

*Democratic and Popular Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research*

UNIVERSITY OF ABOUBAKR BELKAID, TLEMCEM

*Faculty of Arts, Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of Foreign Languages
Section of English*

**THE USE OF SIMPLIFIED TEXT VERSIONS WITH CLOSE
REFERENCE TO VOCABULARY TEACHING TO EFL LEARNERS:
THE CASE OF 3rd A.S.**

Thesis submitted to the department of foreign languages in candidacy for
the degree of Magister in Applied Linguistics and TEFL

Presented by: **Mr BERRABAH Boumediene** **Supervised by:** **Dr BENMOUSSAT Smail**

Jury Members:

Pr MELIANI. M	President (University of Oran)
Dr BENMOUSSAT. S	Supervisor (University of Tlemcen)
Dr BEDJAQUI. F	External Examiner (University of Sidi Bel Abbes)
Dr SERIR. I	Internal Examiner (University of Tlemcen)

Academic Year : 2006 - 2007

DEMOCRATIC AND POPULAR REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA.
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FACULTY OF ARTS, SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES.
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES.
SECTION OF ENGLISH

جامعة بويكر بلقايد - تلمسان
كلية الآداب و اللغات
مكتبة اللغات الأجنبية

Inserit sous le N° 00.255.
Dat: 23/01/2008
Cote

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Presented by:

Mr. BERRABAH, Boumediene

Supervised by:

Dr. BENMOUSSAT, Smail

Jury Members:

Pr MILIANI, Mohamed (Prof)
Dr BENMOUSSAT, Smail (M.C)
Dr BEDJAOUI, Fouzia (M.C)
Dr SERIR, Ilhem (M.C)

President (University of Oran)
Supervisor (University of Tlemcen)
Examiner (University of Sidi Bel Abbes)
Examiner (University of Tlemcen)

Academic Year: 2006 – 2007

DEDICATION

Lovely, to my family;

Indebtedly, to my teachers;

Respectfully, to my friends and colleagues.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost thanks to Allah the Most High for blessing and helping in realizing this humble work.

I am grateful to my supervisor Mr. S. BENMOUSSAT for his guidance, insightful proof-readings and academic contributions on the earlier drafts. I do recognise his pleasant and continuous attention that inspired me much. My sincere appreciation and immeasurable consideration go to him.

Heartfelt thanks go to my teachers and colleagues Mr. Z. DENDANE, A. BELMEKKI, A. BENZIANE, G. HADJOU, M. HAOULIA and A. SEMMOUD for their help, valuable comments and motivation all along the research phase.

A. ZENAGUI, to whom I owe all my best consideration. I gratefully acknowledge his friendly heartening and continuous help.

I wish also to express good company thanks to my friends Amine, Karim for their encouraging attitude and caring.

Finally, special thanks go to all my friends for their enthusiasm, encouragement and moral support throughout this study.

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KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS

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AA	Algerian Arabic
AS	Année Secondaire (Secondary Year)
CA	Classical Arabic
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
FL	Foreign Language
L1	Mother Tongue
L2	Second Language
LLE	Lettres et Langues Etrangères (Arts and Foreign Languages)
LSH	Lettres et Sciences Humaines (Arts and Human Sciences)

ABSTRACT

ABSTRACT

The present study is an investigation in the field of vocabulary teaching. To help EFL learners better comprehend a reading text and facilitate the comprehension of the included vocabulary, it has been, purposefully, consented to conduct an assessment at the level of vocabulary comprehension through the use of simplified text versions. Systematically, the reading skill is designed to cope with the Bacculaureate exam's format whereby the activities related to the comprehension of the text as a whole represent a large portion.

Four distinct chapters constitute the present research work. Chapter one strives to bring to light an overview about the linguistic situation in Algeria, by referring to the status of the present national and non-national languages and their manifestations in the educational system. A rich multiplicity and a real dynamics characterise the linguistic situation in Algeria that the Algerians should know how to take profit of in today's context of globalisation and wider communication by knitting closer relations with the western world. Chapter two deals with the use of texts – simplified and authentic – where vocabulary is displayed in connected sets. It provides information about subtle differences between the two types of texts and how a middle ground is to be occupied so as to construct more beneficial texts for our EFL learners.

Chapter three deals mainly, with the lexical plight in the reading skill. It consists in giving a whole body of literary review as far as vocabulary teaching is concerned. Chapter four describes the teaching situation as it is conducted in our classes. Then, the researcher proposes a new technique to ease the burden of comprehending the Germanic origin words by altering to their equivalents through the Romance origin words.

To corroborate my findings, lists of false friends (cognates), simplified text versions and a balanced list of Germanic/Romance words are provided.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The EFL learning/teaching in Algeria has witnessed significant changes. Since independence in 1962, the successive governments have always tried to introduce some novel aspects conducive to the promotion of EFL and improvement of ELT. The introduction of new methods and techniques is an illustrative example of the will expressed by officials to reach such an aim. Paradoxically, at the practical level, things do not seem to get better and this reflects the discrepancy between the teaching objectives and the classroom practices. The poor achievement scored by our learners in EFL classes can be traced back to many factors such as lack of trained teachers, inadequate teaching materials, methods and approaches that do not respond to the physical context and other related aspects. Yet, many teachers with a long-standing experience relate, in part, this to the Arabisation process. In other terms, the introduction of Arabic, through the one-language policy in the education system, discarding therefore, the use of French which, one should note, was the sole medium of education in the post-independent period. For those teachers, the French language had always had a beneficial effect in the process of English language learning. This is due to the fact that both French and English come from the same family of languages (Indo-European Family) and share many linguistic features, what one would call linguistic affinities. The recent reforms of the educational system engaged in 2003 put the focus on the early teaching of the foreign languages. French is introduced in the second-primary level and the teaching of English at pupils' entrance to Middle school. Nevertheless, these languages, typically French, are taught and learnt as foreign languages which do not enable future students to pursue their studies in specialised subjects. The issue still remains unresolved. That is to say, the Arabisation process did not succeed in training better students in the Arabic language and the educational standard has not improved as expected.

The present work is an attempt to ease the burden and facilitate the process of English language learning, in general, and that of vocabulary in particular by substituting, whenever possible, Germanic-origin words by Romance-origin ones. At the level of the general lay-out, this Magister dissertation tries to make a presentation of

the general foreign policy, first through an overall macro-level systemic description and as a second step, it strives to depict through a more local micro-level action research investigation, to deal with the learning of vocabulary through simplified texts. The major aim of this research work is to contribute to the enhancement of vocabulary enrichment given its fundamental importance to learning any language. In like manner, any language learning starts with vocabulary learning rather than grammar triggering.

CHAPTER ONE

THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN ALGERIA

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CHAPTER ONE

THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN ALGERIA

1.1. Introduction

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 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 reforms of the educational system, put forward from 2003, have focussed on the early teaching of foreign languages. The teaching of the French language has witnessed an amazing, prompt interest when introduced in second year- Primary level, but the experience did not last long. However, the teaching of English has been administrateds at pupils' entrance to Middle school. Nevertheless, these two languages, typically French, have been, politically considered and taught as foreign languages which do not able future students to study specialised subjects, especially 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 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

administration, 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.

1.2. 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 Kabylia region, the Aurès mountains and some remote areas in the South, though, historically and politically constrained).

1.2.1. 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 factor 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 Arabisation 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 Amazighty..."** 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 for the low and poor academic achievement of many school leavers.

1.2.2. 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 (henceforth AA). 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 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.

1.2.3. 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 Ghardaïa (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 Kabyle 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 Kabyle in their dialect which makes AA / Tamazight code switching a very rare practice, except

for Berber speakers themselves. Is it because Tamazight is poorly valued in comparison with Arabic, the only wide spread means of interaction in the country? 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 to stand as a language having its own linguistic characteristics. The Berber language – Tamazight which is spoken by 1/5 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 a daily TV news broadcast in Berber (at 6 p.m.), 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 Arabisation) helped in maintaining itself as the language of the home. It deserves being a ‘national’ language of Algeria.

1.2.4. Arabisation

Arabisation, 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 as a perennial step to restore the national cultural values and the Arabo-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, Hartshorne (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...”** (Hartshorne 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 and a divergent linguistic and cultural background of the purveyors of knowledge, i.e. those teachers use the language heavily influenced by their local dialect.

1.2.4.1. Arabisation 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 Arabisation. Good instances from such a process are: Tlemcen → *Tilimsen*, Blida → *Bouleida*, Recyclage → *Raskala*, Place Bugeau → *Hai Amir Abdelkader*. This was called Arabisation of the environment and the social context (linguistically, transliteration). In the same line of thought, **Arabisation...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 of the population.

Concerning the education 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. Apart from details emanating from the linguistic policy, the result of poor performance, in general, and in the Arabic language use at a functional level 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 and textbooks and individual/learners' needs 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 a linguistic scenery in which MSA is to be prevailing, the populations continue to use, naturally, French mixed with the mother tongue.

1.2.4.2. Limits of Arabisation

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 resources 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 Arabisation 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 indelible 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 reveal a mere failure in the language policy of Arabisation? Partly, the answer is due to 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.

1.3. 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 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.

1.3.1. 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 with 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.

1.3.2. 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 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.

1.4. The Status of French

French constitutes an integral part of the Algerian linguistic patrimony. Although the Algerian government has always promoted monolingualism through an Arabist policy of assimilation and exclusion, it has always been proved that French had and is still having an undeniable portion in the Algerian society among its population. It persists as an inseparable feature of the linguistic scene 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 intersentential or intrasentential (see 1.6.4), as it is outstandingly observable in everyday'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 Arabisation which started right from independence and reinforced in the early 1970s, whereby 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.

1.4.1. 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.

1.4.2. 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 of 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 insistent 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, 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

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. »

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.

1.4.3. Traces of the French Language in Algeria

In spite of the great efforts expended by the Algerian government to arabise 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 'Democraticization 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 (CA) as the language of teaching; though, the decision had already been taken to arabise 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, the 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, hence French.

1.4.3.1. 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 Arabisation process, French constitutes an undeniable 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 Arabised 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.

1.4.3.2. The French Language in the Algerian Media

From the launching of the Arabisation 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

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. »

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

true, then, that the mastery of French is greatly dependent on the teaching/learning proficiency undertaken at the level of education.

1.4.3.3. 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 opposingly 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).

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

⁵ - J.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... »

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).

1.5. 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.

1.5.1. 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 (Englishes⁶).

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; 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, is 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)

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

1.5.2. 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.

1.6. The Socio-Linguistic Diversity in Algeria

Several factors have been responsible for the complexity reflected in today’s linguistic situation in Algeria; some being historical, other political, and still some others socio-cultural. It is undeniable that, as a consequence of the diverse events (historical and linguistic) that the country has gone through, the Algerian society has acquired a distinctive socio-linguistic characteristic whose particular dynamic – intra and interlingual variation – can clearly be attested in the way (s) people speak. In deed, colonised for more than one century, Algeria, does not only reflect the intra-lingual principles of a diglossic situation where two varieties (MSA and AA) of the same are in

contact, but also the usual linguistic phenomena that occur when two or more languages get in contact. The latter results in the use of bilingualism and, consequently code-switching/mixing and borrowing.

Throughout this analysis, we aim at shedding some light on the components of the present-day Algerian socio-linguistic profile, with the purpose of showing the dynamic relation between the varieties of Arabic that come into play in the society, the persistent use of French in its different forms in everyday interaction, as well as the advent of English words and technical terms in the Algerian society as a *sine qua non* tool for labelling the many technological devices (mobile: bluetooth, roaming; dishes: switch, digital; computing: chat, net, boot, email) which are in considerable expansion.

1.6.1. Diglossia

It is concerned with two varieties of the same language; one being considered as high, the other low. Almost no one in Algeria uses the high variety MSA in his daily interactions, unless in official instances such as the court, schools or universities for professional or educational purposes. The other low variety AA, however, is commonly used though regionally different, but allowing inter-comprehension. Ferguson (1959) uses the term 'diglossia' to describe a linguistic situation where two varieties of the same language are used for different purposes. He describes the phenomenon as follows: **diglossia is a relatively stable situation in which, in addition to the primary dialect of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often more grammatical complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period, or in another speech community which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal and spoken purposes but is not use by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation** (Ferguson 1959:245). Ferguson explains and develops diglossia in Arabic-speaking countries. He differentiates between two varieties (high and low) of the same language. He divides them to their functions accordingly, i.e. he considers the high variety as the standard one which is used in formal settings such as education and formal speeches. Whereas the low variety is used in informal situations such as home, street or private

life concerns. MSA is highly codified. It is the written form of Arabic, whereas AA does not possess standard norms, it lacks the standardisation attributes to use once again Bell's term. These two varieties, being used in complementary distribution, co-exist side by side, and fulfil different functions.

As an outcome of a growing rate of literacy and mainly as a result of the Arabisation policy, hierarchically distinctive varieties of the same language are used in different domains to fulfil different functions from various spheres such as religion and classical literature. At the spoken level, the effects of such mixing of the varieties are easily detectable in many types of contexts. However, as far as the written form of Arabic is concerned, the very few domains in which colloquial Arabic (AA) has been tentatively used (written) are: folk songs, poems and popular play scripts. Likelywise, the bulk of literature in its widest sense – sciences and newspaper writing – continues to be written in the high variety MSA.

1.6.2. Borrowing

Borrowing is one of the first processes that results from language contact. Whether it starts off as code switching or *vice versa*; some linguists in this respect consider that **borrowing and code switching are phenomena at either end of continuum** (Hamers and Blanc 2000:259). Borrowing usually arises from lack of vocabulary for particular items, mostly nouns in the receiving language, and is somehow distinguished from true code switching which is characteristic of bi- and multilingual speakers. So, contrariwise to code switching which involves mixing languages in speech, borrowing is the situation where words become part of another language system by being assimilated to its linguistic structural specificities.

All languages borrow items from other languages without their speakers becoming bilinguals; the common use of *weekend* in French for example does not make the French bilinguals. Also, many Algerians, especially non-educated ones use French words without actually speaking French. In fact, as a result of long-term contact with the French during the occupation of Algeria, a great number of words slipped into AA and eventually integrated in everyday speech (active/passive bilingualism). Some examples are commonly used in everyday speech of Algerians, such as: [*kuzɪnæ*]

meaning 'cuisine' or [fərʃetæ] meaning 'fourchette' (kitchen and fork, respectively). The two words mentioned above, whose Arabic equivalents are not used in AA, are adapted phonologically and morphologically. French, the lending language, has also provided Algerian Arabic with a great number of verbs. They have been accommodated phonologically and morphologically, and thus considered as borrowings. It is worth noting that the borrowed verb [nervæni] meaning 'he got on my nerves', is a quite interesting instance of complete assimilation of the French verb 'énerver' which is so strongly fixed and so common in AA that the corresponding noun [nervæzæ] has come to be used even in formal MSA.

An important question can be raised as to the over-abundance of borrowings in AA. What can be done to lighten AA from such profusion of French lexical items that do have equivalents in Arabic? Another important phenomenon is said to be 'loan-words' or as Myers-Scotton 1993:05) call 'cultural borrowed lexemes', i.e. there are technical terms and words having no equivalent terms in Arabic, such as names of machines or important equipments of mechanics, instances like 'parabole' 'embayage' 'vis' 'cassette' etc. A clear cut-difference between the two phenomena – borrowing and code switching – principally lies on the assimilation at the phonological and morphological level of the borrowing aspect; and the maintenance of the root form and pronunciation of the borrowed/loan word when it is at code switching level. Though there has been a long-standing divisive debate on setting off borrowing from code switching by many scholars, it seems unimportant to set off the two types in the Algerian context since there is no degree of measurability of the amount of borrowings and switches among individuals with contrasted degrees of assimilation. There is a kind of continuum where the use of the two types is independently related to a variety of factors that are simply not controlled, thus anything can be adopted from a foreign language, particularly one that has long played a crucial role in a society such as that of Algeria. The adoption can take any form: various borrowing types and code switching forms that are sometimes hard to distinguish. In any case the outstanding feature in the Algerian society is the enormous bulk of French used in AA, a linguistic phenomenon that reflects the socio-cultural impact that French has had on the society at large.

1.6.3. Bilingualism

Sociolinguistically speaking, bilingualism is the standard term to illustrate the situation where two languages are used by a person or a group of people. Many definitions are highlighting the concept. In brief, the term can be rooted in the Algerian context, in the deep history of colonialism which remained a whole century and thirty-two years. So, it is the result of the presence of French. Bilingualism is a practice of considerable frequency in Algeria for historical reasons. At the societal level, what makes the Algerian language situation so complex is its characterisation by the two overlapping linguistic phenomena: diglossia and bilingualism. However, at the individual level, the degree of proficiency or competence in one or in the other, or in both practices, largely depends on factors as education, socio-economic background, age and mainly motivation and attitude.

It is a plain fact that all Algerians use and/or understand at least a few words or expressions from MSA and French from their everyday interactions. This dual characterisation is markedly shown through the use of both languages for different purposes or mixing them in different contexts at different levels of mastery of one language *vis à vis* the other. Still, to the fact that the complexity lies in the values and functions each language can fulfil, it is not an easy task describing bilingualism in the Algerian context. The alteration of all these codes i.e. the varieties of Arabic (and Berber in some areas) with French and their mixing has become an inherent characteristic in the linguistic behaviour of Algerian speakers. As far as the French language (an important component of bilingualism in Algeria) is concerned, and after forty-five years of independence, its maintenance both in the written and the spoken media results in continual exposure to it to the extent that many people use it in everyday interaction, either in its own or mixed with the other component languages (MSA, AA or Berber). Unlikely, MSA (the standard component) is not used in a natural spontaneous way for its diglossic relation with the vernaculars in the community, while French continues to hold a special position in Algeria, preserving, thus, a kind of general societal bilingualism. As far as individual bilingualism is concerned, it is said to be arising from the lack of vocabulary of particular items mostly nouns. That is why the individual (bilingual speaker) may alter to code switching.

1.6.4. Code Switching

Algerians, consciously or unconsciously, switch - or at least are constantly exposed to switching - from AA to French and *vice versa*, often mixing the two languages in their conversations (compound bilingualism). A remarkable evidence is that a great number of French borrowings, both adapted and non-adapted, can be frequently attested in everyday speech. As a matter of fact, the Algerian society has been so deeply influenced by French that we virtually cannot hear a conversation without at least a few French lexical items or expressions. It is quite obvious that French is strongly implanted at the lexical level. Moreover, the long presence of French in Algeria and its impact on people's speech have resulted not only in the use of borrowed lexical items but also in the appropriation of 'ready-made' phrases such as the frequently used questions *ça va?* or *ça y est?* meaning respectively 'are you feeling all right?' and 'is that it?'. Such address questions, which may be seen as 'fossilised' in AA, are often echoed in the answer, mixed with an Arabic phrase as in '*ça va Ilhamdullāh*', meaning 'I'm all right, thanks God'. In a word, we could say that heavy borrowing from French and the subsequent phenomenon of code switching have long become important defining features of Algerian speech, in parallel with the timidly emerging tendency towards MSA use in AA in certain contexts.

The linguistic phenomenon called code switching is a type of discourse that occurs as a natural outcome of language contact, and an inevitable consequence of bilingualism. In the case of the Algerian context where societal bilingualism is the prevailing characteristics, due to historical factors and emigration mobility just after the independence, the use of French has gone through an imposition process. Code switching represents, thus, a central aspect of language contact whereby bilingual speakers acquire the ability to switch from one code to another in various domains or situations; and according to circumstances, rules of interaction, topic and addressee. Gumpers (1982:59) defines the term code switching in what follows [...] **the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems of sub-systems**". Yet, there has been much divergence as to the use of the term(s) code switching and/or code mixing. The reason of the many ambiguities is that bilingual speakers use many-fold strategies of code

alternation in different manners and for various purposes. Therefore, in an attempt to examine how linguistic constraints operate in code switching, Poplack (1980) distinguishes between three types of code switching:

1_ extra-sentential code switching in which a tag or a ready-made expression from the other language is inserted while the rest remains in the base language.

2_ intersentential code switching which is characterised by switches at sentence an/or clause boundary.

3_ intrasentential code switching which involves switches within the sentence or the clause or even inside the word.

The various kinds of switching also considered under the headings “code mixing, code changing or conversational switching” are very common features and frequent in the speech of many Algerians. With French as a deeply-rooted language in Algeria, code switching has long become a linguistic tool that many Algerian speakers use in their communicative strategies. In deed, in the early years of socialisation, the Algerian children are exposed to a rich diversity of linguistic material along with the natural acquisition of their mother tongue. What is interesting in the Algerian context is that when listening to people talking about any topic, be it serious or trivial, one will hear many back-and-forth switches between AA and French. It is, even difficult sometimes to say whether the base language is Arabic with insertions of French constituents or the other way round. Therefore, because of the different degrees of bilinguality and exposure to French, no all Algerian speakers are equally proficient in switching codes.

1.7. Conclusion

The many-fold aforementioned aspects – bilingualism, borrowing, code switching, diglossia – characterise the linguistic situation in Algeria by a rich multiplicity and a real dynamics that the Algerians should know how to take profit of in today’s context of globalisation and wider communication by knitting closer relations with the western world particularly with France and other French-speaking countries because of the socio-historical events the country has gone through, in addition, of course, to its relationship with the Arab world. It is worth mentioning at this point that

English is gaining ground in Algeria as a world language associated with advanced technology and scientific research, international economy and trade, and is, thus, increasingly favoured by the young in secondary schools and university. However, whatever we may say about the importance of English a worldwide language by virtue of the role that French has and is still playing in the socio-historical making of contemporary Algeria and by its being regarded as a 'treasured position', it will always remain deeply ingrained in the society's linguistic practices alongside the other constituents of the Algerian socio-linguistic profile.

CHAPTER TWO

AUTHENTICITY VERSUS SIMPLIFIED VERSION TEXTS

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CHAPTER TWO

AUTHENTICITY VERSUS SIMPLIFIED VERSION TEXTS

2.1. 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 or grammatical structures. 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 may be easier to learn than unrelated vocabulary, but with more varied lexical sets. 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 broadening the lexical stock as far as polysemy is concerned. Thus, a varied selection of texts could enhance learners to have a good preparation for independent reading. Moreover, it provides useful models for learners' production, in the form of speaking and writing.

In the field of foreign language reading the manipulation of text is common. Therefore, views about the type of texts to be used in an EFL classroom are still diverging between authentic and simplified text use. Support for the manipulation of texts rests on the benefit foreign language learners may have, when dealing with simplified readers that are widely available, and at a variety of levels. These texts are graded both in terms of their grammatical complexity and their vocabulary load, i.e. there is a good chance that this type of texts will be within the learner's comfortable reading range and within their current competence. Nevertheless, in opposition to concocted texts, there is another view claiming for the use of authentic material. In support of such an approach (the use of authentic texts) in the EFL classroom, many researchers turn to the fact that modifications affect the text cohesion. However, when should authentic materials be introduced and used in an EFL classroom; in other words, can we use authentic reading texts regardless of our pupils' level?

Through the present chapter, the researcher aims to provide information about subtle differences between texts (concocted and authentic) and how they differ. These findings can be used to construct more beneficial texts for EFL readers and, hopefully, offer information to the field of foreign language material developers. A middle ground between authentic and simplified material might be occupied which involves concocting data on authentic patterns. There have been many attempts by the material developers, text writers and even language teachers to achieve clarity, tidiness and cohesion for purposes of learning. Moreover, they aim to ensure that the text is structured more authentically and naturalistically by modelling on real corpus based English. However, it remains a weak compromise or a viable strategy. In the literature, one can find two broad schools about how far authentic and concocted texts can and should influence the content of language teaching. One version is the authentic material that is supposed to be the utmost original form (and content) presented with full cultural load and environmental features of the target community where the language fulfils all the social functions. The latter is well positioned by the idea that authentic texts provide natural language and considerable knowledge about the setting of the language as a means of practical interaction. The other version has been called by Carter (1998) the “modelling approach”. The term modelling suggests that syllabus designers and text writers might be able to devise syllabus components using raw corpus data mediated by principles of good language teaching, such as simplification.

2.2. Authentic Texts Versus Simplified Texts

Text classification remains one of the major fields of research in natural language processing. Researchers still inquire in depth about the means to distinguish between similar text types, i.e. how can they significantly discriminate authentic texts from ones that have been specifically manipulated or concocted for second or foreign language readers.

When children learn to read in their mother tongue, they are gently taken in stages from reading very simple books to reading more difficult material later. This is also important for people learning second and/or foreign languages such as French and/or English in the Algerian situation. In the field of second and foreign language

reading, the manipulation of text is common. Generally, foreign language reading texts are simplified at the beginning and intermediate level in order to make the text more comprehensible for EFL learners and to help prepare those learners for more advanced, authentic texts (Young, 1999). Support for such simplification rests basically on ELT and EFL acquisition theories and more importantly on the linguistic nature of simplified texts. In general, researchers (Allen & Widdowson, 1979; Nation, 1998), who support simplified material, assume that such texts benefit EFL learners because it excludes unnecessary and distracting, idiosyncratic styles without suffering a loss of valuable communicative features and concepts that are found in authentic texts. These researchers also argue that simplified text version can be a valuable aid to learning because it accurately reflects what already the reader knows about language and does contain increased redundancy and amplified explanation. The simplification of EFL reading texts is so common that publishing houses and editorial staff provide writers with prescriptive guidelines regarding the linguistic construction of the text. These guidelines generally call for the control of information structure (simply conveying the idea that texts are not only simplified at a lexical level, but rather at the structural level too), the control of language and the control of discourse.

In opposition to such simplification is another movement towards the use of authentic text in classroom. Authentic text is any text that is written and was originally created to fulfil the social purpose in the language community for which it was intended. These texts include novels, newspapers and magazine articles, or handbooks and manuals (Lee, 1995; Little, Devitt & Singleton, 1989). In supporting the use of simplified texts, second and foreign language researchers often turn to speak about some linguistic features, such as cohesive devices, sentence structure and beyond that they refer to the text as a semantic entity. Some of the suggestions argue that modifications of authentic texts affect the text's cohesion, make it simpler in appearance but more difficult for L2 readers to manipulate and manage (Honeyfield, 1977 & Lautamatti, 1978). Another argument is that the recognition and understanding of cohesive devices such as conjunctions and other inter-sentential devices by EFL readers is vital to the development of reading comprehension skills and information processing skills. With regard to the lexicon, researchers for authenticity argue that good readers

use the natural redundancy found in authentic text to their advantage by using this textual aspect to help them construct the entire text and understand unfamiliar lexicon.

In sum, proponents of authentic text in ESL /EFL classroom support their position by addressing the idea that authentic text provides more natural language and that cohesion occurs in a natural way than in simplified version. In the same way of thought, Crandal (1995) claims that **simplification is criticized as creating unnatural discourse, be it written or spoken, that reduces helpful redundancy and may, in effect, increase the reading difficulty.** On the other hand, supporters of simplified text version argue that beginning and intermediate EFL learners benefit from texts that are lexically, syntactically and rhetorically less dense than authentic texts.

2.3. Linguistic Differences

Despite the extensive debate between the two camps, there should be empirical evidence demonstrating the extent to which the two text-types differ. Below is an attempt to see at which level of analysis is one version (authentic versus simplified) more beneficial than the other for our EFL learners. To this end, we include relevant variables into three categories or levels, following Vellutino's model (2003) which stand for: word level, sentence level and discourse level.

2.3.1. Word level

Among the variables put into consideration, we may find common nouns that exist between two sentences. At this level of analysis co-referentiality is of great importance since simplified text versions are often created with considerations of increased clarification and elaboration. The studies emanating from such analysis suggest that simplified texts have greater levels of co-reference words and that the same texts contain more helpful co-referentiality items than authentic texts. Another variable refers to the number of levels a word has in a conceptual hierarchy. As a very good instance, the hyponymous value of words is very useful when talking about the way word meanings are related. A hyponymous relationship is *a kind of relation*, as in a hammer is *a kind of tool* or *a kiwi is a kind of bird (and a kind of fruit)*. Thus, *hammer* is a hyponym of tool; *kiwi* a hyponym of bird. However, co-hyponyms share the same

ranking in a hierarchy: hammer, saw, screwdriver are all co-hyponyms. Therefore, words are often manipulated in EFL reading texts in a way leading readers to make possible connections between the kind of relationship that links some items included in the text. Whereas, authentic texts are more abstract than simplified ones and might therefore create a heavier comprehension burden on the EFL reader (Bamford, 1984; Hill, 1997). This is to mention that there are very important semantic links that flow from the lexical field enabling a potential reader to deal easily with texts.

2.3.2. Sentence level

The selected variable is then, the logical connectors which tracks the incidences of *and's, if's, or's, conditional constructions, and negations*. The logical operators include variants of *or, and, not, and if-* then combinations, all of which are related directly to the density and abstractness of a text. However, in simplified texts, these logical connectors are manipulated and publishers' guidelines (Simensen, 1987) call for lexical control and careful use of connectors in EFL reading texts. The culminating result of such an analysis provides comfort for authentic text's use of logical connectors and supplies more overt links between ideas than simplified text versions. This claim is standing forward simply because the selected items are all of a category of function words that maintain a specific role in the link at the sentence level. So, according to Johnson (1982) any simplification aiming at easing the burden for EFL readers may cause the dislocation of the logical connectors.

2.3.3. Discourse level

One of the variables selected to deal with the analysis at the discourse level is the syntactic complexity. In concordance, it is assumed that sentences with difficult syntactic composition have a higher ratio of constituents per word and noun phrase. Variables such as these are important in the manipulation of EFL reading texts because simplified texts are often manipulated through the use of shorter sentences, reduced language features and specified grammatical constructions. Likewise, there is evidence that authentic texts are more syntactically complex than simplified ones. Bamford (1984) and Hill (1997) stress the evidence and claim that simplified text versions are

more syntactically accessible to EFL readers. The other variable correlates with the age of acquisition of the readership population that buttresses the use of simplified discourse which consists of trimming words and phrases and deleting complex syntactic constructions. Findings by Young (1999) and Coltheart (1981) offer evidence that manipulated texts contain words that have a lower age of acquisition and therefore they are more frequent, familiar and accessible to EFL learners. Yet, language production is a complex process that in many ways, especially at the discourse level, has still logical principles that can cause unintended consequences for the overall structure of the discourse, potentially how the text is processed, comprehended and understood. Further criticism on EFL learning texts, however, states the evidence that even shallow, moderate textual changes can significantly affect discourse structures.

2.4. Problematic Areas

Courses for young learners (Middle School pupils) usually concentrate on vocabulary and grammar teaching. Texts are normally used as vehicles for the presentation of new language. Indeed, texts can be used for the presentation of language items but it is not helpful to equate all text-based lessons with language work. The other perennial objectives, however, are the development of pupils' ability to understand and interpret texts using many of their own strategies, like their linguistic background, guessing ability, spelling recognition, and other cognitive strategies. For example, explaining all unknown words before learners read a text will cancel out training in inferring the meaning of lexis in the text. Thus, there are numerous problematic areas that hinder motivational procedures on the behalf of the EFL readers. Generally, the focus when reading is spotted on the single words rather than the whole meaning. Therefore, EFL readers get easily discouraged by unknown words. An already given example is once again through the following sentence: *Annaba, Algiers and Oran are important harbour cities in Algeria.* The word 'harbour' constitutes an instance of impediment towards the understanding of the sentence. Whereas, if simply and for the sake of easing the burden and enhancing motivation, the word 'port' is used instead; then the learner will certainly make conscious use of his background knowledge and experience.

The main source of such problematic situations is the habit of explaining all unknown lexis and translating through the mother tongue. What is more, if learners think that the meaning is strictly in the individual words, then they may not see the need to utilise their background knowledge. That is to say, if texts are loaded with great amount of Germanic-origin words (not existing in the pupils' background knowledge) this may constitute lexical burden. However, simplification at the lexical level will, in fact, facilitate the comprehension of the text. The reading ability of pupils is, most often, not measured with the types of text pupils are asked to deal with. In this context, there is a great mismatch between high-level discourse of authentic texts and the EFL learners' reading abilities which simply leads to a total loss of desire and confidence in reading in English. Subsequently, the most important cause is that EFL readers are reading far too difficult, somehow beyond their ability level. As a crucial problem for EFL readers, teachers do not seem to see the value of providing their learners with reading easy texts to build up confidence and develop their experience and competence through graded readings.

Nevertheless, EFL readers are not exposed to a variety of texts to get used to different writing styles in English (the existing ELT textbooks do not offer such a variety); what is more, pupils do not seem to be taught strategies adequately to help them develop new techniques dealing with unfamiliar words and text's aspects. The most commonly used technique is to have recourse to a bilingual dictionary (Arab/French-English dictionary). Such issues are not necessarily caused by poor teaching because, all too often, teachers do not control what happens in their classes in a cyclical progression. Such an issue is mainly due to the fact the curriculum requires teachers to cover so much language items in a limited time (stated objectives Vs pedagogical practices).

There is more to a text than words and structures; there are equally important and interrelated aspects: text-type (descriptive, narrative, argumentative...), layout (the physical presentation of a text in the form of paragraphs), and organisation (the structuring of ideas). Knowledge of the layout and organisation of different text-types can help readers extract information more effectively. These would lead to the establishment of a reading habit. To illustrate the point, an experienced reader with

limited time, for instance, will get the main points of a newspaper article reporting a social or political fact, by reading the first and last paragraph or using the skimming strategy. Possible reasons for the existing problematic areas in reading may be shown through what follows: limited text-types, lack of awareness of the nature and organisation of different text, and use of high level authentic texts. As a result, learners can not navigate successfully through the text when reading. Additional benefits can be brought about success in comprehending easily the text if learners are not intimidated by unknown lexis, guided how to find their way in a text, provided with language data and helped to discover the rules governing the lexical retrieval; it is only then, vocabulary learning will be developed.

Apart from the obvious facts that texts need to be relevant to the learners' needs' interests and age, there are other factors to consider. Content should be familiar so that learners can feel secure and utilise their background knowledge. Texts may offer new facts to learn; a process which simulates children's real-life experience. Also, content may be challenging and create interest and motivation. To sum up, texts which seem linguistically complex and/or long should not necessarily be rejected for use with low levels. Teachers, alone, can determine the difficulty of the text by manipulating the level of the task. However, learners can cope better with a complex text if the topic is familiar to them.

2.5. Defining Authenticity

The issue of authenticity in language materials has risen to prominence. Indeed, authenticity in materials design and language learning has never been far from the thoughts of ELT professionals who provide various positive effects from such authenticity. They claim for **increased learner motivation, provision of appropriate cultural knowledge, exposure to real language, attention to future learners' needs and support of more creative teaching** (Richards 2001: 252-253). Authenticity is an important feature of ELT approaches in general, and to the reading skill in particular, that is why there is often considerable pressure on materials writers and teachers to provide authentic material. According to Clarke (1989: 73), **authenticity is a reference to the elevation of authentic materials to the level of what appears to be a**

categorical imperative, a moral *sine qua non* of the language classroom. In the same line of thought, Mishan (2004:219) notes that **authenticity is a positive attribute, collocating with desirable qualities such as purity, originality and quality.**

Various definitions have been offered for authenticity, the most common being an over-simplified one based on the original intention of the writer, i.e. anything produced deliberately for language learning purposes is regarded as artificial. The following passage is an illustration of what an artificial/made-up text is:

The Last One

After reading an article entitled 'Cigarette Smoking and Your Health' I lit a cigarette to calm my nerves. I smoked with concentration and pleasure as I was sure that this would be my last cigarette. For a whole week I did not smoke at all and during this time, my wife suffered terribly. I had all the usual symptoms of someone giving up smoking: a bad temper and an enormous appetite. My friends kept on offering cigarettes and cigars. They made no effort to hide their amusement whenever I produced a packet of sweets from my pocket. After seven days of this I went to a party. Everybody around me was smoking and I felt extremely uncomfortable. When my old friend Brian urged me to accept a cigarette, it was more than I could bear. I took one guiltily, lit it and smoked with satisfaction. My wife was delighted to see things had returned to normal once more. Anyway, as Brian pointed out, it is the easiest thing in the world to give up smoking. He himself has done it a lot of times!

(Alexander 1967, *Practice and Progress*, p.195)

This kind of text is designed to teach a specific language structure, the use of definite and indefinite articles: 'the' and 'a/an'. So, it has been, purposefully, built-up for learning purposes. However, any text produced for any other purpose is authentic. Thus, **an authentic text is a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to cover a real message of some sort. In other words, it is not a made-up text produced by an imaginary speaker or writer for an imaginary audience and designed to practise specific language points rather than to convey real information** (Morrow, 1977: 13). Yet, authenticity is not an easy concept to deal with in the context of foreign language learning. The issue has been

somehow controversial. In other words, terms like 'authentic language', 'authentic discourse' and 'authentic materials' are all defined in holistic, vague and imprecise ways (Mc Donough & Shaw: 2003, Dunkel: 1995, Widdowson: 1979). They also argue for a misuse of the term as an interpretation act rather than inherent in texts. This claim has raised the issue 'authentic for whom' - the teacher (supposed to be equipped with linguistic and communicative competence), the learner (a rather intermediate foreign learner with very limited proficiency) or the materials writer (whose conceptual design is not at all a classroom-like practice)?

2.5.1. Sources of Authentic Materials

The sources of authentic materials in today's globalised world abound, but the most commonly used perhaps are: newspapers, TV programmes, menus, magazines, the internet, movies, songs, brochures, comics, literature (novels, poems and short stories). The most outstanding component used as a genuine material reflecting the authenticity of the language is the literary writings, a short poem or just extracts from a novel. The focus should be on teaching language, not literature. At the intermediate and advanced levels, literary texts can be challenging and motivating. The revolutionary scientific and technological means, apparently the computer, is looming largely in the educational spheres as an efficient pedagogical and informative tool. In whatever case, computers can offer interesting benefits to EFL teaching. Thus, general software can be used in class, be it in a genuine or adapted way. There are examples of adventure games which give pupils opportunities to interact with the computer, discover clues and unravel mysteries. These games usually involve a good amount of reading. Another advantage these games have is that they promote computer literacy. Therefore, probably the most useful tool and at the reach of teachers as well as learners (the majority of educational institutions are equipped with computers and connected to) is the internet. Consequently, with the advent of this rich source, teachers have at their disposal large amounts of texts, visual stimuli, newspapers, magazines, live-radio and T.V., video clips which they can make use of reasonably, effectively and efficiently. There are endless lists of useful materials for the language classroom; however, there should be a task where learning takes place, preferably one in which meaning is central and some

classroom of Algeria where the learning of English is, supposedly, backed up with an Indo European language, French, which from a linguistic standpoint, shares many speech sounds, word forms and structure and vocabulary with English. The researcher, shall first discuss the importance of vocabulary in reading comprehension and then examine some findings and other related theories of ESL/EFL interactional learning theories. In our case, there is an evident feature to be closely examined as far as the vocabulary learning is concerned. It is linguistically attested that English and French are genetically related and that there is a large body of shared lexical stock that may constitute a beneficial asset to our EFL learners. In other words, French is bi-sidedly considered: first, as a pre-requisite linguistic knowledge preceding the learning of English in the Algerian educational system, and secondly, as a significant source that has left a lasting mark on the composition of the English vocabulary. To this evidence, we try to see the script theory (spelling similarity) and the semantic network (common meaning) between Germanic origin words and Romance origin words, apart from false friends. However, there are some pedagogical implications that resort from such semantic mapping.

2.6.1. Importance of Vocabulary in Language Learning

There is no clear evidence to show that there is a direct causal link between vocabulary and success in reading, but the relationship between the two has been strongly suggested in research by reading experts. Davis (1968: 449) found that **the factor that correlated most highly with comprehension is knowledge of word meaning**. Another claim which emphasises and support the importance of vocabulary in reading is Daneman's (1988) suggestion that **since words are the building blocks of connected text, constructing text meaning depends, in part, on the success of searching for individual word meanings**. Daneman, however, goes further to suggest that simply a reader's vocabulary is not sufficient, for comprehension depends not only on the sheer size of the reader's vocabulary but also on the facility with which he can access the known word meanings represented in memory. Such a stand is supported by Laberge and Samuels (1974)), who stipulate that good readers automatically recognise most of the words they read. In this respect, they posit that lexical and comprehension

processing frees cognitive space for reconstructing meaning from the text. In other words, good readers are also good decoders. Rapid and accurate decoding of language is important to any kind of reading and especially important to second-language reading. This very important mainly in similar situation where a second language (French) teaching/learning situation can increasingly help in the enhancement of the teaching/learning process of the foreign language (English). In such suitable case, an EFL reader in our situation can decode for the most part, not by guessing from context or prior knowledge of the world, but by a kind of automatic identification that requires no conscious cognitive efforts. It is precisely this 'automaticity' that frees the minds of fluent readers of a language to think about and interpret what they are reading.

2.6.2. Script Theory and Semantic Network.

Besides the importance of automaticity of lexical access, research on human memory (linguistic background) also has pedagogical implications on vocabulary teaching. It has been postulated that our experience of the world is stored in 'scripts' (Schank & Abelson 1977) or schemata (Rumelhart 1980) of related events in the human memory. Thus, our knowledge of what goes in a long-span learning/ acquisition of the French language which stands as an inseparable component of the Algerian speech community relate an undeniable key-code to unravel some of the complexities emanating from the lexis making up an English text at the level of script, such as words with prefixes 'dis', e.g. dislocation, discontinue, and suffixes 'tion', e.g. emancipation, coordination, anticipation, elaboration, imagination, etc. These learning events will be stored in the human mind in a semantic network of interrelated facts. In a very simple illustration, the already learnt vocabulary in the French language, or linguistically called '*déjà-vu*' vocabulary constitute a cognitive basis for the learner who has already gone through similar items during his growing up in an environment where French is part and parcel of his daily linguistic scenery, and the early learning process of that language (French) from the primary school buttresses and consolidate the proficiency, though at unequal degrees from one learner to another, depending on various factors (socio-economic, cultural, pedagogical and mainly geographical).

Since the various components of a script or schema constitute a network of

interrelated concepts, and since words are actually labels for concepts (Johnson & Pearson 1984), we can assume that words, too, are stored in semantically related networks. Therefore, it is generally reported through many research findings that individuals tend to recall words according to the semantic field in which they are conceptually mapped. In other words, good readers store their knowledge of vocabulary in semantically related networks. The activation of a word in a network will activate other related words, which will then help comprehension. Such activated words also help readers in making predictions and anticipations about the text they are reading, a view that is in line with current views of reading as a 'psychological guessing game' (Goodman 1976). A simple experiment that teachers could try out in class is to write a word like 'participate' or 'marriage' but after having presented the class with some Germanic words like 'take part in' or 'wedding'. The very spontaneous reaction of the learners will be a likely spelling recognition of a 'déjà-vu' vocabulary with a semantic appealing which is likely obvious.

The above insights and findings corroborate with three categories of basic words necessary for reading comprehension. In this respect, Johnson and Pearson (1984) suggest what follows: 1) - High frequency sight words: words that occur so frequently in printed matter that they are essential for fluent and easy reading,

2) - Selection-critical word: vocabulary items that are absolutely necessary to the understanding of a particular selection or theme. They are especially relevant to the notion of schemata related words, and

3) Old words/new meanings: words with multi-meanings or polesemic items.

2.6.3. Pedagogical Implications

The suggestions, dealt with as far as teaching reading vocabulary is concerned, could form the basis of some practical guidelines for EFL teachers in the teaching of vocabulary. There are some important features efficient for lexical learning and semantic retrieval as means to ease the burden, facilitate and then reinforce vocabulary use and usage. As far as reading comprehension is concerned, automatic recognition is vital. The reading teacher should not be content with merely increasing the size of learners' vocabulary through such activities as explaining or making learners memorise

from a mono- or bilingual vocabulary list. Instead, teachers should adopt activities that will help reinforce and recycle vocabulary to facilitate automatic lexical access. A total language experience in which the skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking are practised through a thematic approach seems to be an efficient way of ensuring lexical repetition and reinforcement.. Thus, vocabulary building is related to concept building, and teachers should help learners build up new networks or maintain, refine, and expand existing networks through a variety of other topics. Reinforcing and refining networks will help to facilitate fluency in lexical access, leading to automaticity in vocabulary recognition. As learners read around the same topic, first, then go further into various topics, a schema of related concepts, and hence words, is built up and reinforced. However, very useful and consistent examples can be presented by the reading teacher. He can administrate an activity where learners are asked predicting vocabulary from a given topic. The teacher writes a topic (for example, 'pollution') on the board, and learners predict the words that would be associated with the topic. This activity could be used either as a pre-reading activity or as a game in itself. In the former, the teacher tells the learners that they are going to read passage on, say, 'pollution' and learners are to predict the words that may appear in the passage. The teacher writes the words on the board, occasionally asking the pupils them the reason for their choice of words or for the meaning. The learners are then given the passage to check their prediction. As a game in itself, the teacher could give the pupils about 30 seconds to one minute (depending on the learners' proficiency) to generate as many words as possible related to the topic given. Pupils then compare their words in pairs or as a class, explaining or defending their choice of their words. An important element in both activities is that learners should be encouraged to explain why they have predicted the words. By explaining their choice of words they are not only refining their understanding of the words but also activating other words in the schema related to the words in question, thus automatising their knowledge of lexical co-occurrence. As a variation of the first activity (learning here is seen as a means to an end), predicting topic from given vocabulary is another step for activating background knowledge and arousing curiosity. The teacher writes some key words related to a topic and learners are asked to predict the topic. For example, pupils are asked to predict the topic from the following words:

Wild animals	plants
Species	disappear
Hunters	shoot and trap
Kill	lose their habitat
Rare animals	laws
Scientists	breed
Multiply	parks
Conservation	nature
Natural parks	plant-research stations

After the pupils have predicted the topic, they can be asked to predict other words related to it. Again this activity is to reveal the words on a transparency (or to write them down one by one on the board) and ask the pupils to guess what the topic would be after each word. Still, other activities could help learners revise and improve on their guessing with a precise selection, this time, which words do not fit into the list. This is a frequently used activity in that learners select the odd word, giving reasons for their choice. It should be noted that what is important is not so much the correct answer but the discussion on the choice of the answers. In fact, Rivers (1981: 176) suggests that **word lists with more than one possible answer be used to stimulate discussion**. The discussion focuses the pupils' attention not only on the meaning of the words but also on the relation among them, thereby increasing their knowledge of collocation and lexical range. Flexibility of answers and pair/group work to facilitate discussion are thus crucial aspects for vocabulary development.

In sum, many of the theoretical findings can be carried out into classroom practices. There are certainly many more activities based on sound theories and research. However, it is important for an EFL instructor to see beyond such activities and recognise their theoretical underpinnings. Only then, he will be able to build up a coherent and consistent methodology in teaching vocabulary.

2.7. Conclusion

In offering the above though holistic view about the type of texts to be used in an EFL classroom, we admit there is probably no such thing as real (authentic), since

classrooms are by their nature artificial. The only genuine- task authenticity for language learning, in general, and vocabulary retrieval, in particular, may well be total immersion in the target language environment without an instructor. Nevertheless, the aim of the researcher, through the present chapter, has been to set an overall view of a teaching situation where English is a foreign language with no social functions, on the one hand. On the other hand, authentic texts are loaded with complex grammatical structures and difficult vocabulary (mainly from a Germanic origin) which, in concordance with pupils' levels, may impede the comprehension of the basic lexical items making up the text. It is, therefore, worth thinking twice before claiming authenticity for materials, texts (written or spoken) and even classroom activities, i.e. we should rather think of it as multifaceted and applicable to different phases of language classroom processes. As far as the targeted population of learners we are concerned with through this research work, simplification is needed for many reasons. Firstly, the intermediate EFL pupils, they are, have a limited level of proficiency at English and that the degree of complexity of authentic texts, certainly, does not help. Secondly, our learners are already equipped with a linguistic background (varied degrees of proficiency among pupils) of the French language that they acquired/learnt during their childhood. The point to stress here is that French shares a considerable vocabulary stock with English that intermediate learners may quickly grasp the meaning or may recognise the spelling, and then they will work out the text with enjoyment and ease. So, vocabulary teaching through the reading skill is likely profitable to our EFL learners when texts are 'concocted' to fit their level at least at the lexical level. This simplification is meant to ease the burden of comprehending unfamiliar words by substituting, whenever possible, the Germanic origin words by Romance origin words. This proposed reformulation of authentic texts is based on the premise that our pupils are supposedly already proficient in French, and can therefore, transfer initial learned items (Latin morphemes and graphemes, spelling and punctuation rules) to the learning of the English language.

CHAPTER THREE

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CHAPTER THREE

THE TEACHING OF VOCABULARY

3.1. Introduction

Teaching, in general, has long been considered as a set of activities which are intended to inculcate in the learners certain knowledge, bearing in mind that its aim is to facilitate the process of learning. Teaching is both a science and an art, i.e. it involves the presentation of knowledge through the use of methods, approaches and techniques on the one hand and requires certain qualities, skills and savoir faire on the behalf of the teacher to cope with the unexpected on the other hand. According to Jeremy Harmer (2001), the teaching of English is in a constant state of flux, with new theories, practices and material erupting all over the world, in the sense that **“We are constantly challenged by new research”**. (Harmer 2001:09)

In this respect, we may, as well, be at the centre of a widely-open question: what kind of innovation does our research bring to the teaching of vocabulary? Yet, there are so many theories and teaching procedures contributing to a certain extent to the progress of that teaching. However, this kind of research is continuously trying to question the suitability of the previous theories *vis à vis* the current teaching situation. In our situation, the teaching of vocabulary correlates with the teaching of English as a second foreign language. This leads us to state that, it is preceded by an already established first foreign language-French; and beyond all, by Arabic-the native language of the Algerian society.

Our aim in this chapter is to shed light on the existing techniques used in teaching vocabulary. Furthermore, we will relate the pre-requisite knowledge of French lexis having a common origin with English to the suitability of presenting simplified text versions to our EFL learners. In other words, texts should aim at offering pupils involvements with these texts which will arouse their interest and motivation to work out meanings on their own way. However, it must be said that difficulty in texts often arises from many other factors rather than simply language ones. Background cultural

assumptions, acquaintance with words' origins and references from daily life sources are often much more difficult for non-native learners to handle. Thus, texts must be considered very carefully to see whether they are "comprehensible". All this, clearly requires a considerable investment of time and effort on the part of the teacher. Ideally, the development of such material (simplified text versions) would be undertaken on a collaborative basis by teachers.

3.2. The Lexical Plight in Reading

Vocabulary learning has long had a synergetic association with reading. Each activity nourishes the other. Until recently, however, there has been little emphasis placed on the acquisition of vocabulary. Although the lexicon is arguably central to language acquisition and use, vocabulary instruction has not been a priority in second or foreign language learning, research and methodology. No text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary. This is not to say that reading and vocabulary are the same, or that reading quality is determined by vocabulary alone.

3.2.1. The Reading Skill

Reading is, by no means, an isolated skill but related to other skills and to real life. The skills involved in reading are manifold. Reading is characterized as an interactive process where the reader actively engages with the text and extracts meaning based on information supplied in the text, the purpose of the reading and on the world knowledge that the reader brings to the text. Effective reading aims at helping learners of English to read more effectively by presenting and developing the skills needed for successfully engaging with and comprehending texts. The manifold skills related to reading can be presented vaguely as follows:

Skills	Aims
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Checking Comprehension -Dealing with unfamiliar words - Evaluating the text -Extracting main ideas. -Inferring -Linking ideas. -Predicting -Reaching the to the text -Reading for specific information. -Understanding complex sentences. -Understanding text organisation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -To read for specific information - To enrich the vocabulary stock. -To develop the students' critical faculty - To read for general sense rather than detail. -To read beyond the literal meaning. -To identify a common underlying idea behind different words and phrases. -To utilise prior knowledge to assist in comprehension of a text. -To compare the writer's view point with the reader's. -To practise the skill of scanning. - To identify main and subordinate clauses. -To identify the cohesive ties in a passage.

Table 3.1. Range of Skills dealing with reading (Adapted from Greenall and Swan 1986)

Reading comprehension is also affected by textually relevant background knowledge and the application of general reading strategies, such as predicting the content of the text, guessing unknown words in context, making inferences, recognizing the type of text and grasping the main idea of the paragraph. And yet, it has been

consistently demonstrated that reading comprehension is strongly related to vocabulary knowledge more strongly than other components of reading. Various studies have not only demonstrated that an improvement in reading comprehension can be attributed to an increase in vocabulary knowledge but present vocabulary as a good predictor of reading success. Based on empirical evidence, if a reader has good metacognitive strategies, which she or he uses in his L1 or L2, these will not be of much help in foreign language before a solid language base has been reached. Admittedly, it is acknowledged that reading in a foreign language is both a reading problem and a language problem. In this respect, Alderson states that: **Some sort of threshold or competence ceiling has to be attained before existing abilities in the first language(s) can begin to transfer.** (Alderson 1984:20)

Since language threshold is essential to comprehension, an important question is, therefore, what the nature of this threshold is? According to many researchers, indispensable conditions for reading in a foreign language and understanding the texts' words and the knowledge of its subject matter are necessary. However, it is claimed, largely, that in interpreting texts, learners tend to regard words as main land marks of meaning (background knowledge is relied on a lesser extent and syntax is almost disregarded). Haynes and Baker (1993) came to a similar conclusion when they posit that: **The most significant handicap of foreign language readers is not lack of strategies but insufficient vocabulary in English** (Haynes and Baker 1993: 152).

This quotation indicates that the threshold level for reading comprehension is, to a larger extent, lexical. Lexical problems will, therefore, hinder successful comprehension.

3.2.2. Lexical Problems in Reading.

Intuitively, most people associate lexical problems in comprehension with three major obstacles which are:

1. The problem of noncomprehension, i.e. nonfamiliarity with words in the text.
2. The problem of pseudo-familiar words, i.e. Miscomprehension of words that look familiar.

3. The problem of guessability, i.e. guessing of unknown words.
i) Non-familiarity with words in the text.

When a foreign language reader with insufficient vocabulary is trying to interpret an authentic text (and such texts are not usually written for people with limited vocabulary),s/he will be generally unable to apply effective reading strategies used in his/ her L1 or L2.

In our case, the threshold, vocabulary readers need to transfer, especially, their L2 reading strategies. It is worth recalling that L1 has no linguistic affinity with English. This transfer is commonly referred to as words whose forms and common meanings are recognised automatically, irrespective of the context. Systematic recognition of a large vocabulary or a large 'déjà vu' vocabulary will enhance the reader's cognitive resources. An important question relating to the issue of threshold vocabulary is: *How many words is a foreign language reader able to recognize irrespective of context?*

Before answering this question, the term 'word' should be insightfully defined since different unrelated items of meaning are considered as different words and/or in some cases as one word. The following examples will briefly shed some light on the given situation

eg:1- 'bank' – 'pupil' (different unrelated items= different words =different meanings)

eg:2- 'break a leg' – 'feeding the daisies (one meaning = one word) (die)

eg:3-bring / brought / bringing (inflectional forms of the same unit of meaning = one meaning).

Differences in opinion may exist as to whether derivatives of a word are one word or separate words; hence, we adopt Nation's (1983) definition of a word where he considers the derivatives as word family including all.

Eg: 4 –'man', 'unmanly', 'manhood' (word family = one word)

The only suitable answer correlating to the above question can be seen clearly and thoroughly through empirical studies of samples of population. However, as

mentioned before, the higher the level of comprehension expected, the larger the vocabulary should be.

ii) Miscomprehension of Words that Look Familiar.

Another aspect of the lexical plight in foreign language learning is the problem of miscomprehension of certain words that look familiar even though they are unknown since meaning is, to some extent, in the eye of the beholder. The problem of “pseudo-familiar” words is referred to as words you think you know. Words, in this case, are deceptively transparent, i.e., they seem to be as if they provide clues to their meaning.

For examples:

1. ‘infallible’ looks as if it is composed of ‘in + fall + ible’ and means ‘something that can not fall’.

2. ‘shortcomings’ looks like a compound of ‘short’ and ‘coming’, meaning ‘short visits’.

These are examples of misinterpretations of similar types found in (Huckin and Block (1993)).

The deceptively transparent words seem to fall into one of the five distinct categories: a-words with a deceptive morphological structure.

These words look as if they were composed of meaningful morphemes, e.g.:

Words (DT)	Misinterpretation	Real meaning
Outline	Out of the line	Description of main features of...
Nevertheless	Never less	In spite of something mentioned
Discourse	Without direction	Communicative message

Table 3.2: Examples of Morphological Deceptive Words

The reader's assumption through these given examples was that the meaning of a word equalled the sum of meanings of its components.

b. Idioms are similarly assumed as words of deceptive transparency in that the meaning of the whole is the sum of the meanings of its parts. In general cases, idioms like: 'hit and miss', 'sit on the fence', 'a shot in the dark', 'miss the boat', are translated literally word by word.

c. False friends are the form of words in L2 (French) that resemble words in the foreign language (English). In such a case, there could be a mistaken assumption on the part of the learner to consider or assume that if two words share the same form, they do the same for meaning; examples are: actually ___not (actuellement) ___but (reellement). Eventually ___not (eventuellement) ___but (par la suite).

Delay ___not (délai) ___but (retard).

Pass an exam ___not (passer un examen) ___but (reussir).

d. Words with multiple meanings are most often assumed to elucidate the meaning of the word taught within a given context; and that meaning becomes the only meaning. One aspect of the various meanings is 'polysemy' which is related to distinguishing between various meanings of a single word form. It often happens that EFL learners know one meaning of a polyseme or a homonym and are reluctant to abandon it even when, in a particular context, its meaning is different. A vivid example could be given through the contextual use of the word 'since' which is interpreted as 'from the time when' though it may mean, in another context, 'because'. Several other examples may be given to illustrate the case: 'abstract' as not 'concrete' instead of 'summary'; 'state' as 'country' instead of 'situation'.

The teaching and learning of vocabulary does not mean necessarily to consider those words' meanings as items of information to be merely memorised but instead, it is a matter of dealing with the different meanings of the memorised words through different uses via different contexts. For instance the word 'mark' carries a different meaning in each of the following situations:

-There is an interrogation mark after questions. (Symbol of punctuation).

- My marks in English are low this year. (Grades).
- This light house is an important mark for pilots. (Guide).
- His boots made marks on the carpet. (Scratches).
- The athlete overstepped the mark before jumping. (Boundary).

Most of the time a word may have more than one meaning. In this respect, Fries states that: **Gaining a real control of the words of English must begin with recognition of the fact that there are vocabulary items of various kinds and that these various kinds of items demand separate description and different treatment.** (Fries1970:44)

Therefore, since most of the vocabulary items have different meanings and can be used in different ways and contexts, the task of the teacher becomes complex. The remedial solution is found through the exposure of pupils to different uses of vocabulary items through a variety of texts including different contexts. What matters most, is to encourage pupils to use what they have learnt in different settings either orally or in a written form.

e. Similar lexical forms represent the largest category of words having a deceptive transparency-also known as 'synforms'. Some synforms are similar in sound, examples of such are: cute/acute; available/valuable; conceal/cancel; price/prize; concede/conceit...etc. Some are morphologically similar like: deduce-induce- reduce. Synforms confusions may have two sources: the learner might have learnt one word of the pair/group, but since its representation in memory is defective, a similar word that shares most of its formal features might look identical to it. Or, the learner may confuse between the studied synforms and their meanings.

From a general observation of the reading skill, a learner may opt, when he does not understand a word in a text, for various strategies which could be as follow: ignore the word completely, look it up in a dictionary, ask someone who knows its meaning or try to guess it from context. However, to overcome the deceptively transparent words, it is necessary to have a better awareness of their impact on the many misinterpretations that may be caused. Such an attempt will result in a larger number of correctly interpreted words. This will in turn reduce the density of unknown words. Such

reduction will result in an increase in contextual clues that are necessary for understanding additional new words. A large number of known words will be an asset to global comprehension of the text.

iii) Guessing from Context.

As opposed to deceptively transparent words which seem to be familiar, there are other words which are recognised as unfamiliar words and here the reader tries to guess them. However, it should be clear enough that: ***word guessability is less a function of using context than learners applying preconceived notions about the meaning of a word.*** (Benssoussan and Laufer: (1984:17))

It appears from the above quotation that successful vocabulary guessing through reading depends on the presence of a number of factors. Learners must attend to new words, and clear clues to their meanings and relationships must be present. And the learner's previous knowledge (such as partial knowledge of the word, of similar words or cognates) also play a salient role. Moreover, the kinds of words to be learnt and the clarity of their reference influence the ease of their guessing as well. Thus, concrete nouns are likely to be learnt and guessed more quickly than discourse connectors. Most of all, the guessing strategy from a given context depends on some clues included within the text. Because of the variability of these clues, it is very hard to take for granted that guessing in a foreign language is possible with most unknown words. Within the attempts of the reader to guess unknown words, a variety of factors interfere. These factors are explained below as follow:

-Non-existent contextual clues: If clues are absent in a text, there is no way of exploitation for the guessability of unknown words. Unless the context is very constrained, which is a rare occurrence, or unless there is a relationship with a known word on the basis of form, there is little chance of guessing the correct meaning. The basic assumption is: no clues, no guessing.

- Unusable contextual clues: Sometimes in spite of the existence of clues in a text, there still be problems of guessability, i.e., the clues (that are supposed to facilitate the guessing of unknown words) are themselves unfamiliar to the reader. Thus, the clues,

for the reader, do not exist since they simply can be used. It is precisely because clues that appear unfamiliar words can not be exploited that the density of unknown words in a text is of crucial importance to successful guessing (familiarity with a large number of words is a prerequisite for successful guessing).

- Misleading/partial clues: There are words that are recognised as unfamiliar by the reader and guessed imprecisely just because the clues are misleading. An unknown word can be understood as the interpretation fits the context. Here is an example where the meaning of an unknown word is approximately determined or guessed: "Typhoon Vera killed 28 persons and *crippled* the seaport of New Orleans". Crippled can be understood as 'damaged, destroyed' since a typhoon will have some kind of negative influence upon a city. However, though in some texts it may be sufficient to arrive to a general or approximate meaning of words in order to understand a sentence or a passage, it is not usually safe to rely on approximations. What looks right may be wrong; and reliance on what is more or less right may sometimes produce an irresponsible interpretation.

- Suppressed schemata: One of the factors contributing to successful guessing is the reader's background of the subject matter of the text or 'content schemata'. It is argued that reading is psychological guessing game (Goodman: 1967) ; thus, inferences are drawn from the text on the basis of the reader's expectations and experiences of certain contents. The effect of background knowledge is so strong that it suppresses the lexical clues and tends to disregard information that, according to their world view, seems unimportant. When a biased opinion of a given kind is introduced in the interpretation, individual unknown words will be taken to mean whatever suits the reader's own notion and if there are clues in context that would suggest a different interpretation, they can be easily suppressed. If there is no compatibility between the reader's schemata and the text content, the reader may impose his interpretation on the text and try to understand individual words in a way that will fit the global meaning suppressing the clues that suggest a different interpretation.

3.2.3. Using Texts

The reading skill has always been displayed through the presentation of 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 pupils, 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 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, pupils 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.

3.2.4. 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, indeed, be given the gloss of our suggested approach. 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:

i) 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 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, sentient 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 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.

ii) Involvement

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

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

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

Opinion-seeking; e.g.: Does the reader 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 and real life uses).

It will be clearly observable through different reading texts that such involvement is open-ended and brings about subjective reactions on the part of the 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 can not help reacting to them and questions leading students to compare their own views to those of the writer are necessary components of any reading comprehension syllabus.** (Grellet: 1981:25)

iii) Choice

A key factor underlying involvement in a text is the personal choice of the reader. In general, in the real world, nobody forces us to read, listen or watch 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 pupil 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 readers, 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).

iv) **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 reads a text written for native speakers, the foreign language learner does not have an authentic reading experience. If the learner reads a simplified text at a suitable level, the learner can respond to that text in an authentic way, by getting enjoyment from the reading, by learning some new ideas, by being critical about some ideas in the text, or by experiencing ease in reading.

Without simplified texts learners can not experience authentic reading 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 reading texts as the main component of an extensive reading 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 pupil. 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 pupils would normally themselves read in their own already acquired language (in our situation: French). 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 very clear terms, the task of the teacher is to provide a substitute for the English words, representing a difficulty in meaning and having a "Germanic" origin by words (always from the English language) having a "Romance" origin. The latter suggestion may reveal interest, involvement and motivation on the part of pupils and may be used as a means to facilitate the comprehension of the reading texts. 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.

3.2.5. Orthographic Consideration

Orthographic knowledge plays a critical part in foreign language reading. However, failure in gaining proficiency in reading and comprehension is said to be highly correlated with word misidentification. And, of great importance, many identification errors result from insufficient information derived from orthographic processing. Thus, inefficient orthographic processing can lead not only to inaccurate lexical retrieval but to poor comprehension as well. Further support of the importance of the orthographic contribution, suggested by contemporary studies that have renewed interest in word recognition (Brown and Haynes, 1985; Green and Meara, 1987; Koda, 1988, 1990), is similarly related to visual fixation of the word. That is why, in an effort to clarify the nature of the orthographic knowledge in its specific function, we suggest ways in which L2 (in the Algerian case-French) orthographic competence shapes the foreign language processing as follows:

-Learners' multiple sets of linguistic knowledge and processing skills interact during foreign language comprehension.

-Prior orthographic experience has a strong impact on the development of foreign language lexical processing (in this case, relevance to L2 orthographic experience, thus, language transfer).

3.2.5.1. Language Transfer

From a cross-linguistic perspective and from a practical experience, it is argued that language transfer is central to our case study where shapes and forms of the French words are automatically transferred into the foreign language (English) words processing. Yet, the concept itself can be viewed either as an interfering effect or as a critical basis for learning a new linguistic system. In other words, given the linguistic affinity between French and English foreign language learners are already familiar with the spelling unless some confusions that may occur within the pronunciation of some words. As a case in point, language transfer may originate from a contrastive analysis where the L1 (Arabic) completely differs from English (script and direction) and neither languages are genetically related. This transition is, fortunately, mediated by an L2

system which has historical links and stands as a commonly shared system of writing and script, as well as semantic relationship. Because, typologically, some languages are more similar than others, the linguistic distance between a learner's L2 and F.L still varies among individuals. It follows, therefore, that the use of L2 processing mechanisms that are typologically similar will result in better and more efficient performance. Hence, this view provides a partial explanation of quantitative and qualitative differences in performance among F.L learners with related L2 backgrounds.

3.2.5.2. Word Recognition

We can, therefore, safely assume that F.L readers bring their L2 orthographic knowledge and processing mechanisms to bear on F.L words recognition. As a case in point, the Algerian learner (reader) is confronted with, first, non-roman alphabetical knowledge where Arabic script is enhanced at an early age with difference in direction of writing and reading. Second, he makes contact with another roman-alphabetic language (French) which largely correlates in spelling and direction with the target language they will learn. In this context, we may say that Algerian E.F.L learners are facing complex linguistic problems because F.L learning occurs after the learning of Modern Arabic and French. In fact, although Arabic is (the nearest to) our mother tongue, the influence of French is the most important, as it is stated by Hayane: **“L'influence du Français est la plus importante des deux pour le moment et il est nécessaire d'en tenir compte, d'autant plus que La disparition de cette langue véhiculaire n'est pas pour demain”** (Hayane : 1985: 46)

This clearly shows the positive influence of French language which may facilitate English learning because of the similarities between the two languages as they belong to the same broad family (genetically related), have the same Latin (Romance) script and both share a common lexicon to a certain extent. There is no doubt, therefore, that L2 writing systems have profound and long-lasting effects on the way F.L linguistic materials are processed and that E.F.L learners, from varying L2 orthographic backgrounds use distinctive processing strategies. And, of great significance, differences in word recognition patterns are linked with specific properties in the learner's L2 orthographic system. It is important to note, in this regard, that such

allegations need support from a study case where the bases of French language learning should be scrutinised.

3.2.6. Translating: The Use of the Mother Tongue.

The potential of the mother tongue as a classroom resource is so great that its role should merit considerable attention. However, in the Algerian situation, the mother tongue is a mixture of two co-existing languages (Arabic and French) gaining a social status among the population, hence, acquired simultaneously by children from a very early age. Inevitably, a young child is necessarily equipped with a considerable lexical stock of both languages to convey some of his or her needs. Therefore, the many examples from our daily life may easily stand as a mirror of a child's utterances through the daily use of Arabic as well as French in a natural way. For instance: 'television, table (a), stylo, (el) portable, les piles... are usual terms included within the majority of our children, if not all, before entering school.

Michael Swan (1985) makes the point that the mind of the learner as s/he enters the classroom is not a 'Tabula Rasa'. Learners' communicative abilities and knowledge of the world (which all learners possess) should be the major aspects characterising a given methodology in language classroom.

At present, it would seem to be true, in general, that in teacher training very little attention is given to the use of mother tongue. It is true that total prohibition of the learner's native language is now unfashionable. This gap in methodological literature is, presumably, partly responsible for the uneasiness which many teachers experienced because of four influential reasons. These reasons are stated below as follows:

- a. The association of translation with 'grammar/translation method' where great dependence on the use of mother tongue as a source of comprehension and/or the association with the 'direct method' in which there is a total rejection of translation (two extremes).
- b. A backwash effect whereby even native speakers are facing unrepresentative situations of a multilingual teaching class (in Britain or the U.S.A).

- c. The recent influence of Krashen (1981) and many of his associates who have promoted the idea that 'learning' (as opposed to acquisition) is of little value and that transfer has only a minor role to play
- d. The truism that you can learn English only by speaking English.

3.2.6.1. Advantages of Using Mother Tongue

The judicious use of the mother tongue has, undoubtedly, several general advantages. The most significant one is that the majority of the learners prefer this learning strategy. Of most learners in most places, it is one of the basis that constitutes effective language learning since it saves time and effort for both learners and teachers. Secondly, another important role of the mother tongue is to allow learners to say what they really want to say (a kind of humanistic element in class). It is just after that the teacher encourages them to find a way of expressing their meaning in English or, if necessary, help out. Furthermore, techniques involving use of the mother tongue can be very efficient as regards the amount of time needed to achieve a specific aim; and for the teacher, many of the techniques involve little preparation.

Certainly, also from an experimental basis, there are very useful techniques and activities exploiting the mother tongue. It could be shown through different ways: 1. Eliciting language: For example, 'How do you say 'x' in English? This can often be less time-consuming and can involve less ambiguity.

2. Checking comprehension: The mother tongue can be used to check comprehension of the concept behind the structure, for example, How do you say 'I've been waiting for ten minutes' in French or in Arabic? This technique encourages pupils to develop the ability to distinguish between structural, semantic and pragmatic equivalence (Widowson quoted in Brumfit and Johnson 1979: 65).

3. Giving instructions: Although it is true explaining an activity in the target language is genuine communication, in some cases, however, it is wisely recommended to explain the instruction in pupils' language to ensure that everyone fully understands what to do.

4. Co-operation between learners: In here, pupils, in pairs or groups, compare their answers to comprehension tasks in their own language. Simply, because a mother

tongue explanation by a peer who has understood may well succeed better than the one provided, in the clearest way, by the teacher.

5. Discussion of classroom methodology: For promoting learning awareness and learner autonomy, it is of great importance to elucidate pupils' reactions to what takes place in the classroom. For this reason, discussions on methodology are best conducted either in a mixture of both languages or exclusively in the pupils' mother tongue.

6. Presentation and reinforcement of language: An exercise involving translation into the target language of a paragraph or set of sentences which may highlight a recently taught language item can provide useful reinforcement of structural, conceptual and socio-linguistic differences between pupils' language (either Arabic or French) and the target language.

Outstandingly, for most learners of English, there are some aspects of the language which present difficulties principally because of the way in which they differ structurally from their mother tongue (especially Arabic) or from Romance languages (like French). For example, the structure "s+v+person+infinitive" in 'He asked them to help him'. In such an example, the subjunctive structure is used in French. Another useful application of this technique can raise pupils' awareness of the existence of known 'false cognates' which are misleading similarities between French and English, example: attend/attendre, actually/actuellement. etc. (See 3.2.2)

It is obvious that in any situation, excessive dependency on mother tongue and/or French is to be avoided. As a matter of fact, pupils will feel that nothing is clear to them only if it is translated. However, there is no doubt that using a pre-requisite language has a variety of roles to play which at present is undervalued.

3.2.7. 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 used creatively. 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).

3.2.7.1. 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 frowned on, or at least not specifically included in the training of the training 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -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 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -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.

	language through definitions.	
Bilinguals / Trilinguals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -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. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -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: 3.3. Drawbacks and advantages of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries (adapted from)

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, copious 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.

3.2.7.2. 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:

1. The dictionary should, like monolingual dictionaries, be aimed in one direction (not like most of bilingual dictionaries: bi-directional).
2. It should be easy to get into (involvement of a section giving equivalents in the foreign language for the learner's language).
3. It should be easy to understand: Some of the definitions containing information in the foreign language should be given in the learner's language.
4. It should give full information about foreign –language headwords, not for learner's language terms.
5. 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 can not 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. Examples illustrating their actual use are: The Longman English Dictionary for Portuguese (Konder, 1983). It is one-directional, has a Portuguese index referring to the appropriate English entry, and gives full grammatical (syntactic behaviour) and other information. It keeps definitions in English but adds a Portuguese equivalent after each.

3.3. Conclusion

This discussion has led us to the question of whether or not we should teach and encourage F.L learners to use a given technique that has been fruitful through many conducted experiments by top researchers in the field. The answer is 'yes', but not all the time, not with all learners, not in all contexts and certainly not as the main means of learning vocabulary. We have seen that learners use a given strategy for different reasons and in different ways; partly because differences in levels of vocabulary knowledge, needs, attitudes, motivation and linguistic background affect their ability as a whole. This implies that we need to be selective and in the early stages there should be a planned and graded strategy making learners learn English vocabulary through a simplified construct of texts aiming at reaching the threshold of language proficiency.

CHAPTER FOUR

SITUATION ANALYSIS

CHAPTER FOUR SITUATION ANALYSIS

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CHAPTER FOUR: SITUATION ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

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 can not 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. Since our learners possess a given background knowledge of a lexical stock; it is quite natural and logical to make our learners profit from that "treasured possession" as a 'boot strap' to develop and enhance their learning of the vocabulary of the target language.

The present chapter will lead us to consider the various common features shared historically and linguistically between the second language in Algeria-French- and the foreign language-English (See 2.4.) and how this linguistic affinity may help inculcate in our learners, gradually, a considerable amount of vocabulary. In such an attempt in using Romance origin words instead of Germanic origin words, it is objected simply to establishing an ease of the understanding of the content of a text through the use of words that our learners are supposedly already familiar with both in form and meaning.

The chapter puts emphasis on making investigation through classroom observation. This research instrument is meant to collect data about how vocabulary is taught. This is, purposely, carried out to give details of the teaching situation in two 3.A.S classes in a realistic way. Then, our proposal will come into practice where two

texts are to be set into two different versions: an original version text that contains English words of Germanic origin and a simplified version text with English words of Romance origin.

4.2. Vocabulary Teaching in Secondary School

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 through different techniques used by the teacher depending on the difficulty of the new lexis and on the level of the class.

4.2.1. The Presentation of 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 use 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 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.

4.2.2. Techniques Used in Teaching Vocabulary

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 secondary schools:

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

Starting 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 not 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 better than if a teacher just explains using words simply. 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.

4.3. Situation Analysis

As has been mentioned, there are numerous ways of conveying the meaning of a new introduced word. These include a definition, a demonstration using gestures, pictures or a diagram 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. To consolidate this technique, a combination of L1 translation with word cards (Nation, 2001) equips learners with a very effective strategy for speeding up vocabulary growth. However, word cards technique is not used at all which may raise criticism of learning through word-pairs translation. 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 an attempt to make accessible for lower proficiency learners (see3.2.6) within a controlled vocabulary. Most learners of English strongly favour bilingual dictionaries in reference to surveys of dictionary preference (Laufer and Kimmel1997; 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...). However, though it is very beneficial to maximise the foreign language use in classroom management, it is too foolish to arbitrarily exclude this proved and efficient 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 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.

4.3.1. Teachers' profile

In broader sense, knowledge of the linguistic, functional and cultural dimensions is the prime requisite for preparing a teacher in the field of language teaching. At present, the "licence"¹ in English Studies is clearly placing any holder of this degree at the open doors of the teaching profession in secondary schools. However, teachers become certified to teach English after having passed a regional written exam consisting of related questions to the role of teachers in classroom practices. If the result of the exam is positive, it will be followed by an oral testing (interview) that may attest the mental/cognitive readiness of the candidate. Then, the approved candidate needs to be confirmed as a 'qualified' teacher by means of the CAPES² examination. At this level, teachers can embrace the teaching career and climb up the promotion scale, acquiring more experience and savoir-faire.

In our lycee where texts (simplified/original) assessments are to be carried out, there are five (05) qualified teachers with an experience that varies from seven (07) to seventeen (17) years: two male and three female teachers. For the assessment, two teachers are concerned within their own third year classes.

4.3.1.1. Teacher A

She is a full-time teacher of English. She graduated from the University of Oran in 1989. She is 38 years old with a teaching experience of 17 years in the field. She behaves authoritatively in her classes. She is rather structuralist, i.e. she gives more

¹ – The Algerian licence is roughly equivalent to the English and American 'Bachelor of Arts', (BA).

² – CAPES examination (Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle de l'Enseignement Secondaire, which is roughly equivalent to the British Certificate in Education)

importance to grammar and to vocabulary. She insists on the explanation of new items including, most of the time, direct translation into Arabic/ French, believing that the comprehension of the vocabulary is the backbone of any subsequent activity. She is too much involved whenever a new thematic lexicon is introduced. She brings ready-made examples impelling pupils to give similar ones to verify their involvement first, and their understanding of the given explanations. In reality, she loves making things clear, even though, she sometimes exaggerates using the translation technique to make, according to her, a good understanding of the newly introduced vocabulary. In fact, she intends to save time and effort for the sake of respecting the time allotted and to motivate learners rely on their L1 linguistic background.

According to her, the teaching of vocabulary is not restricted to the reading skill. It is, whenever needed, dealt with at least for the enrichment of pupils' lexical stock that can be used in reading a text, writing a paragraph or conveying an oral message. For her, a pupil at the third-year level should be equipped with consistent vocabulary knowledge and a sound mastery in the grammatical structures. To back up her views, she cites Wilkins (1972: III) who posits that **"without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"**. The knowledge of vocabulary is thus, a sine qua non condition for conveying messages and using the foreign language.

In the same line of thought, she adds that "the teaching of vocabulary is very important in foreign language because it helps the learner understand the meaning conveyed and therefore will be able to do any activity or to communicate easily. I do not know if my teaching is the right one, but I am completely convinced that when you do it mindfully, you will achieve your aim. The level of the third-year pupils is so weak and they ignore most of the vocabulary supposed to be known or learnt at this level. It is up to the teacher to follow any way of teaching to fill in that gap and to enrich their vocabulary. It is worth noting that time is too short and they have to sit for an exam at the end of the school year. So, all efforts have to be made to enrich their vocabulary and to consolidate their grammatical background".

4.3.1.2. Teacher B

She is also a full-time teacher of English. She graduated from the University of Tlemcen in 1993. She is 33 years old. In describing this teacher, a personal profile illustrating her behaviour is outstandingly appealing. She is completely involved in her teaching profession. She likes providing new elements in her teaching, such as bringing new texts in addition to those provided by the textbook, articles found in magazines, pictures for illustration, etc. In the teaching of vocabulary, she considers the context a determining factor giving appropriate meaning to the new lexis. Accordingly, she assumes that the polesemic aspect of a given word can have many positive attributes, such as: the contextual variation of the word, the word-class function (noun, verb, adjective...) and the richness of the lexical stock through the use of synonyms, opposites and definitions.

She relies on the use of activities that involve both pair and group work to enhance peer learning. She often does so to make learners work together and to help weak and/or shy ones be involved in the learning process. Her Teaching process follows the rules of cyclical learning, i.e. the activities related to vocabulary are recycled here and there to maintain their retention and use.

She also views that *“teaching vocabulary is not restricted to the reading skill. Whenever we meet a new word, we should explain it. If it is a reading session, vocabulary should be enlightened in accordance with the context (contextual vocabulary). I insist on my pupils that when reading a text, they are not obliged to understand it word by word; because what is needed is to have a general comprehension. Then, when they meet a new word which can be an obstacle for checking the general understanding, they can rely on the guessing technique relying on context.*

To explain a new word in the class, I prefer the following steps:

- 1- Giving definitions, synonyms or opposites to enrich their lexical repertoire.*
- 2- If it is not clear, I use real object or pictures.*

3- *If the real objects are not available or fail to get the message across, I move to translation with the help of pupils as a final solution.*

I rarely use translation in teaching vocabulary, because I think that pupils should adapt themselves to learning English as a foreign language. At the beginning, they find this method difficult mainly because they are used to translation in the Middle School but, shortly afterwards, they become acquainted with the fact of making effort until they manage. I am eager to use new techniques which may help me make my pupils understand better and gain higher marks in the Baccalaureate exam which is a key to university entrance”.

4.3.2. Pupils' Profile

The third secondary year (3.A.S) is, in effect, a very decisive period for most pupils because of the final Baccalaureate exam. Considering the case of these pupils at this level, both the teaching objectives and pedagogical instructions aim at having learners develop the four skills, yet with extra emphasis on the reading and writing skills because of the nature of exercises that are part of the Baccalaureate exam in essence. At the end of the third secondary year, the pupils are expected to move from skill-getting to skill-using. However, it is overtly expressed that the insufficient time allocated to the teaching does not really help (Syllabuses for English1995:5). This, simply, reflects the incongruity between planned objectives and classroom practices (Benmoussat2003: 131).

The present study has focused on the case of third -year pupils of the secondary school of Yaghmorassen, Tlemcen. Two third- year level classes are presented as a sample among the eight (08) classes representing different Literary, Scientific and Technological streams. The two concerned classes belong to two different streams: One is a third year Letters & Human Sciences stream; the second class is a Letters & Foreign Languages. The two 'Terminal classes' have the subject matter of English as a primary one besides Arabic and French. So, both classes are supposed to have an acceptable proficiency in languages since it reflects a personal predetermined choice and fits a given profile before the final orientation.

3rd year LSH which stands for 'Letters & Human Sciences', is composed of fifty one (51) pupils, among which there are twelve (12) repeaters.

3rd year LLE stands for 'Letters & Foreign Languages'. It consists of fifty three (53) pupils; only seven (07) are repeaters.

Most of the pupils have studied English at least for five (05) years and is supposed to display their knowledge in an acceptable way. The time allotted to English teaching is varying. 3^o LSH (henceforth, class A) has a time allotment of four hours per week. 3^o LLE (henceforth class B) is allotted a time of five hours a week.

4.3.3. The Teaching Material: COMET

COMET, an Algerian ELT textbook, has been designed on the basis of the 'functional-notional' approach. It is, in fact, designed for all 3rd year classes of different streams. The textbook contains eleven (11) units; each unit is topic-oriented. In a brief account, **the content of the book does not meet the stated objectives and it does not consider the learners' level.** (Benmoussat2003: 156)

This textbook is also a compilation of units lifted from five different textbooks previously used in former years. This is another way to say that it is a textbook re-composition rather a new textbook design. The only aim behind such an endeavour was simply to design a textbook for all the different third year streams. The method along which the language activities have been devised is rather topic and skills-oriented. At this level the learner moves away from pattern control and contextualisation to a phase of vocabulary development and discovery. This is one of the main advantages of the subject-oriented approach.

COMET has been conceived to meet the academic requirements of the Baccalaureate exam for the different streams. As far as the criteria of selection are concerned, the writing team argued that the urgent need to have one book for all the 3rd secondary-year pupils had led them to design a *fourre-tout* textbook consisting of *un peu de tout* (Benmoussat2003:156).

On the other hand, many of the informants assert that the vocabulary contained in different units does not account for the learners' level and the lexical string is not

recycled through the progression. In other words, the vocabulary used is confined to the peculiarity of the theme proposed and no polesemic orientation is presented in the run of the content of the book. This unhappy situation came about because of the neglect of the learners' level and needs by syllabus designers on one hand and most importantly, teachers do not strive to remedy in favour of meeting the stated objectives with the textbook content on the other hand. Thus, Chomsky's comment seems perspicacious. **Teachers in particular have a responsibility to make sure ideas and proposals are evaluated on their merits and not passively accepted on grounds of authority real or presumed... It is the language teacher himself who must validate or refute any specific proposal.**

(Chomsky, cited in Benmoussat 2003: 157)

To draw to a close, many teachers seem too critical about COMET. They state that the aims in this textbook are not made explicit for the teacher, let alone the pupils. The teacher's guidebook which is to provide a course structure and therefore simplify the teacher's job is non-existent. The units are neither clearly related to each other in a coherent way (lack of diachronic progression) nor helpfully presented (lack of synchronic progression).

4.4. Texts Assessment: Original Versus Simplified.

Through the following practical ground, the researcher aims at assessing a sample population of pupils. The analysis will follow some principles as criteria. These principles are conducted, carefully, altering from original text version (texts consisting mainly of Germanic origin words) to simplified text version (texts consisting of Romance origin words). The shift, linguistically speaking, may consider two principles: Systematic substitution and Context-bound substitution. Therefore, in some instances, there is a problem in substituting. A very good instance is the equivalent of 'start'. It could easily be accepted that the word 'commence' is a near synonym of the word 'start', however, it is said that the words 'commence'/'commencement' are always used in a formal context. That is why; an avoidance strategy should come at all levels of the

substitution process to avoid the problem of lexical misuse and then leading to semantic misinterpretation.

4.4.1. Systematic Substitution

In this procedure, the shift to Romance origin words is a 100% substitution, i.e. it works all the time. Examples of such are: to help- to assist, wealthy- rich, etc. This procedure is deprived from any contextual, sociolinguistic or cultural parameters. It involves words from two different origins. Whence, in semantics, there are no real synonyms derived from the same language. However, if we have two words having the same meaning, it means that they are from different languages and/or origins. Something very important, beware of the systematic substitution which may lead to the use of cognate, hence to language interference. In this sense, and following a strategy of avoidance, there is a very long list of common English-French false friends (see appendix 1).

4.4.2. Context-bound Substitution

In here, the shift does not occur systematically, but there are some important parameters that conjure up with the appropriate substitution. It calls up for determining the contexts whereby the substitution is to be placed. The contexts are linguistic, cultural and sociolinguistic. For instance in an economic field and financial sphere, it is more appropriate to say 'financial assistance' instead of 'financial aid', though the words assistance and aid may invoke the same meaning within other contexts. This is how the linguistic context regulates the substitution, respecting the field of interference. As far as the cultural context is concerned, the following terms may seem to appeal for the same meaning and that whichever you use is understood obviously. However, 'friend, mate, camarade' do not fulfil the same degree of relationship through the different uses accordingly. That is to say, 'friend' is usually used in general context; 'mate' is typically used at the level of classrooms; and 'camarade' a specific term in Russian culture. The other context is sociolinguistic. It, generally, involves pet names (proper names) like 'Elisabeth' becomes 'Lisa', 'father' becomes 'dad', 'mother' becomes 'mum'. The possibility of substitution depends principally on kinship.

However, sometimes though a word does not faithfully mean the other replaced, the fact of linking approximately the meaning does not affect the general sense but rather helps in providing a near explanation or equivalent in a given context accordingly. In brief, the word 'policeman' does not faithfully mean 'constable' which is defined as "a policeman of the lowest rank". The substitution of the Germanic origin word 'constable' by the Romance origin word 'policeman' though not being a real synonym, it may ease the burden to any of our readers (learners) in comprehending the text through the presence of such a word as a help.

4.4.3. Original Text Version

The two proposed texts are taken from the official Baccalaureate exam of 2005. As already mentioned, the reading texts abide the thematic approach carefully followed through the syllabus of third year classes. The first text is an original extract carefully selected from the theme of '*Great Challenges to Human Kind*' which includes the present topic of 'population growth' and other topics like: 'pollution', 'natural disasters', etc. The second text is an original extract from an autobiography by MK Gandhi. It deals with a topic included in the theme of '*Racial problems*'. Both are loaded with Germanic-origin words. The activities concerning the comprehension of the two texts are the authentic ones included in the official Baccalaureate exam to keep the authenticity and originality of the testing (assessment). However, all the possibly substitutable words contained in the two original texts are written in italic as a help for suitable reference.

4.3.3.1. Text A

Human Population Growth

Population *growth* is not *merely due to* an *increasing* in births but to the excess of births *over* deaths. *Improvements* in public health and medicine around the world encourage population *growth* by *enabling* people to live longer.

Many economists say that economic development is the *key* to *slowing* population *growth*. In developing nations, where many people *farm* for a living, there is

an economic advantage to having several children. When *societies* become economically and technologically advanced, however, modern agricultural techniques *enable* the production of the same *amount* of food using the *labour* of *fewer* people. In such *societies*, large families are necessary. As a result, family size *drops*. This so-called demographic has helped reduce the *growth* of populations in *wealthier*, industrialised nations.

Unfortunately, a rapidly *expanding* population can by itself prevent a developing nation from *improving* its economy. *A nation's people* can become poorer when its population growth is higher than its economic *growth*.

5. Read the text carefully and do the activities.

Activity 1:

Are these statements true or false? On your answer sheet write T or F next to sentence letter.

The population increases because the birth rate is lower than the death rate.

People live longer thanks to progress made by public health and medicine.

Many economists believe that economic development will increase population growth.

Activity 2:

Find in the text words or phrases that are closest in meaning to the following:

a) caused by (§1) = b) motivate (§1) = c) decreases (§2) = d) quickly (§3) =

Activity 3:

Find in the text words or phrases opposite in meaning to the following:

a) decline (§1) ≠ b) drawback (§2) ≠ c) poorer (§2) ≠ d) lower (§3) ≠

4.4.3.2. Text B

Read the text carefully then do the activities.

The train *reached* Maritzburg, the capital of Natal, at about 9:00 p.m. Bedding used to be *provided* at this station. A railway servant *came* and *asked* me if I wanted one. "No," said I, "I have one with me." He *went away*. But a passenger *came* next and looked me up and down. He saw that I was a 'coloured man'. This *disturbed* him. Out he went and *came in* again with two officials. They all kept *quiet* when another official came to me and said, "Come along, you, *must* go to the van compartment."

"But I have a first class ticket," I said.

"That *does not matter*," rejoined the other. "I tell you you *must* go to the van compartment."

"I tell you, I was permitted to *travel* in this compartment at Durban, and I insist on going on it."

"No, you won't," said the official. "You *must leave* this compartment, or else I shall have to call a *constable* to push you out."

"Yes, you may. I refuse to go out voluntarily.

The *constable* came. He took me by the hand and pushed me out. My *luggage* was also taken away. I refused to go to the other compartment and the train *steamed away*. I went and sat in the waiting room, keeping my handbag with me, and leaving the other *luggage* where it was. The railway authorities had taken charge of it.

I *began to think of* my duty. Should I *fight* for my right or *go back* to India, or should I *go on* Pretoria without *mind*ing the insults and return to India after finishing the case? It would be *cowardice* to *run back* to India without *fulfilling* my obligation. The *hardship* to which I was *subjected* was superficial. Only the symptom of the *deep disease* of colour prejudice. I should *try*, if possible, to *root out* the *disease* and suffer *hardships* in the process.

So I decided to take the next *available* train to Pretoria.

MK GANDHI 'An Autobiography, or the Story of my Experiment with Truth'

Activity 1:

Answer the following questions according to the text.

- a) Why did the passenger refuse to share the first class compartment with Gandhi?
- b) Did Gandhi go back to India or to South Africa after the incident?
- c) Why was Gandhi travelling to Pretoria?

Activity 2:

Match the words and their synonyms.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------|
| a) reached | 1) obligation |
| b) Was permitted | 2) struggle |
| c) duty | 3) arrived at |
| d) fight | 4) allowed |

Activity 3:

Find in the text words or expressions that are opposite to the following.

- i. Unwillingly (§3) ≠
- ii. End up (§4) ≠
- iii. Manly (§4) ≠

4.4.4. Simplified Text Version

The two texts provided below are the simplified version of the two original ones provides above. They are, markedly, supported by a substitution from Germanic origin words to Romance origin words of any content words when possible. Without changing the form, or the structure of the text, the researcher aims at keeping the authenticity of the two texts. The morphological aspect and the common spelling of the substituted words are the main traits of the Romance version. However, the activities following the comprehension of the text are themselves adapted with the new content words included in the text accordingly. The procedure followed in this substitution is clearly shown through the italicisation of the words concerned with the shift.

4.4.4.1. Text A

Population Development

Population *development* is not *simply caused* by an *expansion* in the number of births, but by the *exceeding number* of births *vis-à-vis* deaths. *Ameliorations* in public health and medicine around the world encourage population development by *permitting* people to live longer.

Many economists say that economic development is the *solution* to *reducing* population *explosion*. In developing countries (*like Algeria*), where many people are *farmers*, there is an economic advantage to having several children. When nations become economically and technologically advanced, the modern agricultural techniques *make possible* the production of the same *quantity* of food *utilising* a small number of labour hand. In such nations, large families are *not essential*. As a result, family size diminishes. This so-called demographic transition has *aided diminish* the *explosion* of population in *richer* and industrialised nations.

Unfortunately, a rapidly developing population can by itself prevent a developing nation from economic development. The people of a nation can become poorer when its population development is larger than its economic development.

Activity 1:

Read the text and say if the following statements are true or false.

- a) Population development is only caused by an expansion in births.
- b) The number of births equals the number of deaths.
- c) Progress in health is an obstacle to population development.
- d) The solution to diminishing population explosion is economic progress.

Activity 2:

Find in the text words, phrases or expressions that are closest in meaning to:

Authorising (1) = created (2) = progress (3) =

Activity 3:

Find in the text words, phrases or expressions that are opposite to the following:

Traditional (§1) ≠

poorer (§2) ≠

impossible (§3) ≠

4.4.4.2. Text B

The train *arrived* at Maritzburg, the capital of Natal, at about 9.00 p.m. Bedding used to be *offered* at this station. A railway servant *arrived* and *demand*ed me if I wanted one. "No", said I, "I have with me". He *disappeared*. But a passenger *arrived* next and looked me up and down. He saw that I was a coloured man. This *annoyed* him. He went out and *arrived* another time with two officials. They all kept *silent* when another official *arrived towards* me and said "Come on you are *obliged to* go to the van compartment."

"But I have a first class ticket," I said.

"*It's not important*," rejoined the other. "I tell you, you are *obliged to* go the van compartment."

"I tell you, I was permitted *to voyage* in this compartment at Durban, and I insist on going on it.

"No, you will not," said the official. "You are *obliged to quit* this compartment, if not I will *be obliged to* call a *policeman* to push you out."

"Yes, you may. I refuse to go out voluntarily."

The policeman *arrived*. He took me by the hand and pushed me out. My *baggage* was also taken away. I refused to go to the other compartment and the train *departed*. I went and sat in the waiting room, keeping my handbag with me and leaving the other *baggage* where it was. The railway authorities had taken charge of it.

I *commenced to consider* of my duty. Should I *combat* for my right or to *return* to India, or should I continue to Pretoria without *considering* the insults and return to India after finishing the case? It would be *unmanly* to *return* to India without achieving my obligation. *The difficulty* I faced was artificial. Only the symptom of the *profound*

malady of colour prejudice. I should try, if possible, to trace the *malady* and suffer *difficulties* in the process.

So I decided to take the next available train to Pretoria.

* Read the text carefully and answer the following questions:

Activity 1:

Find in the text words, phrases that are closest in meaning to:

Attributed (§1) = annoyed (§1) = authorised (§2) =

Activity 2:

Find in the text words, phrases or expressions that are opposite to:

Don't accept (§1) ≠ stop (§4) ≠ superficial (§4) ≠

Activity 3:

Find in the text words or expressions whose definitions follow:

- | | |
|---|--------------|
| a- A means of transport using rails: | 1) constable |
| b- A person who voyages by train, bus or plane: | 2) symptom |
| c- A policeman of low status or position: | 3) train |
| d- The superficial sign of a malady: | 4) passenger |

4.5. Analysis of the Assessment

The way we have proceeded in evaluating the pupils' performance is a commonly administered test. The purpose of such endeavour is to keep the spirit of the exam so as the pupils feel directly concerned with the testing as being a congruent part of their official yearly evaluation. So, all the presented texts are completely free from any italic reference. However, the italic reference was included within the presentation of the texts to provide further information about the way the two texts have been worked out.

The informants presented a population of one hundred third-year pupils constituting the global number of two classes. The procedure followed is systematically conducted through the scoring of the four texts, i.e. two original texts and two simplified ones. With class A, text '1' of the original version and text '2' of the simplified version are given. The purpose is to test pupils' comprehension through different versions and evaluate their performance simultaneously to check which of the two versions is most appropriate in helping our pupils understand better. To emphasise on the validity of the first scores conducted with class A and bring the link with the other texts' versions, the same testing is performed with another class, hence, class B. So with class B, text '2' of the original version and text '1' of the simplified version are provided for evaluating pupils' performance.

The results show clearly that with simplified versions, the scores are higher and the pupils' reactions are positive towards the alternate choice between the two texts. Indeed, when asked, the pupils showed preference to the simplified text version in both classes arguing that their comprehension to the reading text was really eased by the presence of many words that are familiar to them. More than that, they made tight relation of what they already know through the French language with what was included in the simplified texts as lexical items representing mainly content words.

The table below represents a recapitulative sum of the scores attained in percentages for each version with the text number.

	Class A	Scores %	Class B	Scores %
T E X T S	<u>Text 1</u> original version	22	<u>Text 2</u> original version	11
	<u>Text 2</u> simplified version	89	<u>Text 1</u> simplified version	78

Table.4.1. Recapitulative Assessment's Results.

4.6. Conclusion

One of the purposes of the study is to suggest an interesting, existing and much worthy technique in teaching vocabulary. Being at the reach of any teacher seeking a higher proficiency among his EFL learners, the suggested procedure or technique has faithfully succeeded in giving a pulse not only in motivating the pupils but in bettering the scores vis-à-vis the ones obtained in the assessment of the original text versions. It has been completely a satisfying attempt whether at the level of the readability of the text, the assimilation of the majority of content words or the enjoyment felt among readers.

The research topic has not scrutinised the whole sub-skills of the reading skill, but concentrated, purposefully, on the ease of comprehending the text at the level of vocabulary. Hence, the activities following the simplified texts were, objectively, evaluating the pupils' performance at the level of lexical comprehension.

The obtained results are in favour of using the suggested technique; however, there are still some pupils whose low proficiency in French impedes clearly their betterment. Some others have completely missed to answer correctly mainly because of miscomprehension of words that look familiar. And, there are still others who are proficient neither in English nor in French. The remaining majority proved to be quite interested in such a way of assessment leading them, principally, to have good grades and, certainly, invoke their motivation and interest.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

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In the light of what has been presented through the present research work, the researcher has attempted, hopefully, to join the theoretical proposals with the classroom practices: the core of the issue being the teaching of vocabulary through the use of simplified texts. The suggested technique, however, has been scrutinised on many bases: linguistic, sociolinguistic, pedagogical and pragmatic. Linguistically speaking, whatever we may say about the importance of English as a world language, by virtue of necessity, the role of French in Algeria still constitutes an important functional language being part and parcel of daily interactions among Algerians. This is another way of saying that our EFL learners are already equipped with somehow consistent linguistic abilities of the French language that they acquired and/or learnt during their bringing up and through their schooling. Departing from the idea that French and English share common linguistic features, it has been purposefully meant to conduct a simplification or manipulation of some original texts at the level of vocabulary to facilitate comprehension and provide ease and joy to our EFL learners when dealing with the reading skill in general and vocabulary learning in particular. Admittedly, authentic texts are loaded with complex grammatical structures and difficult vocabulary (mainly Germanic-origin words). This simplification process operates at the level lexis, i.e. substituting, whenever possible, unfamiliar words (Germanic-origin words) by a *déjà-vu* vocabulary (Romance-origin words) that our EFL learners are supposed to recognise morphologically and semantically. This technique is seen as a means to an end and that authenticity (the use of authentic texts) can be more beneficial and fruitful to advanced levels. Another aspect of the work has shed light on the wide range of literary review related to the teaching of vocabulary. Some of the techniques (the use of the dictionary, illustrative examples by means of pictures and realia, the moderate use of the mother tongue and the like) have been attested as largely adopted by the interviewed teachers. These depend on the learners, the context of learning, the topic and mainly on time constraints. A discussion of the learners' preferences and teachers' choices of a given strategy has been given a fair share of attention. This has some pedagogical implication

about the selection and gradation of teaching material where learners learn vocabulary through a simplified construct of texts aiming, mainly, at enriching and consolidating their linguistic background in English. The suggested technique, which one would call "the Romance-oriented Approach in teaching vocabulary", may seem to be the one that would fit better in reading comprehension and other related activities as far as the Algerian EFL context is concerned.

This would lead us to say that one of our implicit claims is a plea for a reconsideration of the teaching of French in Primary and Middle Schools. By cause and effect relationship, this, hopefully, would promote EFL in general and improve the ELT situation in Algeria in particular.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix I: False Friends/ Faux- Amis

Appendix II: Germanic origin words Vs Romance origin words

Appendix III:Text Sample

Appendix IV: Central Questions around the Topic for Further Research

APPENDICES

Appendix: I

False Friends/ Faux- Amis

To abuse	insulter	Abuser	to take advantage
to accommodate	loger	acomoder	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	chanceux	fortune	wealthy, well-off
gentle	aimable, doux	gentil	nice, kind
grand	grandiose	grand	tall, big
grapes	raisin	grappe	bunch(of grapes)
habit	habitude	habit	dress, clothes
hazard	danger	hazard	chance
inconvenient	inopportun	inconvenant	improper
indulgence	laisser aller	indulgence	leniency
invaluable	inestimable	non valable	invalid, not valid
lecture	conférence	lecture	reading
location	emplacement	location	renting, lease(bail)
mechanic	mécanicien	mécanique	engineering
medicine	médicament	médecin	doctor
Mercy	miséricorde	merci	thanks
notice	avis, préavis	notice	note, instructions
partition	séparation	partition	(musical)score
petrol	essence	pétrole	oil, petroleum
photograph	photographie	photographe	photographer
phrase	locution	phrase	sentence
positive	catégorique	positif	definite, positive
to prevent	empêcher	prévenir	to warn
proper	adéquat	proper	clean, decent
to recover	se rétablir	recouvrir	to cover
refuse	déchets	refus	refusal
to regard	considérer	regarder	to look at
relieve	soulager	reliever	to raise
to resume	recommencer	résumer	to sum up
route	itinéraire	route	road
rude	grossier	rude	rough, hard
sensible	raisonnable		

socket	douille	sensible	sensitive
store	grand magasin	socquette	sock
suit	costume	store	blind, shade
to supply	fournir	suite	sequel, rest
to 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, turn
valid	valable	vacation	session, sitting
wagon	chariot	valide	fit, well
		wagon	carriage, car

Appendix II: Germanic origin words Vs Romance origin words

i) - Verbs

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		

Appendix III: Text Sample

Text sample that has ease of access to the shift from Germanic origin words to Romance origin words.

Original Text Version

Inventions and Discoveries

Human inventiveness faces two main challenges. One is to promote the economic development of poor countries. The other challenge is to deal with the harmful consequences of existing inventions. The quality of life in the future rests largely with how well human beings meet these challenges.

Today, only a few nations have enough industry to provide their citizens with a high standard of living. The majority of the world's people have a low standard of living. They want the goods that inventions and industrialization have made available to rich countries. Many people believe the industrialized nations must help raise the living standards in the developing countries. These people feel that if the rich countries fail to do so, the gulf will widen between the living standards of industrialized lands and those of developing lands. The result will be constantly growing tensions between the rich and the poor nations.

Yet, industrialized countries can not simply export inventions, engineers, and technicians to developing areas. Experience has proved that Western technology can not succeed in cultures that lack certain economic, political, and social conditions. For example, complicated inventions will not be effective in a country that has primitive agricultural economy and a low level of education.

Many authorities believe that the inventive use of nuclear energy can solve some of the problems of developing countries. For example, it can supply power in countries that lack enough fuel or water power. In desert areas near the ocean, nuclear energy can be used to remove the salt from sea water. The resulting fresh water can then be used for irrigation.

In the past, human beings allowed their inventiveness to operate uncontrolled. As a result, some of our most urgent problems have been created by past inventions. A good example is the automobile. It has become one of the most important means of transportation. But exhaust fumes from automobiles also cause much of our air pollution. To solve problems caused by past inventions, some people believe we should outlaw or restrict the use of such inventions. For example, they would place restrictions on when and where a person can drive a car. But other people believe the answer to such problems lies in creating new inventions that would eliminate the dangerous effects of present ones. For example, they feel that instead of restricting the use of automobiles, we should invent engines and fuels that reduce pollution from automobile exhausts.

Human beings will continue to invent in order to meet their needs and to satisfy their curiosity and urge to create. But they must try to foresee the possible harmful effects of their inventions so that future generations will not be endangered. (COMET p.22)

Simplified Text Version

Human inventiveness faces two *principal defiances*. One is to *ameliorate* the economic development of poor nations. The other *defiance concerns* the *negative* consequences of existing inventions. The quality of life in the future rests largely with how well human beings *arrange* these *defiances*.

Today, only a *small number of* nations have *sufficient* industry to provide their citizens with a high standard of living. The majority of the people of the world have a low standard of living. They want *the merchandise* that inventions and industrialization have made *existing* to rich countries. *A large number of* countries *assume* that the industrialised nations *are obliged to aid ameliorate* the living standards in the developing countries. These people *have the sentiment* that if rich countries do not succeed to do so, the gulf will widen between the living standards of industrialized nations and those of developing nations. The result will be constantly growing tensions between the rich and the poor nations.

In addition, industrialized countries can not simply export inventions, engineers and technicians to developing places. Experience has proved that Western technology can not succeed in cultures that *do not possess* certain economic, political and social conditions. For example, complicated inventions will not be effective in a country that has a primitive agricultural economy and a low level of education. Many authorities believe that the inventive use of nuclear energy can *give solution* to some of the problems of developing countries. For example, it can supply power in countries that *do not possess sufficient* fuel or water power. In desert *places*, near the ocean, nuclear energy can be used to remove the salt from sea water. The resulting fresh water can then be used for irrigation. In the past, human beings *permitted* their inventiveness to operate uncontrolled. As a result, some of our most urgent problems have been created by past inventions. A good example is the automobile. It has become one of our most important means of transportation. But exhaust fumes from automobiles also cause much of our air pollution. *To find solutions* to the problems created by past inventions, some people *consider* we should *declare illegal* or *limit* the use of such inventions. For example, they would place *limitations* on where and when a person could drive a car. But other people *consider* the *solution* to such problems *resides* in creating new inventions that would eliminate the dangerous effect of present ones. For example, they *have the sentiment* that *in the place* of *limiting* the use of automobiles, we would invent engines and fuels that reduce the pollution from automobile exhaust. Human beings will continue to invent in order to meet their needs and to satisfy their curiosity and urge to create. But they are obliged to try to *predict* the possible *dangerous* effects on their inventions so that future generations will not be endangered. (Adapted from COMET p. 21)

Appendix IV: Central Questions around the Topic for Further Research.

- Can teachers devote a whole session teaching only vocabulary?
- Can we manage teaching vocabulary devoid from context?
- Aren't we altering the authenticity of a text when using a simplified version?
- Is the teaching of vocabulary typically related to the reading skill?
- "....., without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Is vocabulary the most prominent knowledge that EFL learners must acquire first?
- Is simplification of a text a means to an end, or both a means and an end?
- Should we encourage gradual reading through simplification process?
- Is it quite a sufficient strategy/technique for EFL learners to grasp the meaning of a text?
- Is there a correspondence between the syllabi of French and the syllabi of English in terms of lexicon?
- Does the shift from Germanic origin words to Romance origin word favour especially learners who are good at French?
- Does this kind of substitution enhance language interference?
- What to do in case there is no equivalent of certain Germanic words into the Romance origin?
- Can we call this process of simplification "The Romance-Oriented Approach IN Teaching Vocabulary?"