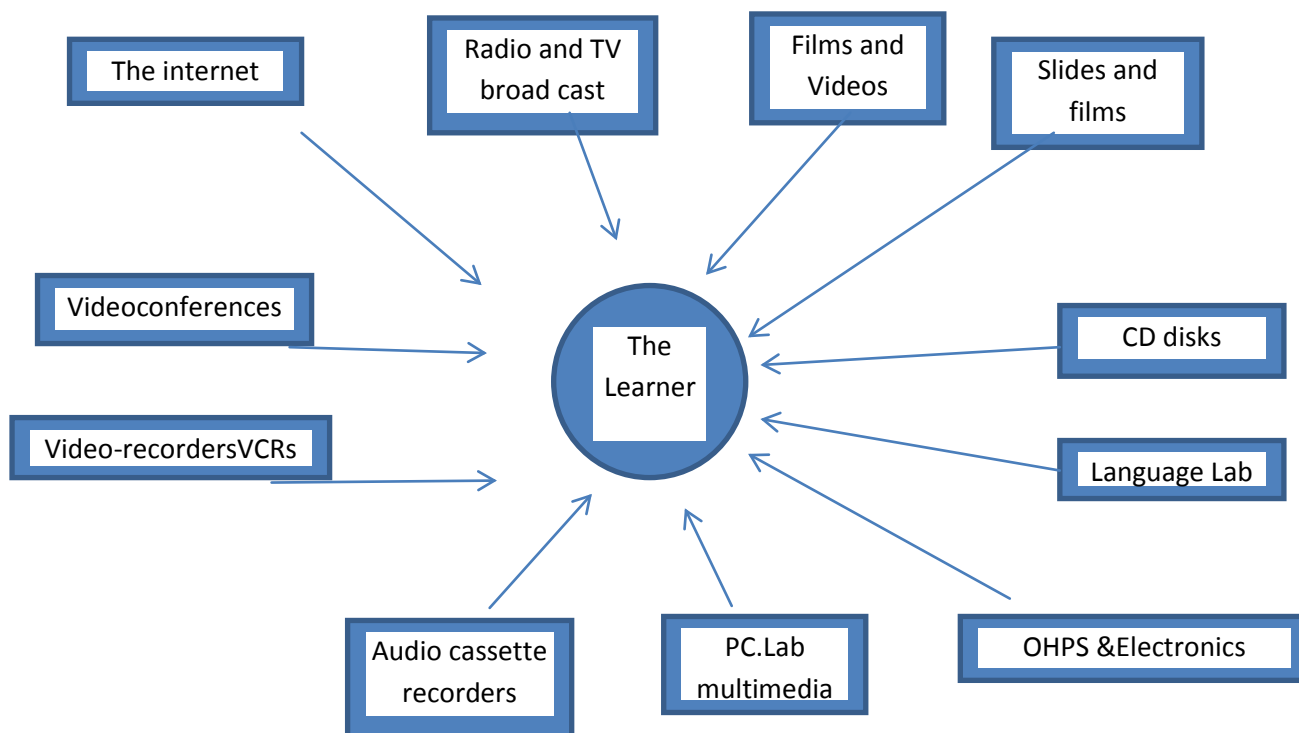
Figure: 4.1. Variety of Media Sources (adapted from daily practical English)

Foreign talk (F.T.) is, however, characterized by exaggerated, slow and loud pronunciation, as well as frequent pauses and repetition. At the structural level, the characteristic features of FT include omissions, expansions, replacements and rearrangements. (Ferguson, 1975)

a. Omission eg: *the definite article 'the'

*copula (the verb 'to be')

*coordinating and subordinating conjunctions

*All inflectional suffixes (plural markers, possessive markers third person singular's', etc.) eg: -do you understand?

-you understand?

*subject pronouns

b. Expansion eg: *reduplication, eg: He is working with me

He with me. He works with me.

*Addition of subject 'you' to imperatives

Eg: you come and see me tomorrow.

*Use of tags, eg: yes? Ok? See? No? it is right?

c. replacements and rearrangements eg:

- Replace all negative constructions by 'no' preceding the negated item
- Replacement of negated items by non-negative equivalents
  Eg: don't forget……..Remember, ok?
- Analytic Paraphrase, eg: My/ your brother…….. brother (to) me/ you

Replacement of nominative subject pronoun 'I, he, she,' by "me, him"...

Apart from these grammatical properties, F.T. is also characterized by frequent Lexical substitution eg:

- Understand……..savvy
- Tomorrow………..next day
- Always…………all (the)time
- Father…………...dad

Simplification of the target Language is a strategy used by foreign learners to make the learning and speaking easier. Such simplification at the level of use (omission of copula 'to be, eg: they in bed) can even become fossilized errors.

4.5.3.Films in the EFL Classroom

Nobody would deny that we are bombarded by the media and visual images. By the mere click of a Finger, we can get access to remote lands and Faraway people on our TV set or computer screen. Giving visual messages a place in the Foreign Language curriculum is an interesting and entertaining way to enhance the learner's command of the target Language, and the messages available through Film offer a refreshing change of routine in the classroom. Until recently, the use of films in foreign Language teaching has been down-played because teachers felt they were time-consuming and too difficult to tackle. Yet, with the spread of video equipment and audio visual resources into educational institutions, the use of films is becoming more common. Good films can serve as a valuable pedagogical aid, both for classroom use and self-study. The ultimate goal is to arouse sensitivity in the learner and to provide a stimulus to stretch his imagination and creativity.

The power of films as a medium is acknowledged by all. In content-based syllabus, for instance, a particular film can be used to vividly illustrate situations which are unfamiliar or inaccessible and provide the learner with a stimulus which serves as a spring board for further discussion of an issue. Besides, film is an excellent medium for the explicit teaching of syntactic, morphological, semantic and pragmatic aspects of the foreign Language. Another advantage is that Language structures and Lexical items are used in communicative situations, and propositional messages are fleshed out with quasi-authentic realism. There is also a wealth of non-linguistic and cultural information that can be exploited and focused on with appropriate assignments.

There are such obvious advantages in using films that it is easy to forget some possible hindrances. It may be disheartening for the language learner not to understand every single word, but even native speakers may fail in this. The student must be encouraged to get the global idea in the first place, and only in some instances should he be asked to concentrate on single chunks of Language.

Films allow for constant reinforcement in the acquisition of a foreign Language. They, also, provide a good medium for self-study and offer learners the

possibility of thinking critically as well as using their imaginations. Moreover, Films contribute not only to the development of inferential skills but also to aesthetic appreciation (music, tricks, and special effects) of the film. Apart from being faced with Language, the learner is confronted with the socio-cultural environment in which the film is set. However, the selection of films remains the most important step in the process and constitutes the biggest challenge. It can be used on thematic content to reinforce and consolidate topics treated within the syllabus, such as: racism, mass media, education, work,etc….Selection should be very careful especially with respect to accent since some problems may arise. Comprehension may be hindered by dialectal varieties of the Language used by the characters. So, when choosing a film, decisions on subject matter should be based on well thought out criteria since it may go beyond the learner's linguistic and conceptual competence and may not be in keeping with his needs and interests. The students' age and psychological maturity must be taken into consideration when making a choice, and care should be taken so as not to offend the learners' sensitivity.

……..The duration of the film is another aspect to be kept in mind. As for long films, a thorough planning is required to divide the filminto severalviewing sessions with pre-viewing and post viewing questions.

Some rules of thumb are, then, given below:

*The whole film can be brought into discussion to check and promote global unders, and explicit and hidden messages.

*The selection of two or three crucial lines from the script and ask the learner to analyse them in the light of the whole plot.

*The exploitation of grammatical and functional aspects of the language: expressing opinions, asking the way, expressing condolences, proposing, persuading, arguing, etc.

*The rich source of idioms provided within films is all beneficial since the provided context facilitate the understanding of idioms.

*The exploitation of films in Language classroom is adaptable. I.e. the choice of the film according to the learner's level of proficiency and conceptual competence and the design of tasks are the teacher's crucial role.

The possibilities for using films in the foreign Language classroom are endless. Films present slices of life, and as such, provide a realistic, authentic and entertaining way of improving the learner's command of the Language.Films add fun and involvement to the Language classroom.

4.5.4. Songs in Promoting Vocabulary and Comprehension

Song can be used successfully for teaching English. They are invaluable aids in developing students' listening skills. Besides, there are many advantages to using songs in the classroom: First, they are easily available; second, they present new vocabulary and expressions in context; and thirdly, students become familiar with the pronunciation of native speakers.

Most importantly, songs provide a break from the text book and classwork routine. However, the main difficulty in using songs as a teaching aid lies in choosing the most suitable ones that fit students' age, interest, aptitudes and that care about any cultural stock.

Choice: Music and songs are constantly played on the radio, on TV, in downtown stores, in shops and supermarkets, through internet sites and within home appliances (Hifi, tape recorders, mobiles…).Such widespread exposure has made of the song a big part of our lives. It has invaded almost every corner of the word, exposing millions of people to Western culture and values. Its impact on our lives cannot be denied.

EFL students enjoy learning English through songs. As they learn the lyrics to songs they have been listening during classroom sessions, they discover their meaning and the right way of their articulation. Yet, the teacher must choose carefully the song to be presented. The suitability of the song depends on how well it fulfills the purpose of teaching new material. The Lyrics should be easily discernible. Each word must be clearly pronounced. The vocabulary must be rich and varied. The

song, must, essentially, carry some so at of message or at the very Least. Tell an interesting story like Kenny Rogers' The Coward of the County'. The ideal song used in the classroom is, then, the song written primarily for the Lyrics to be listened to not a song featuring sounds to be danced to. From here, we may prioritize the solo artists who are essay to listen to and to understand, like; Bob Dy LAN, Paut McCartney, Rod Stewart. This is not to say that all solo artists are good candidates for the listening comprehension exercise. Some, though solo, are difficult to understand because of the special accent, the tone or simply rapid pronunciation, like, Bob Marley …or Michael Jackson. So, for a pertinent choice of the category of songs in the Language classroom, the teacher should avoid:

-songs that are too fast-paced

-songs in which music buries the singer's voice

-songs in which there is no substance to the lyrics

-songs that verge on the obscene or that include lyrics that are discriminatory (racial,   religious…)

If done as proposed above, a big amount of songs is left that is valuable and appealing to the students. What is sure, if the teacher chooses wisely among the luge number of songs available, he will come across quite a number of little treasures? This treasure discovery will constitute the topic of discussion according to the subject matter of each song. There are songs about friend ship, growing up, growing old, love, politics, and storytelling.

All in all, the whole process, within a language-class session, might take up to one hour. It is common knowledge, that students who relax and have fun while learning do learn more. Exploring and discovering the essence of a song adds to students' enjoyment of and interest in the English language.

What makes it more difficult to decide upon which adjectival suffix (able-ible) to use, is the verb roots where no tint is provided. From a pure linguistic practice "truncation", linguistic suggest the adding of the suffixes (able- ible) to the nouns not

verbs. Thus, 'able' is added to the form of the noun with 'ation' (like: applicable-duration) and 'ible' is added to forms with 'ion' (like: accession- permission). So, the only way to derive the adjectives is from the nouns forms: including exceptions (edible: neith neither a verb nor a noun form). Finally, about the so-called silent letters, it implies that certain letters in words though written are not articulated. In a language like English, a single letter does not provide a guide to pronunciation but the combination of letter 'ough' we find different pronunciations in different contexts (thought, plough, thorough, rough…). This is simply a matter of convention and has to be learnt as such.

4.5.5. English Varieties: raising EFL Students' Awareness.

Knowledge about the diverse varieties of English is lacking among EFL student in general. They are unaware that people in countries like Britain, the United States, Australia and New Zealand speak unique varieties of English. Also, they ignore that language variation exists within each country due to different regional and social dialects. (Eg: cockney of London, Scottish accent, Black vernacular…)

Additionally, they often do not know about the related issue of language styles. The latter issue refers to the fact that all individuals adjust the formality of their speech depending on whom they are taking to and the context. Many Algerian students who received their English instruction in Middle and Secondary schools (at least six years) do not seem to recognize how English is used and treated in the global community. For example, many of our students do not know the major countries where English is spoken, what variations exist in those countries or how English became an official language in countries like: India, or Nigeria. As a result, because standard British English is the only model they are usually exposed to in the classroom in Algeria, students risk developing the mistaken impression that everyone in the world speaks that variety throughout the world and in all situations. Studying vocabulary and grammar and practising the four skills are obviously essential, but students may form a limited or one-sided view of the English language if they are not given the opportunity to know about the language from a sociolinguistic point of view

To our EFL students truly wish to master the English language, there is a perennial benefit need to look the language from a purely social asset which is portrayed below as:

1-A basic understanding of sociolinguistics is important for English learners who wish to take full advantage of job opportunities in the new global economy, where they will undoubtedly encounter different varieties of English. Learning about different varieties of English will broaden their knowledge of the language.

2-Once students study the topic, they learn that one variety of English is not superior to another variety and then, they will develop increased to clearance for speakers of other varieties

3-Additionally, they will have a good understanding about the role of global English and will be aware of important issues such as multi-lingualism and the functions of English as an international Language.

Voluntarily on the behalf of language teachers, 'English around the world' should be established in the language classrooms to raise students' awareness of varieties of native and non-native English (es) that are spoken in countries around the world. There are in fact three categories which are based on Kachru's (1985) three overlapping circles: (1) the Inner circle which consists of countries where English is used as a primary Language such as the United kingdom; (2) the Outer Circle which consists of countries where English is used as a second Language, such as Nigeria; and (3) the Expanding Circle which refers to countries where English is studied as a foreign Language, such as Algeria. In fact, these Englishes differ from each other; but by no means non-native varieties of English should be regarded as inferior because they are as intricate and effective a linguistic system as native varieties (Kachru, 1985). Most proper to astonishment but realistic is the diverse aspects of English in the one country. This is an urge to familiarize students with the types of English language variation that occur within countries. Otherly, posed, in any country, regional and social factors will affect how English is spoken. In this sense, Trudge (2000) posits that dialects are also influenced by social factors such as class, age, and gender and that dialect are closely related to each dher. Another role urging

teachers to shed light on is the concept of language style.Students should be aware that people can easily switch from an informal to a formal type of speech, depending on the situation. All speakers of a language have this ability to shift styles. Arguably, when it comes to cite English as an international Language, it crystal clear to state the other Languages pertaining more than 100 million as native speakers, noting that Chinese Language comes first, followed by English (the international Language (EIL) perse), Hindu and Spanish (Aneki.com2004) The reason English is the major Language used worldwide in such fields as science, business, aviation and sports is not due to linguistic superiority to other Languages, but simply the U.K and the USA have been powerful militarily , politically and economically for the two past hundred years or so (crystal, 1997). From a logic reasoning, using English as an international Language helps create inequality between native speakers and non-native speakers of English in many ways (Phillipson, 1992).

The two main varieties of English are: *British and American*

There are a number of differences between the two varieties at the level of pronunciation, in vocabulary, spelling and slight ones in grammar.

There are some common US words with their British equivalents

| **Travel and on the Street** | | **In the home** | |
American	British	American	British
-gasoline	-petrol	-antenna	-aerial
-truck	-lorry	-elevator	-lift
-baggage	-luggage	-eraser	-rubber
-sidewalk	-pavement	-apartment	-flat
-crosswalk	-zebra crossing	-closet	-ward robe
-line	-queue	-yard	-garden
-vacation	-holiday	-drapes	-curtains
-parking lot	-car park	-flashlight	-torch
-trunk (of car)	-boot	-cookie	-biscuit
-hood (of car)	-bonnet	-candy	-sweets

-freeway/highway	-motorway	-bathroom,	-toilet, WC
-round trip	-return	restroom	-rubbish
-one way car	-single	-garbage, trash	-chips
-subway	-railway carriage	-French fries	-nappy
	-underground	-diaper	

Table: 4.3. Some of the US and British equivalent lexical items (Adapted)

4.6. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

A mere definition may state that these are techniques used by second/Foreign Language Learners for remembering and organizing samples of the target Language. Some researchers, then, claim that learning strategies contribute to F.L. development. In principal, learning strategies should be distinguished from another kind of strategy: 'communication Strategy'. The latter is the use of a given technique for maintaining or repairing a dialogue with an interlocutor. Such strategies have a good probability of ensuring successful communication. The controversy between the two kinds of strategies lies in what follows. If an L2/FL speaker hears a word that he does not know, and asks the interlocutors for an explanation, this strategy is to make sure the communication is successful, or it is a learning strategy (because as a result of adopting it the learner learns a new word)?

Recent work on learning strategies has attempted to classify accordingly, the trends of strategies of behaviour, mental and cognition.

In 1989, Skehan proposed, in this line, three broad domains covered by learning strategies:

1) Those which determine the learner's personal involvement in the learning process (these are behavioral strategies: seeking learning opportunities, setting aside regular practice time, etc.)

2) Those which enable the Learner to sort and organize the L2 data (these are cognitive strategies: searching for patterns, mentally recalling and rehearsing L2/FL patterns,etc.)

3) Those which cause the learner to monitor his progress (these are cognitive strategies: for example checking performance against that of native speakers).

Some findings of strategy research are summarized by Ellis (1994)

-strategies appear to change as learners become more advanced.

-successful Language learners appear to use more strategies than less successful ones

-successful Language learners pay attention both to meaning and form

-different strategies may contribute to different aspects of L2/FL proficiency

-Learning strategies used by adults and children appear to differ: children use more socially-oriented strategies, adults use more cognitive ones.

4.6.1. Measurements for F.L. proficiency

There are two broad areas of ability in F.L Learning:

1)-knowledge of the structural properties of the F.L and the conditions under which it is used

2) -the capacity to access that knowledge for real-time use

In other terms in case (1) a learner has to construct mental representations for F.L sounds, lexical items, syntactic structure. However, in case (2), a learner has to develop the ability to access these representations accurately.

Tests which aim to measure proficiency in knowledge of the linguistic system have come to be known as "system-referenced tests (Vs. performance-referenced).

Therefore, one of the curliest examples of a system-referenced testing procedure is outlined through the intersection of some linguistic knowledge (phonology, lexis, syntax, discourse) with the four perceptual channels of aural and visual comprehension (listening and reading). So, any system-referenced tests of proficiency should therefore measure each of these dimensions separately

Typical examples of the kinds of tests used from this perspective are:

*Testing whether subjects are able to distinguish 'minimal pairs'of phonemes by presenting them aurally with words like: bit/beat, pit/bid and asking them to identify them.

*testing subjects' syntactic knowledge in production by asking them to transform one sentence into another which means the same, eg: He kicked the ball. / The ball….

*testing subjects' syntactic knowledge in comprehension by giving them a multiple choice test in which they have to choose the sentence which sounds most natural, eg: Tests like these are known as 'close-response' tests or 'discrete-point' tests, because they attempt to measure proficiency in specific areas of competence where there learner is forced to respond on carefully selected types of F.L knowledge. Once responses are recorded, they are then measured either against the responses of other F.L learners or against the responses of native speakers on the same test.

The fact that these tests focus mainly on carefully selected types of knowledge has led many researchers to use a battery of tests consisting of both discret-point/close-response and holistic tests.

4.6.2. Modification Vs. simplification of Codes

The actual form and scope of native speaker modifications to learners depends on a wide range of factors, such as speech style, type of discourse, social and cultural context, and the personal characteristics of the speaker.

However, that typical kind of modification should predominantly hold a grammatical and well-formed utterance that's why it should also include:

a-<u>Morphology and syntax:</u>

 -shorter utterances

-semantic transparency

-canonical word order

-overt marking of optional grammatical relations

-greater use of present tense and adverbials of time

-avoidance of certain tenses and conditionals

-overt, formulaic framing of certain types of utterances (definition)

b-Vocabulary: -frequent use of neutral and concrete vocabulary.

 -avoidance of idioms and slang

 -Higher percentage of copulas to other verbs

C-Discourse. Several discourse strategies identified in native/non-native classroom talk are aimed at giving learners a better understanding of teacher talk (repetition, pauses), an easier way for participating in classroom interaction (preponderance of 'yes-no' questions), use of topics relevant to the immediate situation, and expansion by native speakers of learner statements.

Although, the exact effect of the use of modified/simplified code of F.L. Learning is not easy to pin point, its function is believed to ease the learning task of the learner by accommodating to his level of understanding. In like manner, Bingham Wesche (1994) insists on the fact that simplified codes and simplification are closely related to L2/FL acquisition/ learning; and that simplified/modified Language is used in the teaching process to ease the learners' efforts to participate in classroom interaction and comprehension.

4.6.3. The Promotion of effective Learning procedures

Background research stipulates, in very simple terms, the awareness-raising of an individual understands both of the language he is learning and of himself as a learner. From a basic research view, it concerns the training of the learner in what have come to be regarded an effective Learning strategies; and from another philosophical/tactical perspective, the training for independence and autonomy of the learner. In this respect, Dickinson (1988:48) states three necessary components for the training purpose of a learner:

a- training in processes, strategies and activities

b- instruction designed to heighten awareness of the nature of the target Language;

c- instruction in aspect of the theory of Language Learning;

All of which are designed to help learners understand how to learn. This kind of learners, who actually, appears to be effective Language learners, is identified through a large body of empirical strategy research having the following characteristics:

- setting personal goals

- taking 'risks' in the target Language; being willing to try things out and make errors,

- trying different Learning strategies and choosing the most suitable;

- organizing time and resources

- actively rehearsing new material;

- Using initiative outside the classroom.

The above listed characteristics of effective Language Learners are sets of very broad caracteries; however, specific areas (listening comprehension and/or vocabulary acquisition) can be associated to specific studies incorporated with a wide range of strategies and sub-strategies.

The promotion of effective Learning procedures and the development of learner's independence and responsibility for their own successful learning are two distinct instructional goals. Ellis and Sinclair (1989) advocated the principle of applying learner-strategy research leading merely to an autonomous philosophy with the learner training courses. It goes without saying that individuals use awide variety of different ways to learn, and that effective self-management of learning is fed by knowledge about learning and Language. This is to say, that learners should be provided with the foundations for making their own informed choices. This could be in the form of a self-training manual. There are mainly two stages: a)-At first, learners are brought to be aware of their own characteristics, attitudes, needs and priorities; b) The other stage takes them through a process of skills training, covering

the four skills plus vocabulary and grammar acquisition. In the same line of thought, Dickinson (1988) presents a three-system level for methodological implementation as follows:

1- Level1: concerns the overall approaches to learning

2- Level2: concerns the superordinate and generalized procedures formulated as abilities (eg: task objective- self-assessment- cooperative work…)

3- Level3: concerns the sub-strategies required for acquiring specific skill areas, such as: listening for gist and the like.

Nowadays, a number of course-books writers have begun to deal explicitly with learning strategies as well as with skills and Language content. It may include activities based on the notion of good Language Learner and leading to efficient dictionary use, vocabulary search and acquisition, willingness to ask questions and to take risks. However, the teacher's role is skill broadening in parallel both in creating an environment in which "learning how to learn" can be fostered and also being aware, as a teacher, of the learning strategy background. In this sense Mc Donough (1995: 172) points out: "Although learning strategies… and strategy training are very important elements in the teaching-learning process, great care has to be exercised in moving from a descriptive and taxonomic position to an interventionist one"

4.6.4. Strategies for Receptive Vocabulary Learning

If a teacher wishes to prepare his learners for the vocabulary they will meet, he may teach them the vocabulary itself or he may teach them strategies for dealing with the vocabulary items. For gaining the targeted procedure, there are two quite different strategies which allow learners to deal with new vocabulary with a minimum of assistance from the teacher. The first is a strategy for learning words in lists and the second is a strategy for interpreting words using context clues. Though, the whole research has been based on the principle of contextualizing the learning of vocabulary, learning isolated words could also help as an alternative technique leading, primarily, to learning autonomy and self-engagement. The latter is sketched out below:

4.6.4.1. Strategy One: Learning words in lists

Learning lists of words has been unfashionable among many language teachers for quite a long time. However, learners, working on their own, frequently use this technique. In addition for over a hundred years psychologists and researchers on language learning have examined how such learning can be most powerfully carried out.

One of the great fascinations of learning lists of words is that large numbers of words can be learnt in a very short time. Without too much effort, learners can master well over thirty foreign-word /mother-tongue word associations per hour (Nation, 2003). Experiments have shown that some learners are capable of amounts of over one hundred associations per hour. Moreover most of this learning is still retained several weeks afterwards. Nation's research (2003) shows that some ways of learning from lists are more efficient than others. So, there are many useful learning tips that teachers can pass on to their learners and give them practice in applying them. Among these useful guidelines, there are three tricks of reasonable benefit to our EFL learners and to our linguistic situation:

(1) Learning is more efficient if the foreign word form is associated with a word in the language learners already know (*déja-vu* vocabulary) rather than a foreign synonym or definition. In this vein, French, in Algeria constitutes a logical cognitive resource for that (see appendix 15: false friends and linguistic affinity). However, overuse can lead to misuse and faulty interpretation due to the negative transfer.

(2) Each word form and its translation should be put on a small card with the foreign word form on one side and the translation on the other. This is much more efficient than setting the words out in lists in a book or on a sheet of paper. Firstly, the learner can look at the foreign word and make an effort to recall its translation without seeing the translation. Secondly, the learner can re-arrange the cards so that he is not using the sequence of the words in the list to help recall. Thirdly, he can put the words which give him most

difficulty at the beginning of his pile of cards so that he can give them extra attention.

Piles of these cards are easily carried around and they can be studied whenever the learner has a free moment.

(3) Much more important than the number of repetitions or the amount of effort put into the learning are the foreign word and its translation. One of the strongest and yet most effective techniques for associating a foreign word with its translation is the "keyword" technique. The more striking or unusual the image, the more effective it is. This image then is the linking association between the target word and the other word because it contains a clue or key to the sound of the foreign word and it contains the key to the translation of the foreign word. The numerous experiments on this technique have shown that when the repetitions are the same, twice as many successful association are made when using this technique than when using a simple rote learning technique. So teachers should show their learners how to make strong mental associations between a foreign word form and its translation. The correlations can be made more useful if, at the same time, they stress some important data about the target language environment or linking devices. A very remarkable example would be the words "fog" and "ambiguous". The representation is done through the simple picture of 'London' which too often 'foggy' and then vision is dim (not clear). The given association can provide learners with a quick translation once the picture or even the name of 'London' is presented. The keyword technique is one way. The use of word analysis by breaking the foreign word into prefix, root, and suffix is another (see appendix: 9). In such analysis it is often only necessary to know the meaning of the prefix in order to make a useful association between a foreign word and its actual interpretation. Finally, the learner should look carefully at a foreign word he wants to learn to see if the shape or sound of the wordwill provide a way of making a strong association with its translation. It needs to be stressed that learning words in lists is only the first step in mastering new vocabulary. Eventually the learner needs to know much more about a word

than can be learned frommemorizing its equivalent translation provides a useful basis for this future learning.

4.6.4.2. Strategy Two: Guessing words from context

Once learners know around two to three thousand words they can use the reading skills they have developed to infer the meanings of unknown words that they meet. Some readers can do this without any particular training, but those who cannot do it can easily be taught a strategy which will quickly enable them to guess most of the unknown words they meet. This strategy is basically very simple. It begins by getting the learner to look closely at the unknown word, next to look at its immediate context, and then to take a much broader view of how the clause containing the word relates to other clauses, sentences or paragraphs. After guessing, there is a simple system of checks to make sure that the guess is the best possible. Once learners have mastered the steps of the strategy and have practiced guessing words by systematically going through the steps, it is no longer necessary to apply all the steps. That is, the strategy is just a means of acquiring the unconscious skill that an efficient reader already has.

Let us look at the steps involved in the strategy and then apply them.

Step1. Look at the unknown word and decide its part of speech. Is it a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb?

Step2.. Look at the clause or sentence containing the unknownword. If the unknown word is a noun, what adjectives describe it ? What verb is it? That is, what does this noun do, or what is done to it?

If the unknown word is a verb, what nouns does it go with?

Is it modified by an adverb?

If it is an adjective, what noun does it go with?

If it is an adverb, what verb is it modifying?

Step3. Look at the relationship between the clause or sentence containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs. Sometimes this relationship will be signaled by a conjunction like but, because, if, when, or by an adverb like however, as a result. Often there will be no signal. The

possible types of relationship include cause and effect, contrast, inclusion, time, exemplification, and summary. (See Nation 1979, for a fuller lit)

Step4. Use the knowledge you have gained from steps 1 to 3 to guess the meaning of the word.

Step5. Check that your guess is correct.

1. See that the part of speech of your guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word.

   If it is not the same, then something is wrong with your guess.

2. Replace the unknown word with your guess. If the sentence makes sense, your guess is probably correct.

3. Break the unknown word into its prefix, root and suffix, if possible. If the meanings of the prefix and root correspond to your guess, good. If not, look at your guess again, but do not change anything if you feel reasonably certain about your guess using the context.

Experience has shown that using affixes and roots alone as a means of guessing meanings is not very reliable.

Also, once a word has been analyzed according to its parts, this guess at its meaning is more likely to result in twisting the interpretation of the context than allowing interpretation of the context to modify the guess of the meaning. So, by leaving the use of affixes and root until the last step in the strategy, the learner is more likely to approach interpretation of the context with an open mind.

Let us now apply the strategy to guess the meanings of two infrequent words. The following paragraph is taken from <u>A Higher Course of English Study</u> by Ronald Mackin and David Carver (London: Oxford University Press 1968: 45-50).

Chinese spectacles were regarded as objects of *reverence* because the rims of tortoise-shell came from a sacred stone. People wore them at first not so much to aid eyesight, or for curing eye-ailments, as for good luck, or for

the dignity which they *bestowed* on the wearer. Sometimes even empty frames were worn as a mark of distinction.

*Reverence (line1)

    Step1. 'Reverence' is a noun.

    Step2. Spectacles are objects of reverence. If, because of the 'ence' suffix, we guess that revere might be the verb? We could say

        People revere spectacles.

    Step3. Because indicates a cause-effect relationship.

The causes are the rims of tortoise-shell came from a sacred and symbolic animal and the lenses were made from sacred stones. The effect is Chinese spectacles were regarded as objects of reverence.

    Step4. Reverence seems related to sacred and symbolic so it probably means something like religion or holiness.

    Step5. (1) Like reverence, religion and holiness are nouns.

    (2) Spectacles were regarded as objects of holiness. Spectacles were regarded as objects of religion. The first substitution seems the best.

        (3) re-ver-ence indicates the word is a noun. The prefix and root do not help at all.

The dictionary says that reverence means feelings of deep respect. Holiness is close enough to this: 95% correct.

*Bestowed (line3)

Step1. Bestowed is a verb.

Step2. Spectacles bestow dignity on the wearer.

Step3. It indicates that there are alternatives. The other alternatives are:

Good luck and curing eye-ailments which are desirable things, so we can conclude that bestowing dignity is also a desirable thing.

Step4. 'Bestowed' probably means 'gave' or 'put'.

Step5. (1)'Gave' and 'put' are verbs

(2) Spectacles put dignity on the wearer.

Spectacles gave dignity on the wearer. Except for the awkwardness of both words, it seems suitable.

(3) (Be- -stow- -Ed). No help here.

The dictionary gives, "put, place": 100% correct.

There are several ways of practising the strategy for guessing words in context. The one I favours is to get pairs of learners to choose a word that they do not know from the passage. They work on the steps together and then describe the steps to the rest of the class. The teacher gives them a percentage grade for correctness as in the examples above.

Guessing words in context obviously leads on to dictionary work. Unless the learner already has a reasonable idea of what a word means he will be unable to choose the most suitable meaning from those given in the dictionary. Using the dictionary could be the fourth way of checking in Step5.

A Final Word

The two strategies described above complement each other. Learning words in lists is useful where a large amount of vocabulary needs to be learned quickly, for example in the early stages of language learning and where learners are going to begin reading in a new field. The strategy of guessing words from context assumes a knowledge of most of the words that make up the context and although successful use of the strategy can occur even at fairly high densities of unknown words to known words, it is better if the unknown vocabulary load is not too heavy.

4.7. Testing: A Way to Overcome the Notorious Aspect of English

True is the reality of the English notorious aspect where the lack of conformity between pronunciation and spelling completely misleads rather than helps foreign learners. The best that can be done is to, naturally, intensify the exposure of the target language to the learners in the form of written scripts and spoken messages simultaneously so as to help first, the spelling recognition and then, help appreciate accordingly with the written discourse, the phonological perception. Such strategy, if conducted thoroughly and followed by quick tests and quizzes at the two levels of language proficiency: pronunciation and spelling, then learners can witness progress in the language production level (writing and speaking correctly) and at the perception level (comprehending written and spoken texts). These tests provide self-confidence and further engagement to tackle more complicated tasks leading to language proficiency.

4.7.1. Benefits of Testing Pronunciation.

Through a mere observation of the present situation in the educational field of foreign language teaching in the Middle and Secondary education levels in Algeria , the evaluation of learners' pronunciation is not given the place it deserves. Unlikely, it is supported by the fact that the purpose of testing pronunciation is only to evaluate knowledge and award grades; but in fact and most importantly, testing of how our FL learners do pronounce the target language is felt necessary to motivate students to be sensitive to this notorious aspect of English. Given that the motivation of many of our EFL learners is instrumental rather than integrative, pronunciation tends to be neglected by many learners (and some teachers alike) as long as they know they not be tested on it, unless in the oral production module.

Obviously, pronunciation is tested globally in different types of conversational exchange, interview, reading aloud, etc. The lacking notion in testing pronunciation is accurate correction that goes back to detailed aspects of segmental (vowel, diphthong, consonant, stress…) and supra-segmental features related to linking, juncture, assimilation and intonation, though belonging typically to colloquial, rapid speech. This insufficiency is due to two main points. First, many

teachers do not consider it useful to test specific features (only teachers of the phonetics module do). Their attitude is based on the belief that the mastery of specific features, taken individually, does not matter much in real-life situations where the context provides the cue for the learner to interpret what he hears (Heaton, 1988) or to make himself understand even if the ideal quality of phonemes is not reached. For more emphasis of the fact, Heaton continues to stress that ' *it is possible for people to produce practically all the correct sounds but still be unable to communicate their ideas appropriately and effectively. On the other hand, people can make numerous errors in both phonology and syntax and yet succeed in expressing themselves fairly clearly'* (Heaton, 1988:88). The second, and surely more important, causeis the particular difficulties involved in testing oral skills. One of the greatest problems in oral testing is the administration of the test to an over-crowded language classroom. Third world countries where English is taught witness flagrant rarity in testing equipment like laboratories and multi-media tools. Even when such material is available, testing may be rendered impossible by the lack of enough space for all learners, or by the lack, very often, of basic facilities like electricity.

A further difficulty in oral testing arises from the limited instances FL learners are exposed to a test of oral production, adding to that the long established routine of being directed, for a long time, only to written exams and tests (Brevet and Baccalaureate exams are vivid examples of such). However, the ideal way of testing pronunciation is to actually listen to the learner. But since this is not always possible or suitable, let's consider it as part of reaching language proficiency and then raising our EFL learner awareness about the discrepancies between spelling and pronunciation of the English language, hence overcoming the notorious aspect of the language.

4.7.2. Dictation: A Sample for Testing.

Given that speaking and listening are interrelated skills, dictation remains one of the ways of testing the learner's pronunciation. This testing method is based on the assumption that, most often, if the learner has a deviant pronunciation of a word, he will not understand it when it is read with a different pronunciation. For example, if a

student's pronunciation of the word 'sword'is [swo:d]; s/he will not understand and therefore, not spell it correctly once read in RP as [sod]. Obviously, a dictation exercisemay appear in different forms. First, it may consist of a whole passage incorporating the target words to be tested. It may also consist of a set of individual words incorporating the segmental or stress features being tested. A third interesting type of dictation consists in a close test. The testee is given a text from which the target words have been removed and replaced by blanks; the examiner reads the full passage and the testee fills in the blanks with the words he has heard (perception skill). One precaution to take here is that it should be as neutral as possible; a context that is too supportive will elicit the correct word even if the student's pronunciation of it is faulty. This type of close test shows systematically the fact that students' spelling mistakes were caused by their deviant pronunciation.

4.7.3. Testing segments

In addition to the various forms of dictation formulated above, there are many listening activities designed to test the learner's ability to discriminate phonemes or groups of phonemes. Below are given some of the illustrating examples:

a. <u>Same or different?</u> The testees listen to a pair of words or pair of sentences and indicate whether they are the same or different, e.g., (minimal pairs):

*suck, sock/ sick, seek

*but, bat/ bit/beet/ bet, beat

*hut, hurt/ hit, heat/ hat, hot

*is that my <u>pen</u>? / is that my <u>pan</u>?

*he was severely <u>beaten</u> by his wife. / he was severely <u>bitten</u> by his wife.

The exercise can also be done by showing the testees a setof pictures corresponding to words that elicit contrasting sounds.

b. <u>a or b(or c)</u>: a multitude of sound-discrimination tests can be grouped under what can be broadly termed an a or b (or c) test. For example, the testees arte shown pictures eliciting the following words:

1. a. sock   b. sack   c. suck

2. a.cat   b. cut   c. cart

3. a. court   b. caught   c. cart

The examiner says, for example:

1. sack

2. cat

3. court

The testee writes the letter corresponding to the most appropriate word; i.e., 1.b; 2.a; 3.a. The exercise, in which the list can be reduced to minimal pairs, can be done without pictures, though they are useful because of making the class more lively.

c. Which definition? A word is read twice, and several different definitions, includingone that is correct for the word, are given. In here, the testees are asked to select the correct definition for the word heard; e.g.,

*bought- bought

a. a vehicle that moves in the sea.

b. past participle of 'buy'

c. coordinating conjunction

* hid- hid

a. not to like [hate]

b. placed where it cannot be seen

c. knock

This type of exercise has the extra advantage that it tests vocabulary at the same time.

d. Which ones are the same?: the testees listen to a list of words and mark the ones that are the same

*bit- bit- bide

*pot- pot- port

e. fill the gap: the testees listen to a sentence and select from a set of words the ne they hear; e.g.,

1. Did you see the -----you were looking for?

a. people b. pupil c. purple

2. He died at the age of-----

a. forty   b. fourteen   c. thirty

f. <u>phonological alternations:</u> Lists of words are given to testees requiring them to select alternatives of pronunciation that exist in the RP English with indication to varieties of US pronunciation. Alternates are presented as follows: [s-z-iz], [t-d-id], [ng-n], [ain- ait- in- it], [ʃ- ³]

The activity is purely an aural-oral practice that goes beyond the sound recognition to semantic correlation. It is conducted as shown below:

*[s-z-iz]

Books, schools, cats, churches, students, plays, James'

*[t-d-id],

Wanted, added, jumped, robbed, increased, showed, carved.

*[ng-n],

Finger, singer, hanging, prolongation, prolonging

*[ain- ait] or[in- it],

Catherine, Muscovite, acolyte, finite, masculine, infinite, valentine

*[ʃ- ³]

Version, invasion, conclusion, Persian, division, coercion, tension, casual, measure, mansion

*[ks] or [gz]

Maximum, taxi, exit, Texas, exhaust, taxonomy

4.7.4. Perception Tested

Can we speak, sometimes, of other kinds of testing the pronunciation of our EFL learners without being obliged to go through the listening process first?

The answer is plausible by turning to testing the learners' ability to perceive and identify segments through the use of several writing tests, essentially not combining listening. These include the controversial phonetic transcription exercises, finding odd members out of a set, regrouping, matching, and many other miscellaneous types:

a- Phonetic transcription:It may be useful that many EFL textbooks for Middle and Secondary education use phonetic transcription (in respectively the books On the Move, 2006; or New Prospects, 2004). This new tendency has divided teachers' opinions as to the relevance of using phonetic symbols for just beginning learners of a foreign language. For, the main impediment would be the possibility to teach and test phonetic transcriptions. The reluctance of many teachers is due t the fact that they themselves cannot cope with the exercise. A simplistic method would be interesting and enjoyable on the behalf of (beginning) students if they have a good introduction to phonetic transcriptions of the words they really know and actually master. More than that, the requirement is then, only partial transcriptions so as they enjoy the quick exercise in the long run. For example, students can be gradually introduced to the sounds of English and eventually be made to transcribe specific sounds in a word. They can, then, attempt such tasks as "transcribe the sounds represented by the underlined letters":

journey, peasant, favourite, penal, southern.

b- Finding an odd member

This activity requires from the testees to set of words in which one word has a sound that differs from the others. Thus, the instruction can be as such: "in each of the following setoff words, three words have the same sound and one does not. Write down the number and the letter of the one that does not.

1. a. dull   b. bull   c. wool   d. pull
2. a. warn   b. dawn   c. scorn   d. barn
3. a. pour   b. poor   c. sure   d. tour

c- <u>Regrouping</u>

Instead of specifying, the learners are conversely asked to group the words that hold the same (phoneme) sound, a vowel or a consonant either. The following list of words is not exhaustive but rather illustrative: let, say, gene, quay, meat, rate, maid, says, said

d- <u>Matching:</u> Repeatedly, the learners when looking at a set of words, they try to match words that have the same sound. This exercise is similar to the one above, but the words illustrating the key sounds are suggested and the learners are asked to find from the list words that have the same sound as the following:

<u>Cut, pot, push</u>

<u>Tin, than, thatch</u>

List of words

Sw<u>a</u>mp, b<u>u</u>ffalo, c<u>oo</u>k, <u>o</u>ne, sw<u>a</u>llow, b<u>o</u>som, c<u>ou</u>ntry, squ<u>a</u>nder, b<u>u</u>sh

<u>Th</u>ing, <u>Th</u>ames, ei<u>th</u>er, al<u>th</u>ough, <u>th</u>ree, Ma<u>th</u>ilda, clo<u>th</u>es, <u>Th</u>eresa, clo<u>th</u>

Matching is also conducted from a mere correlation of similar rhymes of words given to students. It is instructed as follows: "*match words that rhyme with*"

Cat, lone, tore, poor, here, pair, respectively

Joan, plait, bat, mere, tour, clear, rare, pour, chair, share, roar, known, sure

e- <u>Miscellaneous ways of testing pronunciation:</u> these ways include certain recommendations asking learners to circle silent letters. It is worth noting that silent letters in English words, though an important reminder for the language morphology and phonology, shouldn't be overemphasized. The typical matter lies in the spelling recognition of certain words, such as: know, whistle, handsome, etc. Altogether, this is a pertinent practice for phonetic appreciation of not pronouncing certain written letters that may confuse many of our EFL learners who are accustomed to do the revere with the already existing 'Indo-European language'- French. The typical instruction should, therefore, be: '*circle the silent letters in the following words*'

Barber, psychology, climb, ewe, knowledge, bombing, Leicester, island, borough, sword, muscle, enough, ough, finished

Above all, the teacher should be convinced that pronunciation which can be tested in different ways, could only help in preparing the FL learner to well perceive the sounds of the language and naturally help in the recognition of the spelling of the English language though notoriously known to be in disconnection between its spelling form and the way it is articulated. The targeted procedure to help reduce the gap is to introduce pronunciation tests whenever possible; like end-term tests, official exams, and preferably, weekly quizzes with rewards. More interestingly, all lexis used for different modules (be it general or technical vocabulary) should be analysed phonologically.

4.8. Act Strategy: Samples of Vocabulary Knowledge

In due course, the application of different samples correlates with a treasured possession at the reach of our EFL learners. Though seemingly controversial, these acts of strategy application vary in content and method of use, and then reinforce the vocabulary retrieval through a variety of procedural helps or samples:

4.8.1. Sample One:Understanding Types of Context Clues

*Context Clue1: *definition or Restatement*

The meaning of the vocabulary word is in the sentence itself usually following the vocabulary word.

Eg: Jack's duplicity-crafty dishonesty-caused him to steal his co-worker's pensions by funneling their money into an offshore account.

*Context Clues2: *Synonym*

The sentence uses a similar word to help explain the meaning of the vocabulary word.

Eg: The baseball coach punished the team's duplicity or deceitfulness after they admitted to using steroids to boost their batting averages.

*Context Clue3:*Antonym /opposite/contrast*

The sentence uses a word with an opposite definition to give the meaning of the vocabulary word.

Eg: It was your duplicity that caused me break up with you! Had you been honest, I wouldn't have felt the need.

Eg: Unlike my last employee who had integrity to spare, you have nothing than duplicity and will not receive a recommendation from me for another job.

*Context Clue4:*Example or Explanation*

This type of context clue uses examples (1) or explanations (2) to help the reader infer the meaning of the vocabulary word.

Eg (1): His duplicity involved lowering his employees' salaries, increasing their stock options, and then stealing the money he saved by doing so.

Eg(2): I was aghast at her duplicity when he stole my diamond earnings, sold them to e Bay and lied to me about it all the time.

Sample Activities

Text:

After the first day on the job, the bank's new manager realized he would be busier than he had been led to believe. Not only was he assisting the bank tellers with their work, but his new boss had decided to inundate him with other tasks like creating security systems, managing the bank's deposits and refunds, securing Loans, and maintaining the daily operations. The new manager was exhausted as he locked the bank up for the night.

Sample activity 1: The word "inundate" from the passage is closest in meaning to:

1-overload

2-provide

3-assault

4-underwhelm

Hint: away to figure out if your choice is correct is by putting the   answer choice in the sentence in place of the vocabulary word. Which one fits the intendedmeaning the best?

You're right. It's "overload" the first choice is the best pick, although "assault" is a close second.

Sample activity 2: Try to determine the meanings of the following italicized vocabulary words, based on the context clues in the sentences.

1-Pablo always showed *animosity* toward his teachers by throwing spill balls and mouthing off, but his sister Mary was kind and sweet.

2-The little girl was showing signs of *ocular* problems-she squinted to read the blackboard and complained of headaches after working on the computer for too long.

3-The crowd rewarded the singer with *plaudits,* or extreme praise, by clapping and cheering during a standing ovation.

4-Elena's *repudiation* of Jerry's bad table manners was obvious to everyone at dinner as she dropped her napkin and left the table.

5-From the far past to the present day, the moon has been thought to cause *lunacy*. Some studies have shown that this momentary insanity does have some association with moon's phases.

6-The old man's hair was *sparse* rather than thick and full like it was when he was young

7-Janie was a *devout*as the Pope himself

8-My sister kimmy shows a great *abhorrence* for crowds, whereas my little brother Michael loves to be the center of attention

9-When you *admonish* someone, you point out his or her errors; an example would be scolding a child for misbehaving.

10-The sorcerer's *minions*, or devoted followers, were willing to perform any sorcery he could conjure.

11-Ninety-seven pairs are a *superfluous*number of shoes.

12-The spy was hung at the gallows of his homeland for his *perfidious* deeds.

13-Busy as bee as quiet as a mouse is*hackneyed* phrases-they are used all the time.

14-Amelia was as *pretentious* as a princess when she arrived to the party. She landed out her coat to the hostess, and grabbed a drink out of a nearly guest's hand.

15-We always listen to my great-aunt because she is *venerable,* but we ignore my niece's advice because she is only six.

The following answers conjure up with the types of clues handed by the sentences as follows:

Type of clue	Item	equivalents
Contrast	Animosity (# kind)	Hostility- enmity-rancor
Explanation	ocular	Visual-optical- ophthalmic
Example	Plaudits	Approvals- appreciations
Explanation	Repudiation	Denial- rejection- refusal
Synonym	Lunacy	Insanity- madness
Opposite	Sparse (# thick)	Thin- light- bare
Example	Devout	Fervent- heartfelt- sincere
Contrast	Abhorrence(# center of	Detestation- disgust-
Example	interest	hatred
Explanation	Admonish	Reproach- scold- chide
Synonym	Minions	Followers- assistants
Explanation	Superfluous	Excessive- needless
Example	Perfidious	Disloyal- dishonest

Example	Hackneyed	Clichéd- commonplace
contrast	Pretentious	Pompous- showy
	Venerable (# only six)	Respected- esteemed

Table:4.4. .Types of clues and vocabulary retrieval in sentences

4.8.2. Sample Two: Interesting Tips about Vocabulary

Below is another suitable variety of interesting procedures leading to acknowledge, recognize and apply the proposed samples for vocabulary retrieval.

4.8.2.1. Scales of Formality

Formality is all about your relationship with the person you're speaking or writing to. If you use formal Language, it may be because you wish to show respect, politeness or to put yourself at a distance. Informal Language can show friendliness, equality or a feeling of closeness and solidarity with someone. You should never use informal Language just to sound fluent or clever.

Below is a group of words put on a scale from formal to neutral to informal

Formal	Neutral	Informal
-offspring	-children	--kids
-abode/residence	-house/flat	-place
-goodbye	-bye- bye	-bye or cheerio
-alcoholic beverage	-drink	-booze
-go amiss	-go wrong	-go-pear-shaped

Table: 4.5. Scales of formality (some common expressions)

4.8.2.2. Using Slang appropriately

Slang is extremely colloquial Language.Slang helps to make speech vivid, colorful and interesting but it can easily be used inappropriately. Although slang is mainly used is speech, it is also often found in the popular press. It can be risky for someone who is not a native speaker to use slang, for two reasons.

First, some slang expressions may cause offense:

E.g.: policemen=cops vs. Pigs

 E.g.: drunk=sizzled vs. pissed

Second, slang words date very quickly. A good instance is about the expression" wonderful" used by different generation: pre-war=top-hole, 1940s=wizard1960=Fab, groovy; 1970s=ace, cosmic; 1980s=brill, wicked; 1990s=cool, class

Note: It could be possible to work out a native speaker's age from the expressions which they use, as people tend to stick with the slang expressions of their youth

Below, is a list of words and expressions, representing common slang use.

-Expressions for money: dough, bread, dosh, loot, brass, readies

-Expressions for the police: pigs, Fuzz, cop (pers), bill

-Expression for drunk: pissed, pi-eyed, paralytic, legless, arsehold

-Expressions for stupid: Wally, prat, wanker, jerk, dickhead, plonker pillock, dork, clueless, out-to-lunch, don't know hisarse fromhis elbow

-Expressions for lavatory: loo, lav, bog, John

-Expressions for drink: booze, plonk (wine), a bevvy

-Drug-related expressions: affix, dope, grass, high, stoned, snow (heroin)

-Prison-related expressions: nick (prison), nark (informer), screw (warder). (Oxford: 2003)

Note: Slang is more utilized in films and tabloid press where passive vocabulary (knowing) is needed for comprehending. Avoid keeping slang with your active vocabulary.

4.8.2.3. Newspaper Headlines

News editors in Newspapers try to catch the reader's eye by using as few words as possible. Language use is unusual in what follows:

- Grammar words like articles or auxiliaries are often left out
- A simple form of the verb is used
- The infinitive is used to express the fact that something is going to happen.

Newspaper headlines use a lot of distinctive vocabulary. They usually prefer to words that are shorter and sound more dramatic than ordinary English words. Below in the table, illustrations are given with meaning.

Newspaper word	meaning	Newspaper word	meaning
-aid (*)	Help	-key (adj)	-essential, vital
-axe (*)	-cut, remove	-link (*)	-connection
-back	-support	-move(*)	-step forward a desired
-bar (*)	-exclude, forbid	-ordeal (noun)	-painful experience
-bid (*)	-hempt	-oust (verb)	-push out/remove
-blast (*)	-explosion	-plea (noun)	-request
-blaze (*)	-fire	-pledge (*)	-promise
-boost (*)	-incentive,	-ploy (noun)	-clever activity
-boss (*)	encourage	-poll (*)	-election,publicopinion
-head (*)	-manager, director	-probe (*)	survey
-clash (*)	-dispute		
-curb (*)	-restrain, limit	-quit (verb)	leave, resign
-cut (*)	-reduction	-riddle (noun)	-mistery
-drama	-tense situation	-strife (noun)	-conflict
-drive (*)	-campaign, effort	-talks (noun)	-discussions
-gems (noun)	-jewels	-threat	-danger
-go ahead	-approaval	-vow (*)	-promise
-hit (verb)	-affect badly	-wed (verb)	- marry

The words marked with (*) can be used either as nouns or verbs

Table: 4.6.Newspaperwords and their meaning. (Adapted from Oxford: 2003)

4.8.2.4. Abbreviations in Headlines

1) Some abbreviations are read as individual letters: (Note: The stress Falls on the last letter: she works in the CIA, I heard it on the BBC).

WHO [W-H-O] World Health Organization

ID   Indentity (an identity card or passport)

BBC   British Broadcasting Corporation

GM (o) Genetically Modified Organism

IRA   Irish Republic Army

UN   United Nations

PM   Prime Minister

MP   Member of Parliament

CIA   Central Intelligence Agency

2) Some abbreviations are read as words (acronyms)

NATO /...../ North Atlantic Treaty Organization

OPEC /...../ Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries

AIDS /...../ Acquired immune Deficiency Syndrome

PIN /....../ Personal Identity Number (for a bank or credit card)

Laser /....../, radar /....../, yuppy /....../, Esso /....../

(These have become normal words and no longer used as abbreviations)

Mr. (Mister) Dr. (Doctor) St (Saint) Pr. (Professor)

(These are always pronounced as full words).

Etc. /...../ and so on [Latin et cetera]

i.e. /…….../ that is to say [Latin id est]

e.g. /………. / for example [Latin exempli gratia]

Nb /………/ please note [Latin nota bene]

RSVP /…………. /please reply [French; « répondez s'il vous plait »]

4.8.2.5. Homonyms:

A very large list of words in English is homographs or homophones. If a word that you read or hear in English seems strange in its context, it may well be because it is not being used in the sense that you are familiar with. Use a dictionary carefully to check for extra meanings.

Here are some of the many examples of homophones in English

HOMOPHONES			
Air/heir	Tyre/tire	Tea/tee	Sole/soul
Faze/phase	Weak/week	Toe/tow	There/their/they're
Hoarse/horse	Aloud/allowed	Weather/whether	Waste/waist
Meat/meet	Flu/flew	Break/brake	Whine/wine
Pane/pain	Its/it's	Grate/great	Fare/fair
Practice/practice	Mown/moan	Lays/laze	Groan/grown
Rein/rain	Pair/pear/pare	Our/hour	Mail/male
Sight/site/cite	Pray/prey	Peal/peel	Pale/pail
Steak/stake	Right/rite/write	Raise/rays	Scene/seen
	So/sew	Sale/sail	Some/sum
			Through/thaw
			Wait/weight

Table: 4.7. Some common homophones in English. (Adapted)

4.8.2.6. Vocabulary Used in Describing Character

To know more about the vocabulary usage in different functions, let's bring some of the necessities any foreign learner of English will need to approach

communication in that language successfully. Most often the language user is asked to introduce himself or another person not only in terms of physical appearance or daily activities but can go further describing the psychological and moral traits of a person. These personality qualities are prescribed below to be used in describing a character as follows:

a. Intellectual ability

-*Having ability*: intelligent, bright, clever, sharp, shrewd, able, gifted, talented, brainy (colloquial)

-*Lacking ability*: stupid, foolish, half-witted, simple, silly, brainless, daft, dumb, dim, (the last four are colloquial).

-Clever in a negative way: tricky, deceiving, cunning, crafty, sty

b. Attitudes towards other people:

-Enjoying others' company, sociable, gregarious

-Disagreeing with other: quarrel some, argumentative

-Taking pleasure in others' pain: cruel, sadistic

-Relaxed in attitude to self and others: easy-going, even-tempered, laid back

-Not polite to others: impolite, rude, ill-mannered, and discourteous.

-Telling the truth to others: honest, trustworthy, reliable, and sincere

-Unhappy if not having what others have: Jealous, envious

c. Context-bound characteristics

Some characteristics can be either positive or negative depending on a personal point of view and the context accordingly. Below is a list of features (right Colum) having roughly the same meaning as the words in the left collumm. Left - Colum words (with asterisk*), however, have rather negative than positive connotations

-Determined ⟶ obstinate, stubborn, *pig-headed

-economical ⟶ thrifty, stingy, mean, tight-fisted, *miserly

-confident ⟶ self-assured, self-important, *arrogant, *full of oneself…

-original ⟶ unconventional, eccentric, *odd, *peular, *weird

-Frank, open ⟶ direct, blunt, abrupt, *brusque,* curt

-Broad-minded ⟶ , permissive, loose, * unprincipled

-inquisitive ⟶ inquiring, *nosy

-generous ⟶ loose, *extravagant

-innocent ⟶ naïve, *stupid

-ambitious ⟶ pushy, *desirous

-assertive ⟶ bossy, *aggressive

4.9. Language Testing Perspectives

As it will be clearly stated just below, different types of test items are exposed to figure out a variety of purposes with language test accordingly. These Language tests can be used for a multiple set of test aspects going from diagnostic, achievement to proficiency tests to achieve, particularly, the following points:

- To find out where learners are experiencing difficulty so that something can be done about it (diagnostic tests)
- To see whether a recently studied group of words has been learned (shot-term achievement tests)
- To see whether a course has been successful in teaching particular words (long-term achievement tests)
- To see how much vocabulary learners know (proficiency tests)

So, what kind of vocabulary test is the best? The key answer is held in the hands of the test maker who should always consider the purpose of the test, the kind of knowledge it will try to measure and the conditions under which it will be used. However, before establishing a final test about the learnt vocabulary so far given in a period of time, there should be eminent consideration of the content of the teaching vocabulary course. The pedagogic reason arises from certain principles defining the goals and the learners' needs requiring other parameters as format, content and sequencing.
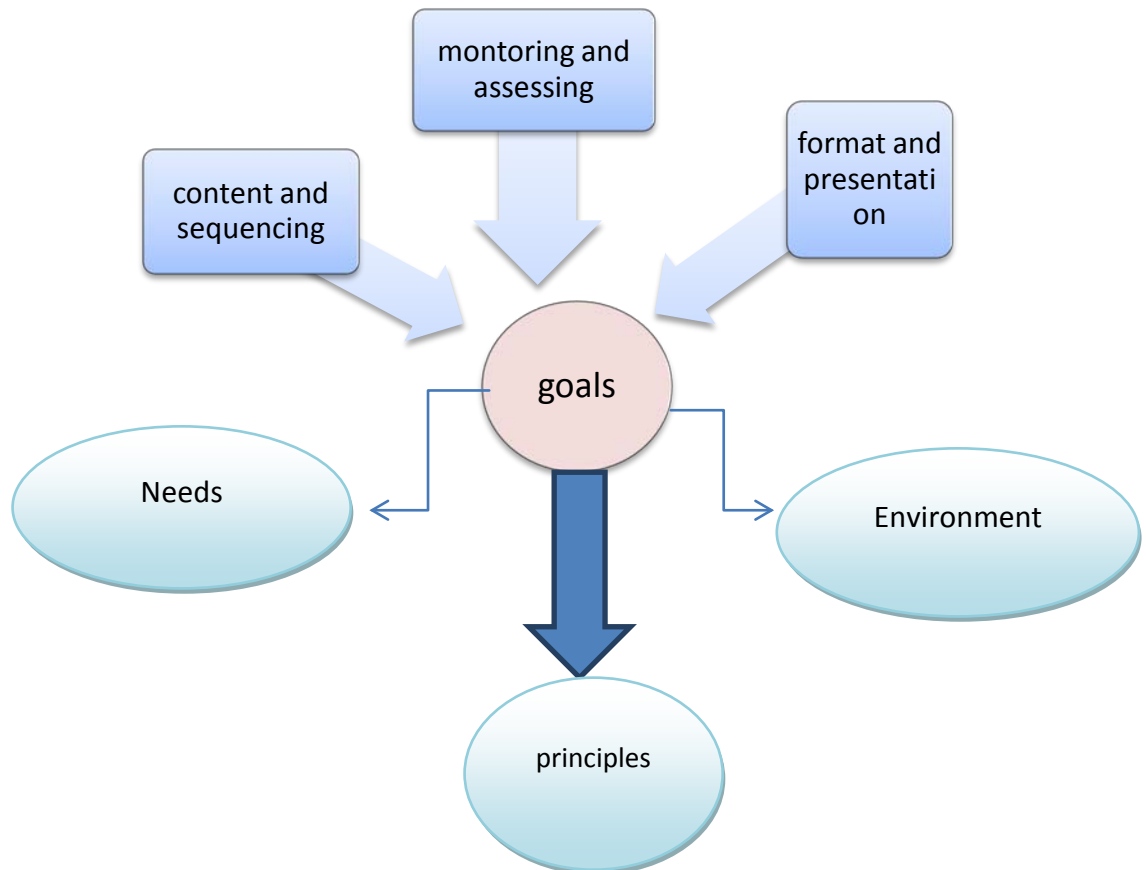
Figure: 4.2. A traditional model of curriculum desing of vocabulary Component(Nation,2000b)

The above diagramme stipulates that testing vocabulary is an overall process starting primarily from the design of the vocabulary course. It should be principled

and not done at random for the sake of acquiring new items. The reason behind is that any learning must represent a goal, meet some of the needs of the learning population, and most importantly exhibit interest and motivation on the behalf of our EFL learners if and only if these lexical items are leveled with their capacity of comprehension and future use. In the same line of thought, if the content is rather excessively long and filled with many unknown words, the best trick is to split the whole into separate stretches to keep interest, make recall, and enhance motivation whenever the same content is re-approached. A very good experience has been achieved through the presentation of the long text of 'Martin Luther King' or the other text of 'Eleanor Roosevelt' where the longish format of the texts expelled the material user in class to split the content into two equal presentations: the first as a prelude of known characters in English-speaking countries, and the second part as a follow up keeping interest, continuity and motivation.

Vocabulary learning is one of the major challenges foreign language learners face during the process of learning a language. One way to alley the burden is to assist students in becoming independent learners during the process of L2 vocabulary learning. This could be achieved through instructing learners to apply vocabulary learning strategies as efficiently as possible.

Vocabulary is central to language and is of great significance to language learners. Words are the building blocks of a language since they label objects, actions,ideaswithout which people cannot convey the intended meaning. The prominent role of vocabulary knowledge in second or foreign language learning has been recently recognized by theorists and researchers in the field. Accordingly, numerous types of approaches, techniques, exercises and practice have been introduced into the field to teach vocabulary (Hatch&Brown, 1995). It has been suggested that teaching vocabulary should not only consist of teaching speci words but also aim at equipping learners with strategies necessary to expand their vocabulary knowledge (Hulstjin, 1993, cited in Morin and Goebel, 2001).

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 learns 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.

Hence, based on the significance attributed to vocabulary learning strategies in the process of vocabulary learning and enhancement, the present paper aims at proposing a framework for vocabulary strategy instruction in English as a foreign language (EFL) context. To this end a brief account of various taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies and a rationale for training students in vocabulary learning strategies are initially presented. Then, some required considerations to be taken before initiating the strategy training as well as the techniques for training EFL students in vocabulary learning strategies are presented. Finally, some pedagogical implications are proposed for EFL teachers.

4.9.1. Taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies

Word knowledge is an essential component of communicative competence (Seal, 1991), and it is important for both production and comprehension in a foreign language. Knowing a word involves knowing:

- A great deal about its general frequency of use, syntactic and situational limitations on its use
- Its underlying form and the forms that can be derived from it
- The network of its semantic features and
- The various meanings associated with the item.

<div align="center">(Richards, 1976)</div>

Knowing a word is also defined as knowing its spelling, pronunciation, collocations (i. e. words it co-occurs with), and appropriateness (Nation, 1990).Therefore, lexical competence is far more than the ability to define a given number of words and covers a wide range of knowledge which in turn requires a variety of strategies to gain the knowledge. Foreign language learners may then use various strategies to acquire the target language word knowledge. Taking this into consideration, second and foreign language researchers have made various attempts to classify vocabulary learning strategies employed by foreign and second language learners (F1SLL). Instances of such classifications are the taxonomies proposed by GU and Johnson (1997), Schmitt (1997) and Nation (2001) which are briefly discussed below.

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. F1SLLs 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-talking 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 items 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	**Cognative**	**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 list, repetition, etc. *Encoding: Association (imagery, visual, auditory, etc.)	*Using new words in different contexts

Table: 4.8. Suggested strategies for vocabulary retrieval (adapted from Schmitt: 1997)

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" (p. 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 relation 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 list, 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 if it is not" (Schmitt, p.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.

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

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scales and grids (Nation, 2001, p.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 words in different context through four skills are also defines 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.

4.9.2. A rationale for vocabulary learning strategy training

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. 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, p.1). Research has also demonstrated that there is a relationship between strategy use and success in second or foreign language learning. For instance, Cohen and Aphck (1981, cited in Chamot, 2001)taught students of Hebrew to remember vocabulary items by making paired mnemonic associations and found that those who made associations remembered vocabulary more effectively than those who did not.

In another attempt, Sanaoui (1995)carried out a study to demonstrate the relationship between vocabulary strategies use and success in acquiring and retaining vocabulary items. The study demonstrated that adult learners of L2 vocabulary were likely to fall into two categories: Those who adopted a structured approach to their learning and those who did not. Learners in the first group took control of their vocabulary learning. They did not merely rely on what the language course provided them with. They used their own initiative in regularly creating opportunities for vocabulary learning by listening to the radio, watching movies, reading and using self-study.

They kept systematic record of vocabulary they learned by using vocabulary notebooks and lists. They reviewed what they had done several times a week. However, the learners in the second group who followed unstructured approach relied mainly on course material. If they made lists of vocabulary items, they did not review them and they occasionally lost them. Sanaoui concluded that students who had a structured learning approach were more successful in retaining the vocabulary items taught in their classrooms than learners who had an unstructured approach. The research suggests that helping learners gain control over processes for managing their own lexis an important task in vocabulary learning and teaching in L2 classrooms.

Thus, going through the literature, one encounters empirical evidence that strategy use will result in more effective vocabulary acquisition and recall among L2 learners. This, in turn justifies why teachers should embark on strategy training. Moreover, the significance of strategy training is pointed out even by scholars who believe that context is a major source of vocabulary learning. These scholars have expressed their concern over how well students can handle context on their own. Therefore, they have strongly emphasized the teaching of specific learning strategies to students so that they can effectively learn from context (Coady, 1997).

4.9.3. Some considerations 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, and language modality. Besides, are, accordingly of significant importance: 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). After these issues are settled, teachers can adopt an appropriate framework for training students in using vocabulary learning strategies. Below is an instance of such frameworks which seems to fit the EFL context in Iran.

4.9.4. 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 leaners 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 doing speaking activities with my classmates?, Am I comfortable with analyzing word part?, 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 ontheir 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 & 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 & Vanhil, 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, p. 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.

4.10. Choosing a Test Item Test

The choice of a particular type of item should depend upon the following criteria:

1- Is the knowledge required to answer the item correctly similar to the knowledge that you want to test? If the test is an achievement test, then it should reflect the knowledge taught in the course. Thus, similarly, asking learners to make sentences using words is not suitable if the aim of the course is to develop reading vocabulary.

2- Is it easy to make enough items to test all the vocabulary you want to test? If the teacher is spending hours on a test that learners will complete in a short time, something is wrong. For this reason, traditional multiple-choice questions (items) are often unsuitable.

3- Will the items be easy to mark? If the teacher plans the layout of the test carefully with marking in mind, a great deal of time can be saved. For example, if a matching lexical cloze test is used, typing it with double-spaced

will make it easy to make a marking key with holes cut in it to fit over the answer sheets. Similarly, if the place for the learners to write their answers is clearly indicated, marking becomes easier.

4- Will answering the item provides useful repetition of the vocabulary and even perhaps extends learners' knowledge? It is not usually a good idea for a test item to be an exact repetition of what occurred in the course. Because using Language is a creative activity which involves understanding and using words in new contexts. Unless learners can do this, we cannot be sure if useful learning has occurred. For example, when testing knowledge of prefixes, it is a good idea to test the prefixes in unknown words which are made of known parts as shown in (appendix:9). Then, learners cannot rely on memory but have to use their analysis skills. When getting learners to do a matching lexical cloze, the passage should be one that learners have not seen before, even though it is made up of known vocabulary and constructions. (Nation, 2001: 372). So, if teachers use such tests skillfully and very often, they can have a significant effect on vocabulary learning.

4.11. Conclusion

In the present paper it was 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.

GeneralConclusion

Vocabulary is not a developmental skill or one that can be seen as ever fully mastered. The expansion and elaboration of vocabularies-whether speaking, listening, reading or writing-can be expected to extend across a lifetime. It is difficult, if not impossible, to separate, vocabulary from comprehension. Therefore, consideration is becoming evident as it concerns the nature of vocabulary in relation to the diversity that is present in many current-day classrooms.

Words represent complex and, often, multiple meanings. Furthermore, these complex and multiple meanings of words need to be understood in the context of other words in the sentences, paragraphs of texts (written or spoken). Not only are students expected to understand words in texts (passages), but also texts can be expected to introduce them to many new words.

Afirst consideration in delineating the construct of "vocabulary" is that individuals have various types of vocabulary that they use for different purposes. So, simply put, failure to distinguish among the different kinds of vocabulary can lead to confusion and disagreement about research findings and their implications. Generically, vocabulary is the knowledge of meanings of words. What complicates this definition is the fact that words come in at least two forms: oral and print. Knowledge of words also comes in at least two other forms: receptive; that which we can understand or recognizeand productive, the vocabulary we use when we write and speak.Oral vocabulary is the set of words for which we know the meanings when we speak or read orally (listening). Print vocabulary consists of those words for which the meaning is known when we write or read silently. These are important distinctions because the set of words that beginning readers in a foreign language know are mainly print representations.As they progress in reading fluency, print vocabulary comes to play an increasingly larger note in literacy then does oral vocabulary.From another angle, productive vocabulary is the set of words that an individual can use when writing or speaking. They are words that are well-known, familiar and usedfrequently. Conversely, receptive or recognition vocabulary is that set of words for which an individual can assign meanings when listening or reading. These are words that are often less well-known to students and less frequent in use. Individuals may be able to assign some sort of meaning to them, even though they may not know the full subtleties of the distinction. Typically, these are also words that individuals do not use spontaneously. However, when individual learners encounter these words, they recognize them, even if imperfectly. This is why a focus on the receptive skills has been set forth in the present research work. Likely, vocabulary as a perennial component to decipher messages in whatever discourse (reading and listening) has been looked at in terms of development, recognition and understanding.

In general, recognition or receptive vocabulary is larger than production vocabulary. In very simple statement, the details of this theory can be summarized in the following way: Comprehension is a function of oral language and word recognition. That is, comprehension of print is a result of the ability to decode and recognize words and oral language knowledge.As a whole, vocabulary occupies a central place in the schema of language

learning.Vocabulary serves as the bridge between the word level processes of phonics and the cognitive processes of comprehension. Once students have become proficient at the decoding task, a shift occurs in the vocabulary of text. However, from different researches, it is concluded that speech, typically, contains far fewer rare words than written language. Presumably, students who are automatic readers recognize the majority of words that are common. The contexts that are provided in paragraphs and sentences can, then, be used to understand words that occur less frequently but that are critical to the meaning of the discourse. When the number of known words is not sufficient to figure out the meaning of unknown words, comprehension breaks down. Such a scenario can happen with highly proficient readers when they read in highly technical areas for which they may have insufficient background knowledge (as has been proved through the text of: *Magellan*). For many readers facing words that are rare in their lexicon or even words that are familiar but describing an unfamiliar process, this can cause meaning compromise.Texts, however, can then be seen as both providing opportunities for developing richer vocabulary as well as placing high demands on the vocabulary learning strategies and existing vocabularies of students.

So, a clear perspective on vocabulary learning should be sent since it is perennial and constituting an integral part of comprehension (Scott, Jamieson-Noel, and Asselin, 2003). Simply put, the complexity of knowing a word necessitates the design of classroom experiences which are multi-faceted so as to help students acquire new words and increase the depth (and breadth) of their word knowledge. The National Reading Panel identified eight specific findings that can provide a scientifically based foundation for the design of rich, multifaceted vocabulary instruction. The instructions below illustrate the main recommendations to enhance and enrich vocabulary instruction:

1-There is a need for direct instruction of vocabulary items required for a specific text.

2- Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important. Students should be given items that will be likely to appear in many contexts.

3-Learning in rich contexts is valuable for vocabulary learning. Vocabulary words should be those that the learner will find useful in many contexts. When vocabulary items are derived from content learning materials, the learner will be better equipped to deal with specific reading matter in content areas.

4-Vocabulary tasks should be restricted as necessary. It is important to be certain that students fully understand what is asked of them in the context of reading and listening, rather than focusing on the words to be learned. Restructuring seems to be most effective for low-achieving or at- risk students. (As it is with long texts: *Martin Luther King*and*Eleanor Roosevelt*)

5- Vocabulary learning is effective when it entails active engagement is learning tasks. (Interest and motivation is context)

6-Computer technology can be used effectively to help teach vocabulary (e.g., theonline vocabularysize.com).

7-Vocabulary can be acquired through incidental learning. Much of a student's vocabulary will have to be learned in the courseof doing things other than explicit vocabulary learning. Repetition, richness of context, and motivation may also add to the efficacy of incidental learning of vocabulary.

8-Dependence of a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning. A variety of methods should be used effectively with, 1) emphasis on multimedia aspects of learning, 2) richness of context in which words are to be learned, and 3) the number of exposures to words that learners receive

9-Wide Reading plays an important role in incidental learning of vocabulary, and throughextensive reading, students are given the opportunity of repeated exposures to particular words. So, both practice and repeated encounters with words seem to be important for the acquisition of vocabulary mainly through rich contexts.

So, the perspective that may come as a solution to develop vocabulary through the receptive skills in classes first, is the extention of students' vocabularies through variety and richness. Effective language classrooms should still provide multiple ways for students to learn and interact with words. These ways of learning words and strategies for learning words engage students and motivate them to listen to and look for new words. Accordingly, the contexts whereby students see words need to be rich via books, multimedia and other technological means. In the same line of thought, Scott and Nagy, (2004) stated that classrooms where students receive sound word instruction should be characterized by '*regularity and clear purposes*' as far as word learning strategies, opportunities to talk about learnt words, occasions to apply already taught items, with engaging and content-rich texts and with motivating purposes for learning.

So, the following assertions provide the final outcome of the study:

1-Direct vocabularyinstruction is (also) effective in improving comprehension. However, students acquire vocabulary when it is not explicitly or intentionally taught i.e. indirect exposure contributes most to the vocabulary acquisition.

2-Furthermore, as Graves (2000) noted, incidental learning of vocabulary is the vocabulary that arises from frequent reading and rich oral language discussions (speaking and mainly listening). The creations of such occasions in schools and homes represent intentions on the parts of educators and even parents. Graves follows his emphasis on that students need to know about words to develop strategies to be used when reading or listening independently. Underlying these strategies means finding out:

- The relationships between words with similar roots
- Ways in which new words enter language
- The idiomatic uses of language

- The multiple meanings of individual words
- The vocabularies of specialty areas
- The connections between English words and Romance or Greek words.

The present research has been driven towards one of the five (5) hypotheses in Krashen's model: The Input Hypothesis.Though characterized as a "traditional" method by its advocators (Krashen and Terrell), this method is based on the idea of enabling naturalistic language acquisition in the language classroom; i.e., more emphasis is put on exposure to language input and on reducing learner's anxiety and less on practice. The idea behind putting stress on 'acquisition' rather than 'learning' a language is set through the amount of exposure to language input where the many times of exposure will make language acquired in a natural way. In other terms, the more students read or listen to interesting, comprehensible input in low-anxiety situations, the understanding of messages in the foreign language will be at the reach of EFL learners. If focus and emphasis is also directed on learning a wide vocabulary base, thenmotivation grows to engage learners to more readings and listenings, simply because comprehension is possible in and out of class. According to Terrell, a primary stage towards language acquisition is comprehension. In the comprehension stage, Terrell focuses on students' vocabulary knowledge: the richer vocabulary is, the more comprehension is possible.

Back to Krashen's 'Input Theory', we find five applications to language teaching situations:

- the acquisition-learning hypothesis
- The monitor hypothesis
- The input hypothesis
- The natural order hypothesis, and
- The affective filter hypothesis

Despite their principled utility in the language learning and/or acquisition, only one (hypothesis) adheres to the theory of the present research, namely: the '**i**+' theory. This states that language is acquired by exposure to comprehensible input at a level a little bit higher than that the learner can already understand. So, intense, diverse and a little bit challenging input may constitute the desired aim for language to be acquired.

In theory, the injection of a multitude variety of tasks through the four strands proposed: (The optional-context-free activities, Sentence-bound vocabulary activities, Short passage- related vocabulary activities,andLong passage-oriented lexical retrieval) was conducted in sequence: from completely devoid context to a fully rich one. Besides, the other followed parameter was the precedence of reading over listening. The other significant procedure is the application of MCQ activities throughout the four strands because of the appropriateness of this type of language test in assessing comprehension. The evidence for the latter notion is the typical use of that type of language test (MCQ) all along the research to diagnose and assess the receptive vocabulary and not the productive (Coombe, Folse and

Hubley, 2007). In practice, positive results and clear progress have been noticed among the experimental group of learners. Also, the testees themselves felt satisfied with the amount of input they received during the treatment period. This created motivation and complete engagement. Moreover, the low-anxiety criterion played a positive role whereby, EFL learners in the post-test showed interest and easiness in retrieving the lexis requested to achieve the majority of MCQ activities with different word categories (words, verbs, adjectives). More than that, the monitor hypothesis, to a large extent, has been reached by the majority of the EFL learners since the variety of input exposed to, has rather helped broadening and deepening the orthographic recognition and the phonological perception of the lexis contained in the different sources of input. In addition to that, the ability to make use of the background and world knowledge, all along with the use of the contextual clues sustained voluntarily in the texts and passages, has given more confidence to reach a level of comprehension even slightly beyond their level of understanding, hence, reaching the '**i+**' level**.** To speak so, the Input Hypothesis has given rise to a feeling of motivation and a will to engage in more serious levels of difficulty given that the input is placed at the level fitting the level of comprehension of our EFL learners or a little bit beyond so as to reach the desired outcome.

The present research work is based on a sound theory of Krashen-the Input Theory. The theory in question was elaborated first by Stephan Krashen in 1982 and developedthrough time (1983. 1984 …2004). However, within the frame of applied linguistic paradigmatic orientation, the aspect of the study is profoundly concerned with t-tests or more literally knownas'language proficiency tests'. This typical language analysis rather looks at the receptive encounters of the language through the development of a necessary stock which leads, if given sufficiently and in a variety of contexts, to language understanding and meaning comprehension. Thus, the approach so far conducted in this study is also advocated through Nation's (2001) book 'Learning Vocabulary in another Language'. He claims for the administration of 'meaning-focused input' primarily and that all language activities and content should be oriented towards acquiring a certain proficiency in the language at the receptive level first. If well-acquired, then other levels of language can be admitted through 'language-focused input'.

The social and sociolinguistic context (as mentioned in chapter one) of language learning and teaching has a significant impact on which languages (second or foreign) are taught and how they are taught. This fact has significant implications for F.L professionals. Their duty is to work vigorously to ensure that all learners be given the opportunity to become multilingual in an increasingly multilingual and multicultural world and to maintain the linguistic resources they have. In order to do this, first, they need to voice their disapproval of any policies that minimize these opportunities. Second, language professionals need to be sensitive to the local social and sociolinguistic context and to implement language teaching goals and methods that complement the social reality of their EFL learners.

There are some important issues, however, that this study does not address. First and foremost, there appears to be a serious methodological problem with such an issue of research; namely, the control group is/was not given any exposure to the texts containing the

target vocabulary. Accordingly, it is hardly surprising that the experimental group demonstrated better knowledge of these words than could do the control group; or the experimental group itself before the treatment period. Apparently, the goal of the study is simply to demonstrate that vocabulary learning, or rather acquisition, can better take place through exposure to texts.

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<u>Appendix : 1</u> The five hypotheses that Krashen proposed:

- The *input hypothesis*. This states that learners progress in their knowledge of the language when they comprehend language input that is slightly more advanced than their current level. Krashen called this level of input "**i**+", where "**i**" is the language input and "+" is the next stage of language acquisition.
- The *acquisition–learning hypothesis* claims that there is a strict separation between *acquisition* and *learning*. Krashen saw acquisition as a purely subconscious process and learning as a conscious process, and claimed that improvement in language ability was only dependent upon acquisition and never on learning.
- The *monitor hypothesis* states that consciously learned language can only be used to *monitor* language output; it can never be the source of spontaneous speech.
- The *natural order hypothesis* states that language is acquired in a particular order and that this order does not change between learners, and is not affected by explicit instruction.
- The *affective filter hypothesis*. This states that learners' ability to acquire language is constrained if they are experiencing negative emotions such as fear or embarrassment. At such times the affective filter is said to be "up".

1. Input hypothesis

If 'i' represents previously acquired linguistic competence and extra-linguistic knowledge, the hypothesis claims that we move from '*i*' to '*i+1*' by understanding input that contains '*i+1*'. Extra-linguistic knowledge includes our knowledge of the world and of the situation, that is, the context. The '*+1*' represents new knowledge or language structures that we should be ready to acquire.The comprehensible input hypothesis can be restated in terms of the natural order hypothesis. For example, if we acquire the rules of language in a linear order (1, 2, 3...), then '*i*' represents the last rule or language form learned, and '*i+*' is the next structure that should be learned. It must be stressed however, that just any input is not sufficient; the input received must be comprehensible.When enough comprehensible input is provided, '**i+**' is present. That is to say, that if language models and teachers provide enough comprehensible input, then the structures that acquirers are ready to learn will be present in that input. According to Krashen, this is a better method of developing grammatical accuracy than direct grammar teaching.

2. Acquisition-learning hypothesis

In modern linguistics, there are many theories as to how humans are able to develop language ability. According to Krashen's acquisition-learning hypothesis, there are two independent ways in which we develop our linguistic skills: acquisition and learning. This theory is at the core of modern language acquisition theory, and is perhaps the most fundamental of Krashen's theories.

Acquisition of language is a subconscious process of which the individual is not aware. One is unaware of the process as it is happening and when the new knowledge is acquired, the acquirer generally does not realize that he or she possesses any new knowledge. According to Krashen, both adults and children can subconsciously acquire language, and either written or oral language can be acquired. This process is similar to the process that children undergo when learning their native language. Acquisition requires *meaningful* interaction in the target language, during which the acquirer is focused on meaning rather than form.

Learning a language, on the other hand, is a conscious process, much like what one experiences in school. New knowledge or language forms are represented consciously in the learner's mind, frequently in the form of language "rules" and "grammar" and the process often involves error correction. Language learning involves formal instruction, and according to Krashen, is less effective than acquisition.

3. Monitor hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis asserts that a learner's learned system acts as a monitor to what they are producing. In other words, while only the acquired system is able to produce spontaneous speech, the learned system is used to check what is being spoken.

Before the learner produces an utterance, he or she internally scans it for errors, and uses the learned system to make corrections. Self-correction occurs when the learner uses the Monitor to correct a sentence after it is uttered. According to the hypothesis, such self-monitoring and self-correction are the only functions of conscious language learning.

The Monitor model then predicts faster initial progress by adults than children, as adults use this 'monitor' when producing L2 (target language) utterances before having acquired the ability for natural performance, and adult learners will input more into conversations earlier than children.[ ]

3.1. Three conditions for use of the monitor

According to Krashen, for the Monitor to be successfully used, three conditions must be met:

1. 1. *The acquirer/learner must know the rule.*
   This is a very difficult condition to meet because it means that the speaker must have had explicit instruction on the language form that he or she is trying to produce.
2. 2. *The acquirer must be focused on correctness*
   He or she must be thinking about form, and it is difficult to focus on meaning and form at the same time.
3. 3. *The acquirer/learner must have time to use the monitor*
   Using the monitor requires the speaker to slow down and focus on form.

3.2. Difficulties in using the monitor.

There are many difficulties with the use of the monitor, making the monitor rather weak as a language tool.

1. *Knowing the rule*: this is a difficult condition to meet, because even the best students do not learn every rule that is taught, cannot remember every rule they have learned, and can't always correctly apply the rules they do remember. Furthermore, every rule of a language is not always included in a text nor taught by the teacher.
2. *Having time to use the monitor*: there is a price that is paid for the use of the monitor-the speaker is then focused on form rather than meaning, resulting in the production and exchange of less information, thus slowing the flow of conversation. Some speakers over-monitor to the point that the conversation is painfully slow and sometimes difficult to listen to.
3. *The rules of language make up only a small portion of our language competence*: Acquisition does not provide 100% language competence. There is often a small portion of grammar, punctuation, and spelling that even the most proficient native speakers may not acquire. While it is important to learn these aspects of language, since writing is the only form that requires 100% competence, these aspects of language make up only a small portion of our language competence.

Due to these difficulties, Krashen recommends using the monitor at times when it does not interfere with communication, such as while writing.

4. Natural order hypothesis.

The natural order hypothesis states that all learners acquire a language in roughly the same order. This order is not dependent on the ease with which a particular language feature can be taught; some features, such as third-person "-s" ("he runs") are easy to teach in a classroom setting, but are not typically acquired until the later stages of language acquisition. This hypothesis was based on the morpheme studies by Dulay and Burt, which found that certain morphemes were predictably learned before others during the course of second-language acquisition.

5. Affective filter hypothesis

The affective filter is an impediment to learning or acquisition caused by negative emotional ("affective") responses to one's environment. It is a hypothesis of second-language acquisition theory, and a field of interest in educational psychology.According to the affective filter hypothesis, certain emotions, such as anxiety, self-doubt, and mere boredom interfere with the process of acquiring a second language. They function as a filter between the speaker and the listener that reduces the amount of language input the listener is able to understand. These negative emotions prevent efficient processing of the language input. The hypothesis, further, states that the blockage can be reduced by sparking interest, providing low anxiety environments and bolstering the learner's self-esteem.

According to Krashen (1982), there are two prime issues that prevent the lowering of the affective filter. The first is not allowing for a silent period (expecting the student to speak before they have received an adequate amount of comprehensible input according to their individual needs). The second is correcting their errors too early-on in the process.

Appendix: 2. Semi-Guided Interviews

A. *The Listening Comprehension Questions*
1. How many sessions per week do you teach?
2. Duration of each session?
3. Types of listening passages? - authentic/concocted/both
4. Speech Delivery Act? native speaker/teacher/both
5. Kind of tools used? Teacher talk(T.T)/recordings/others
6. Is the programme presented beforehand to students?
7. Are the themes familiar to students?
8. Are there some unfamiliar themes to them?
9. Is there any preparation required from students before listening,
10. Do you assign so listening as homework before doing it in class?
11. Do you consider the number of difficult words in a passage?
12. Is there any pre-teaching of some key words before the listening?
    If there is, does perception (phonological hints) go within?
13. If perception is gained, does comprehension automatically follow?
14. Do you advise/instruct your students to listen/watch special programmes out of class?
15. Do you think students are willing to engage in listening an original version input (movies, dialogues…) alone without help? 'Risk taking'
16. Is dubbing a fine resource helping comprehension?
17. Is it a good idea to provide students with a written script when listening?
18. According to your own experience, should listening precede reading or the reverse?
19. Should the topic of listening be the same as the text of reading?
20. Do you opt for short passages or long serials to be cut and followed?

B. *The Reading Comprehension Questions*
1. How many sessions per week do you teach?
2. Duration of each session?
3. Types of reading passages? - authentic/concocted/both
4. Is there any reading material specific for reading sessions in class?
5. Are students allowed to choose the reading input?
6. Are the main themes related to students' level and interests?
7. Is the programme presented to students before?
8. Is there any homework assignment before the reading is set?
9. Do you consider the amount of unfamiliar words in a text?
10. Is there a pre-teaching of vocabulary?
11. What types of text do you generally use in class? Original/pedagogic/both
12. Is a reliance on extensive reading to help encounter the topic?
13. Do you think reading extensively helps in developing vocabulary, then comprehension?
14. Do you assign reading out of classroom as homework?
15. If yes, how to make sure they have read? Summary/report…
16. Do you allow loud reading?

17. Should reading precede listening or the reverse?
18. Do you opt for short passages or long ones presented in serials?
19. Do you allow the use of dictionaries during reading?
20. Should the reading text be a continuation of the listening topic?

Listening tasks in New Headway intermediate, New Cutting Edge Intermediate, Inside Out Intermediate, Total English intermediate.

1-Listen to check your answers (81 occurrences)

2-Listen and answer the questions (34)

3-Listen and complete the sentences/notes (24)

4-Listen and make notes (18)

5-Listen and mark the stress (14)

6-Listen and tick the picture (13)

7-Listen. Which questions do they answer/topics do they discuss? (13)

8-Listen. Tick the words/expressions you hear (12)

9-Listen and match the people to the statements/dialogues (11)

10-Listen and practice/repeat (11)

11-Listen and notice (9)

12-Listen and write what you hear (9)

13- Listen and write answers for yourself(7)

14-Listen and complete the chart/table (5)

15-Listen and put the events in order (5)

16-Listen and find mistakes/differences (4)

17-Listen. Are the statements true or false? (4)

18-Listen for the difference between the two sounds (4)

19-Listen and mark on the map/picture (3) , and 20--Listen and read (3)

There are eleven higher-order inferring questions- questions that ask for personal opinions: Who's talking? What's their relationship? What's just happened? What's going to happen? Where are they? How do they feel? What did she think? Do you agree? Do you think she'll get the job? What impression do you get of…? Which is the best summary?

Table: 1.9. Listening Tasks (adapted from Wilson, 2008)

Appendix: 4   **The Role of the teacher**

Jobs related to the teacher's role in a listening course.

1-A tailor: The Listening text must 'fit' the class just as a suit or dress must fit its wearer. Topic, level, genre, etc. must all be appropriate.

2-A standup Comedian: Or perhaps a story teller. Since the teacher is often the best source of input, he can 'hold' an audience with his valuable skills for that.

3-A sleuth: Before class, teachers need to be able to analyse the language in a recording as closely as Sherlock Holmes analysed clues. These are types of questions to ask: will my students understand this idiom? Can they deal with the variety of verb tenses? Will they be able to decode all the contractions? Do they need to…?

4*- An Engineer*: When using recordings, the teacher needs a working knowledge of the way in which the equipment works and when it doesn't.

5-A spy: While the students are listening, the teacher should be watching their hands and faces: Are they writing the answers? Do they look confused?

6-A doctor: Teachers need to be expert in diagnosis. What went wrong? Why? Was it the speed, vocabulary, the accent, the topic or other paralinguistic parameters, like: noise or bad recording?

7- A Firefighter: If everything goes wrong and the listening passage is too difficult, the teacher needs to get everyone out of trouble, just as a fire fighter might lead the way to safety.

8- A Tour guide: Teachers can point out what's' interesting (that piece of spoken grammar, this bit of slang, the metaphor…) and ignore everything that isn't. And, like good guides, they should make sure everybody is with them before moving on

<div align="center">(Wilson 2008: 62-63)</div>

Appendix: 5   Glossary: Some important concepts defined

- Domain of Language: the four primary uses of language. Specifically, listening, reading, speaking and writing (expressive language vs. receptive language).
- Expressive Language: Language that an individual produces (i.e. expresses). Speaking and writing are the primary expressive skills.
- Receptive Language: Language that is received by an individual. Listening and reading are primary receptive language processes.
- Formal Register: Formal language used in teaching content and usually found in content textbooks.
- Operationalizing Words: Students are able to use new vocabulary in oral discussion or in writing in the content area.
- Personalizing Words: Students build new vocabulary into their schemata or background information.
- Sponge Activity: Quick activities that can be implemented on the spot on those rare occasions when your lesson ends earlier than anticipated, or students end up being held in class. These activities are generally extras, designed to 'seek up' the extra time in those situations to prevent students from sitting around doing nothing.
- Visual Language: Graphics, images, body language, videos, etc.
- Strategized Assistance: Strategic tutoring or specialised instruction to assist students who lack specific skills.
- Academic Language: A variety or register of English used in professional books and characterized by the specific linguistic features associated with academic disciplines (Scarcella, 2003):
  1- It is the language used by teachers and learners for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills.
  2- It assists in imparting new information, describing abstract ideas and developing students' conceptual understanding (chamot and O'Malley, 1994).
  3- It focuses on understanding, using and reflecting on written/spoken material to develop new knowledge and potential and build conceptual knowledge.
- Conceptual Literacy: it is the use of metacognitive strategies-thinking about thinking-using thinking to acquire new knowledge.
- Mental Lexicon: is a memory system in which a vast number of words, accumulated in the course of time, have been stored. (Hulstijn, 2000)

<u>Appendix: 6</u>   **Taxonomy of consolidation strategies**

Vocabulary Strategies Work for Advanced Learners of English. Sarah Mercer

(This list is based in part on the taxonomy offered in Schmitt 1997)

1. **Memory strategies**
   .Using imagery
   .Using sense relations: (lexical fields, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, scale, etc.)
   .Using cognates, parallels in other languages
   .Using word parts
   .Grouping in patterns: (visual, meaning, spatial, etc.)
   .Using phonological or orthographic form (rhymes, salient written form, keyword technique, etc.)
   .Using semantic grids
   .Paraphrasing
   .Chunking
   .Create and learn meaningful sentences containing the word. (Possibly invent whole story as framework for learning key words)
   .Link to personal experience

2. **Cognitive strategies**
   .Written repetition
   .Verbal repetition
   .Word lists
   .Word flashcards
   .Vocabulary notebooks
   .Note-taking from books, lectures, etc.
   .Making tape recordings
   .Sticky note labels
   .Using word books, such as dictionaries or a thesaurus to activate passive vocabulary

3. **Metacognitive strategies**
   .More conscious contact with the target language (e. g. reading extensively in English, watching films, listening to the radio, communicating with native speakers, getting a pen pal)
   .Testing yourself on vocabulary
   .Working and practising with peers/in groups
   .Principle of expending rehearsal time, repeatedly reviewing
   .Setting priorities about which words are essential, not so important, not important at all and to what extent (passive, active)
   .Setting goals for learning vocabulary

Appendix: 7.   *The 100 Most Commonly Used Words in English*

Listed below, according to the100-million-word <u>British National Corpus</u>, are the 100 most frequently used words in English. Where needed, the part of speech is identified to distinguish different grammatical uses of the same word.

1. The.
2. Be.
3. Of.
4. And.
5. A.
6. In (preposition: "in the old days").
7. To (infinitive marker: "to sin").
8. Have.
9. It.
10. To (preposition: "to the country").
11. For (preposition: "for you").
12. I.
13. That (relative pronoun: "the book that I read").
14. You.
15. He.
16. On (preposition: "on the beach").
17. With (preposition: "with pleasure").
18. Do (verb: "Ido").
19. At (preposition: "ay school").
20. By (preposition: "by midnight").
21. Not.
22. This (determiner: "this page").
23. But.
24. From (preposition:"from home").
25. They.
26. His (determiner: "his job").
27. That (determiner: "that song").
28. She.
29. Or.
30. Which (determiner: "which book").
31. As (conjunction: "as we agreed").
32. We.
33. An.
34. Say (verb: «say a prayer").
35. Will (auxiliary verb: "I will try").
36. Would.
37. Can (auxiliary verb: "I can go").

38. If.

39. Their.

40. Go (verb: "go now").

41. What (determiner: "what time").

42. There.

43. All (determiner: "all people").

44. Get (verb: "get busy").

45. Her (determiner: "her job").

46. Make (verb: "make money").

47. Who.

48. As (preposition: "as a child").

49. Out (adverb: "go out").

50. Up (adverb: "go up").

51. See (verb: "see the sky").

52. Know (verb: "know a place").

53. Time (time: "a time to laugh").

54. Take (verb: "take a break").

55. Them.

56. Some (determiner: "some money").

57. Could.

58. So (adverb: "I said so").

59. Him.

60. Year.

61. Into (preposition: "into the room").

62. Its.

63. Then.

64. Think (verb: "think hard").

65. My.

66. Come 'verb: "come early").

67. Than.

68. More (adverb: "more quickly").

69. About (preposition: "about you").

70. Now.

71. Last (adjective: "last call").

72. Your.

73. Me.

74. No (determiner: "no time").

75. Other (adjective: "other people").

76. Give.

77. Just (adverb: "just try").

78. Should.

79. These (determiner: "these days").

80. People.

81. Also.

82. Well (adverb: "well written").

83. Any (determiner: "any day").

84. Only.

85. New (adjective: "new friend").

86. Very.

87. When (conjunction: "when you go").

88. May (auxiliary verb: "you may go").

89. Way.

90. Look (verb: "look here").

91. Like (preposition: "like a boat").

92. Use (verb: "use your head").

93. Her (pronoun: "give her").

94. Such (determiner: "such problems").

95. How (adverb: "see how").

96. Because.

97. When (adverb: "know when").

98. As (adverb: "as good").

99. Good (adjective: "good time").

100.   Find (verb: "find time").

Appendix: 8   Index of Commonly Confused Words.

It is easy to confuse words that are similar in sound, spelling, or meaning, but with a bit of review it is also easy to clear up such confusions.

Below is a glossary of usage (e.g.: "**advice" and "advise; "farther" and "further"; "principle" and "principal"), wh**ere more than 300 sets of commonly confused words- with links to definitions are alphabetically listed.

A

- A, an & and
- Abstruse and obtuse
- Accept, Except, and Expect
- Accidental and Incidental
- Adapt and Adopt
- Adverse and Averse
- Advice and Advise
- Affect and Effect
- Afterward(s) and Afterword
- Aggravate and Irritate
- Aid and Aide
- All Ready and Already
- All Together and Altogether
- Allude and Elude
- Allusion and Illusion
- Allusive and Elusive
- A lot (Much, Many)
- Altar and Alter
- Ambiguous and Ambivalent
- Among and Between
- Amoral and Immoral
- Amount and Number
- Amuse and Bemuse
- Anecdote and antidote
- Angel and Angle
- Anonymous and Unanimous
- Anxious and Eager
- Anyone and Any One
- Appraise and Apprise
- Ardent and Arduous
- Are and Assent

- Assure, Ensure, and Insure
- Aural and Oral
- Avocation and Vocation
- Awhile and A While

B

- Bail and Bale
- Baited and Bated
- Band and Banned
- Bare and Bear
- Bathos and Pathos
- Beside and Beside
- Bloc and Block
- Boar. Boor. And Bore
- Board and Bored
- Boulder and Boulder
- Brake and Break
- Breakdown and Break Down
- Breath and Breathe
- Bridal and Bridle
- Bring and Take
- Broach and Brooch
- Buy, By, and Bye

C

- Calvary and cavalry
- Cannon and Canon
- Canvas and Canvass
- Capital and Capitol
- Carat, Caret, and Carrot
- Ceiling and Sealing
- Cel, Cell, and Sell
- Censor and Censure
- Cent, Scent, and Sent
- Cereal and Serial
- Chafe and Chaff
- Chaotic and Inchoate
- Childish and Childlike
- Choose, Chose, and Chosen
- Chord and Cord

- Cite and Site
- Cleanup and Clean up
- Click and Clique
- Climactic and Climatic
- Close, clothes, and Cloths
- Coarse and course
- Collaborate and cooperate
- Complement and compliment
- Complementary and complimentary
- Confidant and confident
- Conscience and conscious
- Consequently and subsequently
- Contemptible and contemptuous
- Continual and continuous
- Council and counsel
- Credible, Creditable, andcredulous
- Criterion and criteria

D

- Dam and damn
- Days and daze
- Dazed and dazzled
- Defective and deficient
- Defuse and diffuse
- Dependant and dependent
- Deprecate and depreciate
- Desert and dessert
- Device and devise
- Diagnosis and prognosis
- Discover and invent
- Discreet and discrete
- Disinterested and uninterested
- Distinct and dinstinctive
- Dual and duel

E

- Earthly and earthy
- Economic and economical
- E.g. and I.e.
- Elicit and illicit

- Emigrate and immigrate
- Eminent and imminent
- Envelop and envelope
- Epigram, epigraph, and epitaph
- Etc. and Et al.
- Eventually and ultimately
- Every day and every day
- Everyone and every one
- Evoke and invoke
- Exhort and extort
- Explicit and implicit

F

- Faint and feint
- Fair and fare
- Farrago and fiasco
- Farther and further
- Faze and phase
- Few (fewer) and little (less)
- Finally and finely
- Fir and fur
- Flair and flare
- Flammable, inflammable, and nonflammable
- Flaunt and flout
- Flesh out and flush out
- Flew, flu, and flue
- Flounder and founder
- Forbear and forebear
- Foreword and forward
- Formally and formerly
- Forth and fourth
- Fortunate and fortuitous
- Full andfulsome

G

- Garner and garnish
- Gibe, jibe, and jive
- Good and well
- Gorilla and guerrilla
- Gourmand and gourmet

- Grate and great
- Grisly and grizzly
- Groan and grown
- Guessed and guest
- **H**
- Hanged and hung
- Hardy and hearty
- Have and of
- Hear and here
- Heard and herd
- Heroin and heroine
- Higher and hire
- Historic and historical
- Hoard and horde
- Hoarse and horse
- Hole and whole
- Home and hone
- Hoping and hopping
- Human and humane
- Hurdle and hurtle

Keys are given within the following address:

http://grammar.about.com/od/alightersideofwriting/a/quiz20confusedwords.org

Appendix: 9   Common Suffixes in English

A suffix is a letter or a set of letters attached to the end of a word to form a new word or to alter the grammatical function of the original word. For example, the verb *read* can be made into the noun *reader* by adding the suffix *-er*; *read* can be made into the adjective *readable* by adding the suffix *-able*.

The meanings of the common suffixes can help us deduce the meanings of new words that we encounter. The table below defines and illustrates 26 common suffixes.

Noun Suffixes		
Suffix	*Meaning*	*Example*
-acy	state or quality	Privacy
-al	act or process of	Refusal
-ance, -ence	state or quality of	maintenance, eminence
-dom	place or state of being	freedom, kingdom
-er, -or	one who	trainer, protector
-ism	doctrine, belief	Communism
-ist	one who	Chemist
-ity, -ty	quality of	Veracity
-ment	condition of	Argument
-ness	state of being	Heaviness
-ship	position held	fellowship
-sion, -tion	state of being	concession, transition
Verb Suffixes		
-ate	become	eradicate
-en	become	enlighten
-ify, -fy	make or become	terrify
-ize, -ise	become	civilize
Adjective Suffixes		
-able, -ible	capable of being	edible, presentable
-al	pertaining to	regional
-esque	reminiscent of	picturesque
-ful	notable for	fanciful
-ic, -ical	pertaining to	musical, mythic
-ious, -ous	characterized by	nutritious, portentous
-ish	having the quality of	fiendish
-ive	having the nature of	creative
-less	without	endless
-y	characterized by	sleazy

Appendix: 10 Homonyms, Homophones, and Homographs.

(A List of Easily Confused Words)

Homonyms , homophones , and homographs are words that are easily confused because they look alike or sound alike (or both) but have different meanings. These charts--which list some of the most common homonyms, homophones, and homographs--should help you recognize the differences between many commonly confused words .

1. **accept/except**_to_**buy/by/bye**
2. **capital/capitol**_to_**eminent/imminent**
3. **fair/fare**_to_**lie/lye**
4. **meat/meet/mete**_to_**role/roll**
5. **scene/seen**_to_**whine/wine**

accept - take in	**except** - other than	
ad - advertisement	**add** - join, combine	
advice - guidance	**advise** - recommend	
aid - assist, assistance	**aide** - one who gives assistance	
ail - to suffer poor health	**ale** - a beverage	
air - atmosphere	**heir** - one who inherits property	
aisle - a passage	**I'll** - contraction of *I will*	**isle** - island
allusion - an indirect reference	**illusion** - false appearance	
altar - table in a church	**alter** - to change	
ate - past tense of *eat*	**eight** - the number 8	
bail - to clear water	**bail** - release of a prisoner	**bale** - a large bundle
band - a ring, something that binds	**band** - a group	**banned** - prohibited
bare - uncovered	**bear** - large animal	**bear** - support, yield
bases - starting points	**bases** - four stations	**basis** - a basic

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	on a baseball field	principle
beat - to strike, overcome	**beat** - exhausted	**beet** - a plant with red roots
blew - past tense of *blow*	**blue** - the color	
bread - baked food item	**bred** - produced	
buy - purchase	**by** - near, through	**bye** - goodbye

<u>Appendix:11</u>   The Most Commonly Misspelled Words in English

absence accommodate achieve acquire across	address advertise advice among apparent	argument athlete awful balance basically
becoming before beginning believe benefit	breathe brilliant business calendar careful	category ceiling cemetery certain chief
citizen coming competition convenience criticize	decide definite deposit describe desperate	develop difference dilemma disappear disappoint
discipline does during easily eight	either embarrass environment equipped exaggerate	excellent except exercise existence expect
experience experiment explanation familiar fascinating	finally foreign forty forward friend	fundamental generally government grammar guarantee

Appendix: 12   Answers to Practice Exercises: (Glossary of Usage)

Here are the answers to the short practice exercises that accompany each set of words in our Glossary of Usage about the 20 commonly confused words.

- ## Rack and Wrack
  (a) He placed his trunk in the luggage **rack** and took a seat by the window.
  (b) My father used to say that we lived on the corner of **Wrack** and Ruin.

- ## Rain, Reign, and Rein
  (a) "Better to **reign** in hell than serve in heaven." (John Milton)
  (b) Merdine enjoys running through the **rain**.
  (c) The teacher encouraged Gus to give free **rein** to his imagination.

- ## Raise and Rise
  (a) you need a whole community to **raise** a child.
  (b) "Every employee tends to **rise** to his level of incompetence." (Laurence J. Peter)

- ## Rational and Rationale
  (a) What is the mayor's **rationale** for trying to sell three of the city's public hospitals?
  (b) "It is not to be forgotten that what we call **rational** grounds for our beliefs are often extremely irrational attempts to justify our instincts."

- ## Ravage and Ravish
  (a) The credit crunch continues to **ravage** overstretched banks.
  (b) According to Montaigne, poetry does not seek to "persuade our judgment"; it simply "**ravishes** and overwhelms" it.
  (c) Over the centuries, much of Korea's historic architecture has suffered the **ravages** of war and fire.

- ## Recourse and Resource
  (a) This new lipstick is made of a corn-based renewable **resource**.
  (b) The living have the libel law, but the dead have no **recourse** to the law.

- ## Regretful and Regrettable
  (a) The principal described the incident as **regrettable**.
  (b) When he heard that class had been canceled, Gus felt both **regretful** and relieved.

- ## Respectively and Respectfully
  (a) Mike and Ike Johnson, a sixth grader and a fourth grader **respectively**, begin every day with one hour of schoolwork.
  (b) "I **respectfully** decline the invitation. » (Scott Adams)

- ## Review and Revue
  (a) In the 1940s, Igor Stravinsky composed a ballet score for a Broadway **revue**.
  (b) "A good **review** from the critics is just another stay of execution." (Dustin Hoffman)

- Role and Roll
  (a) Bart Simpson is not the best **role** model for youngsters.
  (b) The teacher nibbled on a cinnamon **roll** while reading the class **roll**.

- Sensual and Sensuous
  (a) A night of tangoing is the **sensual** highlight of many a trip to Argentina.
  (b) Classical dance is at once the most **sensuous** and the most abstract of the theatrical arts.

- Serve and Service
  (a) There are very few public servants who actually **serve** the President.
  (b) A fuel truck arrived to **service** the aircraft.

- Set and Sit
  (a) If a man knew anything, he would **sit** in a corner and be modest.
  (b) Have you **set** any goals for the new year?

- Should and Would
  (a) When I was younger, I **would** often take the long way home after school.
  (b) We **should** try to be more patient with one another.

- Shall and Will
  (a) Let's go into the church, **shall** we?
  (b) If you build it, he **will** come.
  (c) Merdine **will** bring the salad.

- Shear and Sheer
  (a) "From the first day to this, **sheer** greed has been the driving spirit of civilization." (Friedrich Engels)
  (b) Giving children vitamin D supplements may **shear** their risk of developing diabetes later in life.

- Simple and Simplistic
  (a) Senator Ted Stevens was rightly lampooned for his **simplistic** description of the internet as a series of "tubes."
  (b) "The truth is rarely pure and never **simple**." (Oscar Wilde)

- Sometime, Some time, and Sometimes
  (a) "**Sometimes** a scream is better than a thesis." (Ralph Waldo Emerson)
  (b) "I've been trying for **some time** to develop a lifestyle that doesn't require my presence." (Garry Trudeau)
  (c) "If you want an interesting party **sometime**, combine cocktails and a fresh box of crayons for everyone." (Robert Fulghum)

- Stationary and Stationery
  (a) Judd sent his new boss a flattering letter on fancy **stationery**.
  (b) Manufacturers of **stationary** bicycles encourage you to track your pulse.

- Statue and Statute
  (a) "No **statue** has ever been put up to a critic."
  (b) Merdine challenged the constitutionality of the **statute**.

- Temerity and Timidity
  (a) The students lacked the **temerity** to correct their teacher's mistake.
  (b) "The first symptom of love in a young man is **timidity**; in a girl, boldness." (Victor Hugo)

- Than and Then
  (a) I filled out a form and **then** waited in the lobby.
  (b) I had to wait much longer **than** you did.

- Their, There, and They're
  (a) **There** are geese in the garden.
  (b) **They're** nibbling the roses.
  (c) **Their** honking can be heard for miles.

- To and Too
  (a) I have wanted **to** visit Boise for years.
  (b) I have always been **too** busy **to** go.
  (c) Next week I am driving **to** Boise, and you may come **too**.

- Troop and Troupe
  (a) The singer crooned her latest single with a **troupe** of glittery showgirls behind her.
  (b) A gorilla will beat his chest, break branches, flash his teeth, and charge--all in the interest of protecting his **troop**.

- Vain, Vane, and Vein
  (a) Varicose **veins** tend to worsen over time.
  (b) "How **vain** it is to sit down to write when you have not stood up to live." (Henry David Thoreau)
  (c) Sitting on top of the copper ball was a huge weather **vane**.

- Vary and Very
  (a) Lord Lucan has been gone for a **very** long time.
  (b) Some games change the opposition, while others **vary** the scenery.

- Veracious and Voracious
  (a) President Kennedy was a **voracious** reader.
  (b) By all accounts, Mr. Soprano's testimony was candid and **veracious**.

- Waist and Waste
  (a) "I believe that all government is evil, and that trying to improve it is largely a **waste** of time." (H. L. Mencken)
  (b) He tied a rope around his **waist**.

- Were, We're, and Where
  (a) **We're** going to Savannah for St. Patrick's Day.

(b) We don't know **where** we'll be staying.
(c) Last year we **were** forced to sleep in the van.

- Which and Who
  (a) Nan's book, **which** was published in May, is now a bestseller.
  (b) A writer is a lucky person **who** has found a way to talk without being interrupted.

- Who and Whom
  (a) Any man **who** hates dogs and babies can't be all bad.
  (b) It's human nature to want to protect the speech of people with **whom** we agree.

- Whoever and Whomever
  (a) Delegates can vote for **whomever** they want.
  (b) **Whoever** gossips *to* you will gossip *about* you.

- Whose and Who's
  (a) **Whose** car was damaged?
  (b) **Who's** going to pay for repairs?

- Your and You're
  (a) **Your** car is blocking mine.
  (b) **You're** going to have to move your car.

Appendix: 13   Quizzes on the English Language Timeline

Where has the English language been for the past 1,500 years, who has been using it, what habits has it acquired, and why does it refuse to stand still?

1. The *ultimate* origins of the English language lie in which language family?
   (a) Indo-European
   (b) Latin
   (c) North American
2. What is another name for Old English?
   (a) Middle English
   (b) Anglo-Saxon
   (c) Celtic
3. Which one of the following texts was composed during the Old English period?
   (a) *The Canterbury Tales*
   (b) *Beowulf*
   (c) *Fyrst Boke of the Introduction of Knowledge*
4. During the Middle English period, many words were borrowed from which two languages?
   (a) Celtic and Old Norse
   (b) Urdu and Iroquoian
   (c) Latin and French
5. Published in 1604, the first monolingual English dictionary was
   (a) Nathaniel Bailey's *Universal Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*
   (b) Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language*
   (c) Robert Cawdrey's *Table Alphabeticall*
6. Which Anglo-Irish writer proposed the creation of an English Academy to regulate English usage and "ascertain" the language?
   (a) Jonathan Swift
   (b) Samuel Johnson
   (c) Oliver Goldsmith
7. Who published the book *Dissertations on the English Language* (1789), which advocated an American standard of usage?
   (a) Noah Webster
   (b) John Webster
   (c) Daniel Webster
8. Which late-19th century novel introduced a colloquial prose style that significantly influenced the writing of fiction in the U.S.?
   (a) *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* by Mark Twain
   (b) *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* by Mark Twain
   (c) *Oroonoko, or the Royal Slave* by Aphra Behn
9. The Philological Society's *New English Dictionary on Historical Principles*, begun in 1879, was eventually published under which title in 1928?
   (a) *Roget's Thesaurus*
   (b) *The King's English*
   (c) *Oxford English Dictionary*
10. During which decade did the number of speakers of English as a second language exceed the number of native speakers for the first time?

(a) 1920s
(b) 1950s
(c) 1990s

Answers to the Quizzes on the History of the English Language.

1. (a) Indo-European
2. (b) Anglo-Saxon
3. (b) *Beowulf*
4. (c) Latin and French
5. (c) Robert Cawdrey's *Table Alphabeticall*
6. (a) Jonathan Swift
7. (a) Noah Webster
8. (b) *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* by Mark Twain
9. (c) *Oxford English Dictionary*
10. (b) 1950s

Appendix: 14   Answers to the pronunciation exercise

(Testing Pronunciation)

Same or different
a. different   d. different.
b. different   e. different
c. same   f. different
which definition
1. b., 2.b.
phonological alternations
[s]   books, cats, students
[z]schools, plays
[iz]   churches, James's
[t]   jumped, increased
[d]   robbed, showed, carved
[id]   wanted, added
[ng]   finger, prolongation
[n]   singer, hanging, prolonging
[ain-ait]   Muscovite, acolyte, finite, Valentine
[in-it]   Catherine, masculine, infinite
[che]   version (BE), Persian (BE), coercion, tension, mansion
[je]   version (AE), Persian (AE), invasion, vision, casual, measure
[ks]maximum, taxi, Texas, taxonomy
[gz]   exist, exhaust
Phonetic transcription
J<u>ou</u>rney   /3/   /3r/
P<u>ea</u>sant   /3/
Favour<u>i</u>te   /I/
P<u>e</u>nal/i: /
S<u>ou</u>thern / v /
Finding an odd member
1. a., 2.d., 3.a.
regrouping
Let, says, said
Say, rate, maid
Gene, quay, meat
matching
C<u>u</u>t: country, buffalo, one
P<u>o</u>t: swamp, swallow, squander
P<u>u</u>sh: cook, bosom, bush

Ti<u>i</u>n: Thames, Mathilda, Theresa
<u>Th</u>an: either, although, clothes, [AE /klo:z/]
<u>Th</u>atch: thing, three, cloth
C<u>a</u>t: plait [AE:/plet /], bat
L<u>o</u>ne: Joan, known
T<u>o</u>re: pour, sure
H<u>e</u>re: mere, clear
P<u>ai</u>r: rare, chair, share
*Silent letters
A<u>re</u>n't   Green<u>w</u>ich
We<u>re</u>n't   bom<u>b</u>ing
S<u>w</u>ord   parl<u>i</u>ament
De<u>b</u>t   e<u>v</u>ening
Note: in AE "r" is not silent in *aren't* and *weren't*

Appendix: 15   False Friends and linguistic Affinity (English-French)

A: **False Friends** / **Faux-Amis**

English	French	French	English
To abuse	insulter	Abuserto take	advantage
to accommodate	loger	accomoder	to prepare
to achieve	réaliser	achever	to complete
actually	en effet	actuellement	at present
affluence	richesse	affluence	rush
caution	prudence	caution	guarantee
character	personnage	caractère	nature
to charge	faire payer	charger	to load
check	contrôle	chèque	cheque
close	proche, serré	clos	closed
commodity	marchandise	commodité	convenience
comprehensive	complet	comprehensive	understanding
conductor	controleur	conducteur	driver
confection	friandise	confection	ready-made clothes
(in)consistent	(in)coherent	consistant	solid, thick
to contemplate	envisager	contempler	to gaze at
copy	exemplaire	copie	reproduction
countenance	expression(visage)	contenance	capacity
to deceive	tromper	décevoir	to disappoint
delay	retard	délai	time limit
to dispose	se débarrasser	disposer	to arrange
dispute	conflit	dispute	quarrel, argument
distracted	fou, égaré	distrait	absent-minded
engaged	occupé	engage	committed(artist)
estate	domaine	état	state, condition
eventually	finalement	éventuellement	possibly
expertise	compétence	expertise	expert's report
extra	supplémentaire	extra	first-rate

fortunate	chanceuxgentle	fortune	wealthy, well-off
aimable, doux	grand	gentil	nice, kind
grandiose	grapes	grand	tall, big
raisin	habit	grappe	bunch(of grapes)
habitude	hazard	habit	dress, clothes
danger	inconvenient	hazard	chance
inopportun	indulgence	inconvenant	improper
laisseraller	invaluable	indulgence	leniency
inestimable	lecture	non valuable	invalid, not valid
conférence	location	lecture	reading
emplacement	mechanic	location	renting,
mécanicien	medicine	lease(bail) mécanique engineering
médicament	Mercy	doctor	médecin
miséricorde	notice	thanks	
avis, préavis	partition	mercinote,instructions	notice
séparation	petrol	partition	(musical)score
essence	photograph	pétrole	oil, petroleum
photographie	phrase	photographe	photographer
locution	positive	phrase	sentence
catégorique	to prevent	positif	definite, positive
empêcher	proper	prévenir	to warn
adéquat	to recover	propre	clean, decent
se rétablir	refuse	recouvrir	to cover
déchets	to regard	refus	refusal
considérer	relieve	regarder	to look at
soulager	to resume	reliever	to raise
recommencer	route	résumer	to sum up
itinéraire	rude	route	road
grossier	sensible	rude	rough, hard
raisonnable	socket	sensible	sensitive
douille	store	socquette	sock
grand magasin	suit	store	blind, shade

costume	to supply	suite	sequel, rest
fournirto survey	examiner	supplier	to implore
sympathetic	compatissant	surveiller	to supervise
tentative	timide	sympathique	nice, friendly
touchy	susceptible	tentative	attempt
tour	voyage, circuit	touché	struck, moved
vacation	vacances	tour	stroll, drive,
valid	valable	turn	vacation
wagon	chariot	session, sitting	valide
		fit, well	wagon
		carriage, car	

B: Linguistic Affinity: Germanic origin words Vs. Romance origin words

(English Vs. French)

Verbs

English (origin)   **French (origin)   English (origin)**   **French (origin)**

To burst	to explode	To slink	to escape
to chide	to blame	to take into account	to consider
to dive	to plunge	to look for	to search
to forbid	to defend	to challenge	to defy
to foreswear	to renounce	to start	to commence
to forgive	to pardon	to assess	to evaluate
to forsake	to abandon	to evolve	to develop
to alter	to change	to help	to aid
to hang	to suspend	to have dinner	to dine
to leave	to quit	to notice	to observe
to make	to fabricate	to take part	to participate
to mean	to signify	to make s.o ashamed	to humiliate
to mistake	to(do an) error	to tell	to recount

to outdo	to surpass	to carry on	to continue
to outcome	to surmount	to advise	to counsel
to overdo	to exaggerate	to find out	to discover
to overrun	to invade	to come up with	to realize
to oversee	to supervise	to look like	to resemble
to overthrow	to demolish	to manage	to succeed
to partake	to participate	to rely on	to depend on
to put	to place	to give up	to stop
to seek	to search	to end	to finish
to set	to establish	to go back	to return
to ask a question	to pose a question	to allow	to permit
to speed	to accelerate	to reach	to arrive at
to split	to devise	to get rid of	to eliminate
to stick	to fix	to agree	to accept
to undergo	to support	to enhance	to encourage
to bear	to support	to enable	to aid
to undercut	to compete	to slow	to reduce
to undertake	to assume	to move forward	to advance
to waylay	to attack	to drop	to reduce
to wed	to marry	to keep from	to prevent
to withhold	to retain/refuse	to travel (by boat)	to voyage
to withstand	to resist/support	to upset	to annoy
have to (must)	to be obliged to	to mind up	to consider
to ask	to demand		
to fight	to combat		
to fulfil	to achieve		

ii) – Nouns/ Adjectives/ adverbs

Luck	chance	Goods	merchandise
deed	achievement	wage	salary
know-how	savoir-faire	enough	sufficient

wealthy	rich	wild	savage
appointment	rendezvous	spot	place
inexperienced	naïve	era	period
chairman	president	same	similar
speaker	orator	heaven	paradise
matters	affairs	weak	feeble
trouble	problem	suitable	appropriate
hard	difficult	astonished	surprised
easy	facile	growth	development
kind/ nice	gentle	mere	simple
acquaintance	familiarity	merely	simply
quiet	calm	increase	expansion
advice	counsel	slowing	reduction
feature	aspect	quick	rapid
way	manner	quickly	rapidly
meaningful	significant	outcome	benefit
pace	rhythm	amount	quantity
kind	type	wealth	richness
prevailing	dominant	constable	policeman
wide	large	willingly	voluntarily
holidays	vacation	luggage	baggage
feeling	sentiment	hardship	difficulty
reliant	dependent	disease	malady
smelling	odour		

<u>Appendix:16</u>   **Context Clues and Suggested Activities**

A. CONTEXT CLUES

Context clues are hints found within a sentence, paragraph, orpassage that a reader can use to understand the meanings of new or unfamiliar words. Learning the meaning of a word through its use in a sentence or paragraph is the most practical way to build vocabulary, since a dictionary is not always available when a reader encounters an unknown word. A reader must be aware that many words have several possible meanings. Only by being sensitive to the circumstances in which a word is used can the reader decide upon an appropriate definition to fit the context.

A reader should rely on context clues when an obvious clue to meaning is provided, or whenonly a general sense of the meaning is needed for the reader's purposes. Context clues should not be relied upon when a precise meaning is required, when clues suggest several possible definitions, when nearby words are unfamiliar, and when the unknown word is a common one that will be needed again; in these cases, a dictionary should be consulted.

There are several different types of context clues. Some of them are:

1. Definition/ Description Clue

The new term may be formally defined, or sufficient explanation may be given within thesentence or in the following sentence. Clues to definition include "that is," commas, dashes, and parentheses.

Examples:

a. His emaciation, that is, his skeleton-like appearance, was frightening to see.

"Skeleton-like appearance" is the definition of "emaciation."

b. Fluoroscopy, examination with a fluoroscope, has become a common practice.

The commas before and after "examination with a fluoroscope" point out the definition of "Fluoroscopy."

c. The dudeen – a short-stemmed clay pipe – is found in Irish folk tales.

The dashes setting off "a short-stemmed clay pipe" point out the definition of "dudeen."

2. Example Clues

Sometimes when a reader finds a new word, an example might be found nearby that helps to explain its meaning. Words like including, such as, and for example, point out example clues.

Examples:

a. Piscatorial creatures, such as flounder, salmon, and trout, live in the coldest parts of the ocean.

"Piscatorial" obviously refers to fish.

b. Celestial bodies, including the sun, moon, and stars, have fascinated man through the centuries.

"Celestial" objects are those in the sky or heavens.

c. In the course of man's evolution, certain organs have atrophied. The appendix, for example, has wasted away from disuse.

"Atrophied" means "wasted away."

3. Synonym Restatement Clue

The reader may discover the meaning of an unknown word because it repeats an idea expressed in familiar words nearby. Synonyms are words with the same meaning.

Examples:

a. Flooded with spotlights – the focus of all attention – the new Miss America began her year-long reign. She was the cynosure of all eyes for the rest of the evening.

"Cynosure" means "the focus of all attention."

b. The mountain pass was a tortuous road, winding and twisting like a snake around the trees of the mountainside.

"Tortuous" means "winding and twisting."

4. Contrast / Antonym Clue

Antonyms are words with opposite meanings. An opposite meaning context clue contrasts the meaning of an unfamiliar word with the meaning of a familiar term. Words like "although," "however," and "but" may signal contrast clues.

Examples:

a. When the light brightens, the pupils of the eyes contract; however, when it grows darker, they dilate.

"Dilate" means the opposite of "contract."

b. The children were as different as day and night. He was a lively conversationalist, but she was reserved and taciturn.

"Taciturn" means the opposite of a "lively conversationalist."

5. Mood / Tone Clue

The author sets a mood, and the meaning of the unknown word must harmonize with themood.

Examples:

a. The lugubrious wails of the gypsies matched the dreary whistling of the wind in the allbut-deserted cemetery.

"Lugubrious," which means "sorrowful," fits into the mood set by the words "wails," "dreary" and "deserted cemetery."

6. Experience Clue

Sometimes a reader knows from experience how people or things act in a given situation.This knowledge provides the clue to a word's meaning.

Examples:

a. During those first bewildering weeks, the thoughts of a college freshman drift back to high school where he was "in," knew everyone, and felt at home. A feeling of nostalgia sweeps over him.

b. She walked away from her closet and quickly slipped a jersey over her head. She smoothed it into place over her hips, added a belt, glanced at the mirror, and left for work.

7. Analysis or StructureClue

The parts used to construct a word can be direct clues to meaning. Knowledge of prefixes, roots, and suffixes can aid a reader in using this type of context clue. Learning one word part can add dozens of words to a reader's vocabulary. The power of word parts lies in the ability to combine the roots and affixes with the context in which a word is used to discover the author's meaning.

Examples:

a. The story is incredible. The root cred means "to believe,' and the prefix in means "not." Therefore, if a story is incredible, it is unbelievable.

b. The somnambulist had to be locked in his bedroom at night for his own safety.

If a reader knows the meaning of ambular (walk) and somn (sleep) and sees the sentence, the reader may realize that a "somnambulist" is a sleepwalker.

8. Inference Clue

Sufficient clues might be available for the careful reader to make an educated guess at themeaning.

Example:

a. She told her friend, "I'm through with blind dates forever. What a dull evening! I was

bored every minute. The conversation was absolutely vapid."

"Vapid" means "uninteresting."

9. Causeand Effect Clue

The author explains the reason for or the result of the word. Words like "because," "since," "therefore," "thus," "so," etc. may signal context clues.

Example:

a. She wanted to impress all her dinner guests with the food she served, so she carefully studied the necessary culinary arts.

"Culinary" means "food preparation."

B. -- PRACTICE EXERCISES

Exercise1: Circle the letter of the best meaning for the underlined word as it is used in context.

1. My brother said, "I just freed myself from a very loquacious history professor. All he seemed to want was an audience."

a. pretentious

b. grouchy

c. talkative

d. worried

2. There is no doubt that the idea of living in such a benign climate was appealing. The islanders seemed to keep their vitality and live longer than Europeans.

a. tropical

b. not malignant

c. kind

d. favorable

3. It is difficult to imagine a surfeit of talent in one individual, yet Leonard Bernstein simply does not have the time to make complete use of his talent as conductor, performer, writer, and lecturer.

a. excess

b. variety

c. superiority

d. lack

4. There is a large demand all over the United States for plants indigenous to the desert. Many people in Arizona have made a good business of growing and selling cacti and other local plants.

a. native

b. necessary

c. foreign

d. alien

5. After the Romans left, a millennium and a half passed before people again lived in such comfort. Churchill wrote, "From the year 400 until the year 1900 no one had central heating and very few had hot baths."

a. a decade

b. many years

c. 1000 years

d. a century

6. Many years before, Caesar's men had tried and failed to invade Britain. No doubt this contributed to the xenophobia of the Romans. They were cautious about

strangers who entered their country.
a. honesty
b. fear of foreigners
c. kindliness
d. stubbornness

7. Such are the <u>vicissitudes</u> of history. Nothing remains the same. Three hundred years of peace ended in darkness and confusion.
a. evils
b. mistakes
c. changes
d. rules

8. The purpose of the psychiatrist is to <u>mitigate</u> the suffering of the patient.
a. make milder
b. beautify
c. increase
d. banish

9. We knew he couldn't hold out much longer, because he had been doomed from the beginning. One night he met his <u>ineluctable</u> fate.
a. forgotten
b. inevitable
c. hidden
d. unhappy

10. A combination of fog and industrial smoke, called smog, has <u>vitiated</u> the air in and around many big cities.
a. concentrated
b. filled up
c. replaced
d. contaminated

Exercise 2: In the space provided, write a synonym for each underlined word as it is used in context.
1. His <u>lucid</u> lectures, along with his clearly presented explanations, made him a popular professor.
_____
2. Their <u>vociferous</u> chatter made me wish I had ear plugs.
_____
3. He was so <u>impudent</u> to his mother that I would have punished him if he talked to me that way.
_____
4. The Russians are skillful at sending <u>cryptic</u> messages, open to many interpretations. Our State Department spends days puzzling over their meanings.
_____
5. The Great Flood of Noah's day was caused by <u>incessant</u> rain that fell for 40 days and nights.
_____
6. The students who arrived late told the teacher an <u>implausible</u> story about stopping to watch a UFO.
_____

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7. After spending three weeks in the hospital, I had a <u>surfeit</u> of daytime TV programming.

_____

8. The prisoners liberated from the Nazi death camp were so <u>emaciated</u> that they looked like skeletons.

_____

9. Bob decided to be <u>prudent</u> and call ahead for reservations, instead of just showing up.

_____

10. The <u>ambiguity</u> of Joe's directions made it almost impossible to find his house.

_____

11. The job candidate's background was <u>impeccable</u> – good references and many years of experience, but the company did not give her the job.

_____

12. The tranquilized grizzly bear was <u>lethargic</u> enough for the scientists to safely examine his teeth and tattoo his ears.

Exercise.3: Choose the best meaning to the word that is underlined.

1. Tommy was a real **<u>avid</u>** baseball card collector. He inherited the desire to collect cards because his dad had a collection, too.

☑ a. eager

☐ b. careless

☐ c. apart

☐ d. fearful

2. Her Christmas bills added up. After the holidays, her **<u>extravagance</u>** was going to take several months to pay off.

☐ a. economy

☐ b. praise

☐ c. external

☑ d. overdoing

3. It was **<u>gratifying</u>** to see how she acted toward her grandmother because her grandmother was always kind to her.

☑ a. pleasing

☐ b. nervous

☐ c. aggravating

☐ d. unclear

4. The boy was caught stealing from the store. His **<u>larceny</u>** caught up with him when the owner showed him a video tape.

☐ a. gift

☑ b. theft

    ☐ c. lawless

    ☐ d. honor

5. The ideas she presented to the class were clearly an untested **theory** because there had never been any research done on it.

    ☐ a. magic

    ☐ b. brutal

    ☐ c. indictment

    ☑ d. belief

6. His **eternal** light would shine on the people even after his death.

    ☐ a. temporary

    ☐ b. ethical

    ☐ c. reformed

    ☑ d. endless

7. He cut the paper **precisely** on the line, and it fit perfectly in the grooves of the picture frame.

    ☑ a. exactly

    ☐ b. embellish

    ☐ c. outer

    ☐ d. advance

8. The boy tried to **justify** his actions to his mother by explaining the reasons why he did what he did.

    ☐ a. depend

    ☑ b. prove

    ☐ c. strict

    ☐ d. concourse

9. She did several backbends in a row to show how **limber** she was, so that she could be chosen for the squad.

    ☐ a. enthused

    ☐ b. responsive

    ☐ c. likely

    ☑ d. flexible

A -Text: 1 <u>Martin Luther King</u>

It all started on a bus. A black woman was returning home from work after a long hard day. She sat near the front of the bus because she was tired and her legs hurt. But the bus belonged to the city of Montgomery in the southern state of Alabama. And the year was nineteen fifty-five.

In those days, black people could sit only in the back of the bus. So the driver ordered the woman to give up her seat. But the woman refused, and she was arrested.

Incidents like this had happened before. But no one had ever spoken out against such treatment of blacks. This time, however, a young black preacher organized a protest. He called on all black citizens to stop riding the buses in Montgomery until the laws were changed. The name of the young preacher was Martin Luther King. He led the protest movement to end injustice in the Montgomery city bus system. The protest became known as the Montgomery bus boycott. The protest marked the beginning of the civil rights movement in the United States.

This is the story of Martin Luther King, and his part in the early days of the civil rights movement.

Martin Luther King was born in Atlanta, Georgia, in nineteen twenty-nine. He was born into a religious family.

Martin's father was a preacher at a Baptist church. And his mother came from a family with strong ties to the Baptist religion.

In nineteen twenty-nine, Atlanta was one of the wealthiest cities in the southern part of the United States. Many black families came to the city in search of a better life. There was less racial tension between blacks and whites in Atlanta than in other southern cities. But Atlanta still had laws designed to keep black people separate from whites.

The laws of racial separation existed all over the southern part of the United States. They forced blacks to attend separate schools and live in separate areas of a city. Blacks did not have the same rights as white people, and were often poorer and less educated.

Martin Luther King did not know about racial separation when he was young. But as he grew older, he soon saw that blacks were not treated equally.

One day Martin and his father went out to buy shoes. They entered a shoe store owned by a white businessman.

The businessman sold shoes to all people. But he had a rule that blacks could not buy shoes in the front part of the store. He ordered Martin's father to obey the rule. Martin never forgot his father's angry answer:

"If you do not sell shoes to black people at the front of the store, you will not sell shoes to us at all. "

Such incidents, however, were rare during Martin's early life. Instead, he led the life of a normal boy. Martin liked to learn, and he passed through school very quickly. He was only fifteen when he was ready to enter the university. The university, called Morehouse College, was in Atlanta. Morehouse College was one of the few universities in the South where black students could study.

It was at the university that Martin decided to become a preacher. At the same time, he also discovered he had a gift for public speaking.

He soon was able to test his gifts. One Sunday, Martin's father asked him to preach at his church. When Martin arrived, the church members were surprised to see such a young man getting ready to speak to them. But they were more surprised to find themselves deeply moved by the words of young Martin Luther King.

A church member once described him: "The boy seemed much older than his years. He understood life and its problems."

Martin seemed wise to others because of his studies at the university. He carefully read the works of Mahatma Gandhi, the Indian leader and thinker. Martin also studied the books of the American philosopher, Henry David Thoreau. Both men wrote about ways to fight injustice. Gandhi had led his people to freedom by peacefully refusing to obey unjust laws. He taught his followers never to use violence. Thoreau also urged people to disobey laws that were not just, and to be willing to go to prison for their beliefs.

As he studied, Martin thought he had found the answer for his people. The ideas of Gandhi and Thoreau -- non-violence and civil disobedience -- could be used together to win equal rights for black Americans. Martin knew, then, that his decision to become a preacher was right. He believed that as a preacher he could spread the ideas of Gandhi and Thoreau. Years later he said:

"My university studies gave me the basic truths I now believe. I discovered the idea of humanity's oneness and the dignity and value of all human character. "

Martin continued his studies in religion for almost ten years. When he was twenty-two, he moved north to study in Boston.

It was in Boston that Martin met Coretta Scott, the woman who later became his wife.

Martin always had been very popular with the girls in his hometown. His brother once said that Martin "never had one girlfriend for more than a year".

But Martin felt Coretta Scott was different. The first time he saw her Martin said: "You have everything I have ever wanted in a wife. "

Coretta was surprised at his words. But she felt that Martin was serious and honest. A short time later, they were married. Martin soon finished his studies in Boston, and received a doctorate degree in religion. The young preacher then was offered a job at a church in Montgomery, Alabama.

Martin Luther King and his wife were happy in Montgomery. Their first child was born. Martin's work at the church was going well. He became involved in a number of activities to help the poor. And the members of his church spoke highly of their new preacher. Coretta remembered their life as simple and without worries.

Then, a black woman, Rosa Parks, was arrested for sitting in the white part of a Montgomery city bus. And Martin Luther King organized a protest against the Montgomery bus system.

Martin believed it was very important for the bus boycott to succeed -- more important even than his own life. But he worried about his ability to lead such an important campaign. He was only twenty-six years old. He prayed to God for help and believed that God answered his prayers.

Martin knew that his actions and his speeches would be important for the civil rights movement. But he was faced with a serious problem. He asked: "How can I make my people militant enough to win our goals, while keeping peace within the movement. "

The answer came to him from the teachings of Gandhi and Thoreau. In his first speech as a leader, Martin said:

"We must seek to show we are right through peaceful, not violent means. Love must be the ideal guiding our actions. If we protest bravely, and yet with pride and Christian love, then future historians will say:

"There lived a great people, a black people, who gave new hope to civilization. "

With these words, a new movement was born. It was non-violent and peaceful. But victory was far from sure, and many difficult days of struggle lay ahead.

A- Text: 2   <u>Martin Luther King</u> (follow up)

Martin Luther King was born in Atlanta, Georgia, in nineteen twenty-nine. He began his university studies when he was fifteen years old, and received a doctorate degree in religion. He became a preacher at a church in Montgomery, Alabama.

In nineteen fifty-five, a black woman in Montgomery was arrested for sitting in the white part of a city bus. Doctor King became the leader of a protest against the city bus system. It was the first time that black southerners had united against the laws of racial separation.

At first, the white citizens of Montgomery did not believe that the protest would work. They thought most blacks would be afraid to fight against racial separation. But the buses remained empty.

Some whites used tricks to try to end the protest.

They spread false stories about Martin Luther King and other protest leaders. One story accused Martin of stealing money from the civil rights movement. Another story charged that protest leaders rode in cars while other protesters had to walk. But the tricks did not work, and the protest continued.

Doctor King's wife Coretta described how she and her husband felt during the protest. She said: "We never knew what was going to happen next. We felt like actors in a play whose ending we did not know.

Yet we felt a part of history. And we believed we were instruments of the will of God".

The white citizens blamed Doctor King for starting the protest. They thought it would end if he was in prison or dead. Doctor King was arrested twice on false charges. His arrests made national news and he was released. But the threats against his life continued.

The Montgomery bus boycott lasted three hundred eighty-two days. Finally, the United States Supreme Court ruled that racial separation was illegal in the Montgomery bus system. Martin Luther King and his followers had won their struggle. The many months of meetings and protest marches had made victory possible.

They also gave blacks a new feeling of pride and unity. They saw that peaceful protest, Mahatma Gandhi's idea of non-violence, could be used as a tool to win their legal rights.

Life did not return to normal for Doctor King after the protest was over. He had become well known all over the country and throughout the world. He often was asked to speak about his ideas on non-violence. Both black and white Americans soon began to follow his teachings. Groups were formed throughout the south to protest peacefully against racial separation.

The civil rights movement spread so fast that a group of black churchmen formed an organization to guide it. The organization was called the Southern Christian Leadership Conference. Martin Luther King became its president.

In his job, Doctor King helped organize many protests in the southern part of the United States. Blacks demanded to be served in areas where only whites were permitted to eat. And they rode in trains and buses formerly for whites only. These protests became known as "freedom rides. " Many of the freedom rides turned violent. Black activists were beaten and arrested. Some were even killed.

In nineteen sixty-three, the black citizens of Birmingham refused to buy goods from the stores in the city. They demanded more jobs for blacks. And they demanded to send their children to white schools. The white citizens were angry and afraid, but they refused to meet

the blacks' demands. The situation became tense. Many protestors were beaten and arrested. Even Doctor King was arrested. But he was not in prison for long.

The Birmingham demonstrations made international news. Whites soon saw that it was easier to meet the demands of the protestors than to fight them. Martin Luther King and his followers had won an important victory in Birmingham. It marked a turning point for the civil rights movement.

Martin Luther King recognized the importance of Birmingham. It did not mean that racial separation had ended. Some still remains today. But he felt that the battle was almost won. And he wanted to call on the nation for its support. So doctor king organized a March on Washington, D. C.

The March on Washington took place in August, nineteen sixty-three. About two hundred fifty thousand persons gathered there. They came to demand more jobs and freedom for black Americans. There were to be many other marches in Washington during the nineteen sixties and early seventies. But this was the biggest up to that time.

It was in Washington that Martin Luther King gave one of his most famous speeches. The speech is known as the "I Have a Dream Speech. " It expressed his ideas for the future. Doctor King said:

Martin Luther King received the Nobel Peace Prize in nineteen sixty-four. But he did not live to see the final results of his life's work. He was shot to death in Memphis, Tennessee, in nineteen sixty-eight.

Doctor King always felt he would die a violent death. His life had been threatened wherever he went. And he often spoke to his wife about his fears. But he never believed that his life was more important than the civil rights movement. The night before he died he spoke to his supporters. He said:

(MUSIC: "We Shall Overcome")

B- Text: <u>Eleanor Roosevelt</u>

Eleanor Roosevelt, 1884-1962: She Was the Most Influential Wife of Any American President

Eleanor Roosevelt was the wife of America's thirty-second president, Franklin Delano Roosevelt. She helped her husband in many ways during his long political life. She also became one of the most influential people in America. She fought for equal rights for all people -- workers, women, poor people, black people. And she sought peace among nations.

Anna Eleanor Roosevelt was born in New York City in eighteen eighty-four. Eleanor's family had great wealth and influence. But Eleanor did not have a happy childhood. Her mother was sick and nervous. Her father did not work. He drank too much alcohol. He was not like his older brother, Theodore Roosevelt, who was later elected president. When Eleanor was eight years old, her mother died. Two years later, her father died. Eleanor's

grandmother raised the Roosevelt children. Eleanor remembered that as a child, her greatest happiness came from helping others.

In the early nineteen hundreds, many people were concerned about the problems of poor people who came to America in search of a better life. Eleanor Roosevelt could not understand how people lived in such poor conditions while she and others had so much wealth.

After she finished school, Eleanor began teaching children to read in one of the poorest areas of New York City, called "Hell's Kitchen." She investigated factories where workers were said to be badly treated. She saw little children of four and five years old working until they dropped to the floor. She became involved with other women who shared the same ideas about improving social conditions.

Franklin Roosevelt began visiting Eleanor. Franklin belonged to another part of the Roosevelt family. Franklin and Eleanor were married in nineteen-oh-five. In the next eleven years, they had six children.

Franklin Roosevelt began his life in politics in New York. He was elected to be a state legislator. Later, President Woodrow Wilson appointed him to be assistant secretary of the Navy. The Roosevelts moved to Washington in nineteen thirteen.

It was there, after thirteen years of marriage, that Eleanor Roosevelt went through one of the hardest periods of her life. She discovered that her husband had fallen in love with another woman. She wanted to end the marriage. But her husband urged her to remain his wife. She did. Yet her relationship with her husband changed. She decided she would no longer play the part of a politician's wife. Instead, she began to build a life with interests of her own.

In nineteen twenty-one, Franklin Roosevelt was struck by the terrible disease polio. He would never walk again without help. His political life seemed over, but his wife helped him return to politics. He was elected governor of New York two times.

Eleanor Roosevelt learned about politics and became involved in issues and groups that interested her. In nineteen twenty-two, she became part of the Women's Trade Union League. She also joined the debate about ways to stop war. In those years after World War One, she argued that America must be involved in the world to prevent another war.

"Peace is the question of the hour," she once told a group of women. "Women must work for peace to keep from losing their loved ones."

The question of war and peace was forgotten as the United States entered a severe economic depression in nineteen twenty-nine. Prices suddenly dropped on the New York stock market. Banks lost their money. People lost their jobs.

Franklin Roosevelt was elected president in nineteen thirty-two. He promised to end the Depression and put Americans back to work.

Mrs. Roosevelt helped her husband by spreading information about his new economic program. It was called the New Deal. She traveled around the country giving speeches and visiting areas that needed economic aid.

Mrs. Roosevelt was different from the wives of earlier presidents. She was the first to become active in political and social issues. While her husband was president, Mrs. Roosevelt held more than three hundred news conferences for female reporters. She wrote a daily newspaper commentary. She wrote for many magazines. These activities helped spread her ideas to all Americans and showed that women had important things to say.

One issue Mrs. Roosevelt became involved in was equal rights for black Americans. She met publicly with black leaders to hear their problems. Few American politicians did this during the nineteen thirties and nineteen forties. One incident involving Mrs. Roosevelt became international news.

In nineteen thirty-nine, an American singer, Marian Anderson, planned a performance at Constitution Hall in Washington. But a conservative women's group refused to permit her to sing there because she was black.

Mrs. Roosevelt was a member of that organization, the Daughters of the American Revolution. She publicly resigned her membership to protest the action of the group. An opinion study showed that most Americans thought she was right. Eleanor Roosevelt helped the performance to be held outdoors, around the Lincoln Memorial. More than seventy thousand people heard Marian Anderson sing. Mrs. Roosevelt was always considered one of its strongest supporters of the civil rights movement.

The United States was forced to enter World War Two when Japanese forces attacked the American naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii in nineteen forty-one.

Mrs. Roosevelt made many speeches over the radio praising the soldiers she saw on her travels. She called on people to urge their government to work for peace after the war was over.

Franklin Roosevelt died in nineteen forty-five, soon after he was elected to a fourth term as president. When his wife heard the news she said: "I am more sorry for the people of this country than I am for myself."

Harry Truman became president after Franklin Roosevelt died. World War Two ended a few months later. The leaders of the world recognized the need for peace. So they joined together to form the United Nations. President Truman appointed Mrs. Roosevelt as a delegate to the first meeting of the UN. A newspaper wrote at the time: "Mrs. Roosevelt, better than any other person, can best represent the little people of America, or even the world."

Later, Mrs. Roosevelt was elected chairman of the U.N. Human Rights Commission. She helped write a resolution called the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. That declaration became an accepted part of international law.

Mrs. Roosevelt spent the last years of her life visiting foreign countries. She became America's unofficial ambassador. She returned home troubled by what she saw. She recognized that the needs of the developing world were great. She called on Americans to help the people in developing countries.

A few years before she died, Eleanor Roosevelt spoke about what she believed in life. This is what she said. "**This life always seems to me to be a continuing process of education and development. What we are preparing for, none of us can be sure. But, that we must do our best while we are here and develop all our capacities is absolutely certain. We face whatever we have to face in this life. And if we do it bravely and sincerely, we're probably accomplishing that growth which we were put here to accomplish**."

Eleanor Roosevelt gave the best she had all through her life. People around the world recognized their loss when she died in nineteen sixty-two.

Appendix18: The Reporting Questionnaire: Students' Self-reports

This is meant to involve students in analyzing the type of language test they had after the period of study. After a period of six(6) weeks, where an intense load of varied and 'comprehensible' input was administered to a group of EFL students (the experimental group), a post-test was set to check if any progress was done at the level of comprehension and vocabulary retrieval. Testees, themselves, were asked to witness on the proposal.

1. Were the tasks easier than before? ☐ yes ☐ no
2. How did you understand the tasks:
   ☐ with ease ☐ somehow easier ☐ still difficult
3. Could you manage better than the beginning?
   ☐ yes ☐ no
4. Which criteria did you use for understanding both reading and listening?
   ☐ using context clues
   ☐ using linguistic knowledge
   ☐ using background knowledge
5. Which skill presented more feasibility?
   ☐ reading ☐ listening ☐ both ☐ no one
6. Which skill presented more difficulty?
   ☐ reading ☐ listening ☐ both ☐ no one
7. Did you rely only on your linguistic knowledge to understand?
   ☐ yes ☐ no ☐ sometimes

8. Did you have recourse to other sources for comprehending the texts?
   …use of dictionary …asking peers …others
9. Did the variety in the input help expand your lexical stock?
   ☐ yes ☐ no

10. Did multiple exposures to different contexts help in progressing in vocabulary retrieval?

   ☐ yes ☐ no
2. Do you feel there was any progress in the comprehension of the texts?
   ☐ yes ☐ no
3. Did you feel more confident approaching new tasks and unfamiliar words?
   ☐ yes ☐ no
4. Which skill should be more enhanced for further language tests?
   ☐ reading ☐ listening ☐ both

Appendix19 :   Ten Tips for Finding the Right Words

Finding the right word--*le mot juste*--was a lifelong quest for linguists and language teachers and learners

Whatever you want to write or say, there is only one word that will express it, one verb to make it move, one adjective to qualify it. You must seek that word, that verb, that adjective, and never be satisfied with approximations, never resort to tricks, even clever ones, or to verbal pirouettes to escape the difficulty. As a result, we often have to be "satisfied with approximations" when drafting. Near synonymsand almost-right words, like temporary bridges, let us move on to the next sentence before a deadline arrives.

Nonetheless, converting inexact words to precise ones remains a critical part of revising our drafts--a process that can't be reduced to one simple method or clever trick. Here are ten points worth considering the next time you find yourself in search of the right word.

1. **Be Patient**
   In revising, if the right word is not at hand, run a search, sort, select process through your mind to see if you can find it. (Even then, a word may be elusive, refusing to emerge from the mind one day only to arise from the subconscious the next.) . . . Be prepared to rewrite today what you revised yesterday. Above all, be patient: take the time to select words that will transfer your exact thought to the mind of a reader.
   (May Flewellen McMillan, *The Shortest Way to the Essay: Rhetorical Strategies*. Mercer University Press, 1984)
2. **Wear Out Your Dictionary**
   Once you have a dictionary, use it! Wear it out! . . .
   When you sit down to write and need a particular word, pause to consider the key ideas you want to convey. Start with a word that's in the vague. Look it up and go from there, exploring synonyms, roots, and usagenotes. (Jan Venolia, *The Right Word!: How to Say What You Really Mean*. Ten Speed Press, 2003)
3. **Recognize Connotations**
   Do not be tricked into thinking you can substitute one word for another simply because a thesaurusgroups them together under a single entry. The thesaurus will do you little good unless you are familiar with the connotationsof possible synonyms for a given word. "Portly," "chubby," "chunky," "heavy," "overweight," "stocky," "plump," and "obese" are all possible synonyms for "fat," but they are not interchangeable. . . . Your task is to select the word that conveys most accurately the precise shade of meaning or feeling you intend.
   (Peter G. Beidler, *Writing Matters*. Coffeetown Press, 2010)
4. **Put Away Your Thesaurus**
   Using a thesaurus will not make you look smarter. It will only make you look like you are trying to look smarter.
   (Adrienne Dowhan et al. *Essays That Will Get You Into College*, 3rd ed. Barron's, 2009)
5. **Beware of Fancy Language**
   There is a difference between vivid language and unnecessarily fancy language. As you search for the particular, the colorful, and the unusual, be careful not to choose words merely for their sound or appearance rather than for their substance. When it

comes to word choice, longer is not always better. As a rule, prefer simple, plain language over fancy language. Avoid language that seems artificial or unnecessarily formal in favor of language that sounds natural and genuine to your ear. Trust the right word--whether fancy or plain--to do the job.
(Stephen Wilbers, *Keys to Great Writing*. Writer's Digest Books, 2000)

6. **Delete Pet Words**
They may be more annoyances than companions. They are the words you overuse without even knowing it. My own problem words are "very," "just," and "that." Delete them if they're not essential.
(John Dufresne, *The Lie That Tells a Truth*. W.W. Norton, 2003)

7. **Eliminate the Wrong Words**
I do not choose the right word. I get rid of the wrong one, first.
(A.E. Housman, quoted by Robert Penn Warren in "An Interview in New Haven." *Studies in the Novel*, 1970)

8. **Listen**
Bear in mind, when you're choosing words and stringing them together, how they sound. This may seem absurd: readers read with their eyes. But in fact they hear what they are reading far more than you realize. Therefore such matters as rhythm and alliterationare vital to every sentence.
(William Zinsser, *On Writing Well*, 7th ed. HarperCollins, 2006)

9. **Be True**
   "The right word is, simply, the wanted one; the wanted word is the one most nearly true. True to what? Your vision and your purpose.
(Elizabeth Bowen, *Afterthought: Pieces About Writing*, 1962)

10. **Enjoy**
People often forget that the sheer joy of finding the right word which expresses a thought is extraordinary, an emotional rush of an intense kind.
(playwright Michael Mackenzie, quoted by Eric Armstrong, 1994)

Is the struggle to find the right word truly worth the effort? Mark Twain thought so. *"The difference between the almost-right word & the right word is really a large matter,"* he once said. *"It's the difference between the lightning-bug & the lightning."*

Abstract: The global aim of the present reseach work is an attempt to reach a threshold level of the learning of a foreign language (English) through the development of vocabulary. Observing the very limited rate of use of English in the Algerian community, our EFL students, actually, need to progress in the mastery of the language by reading and/or listening to texts or messages intensively.To achieve this goal, the subsequent procedure is followed: A brief survey on the linguistic situation in Algeria where emphasis will be on the consideration of the foreign languages and their role in the educational system. Then, the perennial role of vocabulary in the learning of languages is stressed with clarification of second and foreign language status in the community. However, the question of why reception (reading and listening) is most appropriate for the growth of a foreign language vocabulary was the basic research question. In due course, a language proficiency test (a pre-test, then a post-test) was conducted to verify the appropriateness of the adopted theory.

Key words: vocabulary development, receptive skills, discourse comprehension, comprehensible input, language proficiency.

Résumé: L'objectif global de la recherche est d'essayer d'atteindre un seuil minimum d'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère (langue anglaise) à travers le développement du vocabulaire. Etant donné l'absence quasi totale de l'utilisation de l'anglais dans la communauté algérienne, les étudiants ont réellement besoin d'avancer dans leur maitrise de la langue en lisant et/ou en écoutant des textes ou des messages vivement.Pour atteindre ce but, les étapes suivantes seront suivies :Donner un aperçu sur la situation linguistique en Algérie (un pays non anglophone) ou l'accent sera mis sur la considération des langues étrangères et leurs rôles dans le système éducatif. L'importance du vocabulaire dans l'apprentissage des langues d'où une différence entre seconde langue et langue étrangère sera clarifiée. Pourquoi la lecture et les moyens audio (visuelles) sont plus appropries pour le développement d'une richesse lexicale d'une langue étrangère, est la principale question autour de laquelle l'hypothèse du présent travail de recherche est basée. Pour se faire, un test de langue (un pré-test et puis un post-test) est administré afin d'attesté de la concordance ou non de la théorie adoptée.

Mots clés: développement du vocabulaire, les skills réceptifs, compréhension du discours, contenu compréhensible, aptitude langagière.

الملخص

الهدف الرئيسي من وراء هدا البحث هو محاولة تحقيق الحد الادنى لتعلم لغة اجنبية(الانجليزية) من خلال تنمية مخزون المفردات. فبموجب غياب استعمال اللغة الانجليزية في المجتمع الجزائري فانه بات من الضروري دعم القدرات التعلم للطلبة (في معهد اللغات-شعبة انجليزية) من خلال القراءة و الاستماع الى نصوص او رسائل(مكتوبة او مسموعة او حتى مرئية) بصفة مكثفة.

لبلوغ هدا الهدف' الخطوات الاتية سوف تتبع .. اعطاء لمحة وجيزة عن الوضعية اللغوية للجزائر اين التركيز يكون حول الاهم الني تكتسيها اللغات الاجنبية و دورها في مجالات التعليم و المنظومة التربوية. الخطوة الثانية تتمثل في اضفاء الاهمية البالغة لرصيد المفردات في تعلم اللغات الاجنبية مع ابراز اوجه الاختلاف بين لغة ثانية و لغة اجنبية و ما يترتب عن دلك التصنيف. السؤال المحوري خلال هدا البحث يكون كما يلي. لمادا المهارات التحصيلية كالقراءة و الاستماع الى المعطيات اللغوية(مكتوبة او مسموعة) تمثل الجانب المتميز لإثراء الرصيد اللغوي لأي لغة اجنبية

للإجابة عن السؤال. تم ادراج فحص لغوي يتضمن شطرين. فحص اولي و اخر بعدي للوقوف على جدوة استعمال النظرية المعتمدة من عدمها.

تنمية مخزون المفردات. المهارات الاستيعابية. فهم الحوار. المضمون المفهوم. القدرات اللغوية*الكلمات المفتاحية-*

"**Words, so innocent and powerless as they are, standing in a dictionary; how potent for good and evil they become in the hands of one who knows how to choose and combine them.**"*Nathaniel Hawthorne*

There has been copious research in lexical development in mother tongue (L1),second language (L2) and foreign language (FL),but the absence of an all-encompassing framework tointerpret these studies results in a fragmentation of the field. Withstudies addressing, for example, vocabulary size, incidental versus intentional vocabulary learning, different dimensions ofword knowledge, passive/active distinctions in respect to vocabularyknowledge, reception and comprehension, vocabulary instruction andvocabulary learning strategies, the scope has grown considerably. There are now theories of L2/FL vocabulary acquisition, a wide (andgrowing) range of teaching techniques available, and a greatlyincreased awareness on the part of most teachers (and learners) ofthe importance of vocabulary development.

The primary motive for learning a language is that it provides a means of communication. The extent to this communicative need depends to a considerable degree on the nature of the social community in which the person lives. A second language is, therefore, for many people, simply a normal and necessary extension of their communicative repertoire for coping with life's demands, hence the case of the French language in Algeria. However, with a foreign language learning situation, this means that the language has no established functions inside the learner's community; but will be used mainly for communicating in academic contexts or with outsiders. When the language is being used for external rather than internal communication, people are less likely to be aware of a communicative need for it. In our context, learners have had no experience of the target community where the language is used. Far from having to deal with motivational factors or attitudinal traits of our learners, it is evident that our learners have hardly attitudes for or against because they are confronted with a second-hand image. One important aspect of this experience is the image of the community which the learner derives from his language teacher and the materials (textbooks and the like). In such a case, it may remain a weak factor compared with more general aspects of motivation. A learner with integrative motivation has a genuine interest in the target language's community. He wants to learn their (outsiders') language in order to communicate

with them more satisfactory to gain closer contact with them, their language and culture. A learner with instrumental motivation is more interested in how the target language can be a useful instrument towards furthering other goals, such as gaining a necessary qualification or improving employment prospects. It is clear that the two kinds of motivation do not exclude each other: most learners are motivated by a mixture of integrative and instrumental reasons.

Assuming that a learner is well motivated to learn a language, what opportunities does the environment offer to him? And what influence does the environment have on the learner? We can categorize some environmental aspects of this influence. Contrastively to the given situation of our EFL learners, a learner of a foreign language should have access to situations where the language is used as a means of communication, hence evolving not only in language practice but developing a considerable amount of vocabulary. In some situations, this factor is inseparable from communicative needs. However, it is important both for learning and for the development of positive attitudes and motivation that learners should interact with native speakers at a personal level. Since in the Algerian case it is a far reach goal, an approximately favourable situation should be created through an appropriate (comprehensible, rich and authentic) input. This could simply be done through original (oral and written) discourse canalized into genuine recorded verbal speeches and excerpts of written documents (newspapers, magazines, novels) to make learners feel confident in the newly- contextualized environment of learning the target (foreign) language. Still, it is worth noting that, in our case, the classroom remains the ultimate opportunity where learners are confronted with the use of the language. There is no doubt, therefore, that classrooms should concentrate on providing the (ideal) kind of input which is comprehensible, interesting, relevant and helpful to foreign learners undertaking the endeavor to achieve the task of learning the foreign language, hence English. If the input is worked out thoroughly to provide helpful hints to carry on the learning process, learners may be encouraged to adopt a number of active strategies to learn more effectively. In successful language learning, learners can employ a wide variety of strategies showing their active involvement in learning. For example, some learners may repeat silently to themselves the sounds they hear from their teacher or other audio sources. Or, when the teacher asks a question, they often think out their own answer and compare it with the accepted one by the teacher. Furthermore, outside the classroom, some learners may exploit every opportunity to use or to be in contact with the foreign language they learn (listening to the radio, reading newspapers, watching original-version movies, etc.).   For that,the acquisition of meaning is more complicated than the

acquisition of phonology and syntax. Though, at some learning stages, these two parameters may play a determinant role in specifying comprehension via intonation, stressed words and via structural combinations, like the interrogative form or the passive one. Nevertheless, semantics is a never-ending process where learners always learn vocabulary and store it continuously to reach an acceptable level as regards language comprehension. Therefore, processing a language is an essential human trait since it (language) is the main vehicle by which we know about other's people thoughts, and the two must be intimately related.

In acquiring a language, the learner's linguistic knowledge passes through stages. At a first stage, children do not acquire their mother tongue by memorization and repetition of sentences they hear in their environment. Quite the reverse, children are continuously involved in the creative activity of constructing and comprehending new sentences which differ at certain sociolinguistic features and context specificities accordingly. In fact, what any learner does is building the grammar of the language s/he is learning, a mental system of rules and principles, a theory of her/his language which makes her/him able to produce and understand a large amount of (if not all) the sentences of the language. However, the role of the environment is very important. With no linguistic input to provoke the acquisition process, a learner will not learn a language in the way he is supposed to; i.e. having a threshold level of comprehension of discourse, especially of a foreign language (spoken or written) is, indeed, required. Generally, the term foreign language will be to apply to both foreign and second language learning as regards theories on vocabulary development. Likewise, the terms acquisition/learning will be used interchangeably. However, in the few places where a contrast is necessarily intended (especially, practical sides), this will be clear from the context.

Back to theory, there was time when teaching and learning a foreign language was viewed primarily as a matter of controlling its grammar. Methods as different as the Audio-Lingual method (ALM) and Grammar Translation method (GTM) had mastery of structures as their main goal, and vocabulary development was approached as some kind of supplementary activity often through memorizing decontextualized word lists. Fortunately not everyone held this view and a handful of pioneers set out to rectify the situation. In this vein, the researcher attempts to bring a modest contribution to an area now recognized as of central importance for acquisition by specialists, syllabus designers, textbook writers, language teachers and mainly EFL learners.

Arguably, when we look at texts- our learners may have to read- and conversations that are the ones they may be involved in, we find that relatively a small amount of well-chosen vocabulary can allow the learners to do a lot. When looking at an academic reading text and examining the different kinds of vocabulary it contains we can distinguish four kinds of vocabulary: 'high-frequency words, academic words, technical and low-frequency words. This general view corresponds to the type of vocabulary taught at the department of English where a general vocabulary is used for communication purposes through the skills of oral expression, reading and listening comprehension. On the other hand, there is a linguistic jargon which is specifically utilized in some modules, like phonetics and even linguistics. To come up with a linguistic profile of a first-year EFL student, we should measure the potential mastery of the lexicon in the other modules like: literature and civilization. In sum, these high-frequency words include function words (in, for, the, of, a, etc.) and many content words. Nonetheless, frequency lists may disagree with each other about the frequency rank order of particular words with the context of use and usage in the community /communities using the language either as a mother tongue or/and as a second/foreign language, hence the suggestion of creating our own frequency word list specifically related to our EFL learners .

One of the problem areas is that some technical vocabularies occur in the high-frequency words and the Academic Word List. For instance, the Academic Word List was made by deciding on the high-frequency words of English and then examining a range of academic texts to find what words were not among the high-frequency words but had wide range and reasonable frequency of occurrence (range is important because academic vocabulary is intended for general academic purposes). Here are few examples: "wall" in biology, "cost, price, demand" in economics, "plate, and ground" in physics, etc. All of them are high-frequency words which have particular technical uses. Moreover, what is regarded as low-frequency item by one is seen as a frequent item by another. The same items can be marked differently: very formal, old-fashioned, belonging to a particular dialect, vulgar or even a foreign word.

Trends in linguistic theory (the dusk of structuralism and the dawn of Chomskyan School of linguistics) have affected the teaching and learning of vocabulary in the field of ELT. Additionally, reviews of the history of language teaching methods conclude that all of them pay some limited attention to vocabulary, but with the possible exception of some newer approaches. In more recent times, Carter and McCarthy (1988) conclude that:

'although, it suffered neglect for a long time, vocabulary pedagogy has benefited in the last fifteen years or so from theoretical advances in the linguistic study of the lexicon from the communicative trend in teaching which has brought the learner into focus, and from development in computers. What is perhaps missing in all this is more knowledge about what happens in classrooms when vocabulary crops up'. (p. 51).

Truth is much closer to Krashen and Terrell's position. They contend that'*we acquire language by understanding messages. If they are right, formal teaching may be of little benefit to the learner'*. In other words, the quality of the input must be carefully chosen. Probably the best we can do is to select an input that is appropriate and encourage a low-anxiety atmosphere conductive to acquisition. In doing so, less attention will be paid to individual words and substantially less to traditional grammar structures. In contrast, much more time will be devoted to ensuring that students are aware of the lexical items which carry much of the referential meaning in written texts and institutionalized (formal) utterances which carry the meaning of natural spoken text. So, many of the activities will be of receptive and awareness- raising kind. It must be stressed that teachers who are used to formal vocabulary teaching, using largely productive practice need to make an important change of emphasis, learning truly to value receptive practice.

In fact, a given teacher's attitude toward the role of vocabulary in language acquisition is the product of a number of factors. First, what was the teacher's personal experience of learning foreign languages and how did the method (s) the teacher experienced deal with it? Second, what is the teacher's metacognitive attitude toward vocabulary learning? Third, what is the teacher's knowledge of the research done on this issue? Fourth, what impact has the experience gained through teaching had on the teacher? In the same line of thought, there are some metacognitive attitudes that may constitute the hypotheses of the present research work. They are shared between teachers and learners as regards the teaching-learning of vocabulary in a foreign language:

-Even advanced EFL learners are often slow in mastering vocabulary.

-Both teachers and learners feel that the productive areas of language of speaking and writing are much harder to achieve than the receptive areas of listening and reading.

- Advocates of the Input Hypothesis (Mainly, Krashen, 1989, 2003) postulate that successful language learning results from comprehensible input as the essential external ingredient coupled with a powerful internal language acquisition device.

- If the language is authentic or/and well-manipulated, rich in content, enjoyable, and above all comprehensible, then learning is more successful.

- Learners need multiple exposures to words. This is certainly of even greater importance for EFL learners who, in general, have much less exposure to the language.

-Equally, if not important, however, is preparing students to make the best use of out-of-class activities, be it reading or listening.

All the hypothesized ingredients for language proficiency are tightly related to vocabulary development through an academic teaching procedure and a thorough learning process accordingly. Still, the most important factor to the development of foreign language proficiency is the learner's exposure to the target language. Because a foreign language has no social functions in the community where it is used (rather taught), exposure to it is very little, unless in very restricted areas. From this angle, Krashen proposed optimal characteristics for such input and also hypothesized the existence of an *"affective filter"* to control the intake of input. That part of input which the learner accommodates to or utilizes as part of the process of internalizing new language should be at the reach of learners with graded difficulty, of course. The Input Hypothesis itself maintains that acquisition depends solely on comprehensible input, i.e. language that is always slightly ahead of the learner's current stage of progress but which contains messages that the learner can comprehend through means, such as the situational clues. Hence any teaching method is said to succeed to the extent that it provides comprehensible input. The Affective Filter Hypothesis (one among the five hypotheses of Krashen) provides a reason for the learner's varying success; because a negative attitude to foreign language learning raises a mental block that prevents comprehensible input being used by the learner.In other terms, comprehensible input is demonstrated by adaptations of speech to language learners through a variety of evidence. This evidence is portrayed, conversely, by the silent period first, and by simplified codes, then. The use of silence in communication is, as in the case of speech (listening), rule-governed and it is also variable and culture-specific. Apart from its function to signal lack of communication, silence is used to express certain types of interpersonal relations, i.e. silence can help express other types of interlocutions when communicating: human relation (respect,

submission), manifest emotions (anger, sympathy), propositional meaning (refuse an invitation). On the other side, all speech communities have in their repertoires special registers used to address people and anyone who is believed to have problems with processing normal speech, hence the need for simplification of codes to ease the burden for real communication. Such simplified codes as Foreign Talk (henceforth, F.T.) used in language classrooms share many structural, lexical and phonological affinities leading to simplification on learner input. Therefore, the most outstanding feature characterizing simplification in Foreign Talk is the exaggerated, slow and loud pronunciation, as well as frequent pauses and repetitions. At the structural level, the characteristic features of F.T. include omissions, expansions, replacements and rearrangements. Since F.T., in our language classrooms, is carried out by large through 'teacher talk', much research on simplified codes is done in connection with input/interaction features. As stated by Bingham Wesche (1994), *the different forms of classroom talk should be modified rather than simplified as an input*. Still, one of the main proponents of the use of simplified codes in language teaching is Krashen (1982, 1985). For him, the use of simple codes can be useful and encouraging to the learner in acquiring the target language. Krashen argues that simple codes are used as tools for communication and therefore, provide comprehensible input. Simple codes are also said to be congruent with the level of the learner's proficiency in foreign languages and they are perceived by the learner as pertaining to his local concerns.

In concordance with the research's objective to promote language proficiency through a considerable development in vocabulary via the two receptive skills, it is quite important to claim that any expansion of vocabularies can be reached across a life time. Thus, it is difficult, if not possible, to separate vocabulary from comprehension. In the same vein, Davis (1942) asserts that *comprehension is: word knowledge, or vocabulary and reasoning*. However, words represent complex and, often, multiple meanings. Furthermore, these complex and multiple meanings need to be understood in the context of other words in the sentences and paragraphs of texts. Not only are students expected to understand words in texts, but also texts can be expected to introduce them to many new words. So, the relationship between vocabulary and literacy is impossible to separate, i.e. to be literate necessitates and supports a rich vocabulary. Advanced learners can generally communicate (well), having learnt (all) the basic structures of the language. However, they have to broaden their vocabulary to express themselves more clearly and appropriately in a wide range of situations. Students might even have a receptive knowledge of a wider range of vocabulary, which means they can recognize

the items (words) and recognize their meaning. Nevertheless, their productive use of a wide range of vocabulary is normally limited, and this is one of the areas that need greater attention. At this stage, we are concerned not only with students understanding the meaning of words, but also being able to recognize them appropriately, taking into account factors such as oral and written forms of the language (listening and reading), degree of formality and style. Also, the most important aspect of vocabulary teaching for advanced learners is to foster learners' independence so that they will be able to deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course.

So, when we receive language, we are, of course, listening and reading. During this phase, we deconstruct language in order to comprehend it. Necessarily, when we teach our learners, we need to be keenly aware of our academic discourse so as to set the appropriate tone of learning. Actually, we are creating new knowledge through teacher discourse. Our classroom discourse and readings should be sophisticated enough to approximate the demands for understanding in a content area; yet not so difficult that the students do not understand us or the reading. We need to address the instructional level of most of our students, and still challenge them to move out of their comfort zone, without reaching their frustration level. Accordingly, decades of research have resulted in significant implications about best receptive vocabulary instructional methods used to support students' literacy development (Halliday, 1985; Stahl, 1999; Scarcella, 2003; Echevarria, Vogt and Short, 2004; Scheleppegrel, 2005). Application for receptive vocabulary strategies is manifold: First, building captivating anticipatory sets for lessons not only motivates students to participate, but also keeps them engaged throughout the lesson, accesses their prior knowledge, scaffolds information, builds their academic language and facilitates acquisition of new lexis (knowledge). Second, involving intensive vocabulary development includes the recognition of root words, affixes and cognates of words, in addition to the ability to use that knowledge to ascertain the meaning of unknown words when presented in written context (reading passages). Third, experiencing multiple exposures to new words assists the acquisition of vocabulary. Students learn to personalize new vocabulary into their background information and they learn to personalize new vocabulary by using the new words appropriately in speaking and writing. ,

There are benefits of receptive skills development that remarkably influence vocabulary growth. Within whatever text, be it written or spoken, new language is presented. Most of teaching materials may involve some comprehension tasks, but this hardly seems to

constitute systematic development. True, texts can be used for the presentation of language items, but it is not helpful all text-based lessons with language work. The main objective of a receptive skills programme is not the teaching of more grammar and vocabulary, but is the development of the learners' ability to understand and interpret texts using their existing language knowledge. Of course, receptive skills development can be combined with language input in the same lesson and the procedures need to be staged in such a way that the language component does not cancel out the skills. For example, explaining all unknown words before learners read or listen to a text will cancel out training in inferring the meaning of lexis in the text. The rationale behind is to avoid later problems. When systematic receptive skills development does not start at early stages of learning, learners' reading and listening behaviour is usually problematic. If not sought on the spot, later and hard problems will raise. The fact is none surprising since learners will be thrown in at the deep end: they are asked to read or listen to much longer and more complex passages and perform novel tasks, such as reading selectively, extracting the gist, locating specific information and disregarding or referring meaning of unknown words. Unless a systematic receptive skills development is put into action from an early stage, many problematic areas may be outlined as follows:

- Learners read or listen for the words and not for the meaning

- Learners get easily discouraged by an unknown lexis

- Learners do not make conscious use of their background knowledge and experience.

The main source of these problems seems to be the habit of explaining all unknown words and/or translating texts. Research findings have suggested that learners are very sensitive observers of teachers' behaviour patterns in the classroom; therefore, teachers need to be aware that their words, their actions and their interactions form part of every individual learner's own construction of knowledge. What is more, if learners think that the meaning is strictly in the words, then they may not see the need to utilize their background knowledge. Furthermore, the reason why learners do not read or listen selectively may lie in teachers' habit of asking questions which are not of equal importance (unnecessary details) or simply asking learners to show total comprehension at all times (retelling tiny details). What can compound the problem is the use of reading aloud as a means of developing reading skills, though this technique is not problematic per se, since it still helps foreign language readers understand the relation between spelling and pronunciation. Nevertheless, its misuse or overuse can reveal the wrong idea about the nature of reading. And, if learners read or listen

in an unstructed way and find it difficult to locate clues to meaning, other equally inter-related factors may be the cause. There is more to a text than words and structures: type, layout, organization and formality are integral components of the text. Because, awareness of the layout and organization of different text-types can help readers and listeners extract information more effectively. Generally, these problematic counter-points are grouped as follows:

- Experience of a limited type of texts
- Lack of awareness of the nature and organization of different text types
- Use of short and (over) simplified texts only.

As a result, learners cannot navigate successfully through the text when reading and/or listening and may be unable to locate the place where clues to meaning are given. When, typically listening they have problems identifying familiar lexis and may not take account of the phonological clues available. This is, by and large, due to lack of systematic ear- training in recognizing individual sounds or clusters, stress patterns and tone of voice. Equally, if learners are not given texts to read while listening, are not intimidated by a huge amount of (very) difficult words and, actually, know how to find their way in a text; then discovery techniques (i.e., when the teacher provides learners with language data and guides them to discover the rule) will be more successful and as a result vocabulary learning will be enhanced. Similarly, awareness of features of connected speech and ability to identify words in the stream of speech will help learners improve their phonological recognition, hence their pronunciation too.

Relatedly, comprehensible input is language input that can be understood by listeners despite they do not understanding all the words and structures in it. It is described as one level above that of the learners if it can only just be understood. According to Krashen (theory of language acquisition: 1985, 1989 and 2003), giving learners this kind of input helps them acquire language naturally, rather than learn it consciously. Avery good example, the teacher selects a reading or a listening text for upper-intermediate level learner that is from a lower advanced level course book. Based on what the teacher knows about the learners, the teacher believes that this will give them 'comprehensible input' to help them acquiremore language. Trying to understand language slightly above their level encourages learners to use natural learning strategies such as guessing words from context and inferring meaning. As the example suggests, a teacher needs to know the level of the learners very well in order to select comprehensible input, and in a large class of mixed ability, different learners will need

different texts. The above principles corroborate with'The Input Hypothesis'. It includes a group of five hypotheses of second-language acquisition developed by the linguist Stephen Krashen in the 1970s and 1980s, then newly elaborated in 2003 and 2004. Krashen originally formulated the input hypothesis as just one of the five hypotheses, but over time the term has come to refer to the five hypotheses as a group. The hypotheses are: the input hypothesis, the acquisition–learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. The input hypothesis was first published in 1977.The hypotheses put primary importance on the **comprehensible input** (CI) that language learners are exposed to. Understanding spoken and written language input is seen as a basic mechanism that results in the increase of underlying linguistic competence. Finally, learning is seen to be heavily dependent on the mood of the learner, with learning being impaired if the learner is under stress or does not want to learn the language.

For these and other issues, chapter one delineates the literature review of the main components of the study; hence, vocabulary and the receptive skills. The issue of comprehension and vocabulary has always generated continuous and indeed quite heated debates over many years in many parts of the world. In like manner, the chapter tries to dissect the logical and academic principles of teaching and learning the two receptive skills as sources of input where reception and understanding conjure up with the amount of known vocabulary. This is why a lexical approach is of perennial importance to achieve the aim of comprehending messages in the target language.

Chapter two describes the linguistic scenery of the Algerian speech community. The actual situation can serve a springboard elucidating the environment in which the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) occurs. The status of English as a foreign language is defined in contrast to the other languages in use, mainly Arabic- the national language- and French, the other non-national language. Unlike English, French fulfills many social functions, hence acquiring the status of 'second language'. Contrastively, English justifies the status of 'foreign language' since it is not used in the community where is it taught unless in very limited spheres; like: schools and universities. Then, a brief introduction to the new 'Licence-Master-Doctorate' (henceforth, LMD) system is portrayed in the Algerian educational system in general, and typically, in the English department. Within the programme of English language teaching (ELT), a special jargon comprising the 'literature' module is sampled to show that typical vocabulary repertoire in the overall formation of

English language proficiency. At the end, a holistic survey of the main vocabulary teaching methods that has characterized the teaching of vocabulary so far.

Chapter three is purely investigative. It put into evidence Krashen's input hypothesis and the extent to which it serves as an alternative for better achievements in comprehending messages in the target language. If evidenced, it will help increase the vocabulary stock of our English language learners (EFL). To measure such hypothesis, the researcher adopted a proficiency language test (hereafter, t-test) sequenced in two stages. First, a pre-test to diagnose the ability to retrieve the requested lexical items is administered to two groups of EFL-first year students with similar sequence (listening, then reading), same level of difficulty and with arbitrary choice of the testees to avoid any bias. Then, one group will constitute the experimental group receiving a special treatment advocated in Krashen's theory. However, the other control group institutes the measurement-bar for any probable progress after the treatment period. To back up the results of the post-test, testees themselves will act in commenting on the conclusions of the study. So, if there is agreement between the researcher findings and the participants, the study's validity is, indeed, reinforced.

Chapter four, correlates with a sum of suggestions and recommendations towards a better embodiment of a lexical syllabus of a foreign language, hence English. The first outcome altering the weaknesses so far diagnosed in the language tests, is the teaching of vocabulary through context to equip EFL learners with sufficient clues to dissect the meaning of unknown words. This context includes the reading script, the spoken language or generally any real situation where language is used as a means of interaction. This alternative calls for promoting certain criteria in selecting EFL classroom activities. This promotion is, fortunately, relevant in nowadays technological accessibility and different resources availability. In due concern, language teachers should act in favour of promoting effective learning procedures that can elaborate better strategies for receptive vocabulary acquisition. The other significant parameter to remedy is the sound-perception difficulty that EFL learners do suffer from. So, continuous exposure to the foreign sound with theoretical cognition of the main components of the phonology of the language, constitute the tips to overcome these hindrances. Naturally, diversity in the input and different perspectives clearing up varieties, registers, and domains of use are the corner stone for a rationale behind a successful vocabulary learning strategy training.

In practice, positive results and clear progress have been noticed among the experimental group of learners. Also, the testees themselves felt satisfied with the amount of input they received during the treatment period. This created motivation and complete engagement. Moreover, the low-anxiety criterion played a positive role whereby, EFL learners in the post-test showed interest and easiness in retrieving the lexis requested to achieve the majority of MCQ activities with different word categories (words, verbs, adjectives). More than that, the monitor hypothesis, to a large extent, has been reached by the majority of the EFL learners since the variety of input exposed to, has rather helped broadening and deepening the orthographic recognition and the phonological perception of the lexis contained in the different sources of input. In addition to that, the ability to make use of the background and world knowledge, all along with the use of the contextual clues sustained voluntarily in the texts and passages, has given more confidence to reach a level of comprehension even slightly beyond their level of understanding, hence, reaching the '**i+**' level**.** To speak so, the Input Hypothesis has given rise to a feeling of motivation and a will to engage in more serious levels of difficulty given that the input is placed at the level fitting the level of comprehension of our EFL learners or a little bit beyond so as to reach the desired outcome.

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POST-INDEPENDENCE ALGERIAN LINGUISTIC POLICY

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ABSTRACT

Actually, education in Algeria fared worse under occupation and witnessed the dramatic decline of literacy rate amongst the Algerian population up to independence. It is this enforced and well-planned history of domination, systematic illiteracy, linguistic and cultural alienation and socio-economic deprivation that is bound to have had a determinant and significant impact on the form, pace, direction and purpose of educational and strategy options in Algeria. However, this planned policy, highly desirable by policy makers and decision holders, needs to be based on empirical verification, down-to-earth observation and measured evaluation. Otherwise, it may become a far-reaching goal due to multiple contextual variables that have marked the Algerian speech community individually and collectively. In fact, the imposition of a one-language-only policy has ever been a problem than a solution, i.e. this divide-to-rule policy should by no means constitute a source for legitimacy for any power. What should be retained from this longitudinal perspective is that any linguistic policy implemented on the basis of political directives rather than linguistic and pedagogical criteria is doomed to failure. Simply put, when political preoccupation overtakes the pedagogical needs as it happened in Algeria, it serves as a case of meditation.

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KEYWORDS: Language, Legitimacy, Education, Linguistic Planning, Identity and National Development.

INTRODUCTION

Language is not only a means of communication but also a support for legitimacy. In the multilingual context of the Maghreb, several legitimacies have been connected with different languages. The legitimacy of change and access to modernity has been associated with the French language. The policy of Arabization has always been an attempt to transfer this legitimacy to Arabic, the official language. In due course, the ongoing examination of the phenomenon since independence (1962) and the salience of development and change highlight the significance of longitudinal research. In fact, the latter serves two primary purposes: to describe patterns of change and to explain causal relationships. Therefore, it may be assumed that the main reason which leads to the actual linguistic situation in Algeria is colonialism. Nevertheless, this historical factor is, apparently, the main but not the only reason behind such an established situation. It has been noticed that there are other linguistic, social and psychological factors behind the widespread of this linguistic behaviour in the Algerian speech community. A careful and comprehensive analysis will certainly add further knowledge of how the contextual/social constraints have exercised a powerful influence on the establishment of the present linguistic situation in Algeria. In the same line of thought, Ortega and Iberri-Shea (2005) asserted that because language learning happens through an over time, many, if not all, topics about language learning that researchers investigate can be most meaningfully interpreted only within a longitudinal perspective. A major issue that confronts the Algerian nation, like many other nations, is 'language'. Being intimately linked to identity, political power and social mobility, language has become a controversial question and a bitter battlefield for competing ideologies and vested interests. This controversy has taken different forms, but with specific focus on the language of instruction. To better represent and unravel the complexities of language hegemony in the Algerian context, let's consider the two main forms: the first form is related to identity formation of post-independence generations; the second one conjures up the issues of gaining power and achieving upward mobility.

The Colonial Era

At first, the French proposals were to finance the field of education which was obviously suspicious in the eyes of the Algerians. Clearly, the offer had backward strategies; either to Christianize the learning population or, as a perennial target, spread the French culture and language to achieve a complete control. As a case in point, as stated by Guillaume (1983), between 1830 and 1850 half of the already established schools disappeared. In brief, Benrabah (1999:49) states that: 'there were more than 2000 schools in 1863 and only 750 in1880's. At the level of Higher Education; 142 students in

1876, 129 in 1877, 84 in 1879 , 79 in 1884 and 57 in 1887'. From 1870, traditional teaching, exclusively in Medersas, was confronted to hostility on the behalf of the colonists who considered it as a rebellion against the foreign ruler. The traumatic experience caused by the conquerors created a strong opposition of the native populations against the colonial imposed policy conceived as a threat to their own cultural and identity values. In like manner, the Governor of Algeria (1832-33) declared explicitly what follows: 'I see the widespread of instruction and of our language as the most efficient means to make progress to our domination in this country.[1] (Le Duc de Rovigo, cited in Benrabah, 1999:44, translated by the researcher)

The Colonial Linguistic Reactional Strategy

The French authorities adopted another strategy vis-a- vis their rude linguistic and educational policy of marginalisation of the local cultural heritage, hence Arabic and Islam; and altered to a moreorless flexible policy of tolerance. The colonists instituted an innovative aspect within the imposed instruction; the introduction of the French language. The colonial motto was to instruct in order to control. That was carried out systematically by the institution of bilingual schools; hence, Arabic/French colleges. Such colleges were 36 between 1850/1870. Therefore, the public schools (Medersas) turned out to be ruled by civilians in 1876 with close control over for fear of awareness in concerns like equality and freedom. Because of such a fear, the General Governor of Algeria in 1876, Tirman estimates that *the hostility of the indigenous population is measured to the degree of their instruction.*[2] (*Tirman*, cited in Benrabah, 1999:51, translated by the researcher)

For probing deeply into the issue of expanding the French language, a colonial decree of 1895 made compulsory for all candidates to the function of preachers, judges and teachers to pursue training at the newly settled Medersas wherein the French language learning was reinforced.

The issue had other interpretations. As a justification proving the superiority of French over Arabic, the colonial administration called upon specialists of pedagogy. As a well-known specialist of the time, William Marçais (a specialist in dialectology of the Maghreb Arab and a colonial administrator in Algeria in the 1900s) presented the symbolic aspect of ethnocentric belief of powerful nations in the nineteenth century. His argument

pledged in favour of the colonial nations, their cultures and languages. In this respect, he argues that: 'When a language is that of the rulers, that makes access to a great modern civilisation, that is comprehensible, that the spoken and written forms are identical; and that the other language is that of the governed, that expresses in its best written forms a medieval ideal, that is ambiguous, that its written and spoken forms are characterized by complete separate aspects, the issue is really unequal: the first must predominantly pushes back the second'[3].
(Marçais, cited in Benrabah, 1999:53, translated by the researcher)

Resistance and Claiming

The cultural colonial model was still faced with resistance by the end of the nineteenth century. Some of the honourable families expressed their resistance by exile to the Middle East and the remaining majority of families opted for a complete refusal of the colonial educational system preferring illiteracy rather than cultural alienation. The Algerian educated elite of the time conducted a harsh struggle against the colonial system in the field of education and schooling. So, they were deeply embedded with Arabic and Islamic values. The result was rather a constant resistance against the colonial system. Consequently, the colonial system urged willingly to encourage generalisation of schooling, offering guarantees of job only for those who receive instruction in the colonial institutions. Even though the offer seemed so ambitious, the local inhabitants still considered that the colonial schooling system not only threatens their cultural values and ethnic belonging but certainly provides neither a future job nor social promotion.

Yet, the national movements gained certain acknowledgement on the behalf of the colonial administration, though the French language remained outstandingly the main outcome of a long-established colonial system of education. As a matter of fact, many of the Algerian writers took profit from the French language and delivered their denouncements in that language.

French as a Tool for Salvation

The end of the nineteenth century witnessed the appearance of the first publications of Algerian origin writers in the French language. These were

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[1] - Le Duc de Rovigo (Governor of Algeria: 1832-33), " Je regarde la propagation de l'instruction et de notre langue comme le moyen le plus efficace de faire des progrès à notre domination dans ce pays ».

[2] - « L'hostilité de l'indigène se mesure à son degré d'instruction ». Tirman, General Governor of Algeria (1876-80)

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[3] - William Marçais (Colonial Administrator of Algeria in 1900s). "Quand l'une des langues est celle des dirigeants, qu'elle ouvre l'accès d'une grande civilisation moderne, qu'elle est Claire, que l'expression écrite et l'expression parlée de la pensée s'y rapprochent au maximum ; que l'autre est celle des diriges, qu'elle exprime dans ses meilleurs écrits un idéal médiéval, qu'elle est ambiguë, qu'elle revêt quand on l'écrit un autre aspect que quand on la parle, la partie est vraiment inégale : la première doit fatalement faire reculer la seconde ».

mainly in form of essays and descriptions of reality, far from rebellion and opposition. Between the years 1920 and 1949, thirteen novels and three short stories were published by Algerian writers in French. However, from 1945 and on, the pacific tendency in writing changed and then the political awareness attained a level of complete maturity. That was principally due to the slaughter committed by the colonial army in the eastern part of Algeria (Setif, Guelma, and Kherrata) on 8th May, 1945. Those writers were genuine witnesses and authentic ethnographers, denouncing the colonial exploitation and the linguistic deprivation leading the population to poverty and cultural alienation.

The cultural and linguistic conflict between two different nations was apparent in the clear cut difference of extremely opposed civilizations, ways of life and identity traits. In like manner, the Algerian educated portion of population admitted that their constant resistance to the French schooling system was of no use to them or to their desire for emancipation. In fact, the French language could serve as a means of denouncing injustice, acquiring knowledge and information and a tool for salvation. They felt necessary that for facing the French colonial system, it was of perennial importance to acquire the attributes of that system (language and culture) to be in complete readiness for combating him. In the same way of thought, Kateb Yacine - one of the prominent Algerian literary men of French expression-argues: *'at time I felt that it was necessary to speak French even better than the French themselves in order to convince them that we were not French'*[4]. (Kateb Yacine, cited in Benrabah, 1999:67, translated by the researcher)

The Independence Era
In 1962, the rate of illiteracy reached 90% among the Algerian population and the schooling rate had been very low. The languages of daily use in the newly independent Algeria were: the Algerian Arabic, Berber (in some regions) and French. The liturgical language which had no daily communication use, unless in Medersas, was Classical Arabic. The independent Algeria strongly advocated the administration of the Arabic language as the pillar foundation of an Arab-Muslim nation. The pioneer of such endeavour was namely president Houari Boumediene who was himself impregnated with Arabic and Islamic values during his studies at Zitouna (Tunisia) and at Al Azhar (Egypt). He was determined to eradicate the French language and impose the Arabic language; the language of Koran and Islam. It was, then, a

political will laying down some decrees and orders for the uprooting of the foreign cultural and linguistic prints. The claim had purely an Arab-Muslim dimension; and the exclusion of all the remaining residue of the colonial era was really felt.

Linguistic Planning
In an indeterminable fight for the search of authenticity and identity, a linguistic policy was set-the policy of Arabisation, or else the 'generalisation of the use of the Arabic language'. In Algeria, however, the promotion of language-in-education policy through the large scale of Arabisation process has not been carried with great seriousness of intent and commitment. In fact, 'Arabization has been made, from the start, the target of the hijacking manoeuvres instigated by political bodies or even individuals' (Miliani, 2003:55). Whether it was more ideological and political rather than linguistic, the Ministry of Education intervened in the field of Arabization process in a positive spirit leading to direct redefinition of a linguistic planning. The fields of interference of the government (via the Ministry of Education) could be obvious at three levels: 1) in the teaching methods, 2) in the institution of the language (Classical Arabic) in a functional parameter, and 3) in the technical spheres in which the language is structured (linguistic layout).

The schooling rate raised surprisingly in quantity between 1965 and 1975: 'In Primary level, the number of enrolled pupils doubled from 1,200,000 to 2,750,000; from 100,000 to 450,000 in secondary schools and from 7000 to 50,000 at university level'. (Hayane, 1989:123). The educational system witnessed the Arabization of the first years of the Primary school and the remaining years were still receiving instruction in the French language. It was the beginning of a gradual process encouraging Arabisation. Afterwards, in an attempt to exert a pressure over the Ministry of Higher Education, orders were given to IPN (Institut Pedagogique Nationale: which stands for National Pedagogical Institute for printing books) to give priority to the printing of books written in Arabic over those written in French.

Attempts of Devaluating French
Due to the relentlessness witnessed against the French language in the post-independence era, many political decisions willingly administrated new instructions in the field of education to mark down that language. Significant attempts were carried out by the post-independent Algerian administration to devalue the French language through a process called "linguistic cleansing". That process of purification had as a thorough objective to alter whenever possible terms and labelling from French to Arabic; hence, strengthening the process of

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4 - « A ce moment là, je sentais qu'il était nécessaire de parler le Français même mieux que les Français. Pour les convaincre que nous n'étions pas Français, il fallait écrire un livre dans une langue telle que les Français soient réellement ébranlés... »

Arabization. As a case in point, newscasters and television presenters were recommended to deal with a linguistic refining during their broadcasting sceneries either through radio or television. More than that, all the names of streets and important amenities taking their names after French personalities were changed into Arabic-origin names. Good instances of such are:

- Tlemcen →Tilimcen
- Blida → Bouleida
- Oran →Wihran.
- Place Bugeaud → Hai Emir Abdelkader.

This was called Arabization of the environment and the social context (linguistically, transliteration). Generally speaking, the linguistic planning was far from respecting the learners' needs and preferences. According to Atkinson (1987) 'If the needs (exclusively the individual ones) are not analysed and taken into account in the making of the programmes to match the societal and pedagogical objectives, the conception of that linguistic planning is doomed to failure'. (1987). Accordingly, in order for a language to be used effectively as a medium of instruction (acquisition planning), the following conditions are necessary: the language must have an accepted writing system; basic teaching and reading material must be available in the language; there must be teachers who can speak, read and write it (Bowers, 1968: 388). However, the Arabisation process neglected these attributes and traced its ideological objectives at the expense of an already established linguistic and social behaviour.

The rapid demographic growth (about 70% of the Algerian population is aged under 25 years old), the generalisation of schooling and the unwise substitution of the French language by Arabic as the medium of instruction has led to falling educational standards. Actually, language-wise, a high percentage of students developed a low level of language proficiency, which generated into what Brann (1990), has termed 'semilingualism', i.e. the inability to use fluently two different languages one is supposed to master. Knowledge-wise, the results are not any better in formal exams.

The Pedagogical Aspects of Arabization
The principal causes resorted from the low-proficiency in Arabic are mainly due to: the educator, the text-book and the teaching model before 1962. The teacher lacks competence, academic training and motivation. He has no qualifications in terms of pedagogy of teaching. As for the text-book, the only problem lies on the disparity or lack of correspondence. The other major factor, always according to the report of the Ministry of Education (1966), is that pupils at the secondary level have no basis of the rudiments of

Classical Arabic. The proposed solutions, to remedy the situation, opted in the first instance to eliminate gradually the teachers coming from the Middle East. It was conceived that Algerian teachers are in a better position to understand the pupils in using their mother tongue to reach the needs and interests of that population of learners. It is to this point that divergent views have been expressed as an explanation of why the local language varieties have not been accepted as media of instruction. Through corpus planning, one might argue that the most single important decision that might be taken to enhance the educational prospect of children would be for educational institutions to value and use the child's native language as a resource in the classroom rather than as an obstacle to learning. As a case in point, the report acknowledged some harsh realities conducting vaguely the process of Arabization in the new independent Algeria, as stated by Taleb Ibrahimi (1973: 94) in what follows: Arabization as a fundamental option constitutes an objective somehow vague which demands precision.[5] (Translated by the researcher). So, the process of Arabization is a vague objective suffering from improvisation and lack of objectivity. It was a political will and an ideological choice to Arabizing in order to distinguish our teaching from what it used to be during the colonial period.[6] (ibid, p. 97, translated by the researcher). In other words, the political preoccupation overtakes the pedagogical needs. Such a report from an official tutor gave hope for a future serious study of the case and more importance will be given to the fundamental principles governing the teaching of languages. In vain, the reports continue to neglect the bases of pedagogical linguistics.

CONCLUSION
Switching to the French language has been historically, linguistically, socially and practically admitted as speech behaviour among Algerians. As rightly put by Miliani (2003), French is no longer the property of the old enemy. French, as a world language, is a tool (linguistic, cultural, social, economic and technical) for humanity, beyond the political borders. Attitudes towards French in a country like Algeria differ greatly depending on the ethnic and linguistic background of the individual. Consequently, this divide-to-rule policy should, by no means, constitute a source of legitimacy for any power. In sum, the imposition of a one-language-only policy has ever been more a problem than a solution. There is a general consensus that the Arabisation policy, implemented on the basis of

[5] - 'L'Arabisation en tant qu'option fondamental constitue un objectif malgré tout assez vague qui demande à être précisé'. Ahmed Taleb (Ibid., p.96).

[6] -'Distinguer notre enseignement de ce qu'il était durant la période coloniale'. Ahmed Taleb (Ibid, p.97)

political directives rather than linguistic or pedagogical criteria is doomed to failure.

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